The impact of in-service teacher training: a case study of teachers' classroom practice and perception change

by

Ju Youn Sim

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ABSTRACT

The central focus of this study concerns the impact in Korea of an in-service teacher training (INSET) course on teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change. A qualitative case study involving observation and interviews was carried out during a period of six months before and after an INSET course. The three-week INSET course itself was observed. This was followed by the observation of five consecutive English lessons given by the two teachers. The teachers also took part in four semi-structured interviews. While the observations shed light on how the teachers implemented what they had learnt from the INSET into their teaching practice, the interviews explored a range of issues. These included their general expectations and outcomes of the INSET course, their perception changes and difficulties in putting new ideas into practice. Interviews also explored their perceptions of longer-term outcomes.

The main finding in this study indicated that the two teachers faced some difficulties and challenges in implementing new ideas or knowledge obtained from the INSET course into their classroom practice, and did not do so to the same extent. The contextual differences between the INSET and real practice, the content of the INSET, and lack of school support were identified as constraining factors that limit implementation. The analysis also showed that the teachers’ confidence and motivation resulting from the INSET led to their better career prospects and affected their professional identity. Some important implications from the study for language teacher training are discussed to highlight how the potential impact of INSET could be optimised: (i) INSET should provide ongoing support to promote developmental continuity after the course; (ii) INSET should consider teaching contexts sensitively, especially large classes and limited materials; and (iii) trainees continue their professional development under their own initiative even after the INSET course.
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

INSET: In-service Teacher Training
TTI: Teacher Training International
CLT: Communicative Language Teaching
MOE: Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development
TETE: Teaching English Through English
*IGSE*: *International Graduate School of English*
*NNS*: *Non-native speaker*
SOME: Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education
CPD: Continuing Professional Development
ITT: Initial teacher training
ITE: Initial Teacher Education
CALL: Computer-assisted Language Learning
TBLT: Task-based Language Teaching
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1. The focus of the study

This study focuses on the impact of an in-service teacher training (henceforth INSET) course on the participating teachers’ classroom practice and changes in their perception change, not only considering short-term impact after completing the course but also more longer-term outcomes.

My own interest in this study came from (i) my professional experience as a trainer for primary English teachers at TTI in Korea (Teacher Training International); and (ii) my reading of the literature and growing interest in training and development.

From my perspective as a trainer, I have long been interested in the question of how teachers participating in INSET transfer the new ideas they have gained into their actual classrooms and wondered whether the experiences and insights obtained from INSET would contribute to their current teaching practice and future professional development.

Considering the literature as a whole, there are not only successes, but also failures in relation to INSET initiatives. The literature has pointed out a number of problems and issues concerning INSET (Lamb, 1995; Cullen, 1994; Hayes, 1995, 2000; Veenman et al, 1994; Yan, 2008:587). For example, writers such as Veenman et al (1994:304) comment that “…our knowledge of design features and implementation conditions in schools that make in-service education effective is still limited” and they go on to say that
“reviews of the literature on training indicated that little empirical attention has been devoted to the issue of training transfer” (ibid, 1994:304). Indeed, the literature on classroom-level implementation of new teaching methods introduced to teachers through INSET courses is scarce, particularly in Korea. Some Korean authors (e.g. Kim, 2002; Park, 2004) say that generalisation of the knowledge teachers acquire from INSET courses to the real-world context in Korea has been limited. Kim further explains that even though teachers obtain new teaching methodology and knowledge in an INSET course they easily return to their old routines.

1.2. Rationale and research questions

I have demonstrated in the previous section that my motivation for the study came from personal interest in how INSET ideas would be implemented into participant teachers’ classroom practice as well as through reading the literature. The central research question is thus: ‘What are the impacts of INSET courses on primary English language teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change?’ Within this, three sub-questions have been formed according to the research stages; these naturally take a chronological form (see section 4.1). Before looking at the three sub-questions, I would like to mention some of the questions that occurred to me which contributed to the framing of the sub-questions in this study: (i) Do teachers who have participated in INSET put into practice what they learnt from the course, or have they misapplied the pedagogical skills supposedly gained on the course? (ii) What are the difficulties in implementing what they have learnt from INSET into their educational practice? (iii) If changes occur in teachers’ perceptions about English teaching through the INSET, is it likely that their teaching practice will also change concurrently? How these questions link to the main research question and the three sub-research questions is
demonstrated in visual form in table 1.1.

Table 1.1. Overall research question and three sub-research questions

<table>
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<th>Central research question</th>
<th>• What is the impact of an INSET courses on participating primary English language teachers’ classroom practice and were there any changes in their perception?</th>
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<td>Sub-question 1 (Before and after INSET)</td>
<td>• What were the participants’ reasons for taking the course and what impact did they anticipate prior to the INSET; what impact of the course did they perceive after the INSET?</td>
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| Sub-question 2 (After returning to their schools) | • How do teachers implement new knowledge obtained from the INSET course into their classroom practice?  
• Do teachers experience perception change about teaching English as a result of the course?  
• What are the positive/constraining factors in implementing what they have learnt from INSET in their educational practice?  
• If there are hindering factors, what are the possible reasons behind teachers’ implementation difficulties? |
| Sub-question 3 (Six months after completion of the INSET) | • Were longer-term outcomes sustained in their classroom practice six months after completion of the course? |
1.3. Research context

This section addresses the important contextual background to the study by introducing the environment of English education and the current status of teacher training in South Korea. I will summarise specific characteristics of both current Korean education in the field of English language teaching and the general teacher-training context in Korea. The context of the particular INSET course that I observed in which participants were taking part will be explained in the following chapter (see chapter 2).

The 7th National English curriculum in Korea directs considerable attention to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which is generally regarded as the most effective means for gaining oral fluency in the target language (Savignon, 2002), and is based on the idea that language is used for communication and its goal is to develop learners’ communicative competence.

Since 1994, each of the national English textbooks in primary schools contains a variety of learning activities and tasks aimed at achieving communicative competence, with an emphasis on developing “oral and aural skills in English” (Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 1998, henceforth MOE). Consequently, there is more pressure on teachers than in the past to be fluent in English so that they can use it naturally and spontaneously in the classroom.

It must be pointed out, however, that very little attention has been paid to how the Korean government trains teachers to enable them to teach English in a communicative way. Most Korean primary English teachers were *not originally trained* to teach English (MOE, 1998; Li, 1998; Butler, 2004). Kim (2002) has shown in her study that the
difficulties teachers have faced with the new policy, which necessitates the teaching of English through English, are mainly due to a lack of their oral proficiency in English and knowing how to cope with mixed-ability classes.

Many, such as Breen et al. (1989), Kennedy (1993), Wolter (2000), and Lamb (1995), have discovered that there is a significant gap between what teachers think and do together in teacher training courses, and what an individual teacher thinks and does in the classroom. Some Korean authors have also suggested that there is a disparity between the INSET course and real practice in the Korean English educational context (Im, Yeon, Chang, and An, 2003). Thus many teachers have limited success in implementing what they have learnt from INSET in the ways that the course designers or trainers intended. Furthermore, the long-term outcomes of INSET on practice have received scant attention in the research literature with some notable exceptions (e.g. Lamb, 1995; Yan, 2007).

This research, therefore, will focus particularly on exploring how teachers put into practice what they have learnt from the INSET course, the impact of INSET on their teaching practice, and their perception change immediately after the course, as well as their longer-term perspective. In addition, the practical obstacles and constraints to implementing the trainees’ obtained knowledge from INSET, and factors that facilitate longer-term sustainability of INSET initiatives as viewed from the perspectives of course participants will be also identified. In order to investigate the impact of the INSET course, in terms of its successful implementation and longer-term outcomes, I will analyse contributing factors and obstructive factors in the dissemination of new skills and the sustainability of the INSET course.
1.4. Background to English education in South Korea

I have outlined the research context above. The following section gives a more detailed account of current English education in Korea.

In the 21st century we have seen the growth of globalisation and the concomitant growth in the importance of English as a language of international communication, a factor which has undoubtedly affected the role and status of English in Korea. The importance of English as the international language of commerce, trade, science, technology, media, and pop music, makes it very significant for Korea, to connect it with the whole world. Therefore, both the public and the private sectors in Korea are putting more emphasis on English education at all levels. Since 1992, the Ministry of Education in Korea has adopted communicative language teaching with a communicative syllabus to promote communicative ability in all middle and high schools. In addition, since 1997, with the 7th National Curriculum for English education in South Korea, communicative competence has been promoted in primary English education. However, until recently, English language education in Korea was based on an approach which focused on grammar and vocabulary, particularly at secondary school level. Also, young Korean pupils have been spending enormous amounts of time and money on English language learning in the private sector. Despite all this money and energy, English language education in Korea has, so far, had limited success. Along with teacher-centred learning, a lack of qualified teachers in both the public and private sectors has been identified as the main reason for the limited success of English language teaching. Hayes (1995:252) states that a teacher-centred class would limit successful language teaching as follows; “classroom teaching methods are often unimaginative and heavily teacher-centred, further depressing learner interest”.
He goes on to say that “in order to strengthen the qualifications of teachers and
develop a new teaching methodology, a high priority must be given to in-service
teacher training, so that teachers are able to acquire a deeper professional knowledge
and expand their repertoire of teaching methodologies”. In addition, the Korean
government has also stressed the importance of teacher training in order to enhance
the quality of English language teachers’ teaching practice. This will be dealt with in the
following section in more detail.

1.5. English language teacher training in Korea today

Korea, in common with many Far Eastern countries, has developed a programme of
initial teacher education. Those wishing to teach in primary education pursue their
initial training programme at a Teachers’ College. The course usually lasts for 4 years
and in that time they will have one six-month period of supervised teaching practice.
Recognition that such initial training programmes are not sufficient to develop
proficient teachers and that teachers need to continue their professional development
throughout their careers has led the government to offer large-scale government-
funded INSET programmes. These are mainly for primary school teachers,
predominantly focusing on English language teaching since 1996 (Park, 2004). The main
aim of this large-scale teacher training project for English teachers is to develop a
strong local cadre of Korean teachers of English who are competent and proficient in
English. This can avoid an over reliance on using native speaker teachers and gives
recognition to the fact that proficient Korean English teachers possess qualities not
always demonstrated by native-speaker teachers as exemplified in the following
statement:
Teachers who share the same linguistic and cultural experiences with their pupils can provide a good model for them, anticipating problems and sharing strategies they have used in their own language learning (Crandall, 2000:43).

Moreover, the introduction of the policy of ‘teaching English through English’ (henceforth TETE) which recommends that non-native primary teachers use English as a medium of instruction in the classroom (Kang, 2008) further underlines the importance of developing primary teachers’ linguistic and methodological proficiency. This policy (TETE) developed from the realisation that communicative approaches alone do not seem to guarantee an automatic development of language proficiency since English use is limited to the classroom. As a result, pupils have little access to authentic language input and limited opportunities to interact with native speakers of English. Considering this need for authentic language input, the Ministry of Education thus proposed the new policy TETE and considered it beneficial in an EFL learning context like Korea (Kim, 2002). The following extract from the Korean Times shows the current government’s strong commitment to the policy of TETE.

President Lee has vowed to produce 3,000 English teachers who can conduct classes in English every year. [...] In November 2006, Education Minister Kim Shin-il also announced a plan to make it mandatory for all English teachers to conduct classes in English by 2015 after intensive training. (www.koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/special/2008/09/181_21005.html)

However, given that the majority of primary school teachers in Korea might not be
adequately prepared for the new TETE policy; improving their English proficiency and teaching skills has become a major concern. The following reports illustrate the concerns over the language proficiency of Korean English teachers:

Out of 9,768 English teachers in Seoul at levels ranging from elementary to high schools, only 7.9% had a command of English sufficient to teach using English only. (Yang, 2002)

According to the Education Ministry, as of 2005 more than half of English teachers were unable to conduct classes in English among 32,482 teachers at elementary and secondary schools. (http://www.koreatimes.co.kr/www/news/special/2008/09/181_21005.html)

This is mainly because English has been taught primarily by regular homeroom teachers\(^1\) in primary schools, most of whom were not originally trained to teach English, even in their first degree. In more detail, Park (1998) reported that about 80% of primary school teachers were homeroom teachers, whereas about 20% were English-subject teachers. Some, mostly younger and newer teachers, have received pre-service training, while others have not received regular training to teach English. According to many researchers (Kang, 2008; Jeon and Lee, 2006; Li, 1998; Nunan, 2003; Shim and Baik, 2003), the lack of sufficient and appropriate training programmes for primary or secondary school English teachers has caused them to encounter difficulties

\(^{1}\) There are two types of primary English teachers in Korea. One is the class teacher who teaches all subjects and has completed only the general English teacher training course, the duration if which is 120 hours over one year. The other is the so-called specialised primary English teacher (English subject teacher), who has also completed the additional intensive English teacher training course, which takes 240 hours over a year, and has gained scores of 500 or more in the TOEFL or TOEIC.
in teaching English with communicative approaches. Considering the substantial difficulties of teachers, the Korean government has invested a considerable amount of effort, money, and energy in in-service training.

The government plans to strengthen the existing training of Korean teachers of English at primary and secondary schools as part of its plan to upgrade the nation’s English education. The ministry has increased the budget for the project by almost 10 times over the last few years.


Thus, the Korean government now requires that all primary school teachers receive a minimum of 120 hours in-service teacher training and encourages them to continue their professional education via MA and certificate programmes in TEFL/TESOL, and other related areas that enable and facilitate the development of knowledge, skills, and worthwhile practices in teaching (Lee, 1997). Also, the Korean Education Ministry has made significant structural and curricular changes not only in schools but in teacher-training institutions, for example ‘CLT-based teacher training’ or ‘task-based teacher training’ was adopted in Korean English education which included new activities and teaching methods in order to implement communicative language teaching (Im, Yeon, Chang, and An, 2003). Since a lack of confidence in their own English proficiency and no real life experience in an English-speaking culture have been considered as major difficulties for primary school teachers in teaching English, the Korean government has sent hundreds of EFL teachers to undertake training courses, mainly in the U.S., U.K., and Canada, to help them keep abreast of the latest developments in the theory and practice of EFL.
However, despite all the efforts of government, schools, and teachers, the teachers’ low proficiency in English, lack of training, poor motivation of teachers and pupils coupled with external factors such as large mixed-ability classes, and grammar and reading-based examinations have hindered the teachers’ ability to implement in a real workplace context what they have learnt from an INSET course (Lee, 2002). The factors that hinder transfer new knowledge to teachers’ real classroom will be dealt with in chapter 7 in more detail.

1.6. Summary

In this chapter I have provided some background detail to the research context covering English education and English teacher training in Korea, as well as laying out my personal interest and rationale for the research based on my personal experience as a teacher trainer and the rationale for the research based on the literature which generally points to the limited success of the impact of INSET. The main research question and three sub-questions have also been outlined. This thesis consists of nine chapters and I now provide a detailed overview of them.

Chapter 2 provides the background to the study by introducing the context in which the research was conducted. It delineates the characteristics of the specific INSET course taken by the participants. It also briefly discusses the reason why this INSET course was chosen for the study.

Chapter 3 explores the literature which relates to the issues discussed at the beginning of the study (section 1.1) and establishes a theoretical framework for the study by locating it within the wide range of existing research on teacher training and
development, the impact of INSET, and its longer-term outcomes.

Chapters 4 discusses how the research questions will be investigated and gives details of the methodology adopted and methods employed to investigate the impact of the INSET course in terms of participant teachers’ classroom practice and perception change after the course.

Chapter 5 looks at the content of the INSET, highlighting issues and themes which will inform subsequent analysis of the teacher data.

Chapters 6, 7, and 8 illustrate the findings of the study. Chapter 6 consists of two sections: (i) general impact or outcomes of the course as a preliminary study; and (ii) analysis of two teachers’ in-depth cases, using observation extracts from their real classroom practice and extensive interview quotations regarding their teaching practice in order to answer, in particular, sub-question 2.

Chapter 7 lays out the factors that limit the implementation of new ideas into the teachers’ practice.

Chapter 8 presents the teachers’ perceptions of longer-term outcomes that emerged from self reported long-term changes in their thinking, knowledge, or practice based on the interview undertaken six months after their completion of the INSET course.

Chapter 9 draws some practical applications and conclusions by offering recommendations for language teacher education and for further research.
CHAPTER 2

CONTEXT

This chapter provides important contextual background to the study by introducing the INSET course that I observed. I first begin with a detailed description of the INSET content, and secondly provide an evaluative analysis which is linked, after the research methodology, with the analysis of the teacher data.

2.1. Background to TTI

The INSET course I observed took place at TTI (Teacher Training International) at the International Graduate School of English (IGSE). The training was undertaken by a team of three trainers from the faculty of the IGSE, two were experienced specialists and one was a novice trainer. The target audience of the training programme was English teachers from primary and secondary schools in the Seoul area. The three-week INSET course is designed and run by TTI every summer and winter during the school vacation in response to requests from the MOE. Since it was introduced, TTI has provided primary and secondary school teachers with teacher training courses to develop their linguistic skills and professional confidence and motivation. Similar courses are also offered by other universities and another validation bodies.

2.2. The aims of TTI

As the role of professional development, in the form of in-service courses, is becoming as significant in the world of TEFL as in mainstream education, the following mottos found in the homepage of TTI (http://tti.igse.ac.kr/) illustrate the main aims of TTI
course and offer an opportunity to critically compare such claims with evidence established through this study:

- TTI has made great progress in achieving its objectives of preparing, producing, and professionalising Korean teachers of English.
- TTI spares no effort in identifying strategies for effective teaching and incorporating them into a real teaching situation. We are dedicated to contributing to the enhancement of the nation’s English language education.
- TTI will help you to become a more competent, and authoritative teacher in the subject that you teach. I promise you that each and every member of IGSE-TTI will benefit you with a practical and efficient teacher training programme (taken from the welcoming address of the director of TTI: http://tti.igse.ac.kr/)

2.2.1. Overall approach of TTI

As can be seen above, the main aims of the TTI course are to facilitate teachers’ ability to improve their teaching skills as well as better their understanding of the subject they will teach. To achieve these goals, TTI supports the growth of professional teaching skills of English and the development of English proficiency by offering a range of courses with specific aims, both online and offline, from three-day to six-month intensive courses, including one-month joint programmes with the U.K., U.S., Canada, and Australia (for further information: http://tti.igse.ac.kr/).

Specifically with regard to pedagogy, TTI aims to help teachers develop in two ways: (i) the ability to utilise knowledge obtained from INSET more extensively in real practice, in everyday school situations; (ii) the ability to develop linguistic competence as a
Apart from the official policy of TTI, the TTI training course encourages trainers to always use English during the course in order to help the trainees become familiar and comfortable with English, providing the trainees with exposure to comprehensible and meaningful English through NNS trainers’ L2 use during the course. To extend this principle still further, Deborah (Trainer) suggests that the use of English by tutors during the course may also contribute to trainees’ linguistic proficiency through tutor role modelling. She said:

*We [NNS trainers] want to give participants confidence in using English through tutor role modelling; in other words, even though we [NNS trainers] are not native speakers we can try to use English when conducting the training session though it is very stressful to us. (D/TTI.INT/08AUG08/PP.5)*

In addition to the use of English, trying to create a positive rapport with the trainees so as to help them become relaxed and confident learners; using visual aids, simulation, drama, etc.; using pair and group work to enable trainees to be part of a collaborative process; and being a largely learner-centred class, with actively involved participants rather than passive receiver participants were encouraged. Veenman et al (1994) and Ibrahim (1991) also emphasise active participation of teachers in an INSET course, mentioning that “if INSET activities are to be effective it is desirable that teachers should be active participants in their own development, and not treated as mere empty vessels waiting to be filled” (cited in Hayes, 1997a:107).

TTI was chosen for two major reasons. Firstly, TTI has been affiliated to the ‘International Graduate School of English’ since 1997 and is considered to have one of
the best INSET initiatives in Korea, being appointed as an official teacher training centre by Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education (SMOE) and furthermore was selected as an organisation of excellence by SMOE in 2004 and 2006 (http://tti.igse.ac.kr/tti/, TTI official homepage). It was, therefore, envisaged that the TTI course could provide an opportunity to contribute to Korean English education not only by introducing recent trends in English education theory and teaching methods but also by providing practical training (ibid). Secondly, as I worked at TTI as a part-time teacher trainer in 2004 and 2006 it was very easy for me to make contact and negotiate access and permissions. Thus, this institution was very supportive of my research.

2.3. Outline of the TTI course

The course consisted of 90 hours of tuition spread over a three-week period from nine until four each day, and there were three class levels for primary school teachers (beginner, intermediate, and advanced) and two parallel course components were delivered at TTI: English proficiency improvement, and general English teaching methodology, called ‘teaching practicum’. Since it was only a three-week short course, descriptive components such as grammatical and phonological aspects of English were not included. The trainees, who were all primary school teachers, needed to take an English speaking test that TTI had previously set; the level of class was assigned to participants based on their results. The class I observed was a beginner class and the class size was 12. The reason why I specifically chose this class is simple. I already knew the trainers who taught this class (e.g. Deborah and Linda) from the pilot study I conducted in 2008. I found them very supportive of my research which therefore simplified the issue of access.

More hours were assigned for the communication-skill-oriented class, focusing on the
listening and speaking skills of the teachers rather than teaching methodology (termed ‘teaching practicum’) in order to enhance teacher trainees’ linguistic competence and confidence; also, to improve classroom teaching in helping to develop the overall quality of their teaching (according to the course director in an informal interview). A detailed course curriculum is shown in the table below.

Table 2.1. Three-week teacher training session at TTI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>TTI</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>21st July–8th August (3 weeks)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Monday</td>
<td>Tuesday</td>
<td>Wednesday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9–12</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12–1</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
<td>Lunch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–4</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As with most INSET programmes in Korea, there was a final evaluation of the programme based on a questionnaire surveying participants’ satisfaction and their personal opinions about the course.

Successful completion at the end of the course was measured in two major ways. Participants were expected to have attended all the sessions in the course and 20% of the final mark was allocated for this, and secondly there was an oral test to evaluate the proficiency of their spoken English. However, there was no evaluation of teaching
skill. A certificate was awarded to course participants upon completion of the training.

2.4. Summary

This chapter has provided some detail about the background of TTI, including its aims. I look more closely at the content of the TTI course with an evaluative analysis in Chapter 5 directly following the Methodology chapter. The next chapter examines a theoretical rationale for the study within a wider educational context and then proceeds to explore the existing literature which relates to the issues of the study.
In this chapter, I would like firstly to discuss relevant issues related to language teacher education. Since the literature on language teacher education and learning is vast, I focus the literature review on the impact of INSET on teaching practice and teachers’ perception change as a result of INSET courses. Moreover, I argue for the need for longer-term outcomes from INSET courses, not just more short-lived outcomes.

I broadly discuss three main issues in this chapter: (i) models of language teacher education; (ii) general principles that underpin effective INSET; and (iii) key studies on the impact of INSET in English language teacher education. In the first part I discuss the concept of language teacher education, consider its paradigm shift, and outline the importance of change and innovation in CPD. In the second part I consider general principles of INSET initiatives and problems and benefits of short INSET courses. In the third part I consider existing research findings which show the impact of CPD/INSET courses on English language teaching practice. I subsequently examine the key studies (Lamb, Tomlinson, and Veenman et al.’s) about the consequences of INSET on teaching practice.

3.1. Introduction

Much of the work on language teacher education derives from work in teacher education in general and thus this literature review will refer to developments in both areas. As Crandall (2000:34) states “Language teacher education is a microcosm of teacher education and many of the trends in current language teacher education
derive from theory and practice in general teacher education.”

Any discussion of teacher education must start with an understanding of how teaching itself is viewed; our conception of what it means ‘to be a teacher’. The change in this conception over the last century is reflected in the dramatic changes that have taken place in how we approach the education of teachers. Day and Sachs (2004) point to curriculum and assessment changes which have ‘intensified’ the work of teachers; the growth of communication technologies which have changed the role of teachers as repositories of knowledge; and the increasing level of external accountability. Whatever the context, rapid changes in most societies (socially, technologically and economically) mean that teachers are constantly exhorted to be innovators, agents, and managers of change. In many societies the relationship between teachers and their pupil is changing too; with an increasing emphasis on the development of autonomous teachers and learners. This changing nature of the teaching profession has not only affected how we approach the initial education of teachers, but also has led to a realisation that all teachers need to be engaged in continuous innovation, evaluation, and development of their practice – through what is commonly termed continuing professional development (CPD).

3.2. The initial education of teachers

However we view teaching and teachers, in most contexts we can see teacher preparation as comprising two phases: the initial or pre-service stage and an in-service stage (though in some contexts nothing much may happen in that stage) and although I am mostly concerned with the latter stage, it is nonetheless useful to briefly review some aspects of the initial stage; particularly since dissatisfaction with the results of
many initial teacher education programmes encouraged a keener examination of the whole process of teacher education at all stages and levels.

A key distinction which appears in the literature is whether we conceive of teacher education as being essentially one of ‘training’ where teachers need to acquire a body of knowledge, skills, and strategies that somehow are deemed to be the essential and sufficient qualifications for the profession of teaching, or whether we view teaching and teacher education as a long term endeavour which takes on board the need for teachers to be constantly learning and changing in response to the rapidly developing society around them. Where teaching was viewed as a relatively static activity, and teacher education seen mainly as ‘training’ then initial education was designed primarily so that teachers could gain knowledge of the subject they were to teach and be acculturated into the existing culture of education which of courses varied from country to country. Initial teacher training (ITT), as it is still commonly referred to, also acts as a ‘gatekeeper’ to the profession though in contexts where there is no initial teacher preparation of any kind then generally the gate keeping is based on appropriate educational qualifications.

There is in fact no general agreement that teachers need the kind of formal programmes of pre-service or initial teacher education that exists in many countries today, and that is especially true for the preparation for secondary level teachers where subject specialist knowledge may be regarded as more important than pedagogical knowledge. There is, however, widespread variability through the world and it is important not to assume that the kinds of patterns of teacher education that predominate, in say the U.S. and the U.K., are those commonly found throughout the
world. In many contexts, economic and developmental needs shape the way teachers are ‘trained’ more than any underlying philosophy of teacher education. However, most seem to now agree that in an ideal world, teachers need to be well educated, preferably to degree level, but as to whether they should then receive specialist training before starting to teach or whether that training should be a well designed, well supported in-service ‘apprenticeship’ programme remains contentious.

3.2.1. Apprenticeship models of initial teacher education

A view of teaching as an activity for which one could be ‘trained’ underlay many initial programmes whose structure is often referred to as the ‘apprenticeship’ model of teacher education. This model is often contrasted with other models of teacher education such as ‘the craft model’ or the ‘reflective model’ to which I refer later. The term perhaps was loosely based on an early 19th century model in the U.K. (and elsewhere) where it was assumed that teaching skills and knowledge about teaching were best acquired through a ‘learning on the job’ approach assisted by a more experienced and capable practitioner. The early versions of this approach in the U.K. were by no means akin to a true apprenticeship in that there was no ‘quality’ control of the ‘apprentice master or mistress’ and in most cases the young teacher was merely left to sink or swim. Nevertheless, regardless of titles, the apprenticeship model places a high premium on a ‘teaching practicum’ where one learns to teach partly by trying it out oneself and partly by observing others teach and imitating them. This approach has been widely criticised (see for example Wallace, 1991; Richards and Farell, 2005) because it merely preserves what might be ineffective teaching methods with teachers becoming mere imitators. However, as Hagger and McIntyre (2006) point out apprenticeship models are “based on respect for, and reliance on, the expertise of
practising teachers”. They show that whilst for most of the 20th century this expertise was largely ignored as pre-service training moved into higher education institutions, now at the start of the 21st century, there is a growing recognition that Initial Teacher Education (ITE) “needs to draw strongly and effectively upon the expertise of practising teachers”. Hagger and McIntyre (2006) are recommending that ITE needs to be more school based with practising teachers at the heart of any initial teacher education programme practice although they are not recommending a return to the concept of a fixed and immutable method of teaching which all teachers must follow.

3.2.2. A scientific-technical approach to teacher education

In many countries the 20th century saw a move away from apprenticeship models to a model based on the notion that what was important in teaching was subject knowledge and that teaching skills could be isolated, justified, theorised, and taught outside of a classroom. In particular, evidence through the use of research, could be used to justify particular pedagogies. Thus ITE moved into the arena of higher education and particularly to universities. The situation was of course more complex than that; for example, one reason for demanding a graduate teaching profession in many contexts was to do with raising the status and hence pay of teachers. That aside, teacher educators based in establishments of higher education sought to develop a theorised understanding of teaching but the problem was that once the young teacher went into schools they found the theory into practice approach problematic. At their college, they might well have explored scholarly understandings of say ‘discipline’ but felt very unprepared for the reality of an undisciplined classroom.

The view of teaching enshrined in all these different approaches generally was one in
which teachers could be ‘trained’ and that perhaps some further updating might be required later in their careers, but essentially once they were ensconced in schools, little real thought was given to any future professional development. In language teacher education too, training is seen as a way “to introduce the methodological choices available and to familiarise trainees with the range of terms and concepts that are the ‘common currency’ of language teachers”. (Mann, 2005:104). Thus, it can be said that training is concerned with the development of competence in a limited set of skills, behaviours, and habits of mind pertaining to a specific task or function. What has come to be questioned is not so much whether such training was desirable or not, but rather was it transferrable and applicable to real teaching practice after training? Clearly there are skills and competencies which teachers need to possess, but how they best come to acquire them and how they implement new skills obtained in training once they are in post became of critical concern given the rapidly changing nature of society and education systems.

3.2.3. A paradigm shift

JoAnn Crandall, in a review article in 2000 looks at changes in approach to language teacher education specifically and points to the major changes in our conceptualisation of both what it means to be a teacher, ‘teacher as person’, and what the process of teaching entails, ‘teaching as process’. These changes have affected not only the shape and structure of initial teaching programmes but more importantly affected the role of in-service education which has now come to play a very dominant role in the education of teachers, normally now referred to as continuing professional development or CPD. These changes also mean that teacher education is now a process which is continuous. It is no longer a matter of being ‘trained’ on a course before entering schools but rather
of engaging in a lifelong process of professional development. Thus, today’s pre-service education still retains its function as a gatekeeper to the profession but is seen now as very much a first step with a focus on developing reflective teachers through close association with schools (the ways in which this is done falls outside the scope of this literature review). But the major change has been in the role and shape of what was previously referred to as in-service education, now commonly referred to as continuing professional development. More detailed definitions and characteristics of CPD and INSET will be described in section 3.3.

In particular this shift recognised the importance of change as a dominant force in all teachers’ careers and so an understanding of change and innovation as a process and its implications for education, led to key educational research in this area (e.g. Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992; Guskey, 2002)

Crandall points to two major ‘shifts’ which have had a major impact on approaches to teacher education. Firstly, there is the shift from a transmission, product-oriented view of teaching to a constructivist view where teachers and their pupils are seen as active constructors of their own understandings, rather than theory informing practice; it is now teachers themselves through an informed consideration of their own teaching who inform theory. Thus teachers need to ‘reflect’ throughout their careers and become ‘reflective practitioners’ using Schön’s terms developing their own understanding of teaching and learning and refining their own practice. This reflective approach emphasises the role that the teacher plays in generating knowledge through teaching experience and reflection – conscious recollection and evaluation of that experience (Crandall, 2000).
‘Reflection’ is viewed as the process of critical examination of experiences through such procedures as self-monitoring, observation, and case studies (Richards and Farrell, 2005). This view of learning is, therefore, based on the assumption that teachers learn from experience through focused reflection on the nature and meaning of teaching experiences (Schön, 1991; Wallace, 1991; Richards and Lockhart, 1994). This broadly corresponds to the so-called ‘interpretivist’ view identified by Freeman (1991), which emphasises why (emphasis added) teachers do what (emphasis added) they do in different contexts, encouraging the addition of reflection and the development of frameworks of interpretation to theory and skill development in teacher education. The question of ‘what’ and ‘why’ enables teachers to control exercise and open up the possibility of transforming their everyday classroom life through reflection (Bartlett, 1990). Allied to this is the recognition that if learning is essentially a social act then teacher education will need to become more collaborative in nature, both at pre-service and INSET stages.

Secondly, it is now widely recognised that any teacher education programme must engage more fully with the different contexts of learning; the most effective professional preparation must involve ‘on the job’ learning with schools being transformed into communities of learning and inquiry. This also points to the sociocultural nature of teaching and learning and suggests that there is unlikely to be one ‘best practice’ for all contexts (Holliiday, 1994).

3.3. Continuing professional development (CPD) and INSET: definitions and characteristics

Because of the importance of CPD in teacher education today, I shall review the
relevant literature although my own research will only focus on one aspect or activity; that of the short course. The newer term CPD often replaces the term INSET and reflects a change in emphasis. INSET focuses on two words ‘service’ and ‘training’ and perhaps suggests that teachers ‘in service’ required ‘updating’ and ‘training’ to become more efficient deliverers of the curriculum. It lacks two key words – ‘continuing’ and ‘development’ which are now regarded as key elements in any professional work which highlight the importance of seeing teachers as professionals engaged in a process of continual renewal and learning in different ways at different stages. This has led to a renaissance in development activities leaving the short INSET ‘course’ as only one in a range of activities, often seen now as having limited advantages unless is it very much part of a whole programme over time. Because a short INSET course could form part of a longer term CPD process, it is difficult to distinguish exactly between the terms. As Craft (2000:9) puts it “professional development, CPD and INSET are terms which are sometimes used loosely and interchangeably. They tend to be used to cover a broad range of activities designed to contribute to the learning of teachers who have completed their initial training”. In this thesis I shall use the term ‘INSET course’ to refer to a short course which may be undertaken as part of a CPD process or not, as the case may be.

It is generally recognised within the field of English language teacher education that the notion of development implies more divergent objectives than were sometimes envisaged for the traditional ‘skills updating’ short courses. Any INSET in ELT should allow for teachers’ individual differences and programmes should be determined by teachers’ senses of their own learning needs (Roberts, 1998:222). The term ‘development’ focuses on the individual teacher and on the process of reflection,
examination, and change, which can lead to doing a better job and to personal and professional growth (Freeman, 1982: 21). Since it serves longer-term goals and seeks to facilitate the growth of teachers’ understanding of teaching (Richards and Farrell, 2005), the purpose of development is for the teachers to generate change through an increasing or shifting awareness of their teaching (Freeman, 1989). Through development, the trainer’s role is to trigger the teacher’s awareness, rather than to intervene directly as in training. In this way, development is a far less predictable or directed strategy than training.

To sum up, whether we are looking at language teacher education or teacher education in general, a common and much cited definition of CPD is given by Day (1997:4) which brings together many of the themes already mentioned:

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 and 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 purposes 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 through each phase of their teaching lives (ibid:34).

The characteristics of this CPD process are summarised succinctly by Villegas-Reimers (2003:13) as follows:
CPD is based on constructivism rather than on a transmission-oriented model.

It is perceived as a long-term process.

It is a process that takes place within a particular context.

It is intimately linked to school reform.

It is a collaborative process.

It is based on the concept of the professional as reflective practitioner. And finally and most importantly she stresses that

There is not one form or model of and which is superior or more effective than others.

With regard to this last characteristic, however, it is admitted that whilst there is not one ‘right answer’, there may be an “optimal mix of professional development processes that can be planned and identified” (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:15). The ‘optimal mix of professional development processes may then be consistent with Roberts’ (1998) view in that profession development programmes should allow for teachers’ individual differences and their senses of their own learning needs (see above).

3.4. The importance of change and innovation in CPD

Any discussion of CPD or INSET invariably talks about ‘changing’ teachers or introducing teachers to a ‘change’ in practice; in some instances it is suggested that any process of development must inevitably involve teachers examining their own beliefs and practices and ‘changing’. This might not necessarily mean immediate and drastic change but might mean a more continual and ongoing attitude and openness to engagement in reflective practice and on-going changes in practice. It would seem that teachers are a crucial element in any successful education innovation or change in four ways:
• Teachers implement the change; they put it into practice and therefore they can themselves be considered as ‘innovators’.
• In so doing, they may themselves change. They develop new beliefs, attitudes, skills, and professional awareness.
• Someone is responsible for helping to ‘change’ teachers; these people are commonly referred to as ‘change agents’ and may be the staff that, for example, run short INSET courses or at a higher level, design new curricula.
• But if the school itself becomes an innovative institution it can take over the role of agency and become itself the change agent.

For this reason, Fullan and Hargreaves (1992:6) emphasise the close link between innovation theories and INSET and show that an understanding of the innovation process, the strategies that are used to successfully innovate, and the experiences of teachers involved in innovation are all important when designing effective CPD programmes.

3.4.1. Strategies of change

Most CPD activities involve the goal of change and there are different strategies through which such change can be achieved. To some extent the choice of strategy depends on the nature of the change that is desired. Drawing on the work of Chin and Benn (1970, cited in Kennedy, 1987:163), the three most commonly found identified strategies are as follows:

• Coercive strategies
• Rational strategies
• Cognitive strategies
Coercive strategies imply changes based on sanctions of some sort which force teachers to make some change in their practice; such a change is usually one that is directed from the centre or is top-down and is often used where it is important that there should be some conformity in terms of materials, assessment, or organisation. In terms of INSET, such a strategy may mean that teachers are mandated to attend a course and there may be particular changes that the teacher is expected to implement. Of itself, the strategy does not force a transmission mode of delivery onto the INSET course though given that there is little freedom of choice regarding implementation, it is difficult to avoid.

Rational strategies depend on the belief that teachers are essentially rational beings who will adopt a change once its positive aspects have been demonstrated by means of facts, explanation, and empirical data. This may work with those already sympathetic to the change and certainly providing information about suggested changes in practice is important. However, doubt remains as to whether such a strategy is sufficient by itself.

Cognitive strategies take a rather different view. The principle behind cognitive strategies is that the process of change and the teachers involved make for a more complicated process than is implied by either of the previous two strategies. Rather it is suggested that any change must address the more deep-seated beliefs and attitudes of the participants and their own ‘theories of action’ (West, 1992). Theories of action here refer to teachers’ understandings of what education is and how children learn. This is contrasted with ‘theory in use’ which refers to what teachers actually do in reality. In any CPD process, a successful strategy of change will use activities which bring these
theories into consciousness so that they can be examined more clearly and any change thus accommodated and assimilated. Guskey’s theory of attitude and perceptual change in teachers goes a long way to explaining why INSET often fails to deliver in terms of changes in classroom practice, even though the INSET organisers worked hard to change attitudes through the use of a variety of reflective and critical methodologies. He makes the point that attitudes and beliefs arise out of experience, and it is therefore hard for an isolated workshop to achieve this change unless it is in some way linked with practice over an extended period of time (Guskey, 2002). Guskey’s view of attitude and perceptual change will be dealt with in more detail in section 6.2.3.7. (figure 6.5) and section 6.3.3.6. (figure 6.9), describing that change in teachers’ perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes cannot come about without active engagement with new methods.

The point made by Guskey above, is linked to experiential learning, a process which can take a number of different forms as opposed to a transmission element. For example, with regard to the former, practical experiences such as observations, practice teaching, and opportunities for curriculum and materials development have exerted a powerful influence on the direction of the education of both pre-service and in-service language teacher education during the last decade (Crandall, 1994; Johnson, 1996b; Pennington, 1990; Richards, 1990; Richards and Crookes, 1988, cited in Crandall, 2000:34). Some literature recommends certain features of experiential learning in order to enhance the effectiveness of INSET courses (e.g. Waters, 2006; Roberts, 1998; Kolb, 1993). Kolb (1993) stresses the central role of experience in the learning process and views the learning process as four different kinds of experiences: concrete experience, abstract conceptualisation, reflective observation, and active experimentation. It would seem
beneficial to develop such experiential learning in the INSET learning process, using an appropriate teaching approach rather than operating a knowledge transmission model.

3.4.2. Teachers and the change process

Most writers on the issue of innovation and change stress that it is a ‘process’ which takes time. This is the reason why writers suggest that one short course is unlikely to succeed on its own (although it may be a good initiating factor in the process). In this process teachers have often been regarded as the key factors in either its success or failure. Before discussing a change process, there is a need to say something about awareness because Bailey (2006) claims that awareness of one’s behaviour is the key to change. Bailey (2006:35) views this claim in two ways: the strong and the weak versions of the awareness hypothesis. The strong version is that people will change their less-than-optimal behaviour after becoming aware of it. The weak version is that people must become aware of less-than-optimal behaviour before they can purposefully change it. The strong version of the hypothesis asserts that awareness is both necessary and sufficient to bring about change. The weak version asserts that awareness is a necessary condition for change, but makes no claim about its sufficiency. Rogers (1995) recognised that teachers go through different stages in the change process and his work has been adapted by Cheung (1999) and applied to teachers in other contexts. The series of stages starts with an initial stage where teachers need to know what the innovation is, how it works, and why before they form an initial personal or professional attitude towards it. Next, they may then make a decision to reject or adopt it, either fully or partially and they may change it. This may then lead to an attempt to implement it, seeing how it works and whether it needs further adjustment. Finally they may reach the stage of what he terms ‘confirmation’ where
the change is either accepted, rejected, or continued with in a slightly changed form.

Teachers can be regarded as ‘resistors’ but it is perhaps more helpful to see resistance not just as an individual trait (which it may be) but also as a feature of the change process and the change itself or as a systemic or behavioural resistance (where for example the teachers lacks appropriate knowledge, or lacks the skill to implement the change). Often teachers’ resistance to new ideas is well founded. Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) suggest that resistance is less if:

- The project has support from administrators as well as teachers.
- Teachers feel ownership of aspects of the innovation.
- The project is in tune with the teachers’ own values, abilities and ideals.
- Teachers have played some part in reaching the solution to the problem which the innovation is addressing.
- Due recognition is given to the fears and anxieties of teachers.
- It is recognised that change is a process: implementers may go through stages before they adopt it and it may be adapted.
- The change should not demand superhuman efforts of the teacher.
- Teachers should be accorded ongoing support.

All of these suggestions have great relevance for the design of any CPD programme or activity and in different ways have been much reported on in the literature. English language teacher education has seen many major curricular reforms, particularly with the advent of new communicative approaches to syllabus design together with a focus on learner-centred classrooms and the development of autonomy, and there are many accounts in the literature of this relationship between theories of innovation and change and effective INSET (Lamie, 2002; Karavas-Doukas, 1993a; Waters, 2006).
3.4.3. The practice of continuing professional development

In this section I will address the issue of successful and unsuccessful CPD, focusing in particular on the short course as one element of a programme of CPD. There are of course many ways in which CPD is organised and these are fully described by Villegas-Reimers (2003:71) and examples given of their implementation in a variety of countries worldwide. Although I will not be describing each model, I have listed them below, in table 3.1, and as can be seen I have highlighted the ‘short course’ which is seen as one method used both as part of a school-based CPD programme, but more commonly as a standalone structure. Villegas-Reimers has grouped the models into two sections and stresses that most CPD initiatives use “a combination of models simultaneously, and the combinations vary from setting to setting (2003:69). So it would be quite possible to have a schools’ network which used workshops and peer teacher observations plus mentoring.
Table 3.1. Organisational partnership models vs. small group or individual models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational partnership models</th>
<th>Small group or individual models</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional Development Schools</td>
<td>Supervision: traditional, clinical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other university/school partnerships</td>
<td>Pupils’ performance assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other inter-institutional collaborations</td>
<td>Courses, workshops, seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cascade Models</td>
<td>Coaching and mentoring</td>
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<tr>
<td>Schools’ networks</td>
<td>Coaching and mentoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ networks</td>
<td>Self-directed development; reflective journals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance Education</td>
<td>Cooperative/collegial development</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Including observation methods</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Action research and portfolios</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Use of teachers’ narratives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is only one way of classifying CPD structures and activities and it serves to show the immense variety of ways CPD is being used worldwide.

3.5. General principles that underpin effective INSET

Numerous general principles (e.g. Kennedy, 1987; Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992; Rudduck, 1981; Richards and Nunan, 1990) about INSET courses have been suggested in order to successfully implement the knowledge and ideas learnt from INSET in classroom practice, but based on the work of Fullan and Hargreaves (1992), Kennedy (1987), and Hayes (1995) there is a general consensus that effective courses need to:
• focus on participants’ needs (section 3.5.1.)
• be sympathetic to the context (section 3.5.2.)
• demonstrate an awareness of participants’ motivation in attending (section 3.5.3.)
• be experiential in nature (section 3.5.4.)

3.5.1. Focus on participants’ needs
The purpose of INSET is that it needs to meet the perceived needs of the participants and their educational and cultural context. But even if the goals of the programme are relevant to the teachers’ needs, the programme also needs to show an awareness of those teachers’ particular concerns. Teachers’ participation in INSET does not always mean the courses are fully related to their needs. It may be that they attend the courses because they are available, rather than because INSET meets their most significant needs. Thus determining relevancy means being clear about the purpose served by the programme and the programme objectives and organising the programme in such a way that it can be sensitive to the individual concerns of the participants.

Hayes (1995:256) argues that “all teacher development activities should be classroom-centred”. That is, the teacher development activities should be ones that teachers can easily continue, adapt, and apply to pupils’ needs, and that are easily put into practice, in order to have direct relevance to the teachers’ everyday school situations.

3.5.2. Be sympathetic to the context
Secondly, INSET must be sympathetic to the context in which it occurs. Some (Prabhu,
1990; Holliday, 1994) have also drawn attention to the context, and the culture-bound nature of language teaching, and for the need for ‘exploratory teaching’. Holliday (1994) argues that the existing communicative approach should focus on its more culture-sensitive features, and reduce its less culture-sensitive features for the role of the initial becoming-appropriate methodology. In other words, transferring methodologies developed for predominantly private Western language teaching contexts, for example, to non-Western contexts may not be suitable (Holliday, 1994, cited in Bax, 1997).

Trainers, especially foreign trainers, should be aware of a very important issue when involved in designing teacher training programmes which aim to implement change in teachers’ practices: that of cultural differences. The concept of the ‘culture of teaching’ is fundamental to any programme which is trying to change teachers’ practice. Various researchers (Fullan, 1982; Huberman and Miles, 1984; Invargson and Greenway, 1984, cited in Fullan and Hargreaves, 1992:43) have indicated how occupational culture determines the way in which change is perceived, experienced, and realised in schools; changes in teachers’ classroom practices, their attitudes and beliefs, as well as in pupils’ learning outcomes from the INSET. Breen, Candlin, Dam, and Gabrielsen (1989) also emphasise the need for careful consideration of the practical problems of implementing innovations in foreign language environments, due to fundamental differences in cultural and educational tradition. The recent mushrooming literature on teacher development and INSET is essentially based on a Western model of schooling, viz. bottom up, decentralisation; teacher empowerment, peer teaching, and reflective practice are the key themes. However, collegiality or collaborative work cultures involving peer observation and reflective teaching are not features of all schools in all
cultures so care must be taken to make sure that Western value judgments do not
become a landmark of the teacher training programme. To be more sympathetic to the
context, teacher education has been responding more sensitively to the working
contexts of teachers in training – making teacher training more 'client-centred' (Nunan,

3.5.3. Demonstrate an awareness of participants’ motivation in attending

Thirdly, it is hardly controversial to say that motivation is crucial for language teachers
to embrace the concept of professional development. Not all teachers are motivated to
participate in INSET courses. Of course, sometimes courses are compulsory so teachers
attend because they must. On the other hand, teachers may be motivated to attend
because of some external award or they may be motivated to attend because it seems
to meet some important need they have. In Korea, there are few direct extrinsic
rewards for attendance at a short INSET course which generally takes place during
teachers’ vacation periods. While the course tuition fee is funded by the government,
there is no additional compensation offered to participants for time invested in the
course. Of course, if such attendance is to be linked with an increased salary, future
promotion, and/or Ministry certification, then these are important extrinsic motivators.

Ideally, activities stimulating participants to explore their own motivation in terms of
their own vision of their pupils’ achievements, will perhaps encourage them to be
motivated to develop their teaching skills and linguistic competence. Linked to the
importance of motivation, is the suggestion of Drummond and McLaughlin (1994) that
there is what they term ‘a fourth dimension’ – which is the emotional capacities of the
participants. INSET courses need to understand what has motivated teachers to attend
a course; but they also need to motivate the teacher to develop what they term a sense of purpose, to give them a sense of control that they are in charge of their own learning, to feel supported in this endeavour and finally to encourage them to believe they can succeed. Perhaps this ‘fourth dimension’ is particularly important for non-native language teachers who have to demonstrate their own language skill throughout a lesson, and for whom this can present a real challenge.

3.5.4. Be experiential in nature

Fourthly, teachers have their own beliefs, skills, and theories of their own which underlie their practice. Enabling teachers to reflect upon that practice, and articulate and analyse the problems they experience is the best starting point for any change in practice. Teachers usually welcome the change of describing and analysing their ‘craft knowledge’ because in most cases they do not have the opportunity to pause and reflect much on what they are doing whilst they are busy teaching. An INSET course that is experiential in nature starts from the teacher’s own experience, links new knowledge, beliefs, and practices to those experiences, and encourages and enables teachers to share their experiences and expertise. Experientialism also refers to the ways in which the INSET programme itself is planned and delivered – teachers are not alone in learning best by trying, evaluating, and trying again. One of the benefits of this experientialism is the possibility of trying out new teaching strategies in a secure environment and it can play a major role in “providing opportunities for teachers to validate both teacher knowledge and teacher inquiry” (Lieberman and Grolnick, 1998:723).

Any INSET course can be made more experiential in many ways, through for example
peer group teaching, task-based or problem solving sessions, writing materials that will actually be used. Ideally an INSET course should provide teachers with opportunities to practise innovations through microteaching, peer teaching, and poster sessions at INSET course before returning to their classrooms and, where possible, engaging in follow-up sessions. In other words, INSET courses should attempt wherever possible to give teachers an opportunity to try out new ideas, come back together to evaluate and discuss what happened in the classroom, perhaps redefining the change and adapting it, and then trying it again.

I have described some of the general principles and strategies which should inform any INSET course. There will also be considerable variation in the degree to which these principles can be applied depending on the length of the programme, the resources allocated to it, and the expertise of the trainers and course designers. These principles will cut across all parts of an INSET course, thus when we propose that such programmes should be experiential in nature this will be appropriate not only in terms of content (e.g. link new knowledge to what teachers already know) but also in terms of the form of the course (e.g. attempt to build in a period when teachers try out the new idea and then come back together again).

3.6. The short course

3.6.1. Problematic issues
As already indicated, the short course model of professional development was, and to some extent still is, common to many INSET programmes. It has a long history of use in nearly all countries and many of the problems are common to whatever context the course is delivered in. In English language teaching, as previously indicated, there is a
long tradition of using short courses as a way of developing teachers, and the factors that facilitate a successful course have been identified by many writers (Tomlinson, 1988; Lamb, 1995; Waters, 2006). Interestingly the popularity of short INSET courses today in English language teaching may be partly historic. The English language teaching profession in many countries has been more influenced by the U.K. and the U.S.A. than say other subjects such as mathematics, science, humanities etc. so that for many years countries looked to the U.K. and the U.S.A. as a source of input for teacher development. So ‘experts’ from these countries would often be used, sometimes through government organisations such as the British Council as ‘deliverers’ of ‘workshops’ concerned with the latest approaches to language teaching. So much of the literature within ELT has tended to focus on such short courses, their effectiveness, their modes of delivery, their impact etc. and more recently on the need for such courses to be seen as ‘developmental’.

In my own context of Korea, it is debatable whether most of the short courses attended by teachers are truly part of a CPD process or not; although usually the deliverers of such courses doubtless try to use a methodology that reflects some of the principles of CPD. As Bell and Day (1991) suggest, courses often “emphasise the expertise of those outside schools and deny the legitimacy of the teacher-as-expert. This can perpetuate the demand for courses in spite of there often being a mismatch between the needs of teachers and/or their schools and the content of the courses (1991:8). However, such courses are likely to remain a fairly dominant feature of most teacher education practices, even if they are part of a wider programme so an awareness of the problematic features may help in the design of more effective courses. These features are briefly summarised by Tomlinson (1988:2) as follows:
• First, one-shot workshops are commonly used but tend to be ineffective in promoting long-term change.

• The participants often have had little to do with the policy and objectives that the course is designed to realise. The in-service programmes do not address the needs of the teachers as identified by them.

• The course attempts too much in too short a time. It may impose a work load on already overstretched classroom teachers.

• Follow-up support for using ideas and practices experienced on INSET courses occurs in only a few cases.

• Short courses may involve teachers from different schools attending at the same time and thus cannot always take into account the negative and positive features of the schools to which they return.

• Participants become total converts to the new approach and fail to see the inappropriateness of some of its aspects to the realities of their teaching situation.

• The course tutors may be outsiders, or not classroom teachers, who have no experience or knowledge of the specific local situation.

Some of these weaknesses are also mentioned by Tomlinson (1988:2) who is reporting on a short INSET course as follows:

• The course provides only theoretical information without helping the participants to apply it.

• The course provides lots of recipes for the participants to follow but does not help them to develop ideas and materials of their own.

• The course only gives and the participants only receive.
• There is no focus or cohesion to the course and it moves from topic to topic without connection.

• Too much new information is presented in each session without any attempt to reinforce, recycle or relate information.

• The course is far too ambitious and attempts to effect a radical change in teacher behaviour in a few short weeks.

• There is no follow up to the course. The teachers receive no further support or encouragement. The teachers are not helped to actually apply the ideas they have been given.

I will also discuss the subject of follow-up courses in more detail since, in Chapter 7, this emerged as one of the perceived difficulties in sustaining new ideas obtained from the INSET for the longer term (see section 8.2.1. for a fuller explanation). The importance of follow-up support has been stressed over time by many researchers (e.g. Rudduck, 1981; Ibrahim, 1991; Lamb, 1995; Tomlinson, 1988; Waters, 2006; Waters and Vilches, 2000; Guskey, 2000). Moreover, the role of follow-up courses is considered essential to provide teachers not only with upgraded new information but also with guidance to support their subsequent attempts to put ideas into practice (Rudduck, 1981). Guskey (2000:23) states that “training sessions must be extended, appropriately spaced, or supplemented with additional follow-up activities (my emphasis) to provide the ongoing feedback and continuation necessary for the successful implementation of new ideas”. Furthermore, Kunje (2002) also emphasises the significance of further follow-up support, mentioning that “to date this is still embryonic and it is not clear how the programme will become sustainable without external support” (Kunje, 2002:310).
Waters and Vilches (2000:127) state that teachers in general find it difficult to cross back to their real practice and to transfer the benefit that they adopted during the INSET course. They use Miles’ (1964:454, cited in ibid) diagram, the metaphoric ‘cultural island’, in order to show how the atmosphere of the INSET course is different to that found in real teaching practice, and how follow-up support is urgently required. Thus, Rudduck (1981) suggests that “a bridge (follow-up support) has to be constructed linking the INSET and real practice” (cited in Waters and Vilches, 2000:127).

Other criticisms of short courses have focused not so much on their results as on the actual process itself. As Rudduck (1981) points out short courses can fall victim to “casualness of purpose” where there is a clash between the aims of the course and the participants’ real reasons for attending. It may be that all the participants have very different reasons for attending and no one course can satisfactorily address them all. It may be that some participants have rather more trivial reasons for attending a short course than those of us would like to admit; the writer well remembers attending a short one-day INSET course motivated almost entirely by the thought of a day not teaching and a good lunch into the bargain.

3.6.2 The short course: benefits

However, some writers do see advantages to short courses. Bradley, Conner, and Southworth (1991:238) see certain uses for short one-off courses. If there are, for example, new simple initiatives that large numbers of teachers need to be informed about quickly or if there are specific skills that need developing, (e.g. the use of CALL in language teaching) then short courses can be appropriate. However, they warn that teachers can become dependent in the sense of ‘waiting to be told what to do’.
Rudduck (1981), in her review of short in-service courses, similarly points to several strengths of the short course as follows:

- The range of ideas and techniques available to teachers can be considerably expanded.

- Professional isolation can be avoided – sharing professional experiences is widely regarded as important in encouraging teachers to be more reflective and understanding of their teaching behaviours.

- Short courses can be offered on a cafeteria-style basis with teachers free to choose from a range of options. In this way teachers can develop their own particular interests and make their own professional decisions.

Any course which maintains a teacher’s enthusiasm and encourages a feeling of ‘shared professional’ experience is a valuable starting point for making changes in teaching practices. It may be true that the short course is ineffective at procuring long-term change but short courses can be good at inspiring teachers, acting as a small catalyst for further changes.

Although short courses have acquired a bad name because they seem to be ineffective in producing long-term change, this is arguably an unrealistic expectation of what they can achieve. Criticisms of short courses oversimplify the complexity of teacher practices within an institution. A short course may be a valuable part of any change implementation process but it may not be sufficient – it needs to be part of a package of INSET provisions rather than an isolated process. More importantly, there must be some kind of link between the INSET provider and the participants’ institution such that some kind of follow-up support is given. Tomlinson (1988:1), writing about the choices available to planners of English language teacher education programmes
stresses this point when he says “many of the participants of such courses have emerged with some new knowledge and some new ideas – but have then returned without support to their schools to develop feelings of inadequacy, confusion, insecurity and guilt”.

3.7. The impact of INSET on the professional lives of teachers

I have in previous sections reviewed and evaluated some of the ways in which an INSET course as part of a CPD process is thought be effective – a key element of which must be the extent to which any INSET impacts on teachers either in the short or long term; the latter is often referred to as the sustainability of changes in practice. There are philosophical and technical issues involved in attempting to evaluate the effects of CPD/INSET on teachers’ practices. There is, for example, the danger of reducing any CPD process to a simplistic input/output model and to looking at superficial changes in teachers’ practices whereas professional development in its essence enshrines a view of teacher practice which is complex, contextually bound, and individualistic.

Equally, technically there is the problem of actually measuring changes in any meaningful way. Observations of teachers actually teaching give only a brief glimpse into any teachers’ practices, and measurement of pupil achievement as an outcome of improved practice may give some useful feedback but it is likely to be complicated by many other factors. A study reported on in Day (1999) in the U.K. on the effectiveness of award-bearing courses did indeed suggest that these courses had an overall positive effect in certain areas, such as teacher motivation, confidence etc. but that the effect on classroom practice was questionable since the research relied on teachers’ self-reports. The use of teachers’ self-reports as a valid measure of the effectiveness of
INSET has, however, been justified by some authors, for example in the following terms:

....teachers’ self-reports are, indeed, an important vehicle in the process of evaluating the impact; they are central because they form the basis on which unique individual patterns of professional learning and development and potential for impact, can be identified. A teacher’s explanation of the ways in which this pattern of learning and development relates to changes with her/his classroom or school is an important indicator of impact (Burchall, Dyson and Rees, 2002:220).

I therefore decided, in the teachers’ perceptions of longer-term outcomes chapter (Chapter 8), to employ self-report data as a measure of the longer-term impact of the INSET.

3.7.1. Areas of impact

There are different ways in which any CPD/INSET or short course could impact on teachers’ practices as well as different ways of measuring that impact. Guskey (2000) suggests different levels or areas in which we could gauge impact and these are a useful guide too, in thinking about what our intended outcomes are when designing a short course. These levels are summarised below as:

- Level 1: Participants’ reactions. Guskey points out that this is a very common way to evaluate courses but that such information, whilst useful, may not of itself tell us much about what happens when participants return to classrooms.

- Level 2: Participants’ learning – cognitive, affective, or behavioural. We can see that the way INSET impacts on these aspects could be very important in many ways; for example, if participants say that affectively the course has increased
their motivation and enthusiasm and that they feel more adventurous, then this may be seen as a positive outcome.

- **Level 3: Organisational support and change.** Much of the literature stresses that for courses to be really effective there needs to be support from the teaching institution and that it too may need to change to accommodate new practices.

- **Level 4: Participants’ actual use of new knowledge and skills.** Ideally the impact on practice is best measured through classroom outcomes; but as Guskey admits this is the most difficult aspect of impact to determine if only because teachers’ practices are very changeable and observation of teaching is often fallacious and difficult to interpret.

- **Level 5: Pupil outcomes.** Guskey suggests that this is the level of impact least likely to be measured although most providers of CPD/INSET would confirm that the reason they are ‘developing’ teachers is so that educational outcomes for their pupils can be improved.

Indeed, measuring impact of INSET is not easy or simple. A number of authors (e.g. Flecknoe, 2000; Guskey, 2000) admit that there are difficulties with measuring the impact of CPD and present different typologies of measuring impact of INSET (see sections 3.7.3. and 4.5.5). However, as Harland and Kinder (1997:72) have indicated, any comprehensive theory of successful INSET must take account of both an empirically-validated model of outcomes and its relationship to the process associated with the many different forms of CPD provision and activity. A more detailed account of typologies of impact will be addressed later (see section, 3.7.3).
3.7.2. Transfer of training by NNS teachers

Clearly it is teachers who have to implement new practices and acquire new knowledge from teacher training courses and in Korea most English language teaching is carried out by Korean teachers who will be expected to attend some kind of INSET programme. These teachers are expected to show initiative in ‘adapting’ or ‘reinventing’ new ideas acquired on the training programme and thus the capacity of the teacher to appropriately reinterpret the training experience is seen as a key to successful implementation. This responsibility of the teacher can be affected by the personal characteristics of the teachers, “What is taken from a course and what is transferred to the classroom will, therefore be mediated by an individual teacher’s personal beliefs, experiences and circumstances”. Breen et al (1989:134). Thus the outcomes or impact of any INSET course will vary according to how teachers reinterpret the training content. Any transfer of new skills to the teacher’s own classroom will be dependent on that individual teacher’s personal beliefs, experience, and circumstances. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify types of outcomes from any INSET programme whilst allowing for differentiation between teachers, school, contexts, and cultures and such typologies can form a useful framework for evaluating the impact of INSET.

3.7.3. Typologies of INSET outcomes

One of the earliest typologies was that developed by Joyce and Showers in the 1980’s who identified four key ways in which INSET could impact on practice:

- General awareness of new skills
- Organised knowledge of underlying concepts and theory
- Learning of new skills
- And application on the job.
It is interesting how they have viewed outcomes as not merely relating to classroom behaviours; thus they are suggesting that an INSET programme may have an impact on a teacher’s knowledge which may not translate into changes in teaching behaviour. Moreover, the model itself is linear and cumulative; that is they are suggesting that before a new skill (3) can be learnt you need to progress through the previous stages. Although the model has the virtue of simplicity and clarity, many teacher educators will testify to the fact that most teachers who have attended an INSET course demonstrate diversity in terms of the order in which outcomes are manifested and that often it is implementation that further develops their knowledge of the underlying theory rather than the reverse order as suggested by Joyce and Showers. Furthermore, their description of outcomes (4) warrants more sophisticated analyses than that offered by these authors; many teachers, for example, may apply a new practice competently and fully or spasmodically and half heartedly.

Fullan (1991) focused much more on actual outcomes in terms of classroom practice and suggested the following three dimensions of change or impact on practice admitting that whilst others outcomes are important the three below are at least key:

- The possible use of new or revised materials
- The possible use of new teaching approaches and
- The possible alteration of beliefs

The last of these reflects the development in the 1990s of a supposed link between teacher cognition, attitudes and beliefs, and classroom practice. A possible amalgamation of these two major descriptions of outcomes of INSET is given by Harland and Kinder who in 1997 revised their 1991 typology which was aimed at primary INSET in order to produce a typology which would be relevant to secondary
INSET and also which would enable course providers to plan their INSET sessions around their model and use it as an evaluation of impact tool. Essentially their typology draws on Joyce and Showers and also on Fullan but brings in the notion of a hierarchy of outcomes. That is, there are certain outcomes which are much more likely to influence classroom practice. For example what they termed “first order” outcomes “consistently coincided with a substantial impact on practice” (Harland and Kinder, 1997) although they further made the point that for such practice to be sustained other lower order outcomes might be required.

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<td>2\textsuperscript{nd} Order</td>
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**Impact on Practice**

- **Provisionary** = physical resources given at INSET session e.g. materials, worksheets
- **Information** = details about new curricula/tests/materials
- **New Awareness** = perceptual or conceptual shift in understandings
- **Motivation** = enhanced enthusiasm & energy
- **Affective** = feelings of excitement interest and confidence
- **Value congruence** = degree to which participants own attitudes & beliefs match those of the INSET providers

Figure 3.1. An ordering of INSET outcomes (Harland and Kinder, 1997:77)

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Institutional = INSET can have an important collective impact on groups of teachers and their practice

Knowledge and skills = the development of deeper levels of understanding, critical reflexivity and theoretical rationales, with regard to both curriculum content (e.g. enhanced understanding of scientific concepts) and pedagogy (e.g. the management of investigations) etc.

They further stress that there is a degree of interdependency between these outcomes. For example, provisionary outcomes such as worksheets, materials, and handbooks obtained on the INSET course can, in themselves, encourage motivation and new knowledge and skills which will increase the change of some effect on classroom practice. The authors suggest that based on their study of five case study schools over a period of five years, the presence of the two first order INSET outcomes were crucial for any impact on practice but that for sustained impact other outcomes at a lower level were needed. In other words, teachers were unlikely to sustain new practices over time if they clashed with their own valued ways of teaching, or if they had not truly grasped the rationale for the activity. There are issues that could be raised with their interpretation. Guskey, for example, makes the point that often teachers’ appreciation of the value of an activity or their understanding of why a particular approach is effective arises out of action; that is, a teacher may initiate a new practice without much conviction or understanding but through using it come to realise its effectiveness and develop an understanding of its value and conceptual basis.

3.7.4. The impact of INSET courses on practice in English language education

Despite the best efforts of time, money, and energy, however, the rate of success for
INSET courses in transferring the new knowledge or skills acquired from INSET to the classroom behaviour of teachers has been unsatisfactory (see, for example, Lamb, 1995; Pacek, 1996; Tomlinson, 1988; and Veenman et al, 1994). In addition, with some notable exceptions such as Yan (2008), there has been little empirical evidence concerning the impact of in-service training on the real practices it is intended to benefit. Many authors, including Lamb (1995), Waters (2006), Tomlinson (1988), Roberts (1998), Hayes (1997), Veenman et al (1994), Carrier (2003), and Palmer (1993) have pointed out the possible problems which make it sometimes difficult for INSET courses to achieve their expected level of impact. If we refer back to the different areas that can be examined for impact, we need to remember that we may measure impact on more than just observable classroom activities, such as whether a teacher is using e.g. a jigsaw activity.

3.7.5. Communities of practice

Much of the literature stresses that teaching learning occurs in communities of practice, and indeed, many interviewees in this study expressed their learning was stimulated by their colleagues and occurred through sharing and exchanging their current issues with their peers (see section, 6.1 and 8.2.2.). Thus, I include this section in the literature review.

Wenger (n.d.) defines communities of practice as “groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly”. Lave and Wenger (1991:98) also describe a community of practice as “a set of relations among persons, activity and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practices” (cited in Kimble et al:222). Since Lave and Wenger (1991:33) regard knowledge not as the acquisition of
propositional knowledge but as developing contextually, participation within a community of practice would facilitate learning. These ideas are relevant to this study because overall the teachers who participated in the INSET courses revealed that learning occurred not only through the course but through talking to their peers, by participating in a community of practice during the course (i.e. through group- or pair-work tasks).

Singh and Richards (2006) present the case for the training course room as a community of practice where teachers learn through engaging in activities and discourses, not through absorbing knowledge and applying it in assignments. Kim and Merriam (2010) also found that Korean older adults’ computer learning in a classroom occurs in the interactions among people; in other words, learning occurs within a community of practice in which individual learners have relations with people because learning is a social practice. In such a community, furthermore, a newcomer learns from old-timers by being allowed to participate in certain tasks that relate to the practice of the community and gradually newcomers will obtain the knowledge and start fully participating in the community as an old-timer. Consequently, overtime the newcomer moves from peripheral to full participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

These concepts are highly relevant to the present study and its findings in that the trainee teachers show that their learning occurred through a community of practice such as group work discussion during the course and chat with peers during lunch (see section, 6.1.1. and 8.2.2). In addition, they also have a strong desire to engage in joint activities and discussions, help each other, and share information with like-minded people in order to “deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting
on an ongoing basis" (Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder, 2002:4).

3.7.6. INSET and longer-term outcomes/impact

Much of the research into the impact of INSET/CPD takes a relatively short-term view; often impact is measured shortly after the course or at only one point. But given that any change in practice following a course is likely to go through different stages, to be tried, abandoned, and retried in a different format, then it is important to look at impact over the longer term. Teachers may return to their profession ‘refreshed’ and ‘enthused’ but maybe a few months later, things have returned to their usual pattern. Yan (2008:587) emphasises the importance of longer-term sustainability in her studies as follows:

Whilst it is important to look at the instant effect of such initiatives, it may be more important to address fundamental issues germane to the longer-term sustainability of initiative to help them become acclimatised to and firmly embedded in the local environment, evolve healthily and strongly, and further induce more fundamental changes.

It has been concluded that much of the research in the late 1960s and 1970s concerning attempts to implement innovation indicated that the initiatives undertaken have sometimes failed to produce actual changes in practice (Yan, 2007:10). Wolter (2000:314) also comments that a review of the long-term effectiveness of INSET programmes revealed that they “had failed to receive an acceptable degree of implementation”. And Cooley (1997, cited in Yan, 2007:10) also mentions that innovations “tend to be highly visible at the surface, but do not affect what’s going
In Cullen’s (1994) paper, the impact on teachers of a large-scale INSET programme for a ten-year ELT project for secondary school education in Tanzania is also studied. He is primarily concerned with the methodology of assessing impact, investigating qualitative factors such as teachers’ confidence in their jobs, their attitudes to work and to their teaching competence and successful transfer. He concluded that both ‘cosmetic’ and ‘short term’ transfer parallel the ‘surface’ level adoption of course techniques or their adoption post-course not being sustained over a longer period of time.

3.8. Key studies on the impact of INSET in English language teacher education

A number of practical suggestions have been made as to how to create the most effective INSET course. Though these studies suggest relevant methods for current and future courses, as Veenman et al (1994:304) indicated, reviews of the literature on training have indicated that little empirical attention has been devoted to the issue of training transfer or implementation in the real classroom. In particular, the perception has been that the link between INSET and real practice, through teachers’ implementation of approaches learnt from INSET, has been overlooked in much research. Much of the literature on INSET has been focused on the in-service programme, workshop descriptions, simple statements of participants’ satisfaction, or learning outcomes, without empirical research which may be used to determine the success of a programme. For example, Wolter (2000:312) has suggested a “participant-centred approach” by drawing on participants’ knowledge of the local learning/teaching situation in order to achieve a higher degree of “fit” between
innovation-inherent conditions and the practical restrictions of the local environment, through a participant-centred approach to INSET course design. Schocker and Morrow (1995) have also proposed “process evaluation in an INSET course”, and they report on a course which makes explicit to participants the learning process in which they were engaged and thereby making this awareness accessible for future action.

Cullen (1994) proposes the “incorporation (of) a language improvement component in teacher training programmes” which stresses that teacher training programmes should focus primarily on language improvement and language awareness on courses. To do so, the ‘content’ of the methodology and language awareness components would be derived from the language course which the trainees would undergo, meaning that the language course is the central element (ibid:166). Breen et al (1989) discuss three phases of involvement in an INSET programme through which one particular in-service training programme in Denmark has passed over an eight-year period. They summarise the evolution of their INSET programme making 11 points, but as mentioned there is no description in terms of what happens in the participants’ classroom and how effective the course is after the training. They note that (ibid:134)

in-service training should focus on what is done in the daily life of the language class, the decisions, activities, tasks and learning experience [...] the teachers’ interpretations of what is done in classrooms are as important as the data from the classroom itself. This suggests that any training should be converted to action in practice and the mismatch between INSET and the real classroom should be minimised.

From the discussion so far, it would seem that there is only so much we can learn about
the style, content, and simple success or failure of INSET from the studies above. However, a few studies (e.g. Lamb, 1995; Lamie, 2002; Tomlinson, 1988; and Veenman et al, 1994) systematically address the impact of in-service training programmes or the transfer of training experience into teachers’ real contexts. I discuss three studies in more detail in the following section.


Lamb conducted an evaluation of the INSET course a year after course completion to explore how far the participants had taken up and implemented certain practical ideas in their classrooms. He refers to a clash between the new and the traditional, illustrated by comparing in-service course content in Indonesia with later classroom practice. He also found the original input had simply been lost and what was taken up was reinterpreted by teachers to fit their own beliefs and their own concerns about what was important to them and their pupils (Lamb 1995:78). Thus, he suggested that participants should take part in exercises which would encourage them to reflect on their own teaching style, allowing for a longer-term effect of INSET in real practice.

Before moving on, two areas highlighted by Lamb are worthy of particular consideration. Firstly, I found that there was nothing to address the practical issues of how to implement the new knowledge within a local context and how to deal with the conflicts which might occur during implementation; for example, carrying out group work in large classes. Secondly, the existing local beliefs about teaching and learning were overlooked. In more detail, “memorisation” and “understanding and analytical ability” (Connell, 1987, cited in Yan, 2008) in language learning have been a long tradition in most EFL countries, including South Korea. However these kinds of local
beliefs about learning features were not recognised in Lamb’s study. In addition to the principle that, as Doff (1987:70) mentions, “appropriate content and design of the training material will increase the chances of teachers adopting a new methodology”, there should also be recognition of the need for careful consideration in using imported textbooks from Western countries in Indonesian teaching and learning environments, due to fundamental differences in cultural and educational traditions. In short, as Lamb (1995) states, “teachers’ expanding awareness of their own practice and using it as the basis for formulating individual agendas for change are something which is impossible without an appraisal of the context in which change has to occur.”

3.8.2. Tomlinson (1988)

Tomlinson (1988), in connection with an ELT project in Indonesia, describes how an INSET system was developed which consisted of an initial two-week course-based component, followed by six weeks in-service follow-up training during which the teachers attended weekly meetings with their teacher trainers and were observed and given feedback on their teaching approximately once a week. At the end of this phase of the training, the teachers underwent a second two-week course, followed by another period of six weeks in-service follow-up training. However, according to him, the motivation and stimulus they had gained was negated by the confusion and frustration they had suffered in trying to apply all that they had learnt and the guilt and inadequacy they would have felt as a result of their almost inevitable failure to accommodate a new approach within the existing parameters of syllabus, examinations, materials, official expectations and class size (Tomlinson, 1988:1). However, from my point of view, there is a lack of detailed information concerning statements about ‘inadequacy’ or ‘inevitable failure’ of the course Tomlinson had run or observed. There
is no concrete evidence offered to support this claims that have been made in his study.

Furthermore, as Walters (2006:35) points out, “it (Tomlinson’s study) makes no reference to anybody of theory or programme of research which was used to underpin the development or investigate the workings of the system it describes”; in fact this study does not seem to adopt any approach based on existing models or theories of INSET programmes. For example, in contrast, Lamb (1995) adopted a “rational-empirical” approach (Kennedy, 1987 in ibid:74), that is “people are rational beings and that a change will be adopted once the evidence has been produced to show it will benefit those whom it affects” (ibid: 74), to encourage the teachers to change their practice.


Veenman et al (1994), in their own wide-ranging study attempted to examine the outcomes of in-service activities, implementation characteristics, and knowledge utilisation at classroom and school level in the Netherlands. The purpose of this study was to examine the outcomes of in-service activities, the impact ratings of a sample of teachers and principals who participated in individual-based and school-focused INSET, focusing on school characteristics, features of in-service programmes, implementation characteristics, and types of in-service activity.

Noteworthy in this study is that the importance attributed to school-focused INSET is not supported in the impact findings at the school level. One may expect that school-focused INSET would result in higher impacts at this level than individual-based INSET, for example, in more productive school meetings and better working relationships.
among teachers. In this respect no differences were found between these two types of in-service activities. However, differences between school-focused INSET and individual-based INSET were found at the classroom level and at the level of knowledge utilisation. At these levels school-focused INSET appeared to have influences on changes in didactic procedures in the classroom and on the actual use of new skills in the staff’s instructional repertoire (ibid:315).

However, this study has not paid attention to useful strategies for managing transfer of training before, during, and after training. Since the ultimate goal of in-service courses for the dissemination of new skills and activities is to achieve an appropriate transfer to real practice, the linkages between INSET courses and actual classroom practice is very important. This implies that at least the three stages of research mentioned above should be made as integral parts of training strategies. Unless there is integration between the in-service course activities and teachers’ classroom practice, the course will serve little purpose in terms of dissemination and implementation of new ideas and knowledge learnt from INSET.

As a research instrument, a written questionnaire for individual-based INSET activities was used in order to include a large amount of different in-service programmes and the interview and questionnaire were both used to obtain not only information about INSET characteristics and appraisals, but also about the embedding of the in-service activities in the daily life of the schools (ibid:306). The questionnaire, however, was not a success for school-focused INSET due to the low return rate of 18% (314:6), so that school-focused INSET is mainly based on the interview part of the study (response rate 65%).
It is surprising that Veenman et al do not attempt to explore the influence of in-service training within the participants’ contextual situation by using observation. They claim that an observation scheme was not used because “... this study is directed at a large-scale evaluation of in-service training activities in the Netherlands” (ibid:305). But if sampled observation of the randomly selected participants’ real English classroom had been conducted (since this research was conducted on a large-scale), it would have made it possible to check directly whether participants’ words in the interview or questionnaire corresponded to their practical experiences, and to identify how much the INSET activities had been effectively implemented in real practice. Robinson and Robinson (1989, cited in Veenman et al 1994:305) state,

> to be able to reveal a training’s contribution, one must [...] **ascertain that the teachers do use on the job what they learned during training** (emphasis added).

Accordingly, in-service training activities should take pay due care and attention to contextual features in order to confirm that teachers (trainees) use on the job what they learnt during in-service training. Serious consideration of the transfer process (training input factors, training outcomes, and conditions of transfer described by Baldwin and Ford, 1998, in Veenman et al, 1994) of new knowledge in the real classroom by observation seems absent in this study. Moreover, Veenman et al made only passing quantitative references through tables (ibid:310-312) to factors including features of in-service programmes, implementation characteristics, dependent and independent variables etc. beyond the training courses without quotations from interview data.

Similar themes are discussed by Walters (2006) and Roberts (1998:258-75), who
conducted research into the design and implementation of INSET systems with an integrated follow-up element. Roberts’s account of this programme provides a well-documented illustration of an ELT INSET system with a built-in follow-up component.

3.9. Summary

This literature review has covered a range of areas beginning with an overview of teacher education and a discussion of the teacher change process. An exploration of the general principles of INSET follows incorporating the impact of INSET on the professional lives of teachers involving the areas of impact and typologies of INSET outcomes, and the impact of INSET courses on practice for the longer term. An investigation of the key studies on the impact of INSET in English language teacher education was also made including the significance of other people to teacher learning and development.

A number of different writers have made an important contribution to impact studies despite the fact that relatively very little empirical research has been conducted. From Lamb (1995) and Tomlinson (1988) I gained the original stimulus to investigate the impact of INSET courses on teaching practice, a overall focus of my study, and from Guskey (2002) and Kennedy (1987, 1988) I have learnt about teachers’ change and innovation processes. Reading Borg (2001) and Phipps (2009) focused on teachers’ perceptions and beliefs about teaching English though those studies focus specifically on teaching grammar. Tsui (2003) has been an invaluable source with regard to various dynamics in EFL classrooms and a number of EFL writers such as Freeman (1989, 1992, and 1994) and Roberts (1998) have provided insights into what teacher education courses should include. With regard to impact, Harland and Kinder’s impact typology
(1997) has provided the inspiration for my choice of categories and some of the interview questions. In addition, some writers who have discussed the impact of professional learning and development including longer-term impact, such as Hayes (1995), Powell et al (2003), Waters (2006), Waters and Vilches (2000) and Yan (2008), have been influential in my delineation of impact and they have provided insights into what further tasks INSET courses should have to ensure longer-term impact.

In the next chapter I report the processes by which I investigated the research questions, providing details of the approach, the research methods, and the actual process.
CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to give a detailed account of my research design in this study and to explain the reasons behind the choice of research methodology I employed. The research methodology in my study is qualitative, involving in-depth case study: mainly semi-structured interviews including stimulated recall interviews, and classroom observation.

4.1. Research questions

I have shown that there has been little empirical research on the impact of in-service teacher training on teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change. In particular, there are few studies related to how teachers put new knowledge or ideas learnt from INSET into practice within their own context. Equally scarce are studies on perceived impacts on their knowledge, perceptions, and understanding of their work in the Korean context. Furthermore, there has been no research on the longer-term impact or outcomes of in-service training in Korea. Therefore, this study aims to contribute to a better understanding of the impact of INSET courses on teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change by investigating an in-service language teacher training programme, run by the International Graduate School of English (henceforth, IGSE) in Korea, and two primary English language teachers’ classroom practice after the course over a period of six months.

The main research question of this study is ‘What are the impacts of INSET courses on primary English language teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change?’
This is divided into three sub-questions according to the stages of research.

I. Individual reasons for taking the course and preliminary impact (pre-INSET and post-INSET): what were the participants’ reasons for taking the course and what impact did they anticipate prior to the INSET; and what impact did they perceive the course had had after the INSET?

II. Classroom practice, perception change, and perceived impact (after returning to their institutions): how did teachers implement new knowledge obtained from the INSET course into their classroom practice? Did teachers experience perception change about teaching English as a result of the course? What were the positive/constraining factors in implementing what they have learnt from INSET in their educational practice? If there were hindering factors, what were the possible reasons behind the teachers’ implementation difficulties?

III. Longer-term impact (six months after completion of the INSET): were longer-term outcomes sustained in their classroom practice six months after completion of the course?

4.2. Case study

A qualitative case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a programme, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit (Merriam, 1988:xiv). Due to the features of case study, it has recently been widely adopted in EFL contexts as one of the research methods for in-depth analytical investigations, and used variously from a single project or language course to larger objects. Nunan (1992) also suggests that the case study method is especially suitable for clarifying teachers’ understanding of their work, and responding to the problems encountered in their professional lives (cited in Stoynoff, 2004:380). This is useful as a
description of the aims of this study in that the research I present here is concerned with the detailed descriptive, exploratory, and interpretive accounts within a bounded phenomenon.

4.2.1. The main characteristics of case study

In the literature a range of definitions and descriptions of case study are offered (Bassey, 1999, 2007; Nunan, 2005; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Cohen and Manion, 1994; Dörnyei, 2007; Gall, Gall and Borg, 1996; Merriam, 1988; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). Merriam (1988:31) defines four characteristics of case study: particularistic, descriptive, holistic, and inductive. Phipps (2009:38) categorises the main characteristics of case study into five features: particularity, complexity, contextualisation, multiple perspectives, and flexible design. This study looks at four of the five features suggested by Phipps. Since this study did not need to allow the inclusion of an ‘emergent strategy’ (Phipps, 2009:38), flexible design is not presented in this study.

- **Particularity** Stake (1995:xi) states that “case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case”. Thus, the focus of the research should be on a particular unit or set of units (Richards, 2003). This particularity can be explained by Gall et al (1996) as the study of phenomena by focusing on specific instances, that is, cases.

- **Complexity** A case study is expected to focus on the complexity of a single case rather than concentrate on standardised questions for a range of subjects. It can also be said that the case study enables researchers to explore an individual subject in depth and intensively, an in-depth study of each case (Gall et al, 1994) since it gives interpretive and subjective dimensions of phenomena.
This feature of depth and intensity has been described as a “thick description” of phenomena in Geertz (1973). Therefore, case study researchers attempt to depict a phenomenon and conceptualise it in order to re-create a situation and as much of its context as possible (Gall et al, 1994:549).

- **Contextualisation** A case study is the study of a phenomenon in its natural context (Gall et al, 1994; Yin, 2003). Miles and Huberman (cited in Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995:319) also suggest that cases may be defined “by an individual in a particular context, at a point in time”. Here it is clear that we cannot do a case study without a context and that the case is rooted in its individual situation, which is able to provide a rich and unique context (Gall et al, 1994; Yin, 2003).

- **Multiple perspectives** Case study data collection typically has multiple sources of information generating a sufficiently rich description (Richards, 2003:20), usually involving interviews, observation, and recording because no single perspective will offer a full perspective; therefore, the researcher is able to use different data sources to validate and crosscheck findings (Patton, 1990, cited in Mann, 2002:87).

The following quote synthesizes the four elements. Case study is:

...the in-depth study of instances of phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon (Gall et al, 1996:545).
4.2.2. The types of case study

Various writers have classified a number of types of case study. Yin categorised three different forms of case study and labelled them ‘exploratory’, ‘explanatory’, and ‘descriptive’. She describes the exploratory case study as aimed at defining the questions and hypotheses of a subsequent study. An explanatory case study presents data as cause and effect. The descriptive case study refers to a complete description of a phenomenon within its context (Yin 1993:5). Other researchers also identify different types of case study. For example, Merriam (1988:27-29) classifies case study as descriptive, interpretive, and evaluative. These types of case study are classified particularly in the way the research is conducted and its outcome in the end product (Stake, 1995). Gall et al (1996:549-551) and Stake (1995), on the other hand, classify case studies according to the point of view of the purpose; Gall et al categorise description, explanation, and evaluation and Stake (1995:3) distinguishes between intrinsic case study and instrumental case study.

These definitions of case study above help to provide researchers with a rationale for their research; the researcher can choose the type of case study depending on the case. Here I outline the specific characteristics of case study research I employed in this study with reference to these typologies.

- Exploratory

Yin (2003:5) believes that ‘what’ questions are exploratory, and aim to identify questions and propositions which can be explored through subsequent study. However, she goes on to say that ‘what’ questions can also be a form of question which asks ‘how many’ or ‘how much’, as in the line of inquiry in this study (e.g. how much the INSET course has an impact on teachers’ classroom practice and their perception
change?). In addition, McDonough and McDonough (1997:205) assert that “case study is crucially concerned with an understanding of people’s own meaning and perspectives”. The present study is not seeking to explain why something happened; rather, it constitutes a description and exploration of the impact of the INSET on teachers’ classroom practice and perceptions. Thus, I tried not to have any preconceived ideas or hypotheses (Miles and Huberman, 1994:431) and part of the rationale for the study is to theorise categories and typologies inductively from the data.

- Multiple cases within a single case

Multiple case study is sometimes referred to as a ‘collective case study’ (Stake, 1995:4; Silverman, 2005:127) or ‘multi-site case study’ (Stenhouse, 1983, cited in Nunan, 2005:77). This study is a multiple case study because it focused on one single unit within which there were several participants and situations, which made individual cases. Eckstein (1975, cited in Merriam, 1988:46) gives an example of how the single unit of analysis may contain a diverse number of instances depending on the focus of the study. These individual cases provide similar, different, and independent conclusions, which enable the researcher to find similarities and differences through cross-case analysis.

- Interpretive and descriptive

According to Merriam, some case studies are purely descriptive, whereas many more are combined; for example, a combination of description and interpretation or description and evaluation (Merriam, 1988). This study is a combination of the interpretive and descriptive case study and is, as stated above, inductive in nature (Merriam, ibid:28) in that generalisations, concepts, conceptual categories, or typologies emerge from an examination of data with rich, thick description. Naturally, it
is impossible to identify all the important variables ahead of time. Results are presented qualitatively, using words and pictures rather than numbers (Merriam ibid:7).

4.2.3. The boundaries of case study

One of the key features of case study is its bounded system (Merriam, 1988; Yin, 2003; Stake, 1995). The focus of case study research should be on a particular unit or set of units – institutions, programmes, events and so on (Richards, 2003; Merriam, 1988). That is, a case study is an examination of a specific phenomenon such as a programme, event, person, process, institution, or social group. As Miles and Huberman (cited in Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995:319) suggest, cases may be defined “by an individual in a particular context, at a point in time”.

However, Smith views the case as ‘a bounded system’ whose scope and boundaries are not always easy to define (cited in Stake, 1995:2). Yin (2003:13) supports the idea above that case study is used when “the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident”. This study has boundaries: the decision to focus on a three-week INSET course for primary English teachers and two INSET participant teachers’ classroom practice does provide boundedness. Moreover, this study is looking at a small sample of in-service training courses and EFL teachers who participated in the course rather than pre-service EFL teachers.

4.2.4. The generalisability of case study

Even though case study offers various merits – it allows the researcher to concentrate on a specific instance or situation and results in a rich and holistic account of a phenomenon (Merriam, 1988) – generalisability can be a limiting factor with case study
research. Within the academic community there is opposition to the idea of case studies and one of the major concerns facing case study researchers is how to generalise.

It is certainly true that the case study seems a poor basis for generalisation, since only a single or a few cases are studied, and certain activities, problems, or responses will recur again and again (Stake, 1995). Generalisations from certain responses from a case, or a few cases, in a particular situation might not be considered as generalisations at all. Thus, some researchers question how a single, small-scale case study can possibly be representative and produce findings generally applicable to other cases. Yin (2003:10) also points out that a case study has little basis for scientific generalisation. However, some writers (e.g. Gomm et al, 2000:4) refute this, stating that it is not necessary to seek empirical generalisation in case studies and understanding the case in itself may be sufficient. Yin (2003) also supports the view that the main aim of the case study is not to make generalisations. Erickson’s (1986, cited in Merriam, 1988:175) view is that the production of generalisable knowledge is an inappropriate goal for interpretive research. Ericson (ibid) goes on to say “the search is not for abstract universals arrived at by statistical generalisations from a sample to a population, but for concrete universals arrived at by studying a specific case in great detail and then comparing it with other cases studied in equally great detail”.

There is much debate in the research literature about ways in which qualitative research can enhance the validity of its findings and conclusions (Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008; Gall et al, 1996; Merriam, 1988; Patton, 2002). For example, Patton (1980:283 cited in Merriam, 1988:175) argues that qualitative research should provide context-
bound information rather than generalisations since context-bound information is able to encourage the investigator to provide a detailed description of the study’s context to enhance the possibility of generalising the case study’s results (ibid, 1988:177). These concepts above are relevant to this study in particular in that it has attempted to give detail about the context to provide a rich, thick description through cross-case analysis to enhance the validity, generalisability, and reliability of the study so as to help readers understand the findings instead of trying to obtain a picture of a whole population.

4.3. Research methods

This section outlines my approach to data collection and analysis in this study. In summary, what has been undertaken here is an explorative, interpretive, and descriptive case study. Since this study focuses mainly on investigating the impact of the INSET course on participant teachers’ classroom practice and their changes in perception about English teaching as a result of the course, it is essential to look at teachers’ performance in their classrooms and elicit their various perspectives about the course, new ideas obtained from the INSET, and the implementation of new knowledge. For this reason, interviews and observation were chosen as the main instrument in this study.

4.3.1. Interviews

Some theorists view the qualitative interview as ‘everyday interaction’, (e.g. Burgess, 1984:102) or ‘professional conversation’ (Kvale, 1996:5, in Richards, 2003:50). However, it has also been viewed as controlled interaction which uses verbal exchanges (Keats, 2000, cited in Richards, 2003) because we do not expect too much precision in ordinary conversation (Richards, 2003). Thus, it has been considered as a significant tool for data
collection to obtain rich detail, unlike informal conversation (Richards, 2003), because the qualitative interview allows the researcher to explore the respondents’ perspective. In other words, it allows the researcher (the evaluator) to enter another person’s world to understand that person’s perspective (Patton, 1987:109). Thus, the interview is useful when observation cannot easily obtain information such as people’s feelings or inner perspectives. Patton (1990:278) states “we cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions [...]. The purpose of interviewing then is to allow us to enter into the other persons’ perspective”. Yin (2003) also mentions that the interview is one of the most important means of eliciting introspective data in case study research.

In this sense, the qualitative interview is particularly helpful in this study to respond to the given research questions since part of this study focuses on the impact of INSET on teachers’ perception change and their perspectives about the course and course implementation into their classroom practice. The qualitative interview, indeed, enables the researcher to enter interviewees’ worlds by seeking what was ‘in and on their mind’ since their perception or perspectives about the course impact are neither objectively measurable nor observable. In contrast to the questionnaire, the researcher can thus investigate the feelings and motives of interviewees, which provides a greater depth, through tone of voice, facial expression, hesitation etc., which are not revealed in written responses. (Gall et al, 1996).

Another further advantage of interviews, particularly over questionnaires, is that they

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2 This is borrowed from Merriam (1988:72) and it was originally written “in and on someone else’s mind”.
can prevent many misunderstandings which may arise with questionnaires; that is, even though some items in the questionnaire may be unclear to some respondents, it is not possible to modify or explain the items for them after the questionnaire has been distributed (Gall et al, 1996). On the other hand, skilled interviewers can follow up a respondent’s answers or ideas to obtain more information and clarify vague statements: ‘adaptability’ (Gall et al, 1996; Bell, 1999). In particular face-to-face interviews also offer the possibility of modifying the lines of enquiry and give a greater depth of information (Robson, 2002:273).

Indeed, during my interviews, many of interviewees asked me to explain the meaning of terminology such as ‘CLT’ or ‘task-based learning’. Once the meaning was clear to them, they were able to respond to my interview more fully (see Appendix 1). Therefore, I was able to obtain a more detailed and deeper description of the target phenomenon and capture the complexity of teachers’ feelings, understanding, perspectives, and perceptions; if the explanations were not made to the respondents, I might not have probed deeply enough into the teachers’ real practices (Dörnyei, 2003). For these reasons, the qualitative interview is advantageous in this study because it allows more flexibility and greater contribution from the interviewer. On the other hand, one disadvantage is that interviewing is prone to subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer (Wellington, 2000:71). Regarding interviewer bias, Jones (1985:48) asserts that the “interview is a complicated, shifting, social process occurring between two individual human beings”. Researchers therefore should be constantly aware of the possible bias which may creep into an interview.
4.3.1.1. Types of interview: semi-structured and unstructured interviews

Since there is a wide variety of contexts in which interviews are carried out and the purposes which interviews serve may differ, different types of interviews for different context were chosen for this study. I aimed to conduct a total of four stages of interview from before the INSET course to six months after completion of the INSET course. The detailed schedule and aim of each stage of the interviews are dealt with in the next section. The following diagram summarises each stage of the interviews.

Figure 4.1. Interview stages in the study

Semi-structured interviews for participant teachers were chosen as the main interview style for this study through four stages, and in the third stage, informal interviews and stimulated recall interviews were added. Two teachers were each observed five times in the third stage and informal interviews were conducted with them after the classroom observations. Moreover, I was able to hold stimulated recall interviews three times with Vicky. I discuss informal interviews and stimulated recall interviews separately in the following sub-section. The reason for choosing the semi-structured interview was due to its greater flexibility compared to the structured interview; I was able to direct the interview more precisely and respond to the emerging views of respondents. In order words, there is sufficient flexibility in semi-structured interview
to allow the interviewee an opportunity to shape the flow of information (Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003:45).

Indeed, although there were set questions guiding the interviews, many secondary questions and, as mentioned above (see section 4.3.1), elaborative explanations of unfamiliar terminology were spontaneously given to respondents during the process of interviewing. This made it possible for both the interviewer (researcher) and interviewees to enhance both their understanding of the questions and the interviewee-friendly atmosphere that may provide more in-depth information than merely asking set questions. Interviews in this study initially followed set questions and respondents were asked similar open-ended questions as Phipps (2009) did in his study. However, as I did more interviews they became more individually focused with many secondary questions because individual responses were different according to the interviewees’ personal interests and needs. Sometimes interviews adopted an unstructured mode with a conversational format, allowing for more narrative expression, more dialogic relationships with previous interviews, and more detail and elaboration. Moreover, the interviews flowed more like a conversation and became longer over time (see section 4.4). In Phipps’ (2009) study, in contrast, the first interview was less focused with more open-ended questions, but the final interview was more focused and structured.

Although semi-structured interviews were planned for data collection prior to undertaking the interviews, a combination of three types of interview was formed during the interviewing process: structured mode in the initial stage; semi-structured during most of the interviews; and unstructured mode in the final stage. This may be due to the fact that as time passed the relationship between the interviewer and
respondents had become more comfortable, cooperative, and co-constructive so that this prompted my participants’ willingness to interact with me. This helped to create a rapport during the interviews. I found it difficult at the early stages of the interviews to create a familiar and comfortable atmosphere in an unknown context. Therefore, it was difficult for me to ask questions which yielded deeper and detailed information. Merriam (1988:74) supports that a combination of all three types of interview are useful: some standardised information is obtained, some of the same open-ended questions are asked of all participants, and some time is spent in an unstructured mode so that fresh insights and new information can emerge.

Unstructured interviews (informal interviews) were chosen for trainers. The following statement supports this: the context of the interview determines the nature of the interview content and style to be used (Keats, 2000). Since interviewing the trainers was not my main area of research, a set of questions were not predetermined so that the interviews were essentially exploratory.

Researchers such as Wellington (2000) suggest that note- and tape-recording can be used together in interviewing, to improve the accuracy and quality of data and to enrich the ‘texture of reality’. Most of my interviews were recorded on an MP3 player and notes were taken.

4.3.2. Observation

Bell (1999) states that observing an instance in real life or an individual unit in the case study provides researchers with a perspective on what happens in the target phenomenon. Furthermore, in the area of TESOL, a number of observation schemes
and instruments have been developed that enable teachers and researchers to focus
attention on specific aspects of classroom interaction, management, or instruction, and
construct or reconstruct understandings of language teaching and learning (Crandall,
2000:41). Likewise, the observations conducted in this study enabled the researcher to
yield data that pertained directly to typical behavioural situations and to focus on
specific phenomena: the INSET course and teachers’ classroom practice after the INSET.
In this sense, observation was essential in this study since I was able to get data
through the observations that interviews would not reveal, such as teachers’ use of L2,
and I was interested in how participant teachers implemented what they learnt from
the INSET into their classroom practice. I aimed to carry out observations during the
three-week INSET course and then observe the three teachers’ classroom practice five
times after they had returned to their institutions. In fact, although this was possible
with Vicky and Tracy, Grace did not wish to be observed (see the extract from Grace’s
email in section 7.2).

The observations during the INSET course were of six hour days from Monday to Friday
and observations in Vicky and Tracy’s classes were of 40-minute lessons at times
convenient to them. I used different observation approaches depending on the
situations: participant observation while observing teacher training sessions, but non-
participant (non-directive observation) for observing teachers’ classroom practice after
the INSET.

During participant observation, observers are involved in the activities they set out to
observe and become an instrument of inquiry by playing dual roles; on the other hand,
non-participant observers stand apart from the group activities they are investigating
and avoid being a member of the group (Cohen et al., 1994). The detailed observation approach used in this study can be defined as follows:

Table 4.1. Approaches to observation in this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach to observation</th>
<th>In the INSET</th>
<th>In teachers’ classrooms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participant observation</td>
<td>Non-directive approach³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-structured</td>
<td>Non-structured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insider</td>
<td>Outsider</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reason why I chose participant observation in the INSET course is that I wished to develop more intimate and informal relationships with participants in the course, to be a full insider⁴ researcher. In fact, I initially began the observation of the INSET course as a spectator (non-participant observer), but gradually became involved in the activities even though it was not a matter of simply deciding how much I would participate. This might have been for two reasons: (i) gaining familiarity with the case; and (ii) a desire to experience the programme as a participant. There was, of course, a danger that once a researcher gains familiarity, the position of participation and observation is likely to change. However, overall I was able to not only create a rapport with the participants, which made it easy to get research samples for my further research, but also to help understand what the programme was like and become

³ This term is borrowed from Freeman (1982:23).
⁴ Merton (1972, cited in Hellawell, 2006:484) defines the insider as an individual who possesses a priori intimate knowledge of the community and its members.
capable of understanding the course as an insider while describing the course for outsiders (Patton, 1987). To minimise the danger mentioned above, I tried to focus on collecting data, not to be distracted from the relationships with those around me as Richards (2003) recommends. Moreover, I tried to eliminate preconceived ideas and prejudices to avoid disadvantages, such as being subjective and biased, that can arise from participant observation in particular. During the teachers’ classroom observations, I needed to be more aware of these dangers since I was already well acquainted with the teachers’ (Vicky and Tracy) personalities, strengths, and weakness through the familiarity created during the INSET course. There is an inevitable balance between insights derived from common experience (INSET course) and my own positions and points of view (also partly derived from the INSET experience).

In contrast, non-directive observations were used during the teachers’ classroom observations. I stood apart from the group activities conducted in the classrooms and avoided being a member of the group. For example, when I observed Vicky’s English class some pupils who did not fully understand what the teachers said in English asked me to clarify. However, I just smiled and passed by them. Moreover, according to Freeman (1982), non-directive observation is a process of reflection and self-evaluation. The observer facilitates this process through the use of counselling responses, followed by comments, questions, and suggestions (Freeman, 1982:26). Thus, this process led this study to informal interviews and stimulated interviews – referred to as post-observation interview in Phipps (2009) – after classes. In this process, Freeman goes on to say that how the class was taught and, more crucially, what the teacher was trying to do and why, are the substance of the discussion (Freeman, 1982:26). In this light,
this non-directive approach seemed pertinent to the needs of the third stage of research in the present study.

4.3.3. Stimulated recall

According to Gass and Mackey (2000:17), “stimulated recall is one of the introspective methods. Stimulated recall can be used to prompt participants to recall thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event”. In this study, the method enabled me to understand the original situation, and to re-live what was going on.

Vicky and Tracy were asked to attend a recall session, but Tracy was not able to make the time because she had to participate in a training programme for primary school teachers run by Seoul Metropolitan Office of Education. This was a practical constraint which emerged unexpectedly, but Tracy was able to participate in the informal interview after the observation of each class.

Vicky and I watched her performance on the downloaded file on her computer. Vicky was asked specific questions; for example, during the recording, I paused at particular points and directed questions to her: What were you doing and why? Did you have any particular objectives in mind at that moment? If so, what were they? The recall session was audio recorded as in Tyler’s research (ibid: 40).

4.3.4. Multimodality

This section takes a look at multimodality, especially visual resources (photos), rather than other multimodal resources such as writings or audio recordings and how visual resources are used in this study. According to Emmison and Smith (2000:4, cited in Dicks et al, 2006:79), visual data is not “what the camera can record but [...] what the
eye can see”. Thus, the media produced by field researchers, whether these are images, sound, or written records, should be considered not as themselves ‘data’ but as ways of representing multimedia field data.

Multimodality is an innovative approach to representation, communication, and interaction which looks beyond language to investigate the multitude of ways we communicate: through images, sound and music to gestures, body posture, and the use of space (Jewitt, 2009). Jewitt (2002:1) also states that a range of representational modes including image, movement, gesture, and voice are available as meaning-making resources in the move from page to screen. Photographs allow us to see modes that are visual: colour, shape, size, position, light. Therefore, they give the reader not only a flavour of the research setting, but also photographic images that written words cannot convey in the full multimodality observable within the study setting (Dicks et al, 2006). For this reason, I chose multimodality, having found during the research that it allows the researcher to look at more neutral and less subjective images than written description provides because writing tends to grant a depiction of experience that is more overtly situated and free-floating in its connotations. Therefore, multimodality is congruent with the descriptive, interpretive paradigm within which the research study is located.

However, it is not necessarily suggesting here that writing is more selective or subjective than the photographic image. It is pointless to compare writing with video recording or to assume that video recording is obviously superior to field notes in its ability to represent reality more fully. Rather I am arguing for a complementary use of photographs in attempting to provide a multimodal representation.
In this study, multimodal methodology (photos) was used for my own recall as a complementary form of representation during the findings and conclusions and for the stimulated recall interviews with Vicky regarding her classroom practice. As for the example of my own recall, the photos of Vicky’s theme-based teaching (figure 6.3.) and the photos (figure 6.2.) comparing the INSET course with Vicky’s classroom allowed me to understand better and more vividly what kinds of activities were conducted in the real classroom and how the pupils (or Vicky) were reacting to the activity since these photos include their gestures, facial expressions, and movement, which written description is not able to offer. In addition, the multimodal technique was used for the stimulated recall interview with Vicky. Through watching the video of Vicky’s classroom practice, we were able to re-visit the situation to establish more clearly what was going on in her class (see section 6.2.3.6).

If this study had not employed this visual resource as a research methodology, but instead had relied solely on written description, the depiction of all the positions, the movements, gestures etc. that we can see on the videotape would not have been introduced.

4.4. Research design

This study was designed in four stages as briefly mentioned in the interview section (see the section 4.3.1.1.and figure 4.1). The first and second stages followed seven primary English teachers who were participants in the INSET course in order to investigate their reasons for taking the course and how the course met their expectations or needs and what impacts they perceived from the course after the INSET. The teachers were interviewed just prior to the three-week INSET course, at the
pre-INSET observation interview (stage one) and at the post-INSET observation interview after the INSET course (stage two).

In the third and fourth stage, changes were made and a further series of longer, more detailed interviews (e.g. informal and stimulated recall interviews) and classroom observations of the three teachers were intended to be carried out. Both informal and stimulated recall interviews as well as classroom observation took place after the INSET course when the teachers had returned to their home schools (stage three). This was followed by interviews six months after the completion of the INSET course (stage four). In particular, I intended to carry out five observations and three subsequent interviews, each followed by classroom observation, with each of the three participants at a convenient time to them. The purpose of this was to create more detailed and rich descriptions by exploring how they put into practice what they learnt in the INSET course. However, only two teachers’ (Vicky and Tracy) classroom observations were conducted because Grace declined to take any further part in the study.

In addition, informal interviews followed by classroom observations were held rather than formal interviews since, when asked, the teachers preferred the freer form of interviews without recording. Based on the in-depth interviews with the teachers before and after the INSET period, and through observation during the three-week INSET course and in their real classrooms, I hoped to investigate how much the INSET course affected teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change.

I present a table to provide an initial overview of my research design and other relevant information, e.g. data collection schedule, samples etc.
Table 4.2. Stages of data collection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Data collection stages</th>
<th>Data collection instrument</th>
<th>Programme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>February 2008</td>
<td>Pilot study</td>
<td>Observation; Post-INSET interviews</td>
<td>INSET course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21st July 2008</td>
<td>Pre-INSET observation interview (stage 1)</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Prior to the course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th August 2008</td>
<td>Post-INSET observation interview (stage 2)</td>
<td>Interviews INSET observations Document analysis</td>
<td>After 3-week INSET course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23rd September–25th October 2008</td>
<td>Five separate classroom practice observations and interviews for each participant (stage 3)</td>
<td>Interviews (informal interviews, post-observation interviews, and stimulated recall interviews); Classroom observations</td>
<td>After participants’ returned to their schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 2009</td>
<td>Longer-term impact interviews</td>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>Six months after completion of the INSET</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4.1. Pilot study

A final preparation prior to data collection is to conduct a pilot case study (Yin, 2003:78). The pilot study in this study, involving informal observation and interviews, was conducted from 28th to 30th January 2008 at TTI where my main research was also carried out. The purpose of this pilot study was to check the overall feasibility of further real research and to refine my data collection plans in terms of developing more relevant research questions and the procedures to be followed. Although it was a three-day short training session, this pilot study helped me develop: (i) better observation and interview skills using various data collection tools; and (ii) better procedures to gain permission. I will discuss how the pilot study informed my research later.

Regarding observation and interview skills, although I had some choices about how a record of a lesson should be kept, such as videotaping and sound recording, only written notes were used in my informal observation and interviews since I could not get permission to videotape or audio record because of the short notice. A disadvantage of not using video recording was found during the analysis: there was no possibility of an ‘action replay’, allowing good visual and sound recordings to be replayed several times. Consequently, it could have been a superficial or unreliable record in terms of not providing a full description of the events in the class. However, if the whole session had been videotaped, full focus could have been placed on the trainers and trainees, to include visual cues such as facial expressions, gesture, and body language. Thus, videotaping and audio recording were used in my main research,
with the permission of the institution and trainers, as a result of the lesson learnt during my pilot study.

Secondly, in my informal observation, some trainers seemed to resent the short notice given by the course director who had the authority to judge their performance. One of the trainers had not even been informed about my observation. This also helped me ensure that I made contact in good time with teachers in my main research. In addition, getting permission to access people or the institution was not straightforward at all. I realised the following fact through my pilot study that permission from respondents, schools, or institutions must be sought at an early stage to carry out an investigation (Bell, 1997). Traditionally observation has been conducted for evaluation purposes, which led to a reluctance of many trainers and teachers to be involved in the study. It seemed therefore very important to be clear about the purpose of my observation. In my main research, I was required to inform trainers and participant teachers of the purpose of my research in advance through clear explanation and sufficient contact. Therefore, conversations or meeting should be held before undertaking the research so that rapport and a non-judgemental atmosphere between trainers or teachers and observers could be established. Without the pilot study, I could also have been at risk of failing to get permission to conduct my research.

4.4.2. Sampling

Many writers (e.g. Patton 1987:52-58; Dörnyei, 2007:127-129; Miles and Huberman, 1994) present a comprehensive list of sampling strategies and this study used a mixed sampling approach: ‘purposively homogeneous sampling’ in the first and second stage and ‘convenience sampling’ in the third and fourth stage of data collection. As Dörnyei (2007:126) mentions “the main goal of sampling is to find individuals who can provide
rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximise what we can learn”. Therefore I initially used purposeful homogeneous sampling to build up more relevant responses to my research questions, but in the third and fourth stage of data collection it became rather closer to convenience sampling as I interviewed and observed the classroom practice of people that were available at the time and to whom I had access.

Dörnyei (2007:127) explains that homogeneous sampling is “selecting participants from a particular subgroup who share some important experience relevant to our study” and people who have participated in a certain programme can be an example of this sampling. This enables the researcher to gain common patterns of responses and in-depth information about a particular group with similar characteristics (Patton 1987; Dörnyei, 2007). Thus, seven participants who had similar backgrounds and experience (i.e. teaching English in a primary school) in the first and second stage of data collection were selected purposely in the hope that they would be able to provide a richer picture of the INSET course. With regard to the convenience sampling, Patton (1987:58) states that this sampling strategy is neither purposeful nor strategic, but it is very practical in that the researcher uses those who are available and this sampling results in willing participants (Dörnyei, 2007).

In this study three of the seven participants were selected for the further data collection (third and fourth stage) according to their availability and accessibility at that time. Two (Robin and Tom) out of the seven participants decided to enrol in an

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5 In the Korean primary school context, not all teachers are involved in teaching English.
intensive teacher training course instead of returning to their teaching practice; one participant (Diana) was not assigned to teach English in the following semester by her school; and one other participant (Sunny) refused to be interviewed and observed. Consequently, only three samples were available at that time. However, to make matters worse, one of the three remaining teachers, Grace, subsequently opted out of part of the data collection as she did not want to be observed. This was despite the fact that she had agreed to be observed prior to taking part in the further research. Therefore the number of samples at the third stage of data collection was brought down to two: Vicky and Tracy. However, Grace did willingly participate in all interviews as agreed.

For the third and fourth stage of research I would like to give further consideration to my choice of sampling to fit certain categories in order to obtain a deeper and more thorough description of the INSET course impact. I intended to use maximum variation sampling (Patton 1987:53; Dörnyei, 2007:128). However, as mentioned, convenience sampling was inevitably used which brings to mind Dörnyei’s (2007:129) comment: “research (particularly postgraduate research) all too often happens in less-than-ideal circumstances”. Figure 4.2 below provides specific details of my research sample.
### Stage breakdown:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>1st stage:</th>
<th>2nd stage:</th>
<th>3rd stage:</th>
<th>4th stage:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>interview</td>
<td>interview</td>
<td>observation</td>
<td>interview</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Number of participants

- 1st stage: 7
- 2nd stage: 7
- 3rd stage: Classroom observations: 2, Informal & stimulated recall interviews: 2
- 4th stage: Post-observation Interview: 3

### Number/Gender of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2. Research samples and their details of this study

### 4.4.3. Ethical issues

In qualitative research, many writers have considered the ethical issues likely to emerge during the collection of data and analysis of personal documents (Cohen et al, 1994; Merriam, 1988; Heigham and Croker, 2009; Dörnyei, 2007; Gall et al, 1996). In particular, Merriam (1988:180) mentions that the standard data collection techniques of interviewing and participant observation present their own ethical dilemmas such as feeling under pressure to respond in an interview and issues of privacy. Given that this
study carried out in-depth interviews for a period of six months and that I was involved as a participant observer in the INSET course where the further research samples would be acquired for the next stage of research (classroom observation of participant teachers), I felt it was important to consider the following issues, as Heigham and Croker (2009: 275-279) do, to ensure the ethical truthfulness of the study.

- Avoiding deception and informed consent

Gaining informed consent prior to interview and observation is a crucial issue (Heigham and Croker, 2009). Before giving the written consent form to the participants, the aim of the research and the purpose for which the data would be used, and what would be expected from the participants were fully and clearly explained to ensure that the participants were not deceived about the study and their roles during the data collection procedures. Participants were also asked if any photographs taken through videotaping could be used for the purposes of the study. Particularly, oral consent to use photos of pupils in the classroom was sought from the pupils’ parents (all mothers) who were observing the class at that time. Vicky was a witness to the oral presentation and the verbal consent gained at that time. Moreover, it was particularly emphasised prior to the research in this study that the purpose of the research was non-judgemental and non-evaluative, and this was repeated prior to all observation. Finally I requested and gained written consent from the institution, trainers, and teachers. In addition, as Heigham and Croker (2009:276) mention “participants may withdraw from the study at any time without prejudice”, their right to withdraw from the study at any point without any pressure was discussed and respected in this study. (see Appendix 2)

- Privacy and confidentiality

The privacy of participants must be carefully considered; that is, their identities, names,
and specific roles in their workplace should be kept and remain confidential. Even though mostly anonymised names are used, Dörnyei (2007:65) warns that it is often possible to identify the respondents and to be able to match their performances on various instruments or tasks. Moreover, confidentiality is also a crucial concern in qualitative research. All data and findings obtained must not be shared with others using participants’ names. In this vein, personal information that could reveal their identity, such as the name of their workplace, was concealed and pseudonyms were given.

- Relationships

In qualitative studies researchers may build up an intimate relationship with participants in order to establish rapport and gain access to their lives, but this can create other ethical issues in two ways. Firstly, as mentioned in the interview section, familiarity is not always helpful when trying to maintain an objective and neutral position. Secondly, many writers (Dörnyei, 2007; Cohen et al, 1994; Heigham and Croker, 2009) indicate that there is an ethical dilemma in the relationship between researcher and participants: “seduction and abandonment” (Siskin 1994, cited in Heigham and Croker, 2009:278). This is about how to end a research project without leaving the participants feeling that they were merely used (Dörnyei, 2007:65). To reduce this feeling of abandonment, I make a point of keeping in touch with participants through Facebook or occasionally meeting for dinner now that the data collection has ended.

4.5. Data analysis

Three types of approach were used in this study to design the research and analyse the data: (i) an analysis of the INSET course content; (ii) a concept-driven approach
(applying categories borrowed from the literature); and (iii) a data-driven inductive approach (from teachers’ data). Thus, this study used both deductive and inductive approaches in the analysis in that initial categories emerged through pre-coding (inductive process) which were then checked, confirmed, and reshaped by further reference to the literature (deductive process). Also, I could refine and devise new categories through continuously revisiting the data since developing categories involves looking for recurring regularities (Merriam, 1988:133), and thus the analysis process in this study is essentially iterative and cyclical rather than using a linear logic, and it is an ongoing process.

4.5.1. Pre-coding

The first step in data analysis begins by transcribing the recordings into textual form (Dörnyei, 2007). I first transcribed the MP3 recordings into English myself. However, when returning the first transcription to the participants for them to check the accuracy, they expressed feelings of dissatisfaction because it was difficult for them to read the texts in English. Thus, I started to translate the recorded data into Korean first and then it was sent out to the participants.

The recorded data was fully translated and transcribed which was very time-consuming. However, I found the process of full transcription to be useful because it provided an important learning opportunity: allowing me to get to know the data thoroughly. Whilst transcribing the data, I could thus develop tentative categories along with analytic memos and comments (see Appendix, 3). Analytic notes are helpful to develop a primitive outline or system of classification into which data is sorted initially (Merriam, 1988:131).
Reading and re-reading the transcribed data helped me find frequently mentioned words and sentences as Guba and Lincoln (1994, cited in Merriam, 1988:135) suggest. Moreover, this stage of pre-coding enabled me to not only develop the initial categories, but also reformulate future interviews whilst reflecting on the transcribed data.

4.5.2. Open coding

Open coding refers to “the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising the data” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990:6, cited in Kvale and Brinkman, 2009:202). Likewise, while reading and re-reading the transcribed data, at first I tried to look for frequently mentioned words as Guba and Lincoln (1994, cited in Merriam, 1988:135) suggest; in other words, I looked for recurring themes and patterns, and compared similarities and differences for each case. I then highlighted a word or passage that I considered relevant to my topic and started to group and label these (e.g. ‘confidence’ ‘pupil-teacher relationship’ etc.) in order that they could be easily identified and retrieved. When labelling and highlighting, I used Word’s track change function (I worked with an electronic copy not a hard copy) since clarity is the most important feature when labelling (Dörnyei, 2007).

Also, as Dörnyei (2007) recommends, I highlighted any interesting-looking passages from a participant’s interview data even if it was not frequently mentioned by other teachers; this is described in more detail in the general impact section (see Sunny’s interview quotation, section, 6.1.1.2).

4.5.3. Coding
As Kvale and Brinkman (2009:202) mention coding can be either concept driven or data driven; the categories in this study were developed from concepts (theory), teachers’ data, and the analysis of the INSET course. They go on to state that concept-driven coding uses codes that have been developed in advance by the researcher, either by looking at some of the material or by consulting existing literature in the field (ibid). This study developed categories by using both the former and the latter when using the concept-driven coding process. As an example of concept-driven data, I revisited Harland and Kinder (1997:75) and reviewed the current sub-categories (see section 3.7.3 and 4.5.4) as the categories in this study were developed from the literature as well.

In addition, for the data-driven code, I tried to highlight recurring concepts, themes, and categories from the teachers’ data, and analysis of the INSET course. I then undertook to link and cluster them together under broad labels in order to reshape and break them down into smaller sub-categories. At this stage, new, more detailed categories could be found that needed to be coded. After revising the lists of codes, I went back to the original transcript and I coded them again so as to double check that I had not missed any significant data and also to reduce the amount of insignificant data since all the qualitative coding techniques aim to reduce or simplify the data (Dörnyei, 2007:250) (see Appendix, 3). In the following section I now present in more detail how the categories emerged in this study.

To enhance the reliability of the code lists, an ‘external code check’ was needed. I asked the friend who had helped me transcribe the interview data in the study; she is

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currently studying for an MBA. She looked at the data and recoded a certain section of the categories: teachers’ perception change. Although some discrepancies in recoded data were found by her, they were very small differences. For example, one of the categories in the teachers’ motivational impact section, attempting new skills obtained from the INSET in their own classroom, was labelled by her in the category of ‘teachers’ confidence’, whereas it was labelled in the category of ‘motivational impact’ by the researcher.

4.5.4. Categories that emerged in the study

Broadly, two themes emerged in this study, which have been developed into a model of professional outcomes: impact on classroom practice; and impact on the personal and psychological aspects of teachers’ perception change. The linking of the two broad variations arose from the concept that the impact on classroom practice cannot come about without the personal and psychological developmental process and vice-versa; it does not stand alone and is interdependent. The importance of a combination and interplay of outcomes has been pointed out by Burchell et al (2002) and Powell et al (2003).

More specifically, a preliminary analysis of the data, mainly observation and interview, pointed to five main variations of impact both in a practical aspect (the impact on classroom practice) and in personal and psychological aspects: classroom management; classroom interaction; classroom language use; professional motivation; and professional confidence related to the TEFL profession. The final two impacts, professional confidence and motivation, were not as explicitly emphasised in the INSET course. It transpired, however, that participating in the INSET course enhanced not only
teachers’ self-esteem but also their professional capacity.

4.5.5. Typology development

Dörnyei (2007:207) mentions that we analyse one set of data and establish some substantive categories or themes in typology/category development and these categories are then applied in the analysis of the other type of data. Likewise, I did not begin with a particular theory in mind but adopted both an inductive and deductive approach. The inductive approach allows theory to develop from the data and the deductive approach, using the literature, represents a concept-driven approach i.e. applying categories borrowed from the literature. Consequently, this specific five-area impact outcome (see section 4.5.4) emerged from three sources: (i) the content of INSET – i.e. what information or knowledge was transferred from the INSET course into real practice; (ii) the data; what trainee teachers themselves say about impact; (iii) the literature; how the literature has classified impact outcomes.

Determining the categorisation of impact outcomes derives from my analysis of the INSET course content and teachers’ delivery in their own institutions. It is very valuable to look at the content of INSET and classroom practice since (i) bringing about changes in practice by supporting the transfer of new skills to the teachers’ repertoire in the classroom is the ultimate intention of the impact of INSET (Harland and Kinder, 1997), though there is argument that the impact need not be directly measurable with immediate changes in the classroom (Cope et al, 1992:306; Day, 1999:137); (ii) the INSET course can exert considerable influence on subsequent teaching practice. It is then worthwhile describing the content of INSET with evaluative analysis at this stage since the impact of INSET on classroom practice is examined within the context of the TTI training course. The next chapter summarises key stages of the TTI course and how
they relate to stages of data collection during the study.

The next source of impact categories emerged inductively from my analysis of teacher data; this made it possible not only to evaluate the perceived impact but also uncover findings, mainly during the process of analysing the interview data. Inductive analysis means that the patterns, themes, and categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being decided prior to data collection and analysis (Patton, 1987:150). This data-driven inductive approach has been illustrated by Strauss and Corbin (1998:12) as “derived from data, systematically gathered and analysed through the research process” and emergent themes and patterns came from the data, rather than being pre-conceived (in Patton, 2002:56).

The final source of impact categories derived from the literature. The impact of INSET on both classroom practice and teacher’s personal change has been studied in a wide range of short-term and long-term impact areas: (i) perception changes in professional and personal attitudes: enhanced professional self-esteem (Butcher and Sieminski, 2006); greater confidence (Cope et al, 1992; Powell et al, 2003; Davies and Preston, 2002); and professional development and teacher change (Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996; Guskey, 2002); (ii) the impact on classroom practice: follow-up impact and longer-term impact on classroom practice (Waters, 2006; Yan, 2008); transfer of INSET training (Cullen, 1997; Lamb, 1995); INSET and teachers’ lives (Hayes, 1997).

Drawing from the CPD/INSET literature presented above, I have classified the particular areas in which impact or transfer was perceived to have taken place in the literature in order to inform the development of my analytical categories and to justify my decisions. In particular, some of the outcomes from the nine-point typology of outcomes illustrated by Harland et al (1997) were useful to help structure categorisations in the
present study because of its more wide-ranging view of impact not evident in other writers such as Joyce and Shower (1988) who chose to measure the effect on pupils’ learning. The study by Harland et al draws out a nine-point typology of outcomes: material and provisionary; informational; new awareness; value congruence; affective; motivational and attitudinal; knowledge and skills; institutional; impact on practice (see literature review chapter, section 3.7.3). Powell et al (2003:391) further state that “the particular value of this typology lies in the comprehensiveness of its conceptualisation of CPD outcomes that contrast sharply with the narrower framework of understanding proposed by Joyce and Showers” (1988). Moreover, one of the outcomes ‘impact on professional self-esteem’ from Butcher and Sieminski (2006:65) was also used to create categorisations and has been entitled ‘professional confidence’ in this study.

I have drawn on particular sources (e.g. Harland and Kinder, 1997; Butcher and Sieminski, 2006) rather than others; for example, in Harland et al (ibid) impact on practice outcomes is associated with “the organisation and management of those activities in the classroom” and “the nature of the interactions between teacher and pupils” (Harland et al, 1997:76). This is closely consistent with the dimensions of the content of INSET which demonstrates deeper levels of teachers’ educational practice delivery and aims to transfer new knowledge from INSET to the classroom. Consequently, categories made in this study are based on the content of INSET, the data from teachers, and concepts and taxonomies in the literature.

I have explored how these themes and categories were developed. Based on the categorisations; the next chapter presents single vignettes of two teachers’ accounts of
their individual journeys in order to explore the impact of INSET in greater detail.

I would like to end this chapter with a clearer, tabular summary of the methodological procedure (see figure 4.3 and 4.4). I divide the analysis process into three overlapping stages which I categorise as pre-coding, open coding and coding.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Data collection stages</th>
<th>Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>February 2008</td>
<td>Pilot study (informal observation &amp; interviews)</td>
<td>2 teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 2008</td>
<td>Getting a permission from TTI by email</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 2008</td>
<td>Obtained written consent form from TTI &amp; trainers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 2008</td>
<td>Obtained written consent form from 7 teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 2008</td>
<td>Pre-INSET observation interview</td>
<td>7 teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 2008</td>
<td>Post-INSET observation interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 2008</td>
<td>After returning to school interview &amp; Observation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>~ October 2008</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vicky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>informal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>chat;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>stimulated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>recall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>interview;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 times of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>classroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 2009</td>
<td>Longer-term impact (outcome) interview</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Trainers interview**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linda</td>
<td>17-October-2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deborah</td>
<td>09-August-2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sally</td>
<td>27-August-2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.3. Stages of data collection
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Process of data analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-INSET observation interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 08</td>
<td>Pre-coding (transcribing; member check; making tentative categories)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 08</td>
<td>Open coding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 08</td>
<td>Coding (highlighting recurring concepts, themes, and categories)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October 08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November 08</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>December 08</td>
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<td>January 09</td>
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<td>February 09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.4. Process of data analysis
4.6. Summary

This chapter has given a detailed account of the research design of this study and has outlined the principles of qualitative case study. Semi-structured interviews (partly unstructured interviews for the trainers and the three teachers at the fourth stage of interviews), observations, and stimulated recall were the main research tools, conducted in a series of four iterative stages. I have also described different aspects of the research process such as sampling, ethical issues, transcribing, attempts to reduce bias, and data triangulation. Chapter 5 focuses on evaluative analysis of the INSET course, highlighting the key events and issues introduced by the course, and thereby informing subsequent analysis of the teacher data.
My aim in this chapter is to provide an important evaluative analysis of the TTI course in order to help frame the subsequent findings chapters. The issues and themes that emerged from the INSET course informed the subsequent analysis of the teachers’ data.

5.1. Content of the INSET course

As described in Chapter 2, the TTI course consisted of courses related to language proficiency and teaching methodology. Since the introduction of the new policy of TETE by the Korean government, which recommends that all Korean elementary school EFL teachers should only use English in the classroom, naturally, INSET participants’ overwhelming desire is to improve their command of the language itself.

To meet the needs of participants, the TTI course had focused more on language development than the methodological component, aiming at improving participants’ own command of English so that they can use it more fluently and confidently in their classrooms as many (e.g. Cullen, 1994; Murdoch, 1994) argue that language development has to be given a central place in the curricula for teacher training institutions. Moreover, language proficiency would be central to the professional confidence of non-native English teachers. TTI allotted more time to speaking classes than other classes. According to the principle of TTI, language development has to be given a central place in the curricula for teacher training institutions (Agora7, 2009).

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7 Magazine of IGSE that has been published twice a year since 2003.
http://english.igse.ac.kr/Pupil/NewsLetter.asp
The president of TTI emphasises Korean English teachers’ communication skills: “Korean teacher trainees tend to get an overdose of methodology at the cost of English-language communication skills [...] As a result, most teacher trainees are ill-equipped to teach well enough the language they are supposed to teach” (Agora, 2008:10).

For this reason, an allocation of 27 hours of language skills classes (12 hours of listening classes and 15 hours of speaking classes) to three hours of methodology classes per week would probably be what TTI would aim for, and presumably what trainees would anticipate. Indeed, most of the participants in the pre-INSET observation interview responded that the most important reason as to why they attended the INSET course was to improve their linguistic competence. Accordingly, the content of the INSET seems to be geared towards the ideas identified by the participants’ needs.

The content of the methodology class covers very basic background knowledge such as classroom management, classroom interaction, learner autonomy, learner training, and its related activities. These activities include readers’ theatre\(^8\) and its variations such as radio drama, puppet shows, television production, and skits; theme-based teaching and storytelling were also introduced. It also considers practical and methodological issues such as how to deal with mixed-ability and large classes, checking learning and error correction, the nature of classroom interaction, task-based learning, and using group, pair and individual work. The methodology class is essentially seen as a way of

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\(^8\) Readers’ theatre is one of the activities introduced by the trainer Linda in the teaching methodology class at TTI. This activity is a dramatisation of a written work in a script form.
not only enhancing methodological skills which deepen the trainees’ understanding of the principles and processes involved in language teaching, in the hope that this will inform their own practice as teachers, but also of enabling teachers to improve their classroom teaching and practical qualifications. Thus, it can be described in Cullen’s terms (1994:172) as “practice-driven” rather than “theory-driven”. It will therefore be rooted more firmly in reality than the more theory-based methodology which many of the trainees would previously have studied in their initial teacher education. This can possibly be linked to experiential models (see section 3.5.4) of learning which focus more on experience and process rather than outcomes and knowledge acquisition (Kolb, 1993).

I would now like to present a detailed description of each class in order to provide a linkage to issues and themes which arose in teachers’ analysis by using extensive extracts of INSET data.

5.2. Listening skills class

The listening skills class was conducted by the trainer Deborah and began with a warm-up activity or a review of the previous lesson, and the movie ‘Family Man’ was shown. Deborah responded to the question as to why the movie had been chosen as a material in the listening class:

I think watching English movies or drama is very useful in terms of learning authentic language and culture. (D/TTI.INT/08AUG08/PP.8)

After watching the movie, she followed the assigned textbook, ‘impact listening’ published by Longman. When teaching impact listening, Deborah started the class with
a warm-up activity related to the day’s topic such as chatting about the topic and making the trainees guess what the photos (see the photos below) are about.

And then, for each unit, she selected vocabulary that she wanted the trainees to learn and elicited their meaning from the trainees rather than directly referring to the textbook. For example, in the observation of 7th August, Deborah elicited the following vocabulary items: blast, gust, windy, breezy, humid, shiny, chilly, scorcher, and so on (D/0B/CLIP307AUG0800:12:00). When I asked her on what basis she selected those items, she said that the words were all related to the weather and they were all in the textbook.

This pedagogic approach promoted on the course is essentially constructivist in nature. Trainees are encouraged to develop their own ideas and course tutors are expected to
refrain from proposing ‘right answers’ or ‘display questions’ that would be regarded as non-communicative (Gil, 2002). The Korean INSET teacher training programme still tends to reflect a transmission model of teaching rather than a participant-centred one and thus participants are naturally in the role of listeners rather than active participants (Kim, 2004; Lee, 2004). This is important from the perspective of this study, as there is always the possibility that participants might appear to change their beliefs so as to be in line with tutors’ expectations.

As I observed Deborah’s listening class, I noticed a recurring routine. There were three listening stages: warm-up activity (vocabulary items and guessing game); first listening (discussion with partners and checking answers); second listening (gaining deeper understanding); and third listening (whole class checking). Sometimes, post-listening activities were added (e.g. creating tourist information in groups). After going through the first listening, she asked trainees to open their textbooks and gave them two or three minutes to discuss what kind of story it was in pairs. As the arrows show in the following figure, each stage had its own goals to be achieved.

Figure 5.2. Stages of the listening class based on the syllabus Deborah made for this course.
As well as the hands-on experience of the listening activities, three-minute speeches from trainees about their learning practice experience of how to improve English listening were also carried out in front of their peers throughout the listening sessions in order to both share up-to-date information and develop language competence.

5.3. Speaking skills class

I would now like to describe the speaking class in more detail. The class was conducted by the trainer Sally. Even though she was an inexperienced teacher trainer, her own experience of studying for her B.A in the U.S., and of teaching English in India as a volunteer helped her speaking class go smoothly. She usually began the class with warm-up activities. For example, she asked the participants to introduce their names with an appropriate adjective, starting with the same initial letter, along with a gesture. For herself, she said “I am Sally, swimming Sally” with a swimming gesture (fieldnote 1, see Appendix 4.1). Many other activities related to pedagogic topics provided excellent opportunities for communication practice: group work tasks such as making a holiday menu, individual tasks (e.g. a presentation in front of peers), group presentations in training groups, sharing ideas in pairs, playing games, singing a song; all of which promoted learner-centred practice of speaking ability. Through lots of group-work tasks, trainee teachers were able to scaffold each other’s learning and develop a sense of belonging. This learning process is obviously collaborative. Not only do trainers collaborate with teachers, but also it is an important opportunity for teachers to share ideas and experience with each other. For example, there was a session for teachers to create a menu for teachers as an activity for the day’s topic ‘food around the world’. Teachers working in groups discussed what kind of food is good for teachers and made menus focusing mainly on protecting the voice. In this process, teachers shared the
difficulties that they had experienced when teaching (i.e. how easily their voices could be damaged) (fieldnote 7, see Appendix 4.2).

Hayes (1997:108) supports this idea, saying that “pair and group tasks enable participants to make available to others the wealth of knowledge and experience, previously confined to individuals, which can make the process of solving things which teachers see as problems that much easier”. In particular, Sally used four types of error correction in her speaking class: trainer correction (direct or restate), peer or self-correction, and no correction (consciously or unconsciously). The detailed description of her error correction is presented in Appendix 5.

5.4. Methodology class

I now summarise the stages of the methodology class in the INSET course. The methodology class was taught by the trainer Linda, a very experienced trainer, every Wednesday for three hours and all levels of classes took the methodology class simultaneously. It is worth recalling the key events of the INSET course at this stage and summarising its input. The content of the methodology class, in terms of key events which are relevant to this study, covers practical and methodological issues: basic principles of classroom teaching such as classroom management and its related activities, error correction to help build up more communicative classroom interaction, introduction of new activities such as readers’ theatre, and practice of target language use. The following table shows the key events introduced during the methodology class.
Table 5.1. Key events in the methodology class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Methodology class at TTI</th>
<th>Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Warm-up activity: introducing each other.</td>
<td>observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner autonomy, theme-based teaching, ice breaking game, group work and pair work,</td>
<td>23/July/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>practise of theme-based activity in groups.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readers’ theatre, variations of readers’ theatre (radio drama, puppet show, television</td>
<td>observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>production, and skits)</td>
<td>30/July/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm-up activity: exchanging paper slips and three things about myself.</td>
<td>observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom management (how to deal with mixed-ability &amp; large classes; maximising</td>
<td>03/Aug/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resources; maximising the classroom for learning; creating an English environment in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>class; catering for different learning styles; teachers’ talk in pitch and intonation;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dealing with different learning speeds; using the board, classroom layout, and learner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>training), motivating pupils, personalisation, learner training, self-access learning,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>content-based teaching⁹, creating differentiated learning materials.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I would like now to describe some particular key events introduced in the course and

⁹ Content-based learning is the study of both language acquisition and subject matter. Instead of teaching language in isolation, the target language becomes the medium in which important information can be learned (Brown, 2001).
implemented in the two teachers’ (Vicky and Tracy) real classroom after the course: (i) theme-based teaching; (ii) readers’ theatre; and (iii) classroom management skills (group-work activity and personalising and creating differentiated learning materials).

For the theme-based teaching, the trainer Linda briefly introduced Gardner’s multiple intelligences theory. After a brief explanation of the theoretical framework of theme-based teaching, practical activities and skills such as songs and chants thematically related to summer were introduced. Linda put the trainee teachers in groups and asked each group to make a gesture for the song ‘sun, sun, Mr. Golden sun’. The group size was about five or six and each group member seemed to participate fully in this group activity. The groups were given 10 to 15 minutes to think of a gesture and during this time each group member laughed a lot, shared their ideas, and collaborated in order to achieve the goal as they had experienced in the speaking class. Indeed, Vicky and Tracy recalled during their interviews that their group-work activity was a valuable learning experience, enabling them to feel a sense of belonging and to understand the benefits of collaborative learning in a group. Thus, through the theme-based teaching, teachers were able not only to gain a new teaching idea based on multiple intelligences in order to deal with different types of learners but also to experience collaborative learning that allows negotiation of meaning with their peers through group-work tasks. The following photos show how participant teachers worked collaboratively with their peers.
With regard to classroom management, many authors (e.g. Sakui, 2007) have suggested that classroom management should be dealt with urgently in teacher training programmes because classroom management plays a significant role in ensuring learning (Sakui, 2007:42). In common with the statement above, the INSET course at TTI also recognised the important role of classroom management and suggested some ideas or activities to make classroom management more effective, in particular dealing with the issue of mixed-ability and large classes. During my observations of the methodology class, the trainer Linda introduced various instructions and activities related to classroom management such as how to deal with mixed-ability classes, teachers’ attitudes, and self-access classes etc. Since most activities introduced in many INSET courses in Korea or in school textbooks are associated with CLT and TBLT, which seems to be appropriate for small classes, many teachers often raise the difficulty of implementing them in practice. Thus, the
importance of group-work or pair-work activities has been stressed at TTI as a solution to this most problematic issue of how teachers deal with the mixed-ability and large classes in primary schools. However, how teachers transfer what they learn from the training course into practice is of greater urgency as Tomlinson (1988:2) addresses (see section 3.6.1. for a fuller explanation).

In the third observed methodology class, personalising materials or resources and the importance of creating differentiated learning materials according to teachers’ own situations had been addressed in order to accommodate various types of learners and classroom situations (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:00:04~00:34:06). As an example of the activity of personalisation of resources, the trainer Linda suggested “draw a plan of your room”\(^{10}\) with its furniture and label it” (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:00:04). This idea is tied up with one of the activities Pinter (2006:69) recommends aiming at “learning to […] complete short texts with personally relevant information” (my emphasis). This will be dealt with in Tracy’s section in more detail (see section 6.3.3.2). In addition, the trainer Linda mentioned that the use of authentic material is a complicated issue and to use authentic materials without consideration of a given context is inappropriate (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:01:08).

With regard to creating differentiated learning materials to accommodate the needs of all types of pupils (e.g. visual learners, auditory learners, kinaesthetic learners etc), Linda recommended that participant teachers use their own materials and activities

\(^{10}\) Linda emphasised “resources should be something related to you and your situation to be personalised” (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:00:04).
such as ‘pictures to elicit the word orally’, ‘picture dictionary’, ‘mime or gesture’ ‘a text with gaps and a lists of the words’ etc. according to their pupils’ level, needs, and types (L/OB/CLIP3\06AUG08\00:10:50).

As mentioned in the previous section (see section 5.2), the tradition in Korea’s ELT teacher training has been to put far more stress on theory than on practice, and teachers (trainees) had become used to a lecture-based or transmission style INSET course. This kind of training has done little to encourage teachers to consider rationales underlying the use of particular classroom activities (Hayes, 1997a:107). The teaching practicum lesson at TTI, however, constitutes primarily task-based and practical ideas, to be used in the real classroom. Despite the practical course design, there were not many opportunities for the ‘transfer’ (borrowing Cullen’s term) stage, in which the trainees plan ways of transferring an idea (e.g. a teaching strategy or classroom technique) to their own teaching situation as Cullen (1994:168) suggests. In addition, not only micro-teaching, but also the use of video clips as examples of how previous teachers put what they had learnt at TTI into practice in their own classes were not provided. In these ways course participants could have been given ideas on how the content they had learnt could, to a large extent, be transferred, utilised, adapted, and implemented into their own context. The main reasons for not having enough reflective teaching were due to the limited time allotted for the methodology course and the greater focus on language skills than methodology. Linda (trainer) said:

Yes! It [reflective teaching] should be in the course. However, as you know, this course is very short, only three weeks! In addition, this course is focused more on language skills than methodology. I have taught a six-month CELTA course as well.
In that course, there is micro-teaching and reflective teaching. (L/TTI.INT/17OCT08/PP.3-4)

However, some selected activities such as readers’ theatre were practised by participants through their demonstration of the activity with their group members in front of their peers during the second observed methodology class, but the effectiveness of the activities, particularly in participants’ various teaching situations, were not. Ideally, this (reflective teaching) process should have been applied to other new activities so they could be reinterpreted on their own terms, but other activities or new ideas were just introduced on a ‘one-off’ basis. In these cases, it can be said that they were informative rather than experiential.

I would like to talk about ‘being sympathetic to the context’ which has already been mentioned in the literature review chapter. According to Bax (1997:232), there has been a corresponding movement to ensure that our approach is as relevant as possible to trainees’ teaching contexts in teacher education as much attention has been paid to making language teaching methodology more appropriate to the contexts in which teachers teach.

The content of TTI was influenced by the Western paradigm of training programmes where bottom-up, decentralisation, reflective practice, and task-based activities are key themes; more specifically, new knowledge, theories, and materials used at TTI were mainly adopted from Western countries. For example, some websites for readers’ theatre and storytelling were introduced from the trainer Linda in the hope that teachers would be able to gain extra information after going back to their schools. (e.g. http://www.readinglady.com; http://www.readerstheatre.ecsd.net;
Not only the sites illustrated above, but also the materials and methods used during the study were noticeably influenced by a Western model. For instance, the textbooks used for the listening and speaking class in TTI were all imported from a Western country (specifically BANA countries)\(^\text{11}\): ‘Impact Listening’ and ‘Lets’ Talk’ from Longman and Cambridge press respectively. It is, however, true that to some extent these materials are able to provide culturally authentic aspects of the target language and are also pedagogically effective particularly in listening as many researchers argue (e.g. Willis, 1990). Ironically, the trainer Linda had encouraged the use of resources that were familiar to pupils in her third methodology session (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:01:08); however, not only Linda herself but also the other two classes used imported resources. When asked who chose those textbooks, the trainers Deborah and Sally surprisingly responded the ‘administration team’. Unfortunately, Deborah wanted me to stop the interview recording at this point during the interview. She might not have wished to be recorded making any critical or negative comments about TTI. However, Sally gave more information.

*Sim: How did you select the main textbook for this course? Did you personally select it?*

*Sally: No. it wasn’t me. It was from the ‘admin team’. [...]. In fact, I don’t like this textbook for this speaking class! But what should I do? I have no choice, but just follow this institution.* (S/TTI.INT/27AUG08/PP.1)

The use of decontextualised resources at TTI emerges from the trainee teachers as one

\(^{11}\) Britain, Australasia and North America are so-called BANA countries (Holliday, 1994:160).
of the perceived difficulties that hinder implementation of INSET knowledge to their classrooms. This will be dealt with in more detail in the Chapter 7.

The content of any INSET should be sufficiently stimulating to drive successful impact on teachers’ classroom practice and their personal perception change, thus clarifying the linkage between INSET and real practice as accurately and objectively as possible since teachers are expected to assimilate new skills and techniques obtained from INSET into their own teaching repertoire and also to achieve INSET’s hoped-for level of impact on real educational settings.

5.5. Summary

This chapter has concentrated on an evaluative analysis of the featured INSET course, suggesting that development of a reflective approach is essential to provide a concrete and relevant linkage between INSET and teachers’ real classroom practice. Also, teaching approaches in INSET courses should be relevant to trainees’ teaching contexts rather than adopting a Western curriculum of INSET. A detailed description of each class of the INSET has also been presented, demonstrating issues and themes which arose in teachers’ data in order to provide some influence on their teaching practice.

The following chapter (Chapter 6) presents the findings of the study. The first part of the chapter deals with seven participant teachers’ perceptions of the general impact of the course as a general findings and the second part of chapter presents the findings from the two participants based on their classroom practice, one of the main aspects in this study, which looks more deeply at the level of impact.
CHAPTER 6
FINDING 1: ANALYSIS OF IMPACT: GENERAL FINDINGS
AND TWO IN-DEPTH CASES

This study structures the findings and discussion into three chapters: (i) general findings and two in-depth cases (Chapter 6); (ii) constraints on putting ideas into practice (Chapter 7); (iii) longer-term impact and sustainability (Chapter 8). Chapter 6 is the first of the three findings chapters, and explores the impact of the INSET course through a collective analysis of teachers’ perspectives at a general level, and an in-depth analysis of two teachers’ perspectives and post-INSET practices. Accordingly, this chapter answers the following two questions: what were these teachers’ reasons for taking the INSET course and what were the perceived outcomes of the INSET course? As explained in section 4.4.2, seven (out of the twelve) INSET course participants were interviewed before and after the training course. The first part of this chapter (6.1) draws on this interview data to explore teachers’ perceptions in terms of their expectations of the three-week course at TTI, their reasons for attending the course, and their basic perspectives following the training. In the main part of this chapter (6.2 and 6.3), I engage in a detailed analysis of two teachers – Vicky and Tracy – to explore these issues in greater depth, drawing on post-INSET classroom observation and interview data.

6.1. General analysis of expectations and outcomes

6.1.1. Participants’ expectations of the INSET course

This section looks at the factors that had made the teachers decide to come on the
course and what their expectations of the course were. Participants were asked about their reasons for taking the INSET course. The different responses fell clearly into two categories and are summarised in Figure 6.1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Personal extrinsic reasons</th>
<th>B. Personal intrinsic reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I want to be an English subject teacher</td>
<td>1. I want to improve my linguistic competence to develop my confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. It is the right time to prepare for the government’s new policy on English education: the English immersion programme</td>
<td>2. I want to exchange and share information with peers (I want to meet other teachers and obtain new information)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. I want to be refreshed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. I want to improve my teaching methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. I want to be properly qualified</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6.1. Different motivational factors

As can be seen, the areas cited were personal extrinsic and intrinsic reasons. None of the data was connected to institution-related extrinsic reasons such as a school required teachers to complete the course or gave them a financial incentive to attend. All of the interviewees were keen to improve their linguistic competence and gain confidence. Improvement of English was cited by all of the teachers as one of their major expectations, whilst improvement of teaching methods was not greatly anticipated. This may reflect an underlying misconception that an ‘excellent teacher’ equates to ‘someone who has fluent English’.
In the pre-INSET interviews all teachers expressed a wish to develop their linguistic proficiency and confidence exemplified in their answers to the question ‘what are you hoping to gain from this training session?’ The following comments are typical examples:

*Since in particular my speaking is very poor, I want to improve my speaking ability to obtain confidence.* (Tom)

*I hope to gain confidence through this course. Once my English ability is improved, I think I can get confidence naturally.* (Sunny)

*I hope to improve my English communication skills and fluency so that I can get confidence in teaching.* (Vicky)

These comments were not expressed in career terms, but came from personal professional motivation to attend the course. As can be seen, the teachers recognise that if they are fluent in English they will eventually gain confidence in their teaching and, to take this further, become professional and excellent English teachers. In other words, their linguistic competence and internal confidence seem to be strongly bound together. This bears some resemblance to Murdoch’s statement (1994) which demonstrates that for “non-native English teachers, language proficiency will always represent the bedrock of their professional confidence”.

In some of the interviews, however, this personal motivation to attend the course may have been indirectly stimulated by the prospect of interaction with other professionals:

*I want to get much information from colleagues.* (Sunny)

*I want to exchange information related to teaching in class such as good activities*
and to share our difficulties. (Vicky)

This suggests that the opportunity for professional interactions and exchange with other teachers was also a valued reason for attending the course. This draws attention to the importance of a shared community of practice in shaping teachers’ participation in INSET.

6.1.1.1. Work and career-related reasons

Some teachers recognised that if they wanted to be an English subject teacher within their profession, they would eventually need to take the INSET course for two reasons: to obtain the accredited INSET course certificate, and develop better English competency. They considered that this accredited INSET certificate is the minimum qualification for those teachers wishing to be an English subject teacher in primary schools:

I hope to improve my English skills [...] I wanted to be an English subject teacher. (Robin)

I’ve tried teaching music, and PE, but English teaching fits me. (Robin)

I want to be an English subject teacher. To do so, I have to improve my professionalism as an English teacher. (Tom)

Viewing the course in instrumental terms finds echoes in the literature. For example, Howard and Bradley (1992) found that the award was a factor attracting teachers to the course in their study. In my study, one of the teachers also talked about wanting to refresh herself from the routine of her job and having a break to gain new knowledge:

I also want to be refreshed through contacting other peers and getting away from my teaching job and learning something new. (Vicky)
6.1.1.2. General outcomes of the course

Later in sections 6.2 and 6.3, I will explore in more detail how this INSET course impacted on two teachers’ classroom practice and their perceptions, and factors that might have led to this level of impact. Here, I simply summarise what the seven teachers reported in the post-INSET interviews when asked subsequently about the impact of the INSET course.

Most of the interviewees thought it had provided a good grounding in EFL teaching practice, knowledge, and perception change. The following comments come from interviewees who had a positive experience in terms of a range of impact outcomes:

*I feel I will be more confident than before attending this programme. When I meet foreigners, I usually can’t speak to them. But I want to talk to them now.* (Vicky)

*I am stimulated and encouraged by the teachers (peers) here. They work so hard and understand learners very well.* (Tracy)

Even those who were more critical, and for whom the course had less impact, acknowledged the general value of the INSET course. For example, Tom expressed the following critical view:

*We didn’t get many chances to speak even in the speaking class. I wish there were more chances to speak.* (Tom)

However, overall, he was satisfied with the course:

*I’ve got motivation, which means that I really want to improve my English to*
teach English better. And...um... it also motivated me to think how to teach English effectively. This course challenged and stimulated me a lot. (Tom)

From the interview data, it was clear that trainees perceived the INSET course to have had an impact on their professional development in a variety of ways. Amongst various positive impacts, the trainees felt especially encouraged and supported by the tutors. Naturally this support helps reshape teachers’ roles and gives them a better grasp of their future teaching plan:

The trainers here were so wonderful... Even when we made little progress, they encouraged us and tried to give us confidence [...] this was good because it gave us courage. I think I will do the same to my pupils when I go back to school. (Diana)

This tutor modelling, to a greater extent, made some trainees reflect on their own teaching and led to a better understanding of their pupils:

When everyone seemed to understand the class except me, I could understand how weaker pupils felt in my class. The trainer Linda often wrote some new words or special terms on the board when she taught. I think these small things made me rethink my teaching style. I am going to do the same for weaker pupils when I teach English in my class. (Diana)

I preferred a quieter activity such as more listening to the CD (before attending the INSET course). But when I actually played games in this course, the games were more fun and I could become more concentrated on the class. Even I felt this way; I thought most pupils would like it even more. This is why, after returning to
school, I am planning to do a lot of game-oriented activities. (Grace)

The following interview quotations talk specifically about listening skills which were covered on the INSET course. Tom and Robin also reflected on their classes and wanted to model what they had seen when returning to their own institutions.

I think it [the listening class] helped me the most in terms of improving listening skills and learning listening teaching methods. I want to teach listening in this way when I go back to school. (Tom)

When the pupils do listening, before I used to just make them listen to the dialogues and repeat the conversation. In that situation the pupils would become passive and not very engaged, just listening. But now, through the course, I’ve got an idea how to teach listening. (Robin)

Even though most of the trainees felt that their confidence had been built up as a result of their training experience, and motivation had been stimulated by peer working, one person interestingly revealed that her confidence had dropped from the initial stage of the INSET course, through comparing herself to other peers:

My confidence was increased for the first and second week. However, from the third week it started to decline. I guess that it was due to the fact that I wasn’t able to concentrate more and that others were improving more than me. So I lacked the confidence. I thought that because all the classes were being conducted in English it was hard. (Sunny)

Regarding Sunny’s interview quotation, at this point, I would like to raise a critical aspect of the ‘community of practice’ mentioned in section 3.7.5. Lave and Wenger
(1991) claim that newcomers will obtain the knowledge and start fully participating in the community as old-timers. Consequently, overtime the newcomer moves from peripheral to full participation.

Even though Sunny had fully participated in the community (INSET) and accessed the activities or resources within that community as Lave and Wenger suggest, her confidence had dropped from the third week. This shows that participation in a community of practice does not guarantee that people can access the activities or resources within that community, which would enable them to learn or gain the required knowledge. Thus it is not always true that over time the newcomer moves from peripheral to full participation. Moreover, legitimate peripheral participation is a ‘conflictual process of negotiation and transformation’ (Morita, 2004:577).

6.2. Analysing impact: the case of Vicky

In this section I present a detailed analysis of one teacher, Vicky, and examine the impact of her INSET experiences and their implementation in her actual practice. Firstly, I provide a brief profile of her with background information relevant to the study. Secondly, I give a detailed account of her classroom practice after the completion of the INSET course. In this account I will look broadly at two significant features in implementing the knowledge gained from the course into her classroom by highlighting (i) the impact of the course on practice in the areas of classroom management, classroom interaction, and classroom language use; (ii) changes in perception in respect of professional motivation and confidence.

6.2.1. Personal background of Vicky
In this section, I introduce the background information about Vicky, obtained from interviews during the study.

Table 6.1. Background information of Vicky

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Vicky</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational background</td>
<td>Graduated from Seoul National Teachers’ College, BA, majored in general education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training experience</td>
<td>Attended 8 teacher training courses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>13 years’ experience as a primary school teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English language teaching experience</td>
<td>3 years’ experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen, Vicky majored in general primary education during her four-year BA degree and it gave her a basic grounding in general principles of education at primary level. She has been a homeroom (class-based) teacher at primary school for 13 years and started teaching English three years prior to her participation in my study, when English education at primary level was initiated in Korea.

As she said “I have attended [a training course] once a year for the last eight years” (V/PR.INT/23JULY08/PP.1) In fact, she has attended various types of teacher training courses for primary English teachers, ranging from three-day workshops to a six-month
intensive course in order to develop and upgrade her teaching skills and linguistic competence.

6.2.2. Implementation of new knowledge from INSET to real practice

After Vicky returned to school following the INSET course, I observed five lessons she taught and found that they reflected aspects of the training she had experienced. Readers may wonder if Vicky already carried out some of these prior to the INSET since her class was not observed before she attended the INSET course. However, confirmation that she did not in one instance can be found in the following interview quotation:

*I used to teach subject by subject, which means that I used to think of them all separately since I didn’t know about theme-based teaching. After learning about the theme-based method, I start thinking all subjects are related to each other. I can teach arithmetic in English classes. I started using integrated education skills.*

*(V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.5)*

Each lesson followed a similar format to that which she had learnt in the course, starting with warm-up activities, followed by simple songs and chants related to the topic of the day. From the new ideas introduced during the INSET training, the warm-up activity was the one that she particularly attempted to try in her classroom. The following table will summarise the various data sources in order to help the reader understand the chronology of events. In each observed lesson all activities were linked to a main theme.
Table 6.2. Dates of Vicky’s classroom observation, stimulated recall, and informal interviews

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observation 1 &amp; Informal interview/stimulated recall</th>
<th>Main methods used in Vicky’s English class after INSET</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theme-based (art), mind gap</td>
<td>Making song-peon with clay (art); Wearing Hanbok; Making a wish list (speaking &amp; writing)</td>
<td>25/09/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 2 &amp; Informal interview</td>
<td>Theme-based (maths)</td>
<td>Song (10 little Indian boys, monkey song, and alligator song) Watching video</td>
<td>02/10/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 3 &amp; Informal interview/stimulated recall</td>
<td>Story telling (three little pigs)</td>
<td>Playing ice breaking games using puppets and animal masks Singing a song (10 little Indian boys) Reading big book</td>
<td>09/10/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 4 &amp; Informal interview</td>
<td>Story telling (three little pigs)</td>
<td>Readers’ theatre</td>
<td>16/10/2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 5 &amp; Role-play</td>
<td>Role-play</td>
<td>Role-play</td>
<td>23/10/2008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2.3. Impact on classroom practice

The ultimate intention of most INSET programmes is to have some impact on teachers and their classroom practice, to bring about changes in teachers and in particular to support the transfer of new skills to the teacher’s repertoire in the classroom (Harland and Kinder, 1997).

The outcomes or impacts of the INSET provision and the activities in Vicky’s classroom practice are thus a particular concern in this section in which I look at specific factors of impact on classroom practice and professional confidence and motivation. As I analysed her data, these emerged as pertinent links between the INSET training and Vicky’s real practice.

Although the specific focus of this study was on the impact of INSET on classroom practice, teachers’ perception change in relation to English teaching and further longer-term sustainability, it is likely that other aspects of Vicky’s teaching, such as institutional support or peer teaching will have impacted on her classroom practice as well, but this was beyond the scope of the study.

With regard to the impact on classroom practice, the following areas will be analysed: (i) classroom management in respect of how to deal with mixed-ability and large classes (group/pair work) and maximising resources; (ii) classroom interaction involving better error correction, motivating pupils and establishing rapport; and (iii) classroom language use including classroom English.
6.2.3.1. Classroom management: dealing with mixed-ability and large classes

The term ‘classroom management’ is frequently used to refer to aspects of classroom organisation, such as conducting individual, pair, or group work; maintaining order; dealing with disruptive behaviour; and handling daily business, such as collecting assignments and taking roll calls (Tsui, 2003:138). While these are important aspects of a teacher’s work as a classroom manager, they are only part of it. As Calderhead (1984) points out, classroom management is inextricably linked to instructional objectives, since the teacher not only has to maintain discipline in the classroom, but he or she also must manage the classroom in a way that will best facilitate learning (cited in ibid:138). Sakui (2007) also describes how classroom management plays a significant role in ensuring learning because the classroom is a setting for complex interactions and negotiations among teacher and pupils (Sakui, 2007:42). Classroom management might therefore be considered to pertain only to disciplinary issues, but most researchers define it in broader terms, including the planning of instruction, the management of learners, the process of decision making by teachers, and the construction and maintenance of teacher-pupil relationships (Doyle, 1986; Fenwick, 1998; Jones and Vesilind, 1995 cited in Sakui, 2007:42).

Following this broad definition of classroom management, I shall look at the way teachers manage the classroom for learning, and not focus solely upon the disciplinary aspects of the classroom when examining the work of the two case-study teachers.

Broadly, three factors in the area of classroom management were emphasised in the INSET course: (i) how to deal with mixed-ability and large classes (group/pair work; catering for different learning styles); (ii) maximising resources; (iii) maximising the
classroom for learning: creating an English environment in class. In addition, teachers’
talk in pitch and intonation, dealing with different learning speeds, using the board,
classroom layout, and learner training had been introduced as factors for classroom
management at the TTI course (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:04).

Classes in schools in many parts of Korea may contain between 35 and 55 pupils. All
interviewee teachers in this study raised a number of problems about mixed-ability and
large classes during their interview. However, much initial/INSET training in Korea
appears to do little to help teachers deal with these issues as experienced by teachers
in real classrooms. Some writers such as Hayes (1997a) have suggested that training
courses for teachers should include explorations of classroom techniques for dealing
with large classes. And materials written for teacher education recommend that groups
be an important part of teachers’ methodological repertoire (e.g. Doff, 1988, cited in
Jacobs and Ratmanida, 1996).

Similarly, during the INSET course at TTI, the trainers had emphasised the value of pair
and group work as a possible solution to some of the problems that arise in large and
mixed-ability classes (L/OB/CLIP1/06AUG08/00:34:06), and that such collaborative
working methods could help increase pupils’ sense of responsibility for their own
learning, enable them to share their ideas, and make aspects of classroom
management more efficient.

Vicky also expressed the belief that group work was very useful for a pupil-centred and
communicative class, but she seemed unsure of the reasons for this:

I used to think working in groups has many advantages for pupils like peer
learning through solving a given task. So I tried to do group work in my class, but I realised that it depends on learners’ levels. My pupils are at the beginner stage and are young. In this case I think a teacher-fronted class is better to manage the whole class. (V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.8)

Vicky’s comments tally with the views of many authors such as Stuart and Kunje (2000), Lamb (1995), Lefstein (2002, cited in Sakui, 2007), and Karavas (1993b) who argue that the coexistence of traditional teacher-fronted teaching and learner-centred teaching is inevitable, considering that the capacity of teachers to adopt new practices and internalise unfamiliar pedagogy and professional practice is sometimes restricted.

Lefstein (2002, cited in Sakui, 2007:53) argues that traditional teacher-fronted teaching facilitates resolving classroom management issues. In addition, group work with large classes presents teachers with problems of class management which are not so apparent with traditional teacher-fronted teaching and this view is supported by Karavas (1993b:308). She illustrates:

I use them (pair and group work techniques) – when classes are small; they are productive. When classes are big then it becomes difficult. You can’t control what happens. In small classes you can control group work, you go around, you listen, you can control everyone. If you have 10 groups, who can you control? What can you do? (Karavas, 1993b:308)

Lamb (1995:77) also mentions very similar results in his study as follows:

Group work did not help solve these problems of classroom management in large classes, and sometimes actually seems to have exacerbated them. Thus, one
teacher complained that when using group work ‘it’s rather hard to govern them in a satisfactory way’. Another said that ‘the lesser pupils unfortunately feel safe with this group work [...] they just give the answer made by their group’.

Vicky is certainly thinking about the issues, and she questions whether group work is a way of dealing with the management problems experienced with young learners in large classes, where the problems may relate more to children’s age than their competency in English. Group work is a typical example of what TTI explicitly recommended teachers to try out as a possible solution to some of the problems they faced in large classes. Implicitly too, the training methods used in the TTI course communicated this same message. For example, most of the course activities, except individual presentations, were conducted through group or pair work at TTI.

In this regard, it seems clear from Vicky’s data that her INSET experiences were at least prompting her to think critically about these issues, even if she does not agree with what was recommended. In the following, for example, she is starting to see that perhaps a teacher-fronted class has more advantages for young children:

>[...] in terms of controlling the class, some group work activities such as readers’ theatre make children excited but noisy. In contrast, a teacher-centred class seems to settle the children and calm a class down. For example, when I played a game like ‘hangman’ or ‘Simon says’, pupils really paid attention to me. (V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.8) (Note: The game ‘hangman’ or ‘Simon says’ is like a teacher-fronted game.)

One of the problems faced by teachers of large classes occurs at this point – that is, the
issue of control. The International Network for Class Size Studies (INCLASS) has promoted interesting research in north-east Thailand on the problems faced by teachers of large classes, which are divided into five areas: discomfort; control; individual attention; evaluation; and learning effectiveness (Hayes, 1997a:108). The questionnaire conducted by INCLASS reveals that “teachers feel they are unable to control what is happening, and that the classes become too noisy. If the pupils are too many, the teacher can't control them. When pupils do an activity, they make a loud noise. Then the teacher can't control the class” (ibid:109).

Indeed, during the fourth observation, Vicky created four groups to practise readers’ theatre and role-play, but she was not able to control all the groups efficiently since she could not give each group individual attention and there was insufficient time to check the work of each group. As well as Vicky not giving enough attention to each group, noise control was a very big issue during the readers’ theatre. Arranging seats and desks prior to group work also contributed to the noise level. Based on her quotation above, Vicky felt more comfortable with continuing to teach in a traditional teacher-centred style, using the blackboard as a prop with a teacher-fronted arranged classroom. Consequently, whole class work or individual work was more prevalent in her class although Vicky herself had been trained to use group work or pair work in the INSET course. The picture below shows an obvious contrast between INSET and her classroom.
Another example of the teacher-fronted style in Vicky’s class can be found in the third observed lesson when practising counting and shapes. The following extract illustrates this:

<Extract 1>

1. V: How many fish?
2. S1: Four.
3. V: Four? Ok! How many triangles? Triangle (with the triangle gesture in order to teach the shape).
5. V: Ten? Ok! How many pencils?
7. V: Ok! How many circles? (with the circle gesture)
8. Ss: Nine.
9. V: Yes! Nine circles. (V/OB3/02OCT08/00:27-00:01:13)

Vicky tended to do oral practice to teach counting and shapes in a controlled teacher-fronted style. Her explanation for using a whole-class dialogue (with each question
being answered by a different learner), rather than pair or group work to practise the target language, was that the latter might cause classroom management problems such as noise or control problems:

In a teacher-centred (lecture-centred) class, however, I am able to give pupils detailed direction about ‘do’ and ‘don’t’ very clearly. Also I could grab pupils’ attention and control them more easily than I do in group work. I particularly couldn’t manage pupils’ noise levels when conducting group work.

(V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.8)

As well as group work and pair work to deal with mixed-ability and large classes, the TT1 programme also introduced teachers to self-access learning, grading tasks, and content-based teaching (see section 5.4. and table 5.1). However, only content-based teaching was tried in Vicky’s classroom as shown in the quotation in section 6.2.2.

Regarding self-access learning, grading tasks, and other activities, Vicky felt that it was hard to try these other activities introduced on the INSET course because:

To be honest, this is the first grade class so I can’t use many activities or methods that I gained from TTI. I just use very simple story telling, songs, chants or role-play. However, I am trying to use these simple activities as often as possible.

(V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.2)

6.2.3.2. Classroom management: maximising resources

Mixed-ability classes consist of a variety of pupils in terms of their different language levels, learning styles, and background knowledge. In respect of this, catering for different learning styles was introduced at the INSET course
Millrood (2002) also suggests ways to teach such heterogeneous classes by adapting activities according to pupils’ different learner styles; for example, extrovert, introvert, visual, and kinaesthetic learners. Theme-based teaching was therefore introduced at the INSET course to accommodate and encourage the participation of all learners. Vicky attempted to do theme-based teaching related to ‘Chusuk’ (Korean Thanksgiving) with various activities such as art clay, songs, and wearing traditional Korean costume at her first observation. Theme-based teaching for Vicky can be regarded as a ‘new teaching approach’, although the main theme she used, ‘Chusuk’, is very familiar to all pupils since it is one of the biggest and most important national holidays in Korea and Chusuk was imminent at that time. As can be seen below, Vicky expanded the theme ‘Chusuk’ to various subjects such as music (full moon song), and art (making song-peon). Pupils made ‘song-peon’, a traditional Korean food which is like a dumpling, with art clay. Vicky said:

The activity related to Chusuk (Korean Thanksgiving) is very useful. I combine it with an art class. And I plan to try this theme-based method too in Korean classes and maths classes as well. (V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.5)
Her attempt to try a new activity and its effect on pupil learning also increased:

*Sim: Do you think it [theme-based activity] helped pupils to understand English better?*

*Vicky: Yes...I think so. If I focused on only English reading and speaking, the pupils would be easily bored. So I let them draw food related to Chusuk. Most of the pupils, even weaker pupils, could participate in wearing the Korean traditional costume, Hanbok, and making ‘song-peon’ with art clay and they seemed to enjoy it.*
She went on to say:

_Since motivation and fun are the most important learning factors for lower grade pupils, this kind of integrated activity (my emphasis) seems to work very effectively._ (V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.1)

6.2.3.3. Classroom interaction: motivating pupils and establishing rapport

The TTI course emphasised that an important way to motivate pupils is to give them rewards (candy, points, and so on), to compliment them, and to use activities that are familiar so that all pupils can participate. Vicky first tried to encourage pupil participation by giving a reward to participants in class. Choopa-choops candy was awarded to each pupil who volunteered to speak in class, who completed the given task (e.g. making song-peon), or who got the correct answer when the teacher asked a question. The pupils responded very well to this reward scheme and competed hard to get the candy. It suggests that Vicky has taken some aspects of INSET and adapted them to her own context.

_When I taught pupils the origin of Halloween and Halloween expressions such as ‘trick or treat,’ ‘this is for you, thank you’. I gave them candy and we selected a Halloween wizard... (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.1)_

In addition, during group work if a pupil got a correct answer one point was awarded to the group to which the pupil belonged. However, as explained above, since individual work rather than group work was more prevalent the group point system was just nominal. With regard to classroom interaction, Vicky endeavoured to build a rapport with pupils and create a positive atmosphere in class. As well as the reward system, she frequently made positive statements such as “well-done”, “excellent”, “you are a
genius”, or “I am proud of you” about her pupils’ completed work. For example, at the first observation when pupils finished making their wish list Vicky complimented them on their job individually. This attitude illustrates how Vicky made efforts to motivate pupils and establish a positive atmosphere. This atmosphere also allowed pupils to raise their hands very freely when they wanted to answer rather than to wait passively to be called.

As can be seen, this praise was a conscious attempt to encourage and motivate pupils. Vicky stated in her pre-INSET interview that it is important for a teacher to be encouraging and positive about her pupils. When asked “what do you think is important when teaching your children?” she responded, “I think giving pupils motivation and confidence is the most important” (V/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.2). Although Vicky thought that a positive classroom atmosphere could encourage and motivate pupils even before attending the INSET, making the class lesson interesting and building up mutual rapport between the teacher and pupils were also crucial factors that TTI emphasised for classroom interaction and Vicky personally strove to achieve this.
6.2.3.4. Classroom interaction: better error correction

The next facet that emerged in respect of classroom interaction in Vicky's class was her correction of learners’ errors. There is literature (e.g. Cullen, 1998) that recommends the correction of learners’ mistakes only when the mistakes hinder comprehension; the aim should be to ensure better communication in class. The INSET course also emphasised the importance of cautious error correction in fostering classroom interaction and here the behaviour of the trainer when correcting the errors of the trainees is interesting. Trainers tended to use three types of error correction, particularly in the language skills course: Trainer correction (direct or restate), peer or self correction, and no correction (consciously or unconsciously). These types of error corrections were not taught explicitly using theoretical justification, but trainees can be clearly influenced experientially by the tutor modelling an approach during the course.

Vicky expressed a belief in the value of error correction in her post-INSET observation interview:

Before [before attending the INSET], I used to correct pupils’ errors directly when they made errors. But now, I think sometimes no correction is better [than the direct correction that I used to use before]. (V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.5)

If there are significant grammatical errors which should be corrected, then I would wait and correct them after the conversation is over. I am very cautious in order not to make them feel embarrassed. (V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.8)

Vicky seemed to feel that overcorrection of errors results in the undermining of learners’ confidence. The following is a short extract from the first observation. The main part of the lesson was to be about Chusuk (Korean Thanksgiving) and Vicky was asking pupils to make a wish list when seeing the full moon – this is a kind of Korean
tradition in Chusuk.

<Extract 2>

1. V: Hello! How are you?
2. Ss: Hi! (with a confident voice)
3. V: What is Chusuk? [...] What do you eat in Chusuk?
4. S2: Rice cake.
5. S3: Fruit.
6. V: Right! We eat rice cake and fruit.
7. V: What can you see in the sky in Chusuk?
8. S4: Full moon...
10. V: Right! Genius! We can see the full moon in the sky. Can we sing a song ‘Moon Moon where is the moon?’
11. Ss: Sing a song.
12. (Teacher (Vicky) passed round a handout she had made).
13. V: Let’s make a wish list! [...] Ok! Let me see your wish lists.
14. (Vicky was moving around the class and reading out what pupils had written down)
15. V: James’s wish is ‘My wish for soccer player’ Do you want to be a soccer player?
16. J: Yes! Yes! (Nods his head)
17. V: Ok! Good! Chris’s wish is ‘I want to go to space’. Oh! Your dream will come true!
18. V: What do you wish when you see the moon Jenny? (Vicky read out Jenny’s)
19. V: I don’t want to wear Hanbok. (V/01/18SEP08/00:11:23)

We can clearly see from this extract, and there is further evidence within the classroom data, that Vicky thinks the pupils’ minor mistakes do not impede communication in any way and communication is the primary aim of the teacher’s questions. As expected, given her previously expressed beliefs about and attitudes towards error correction, Vicky ignores the fact that James and Chris gave grammatically incorrect answers to the question and that Jenny wrote an unrelated answer to the question – in Korean
tradition in a wish list most pupils wish for their parents’ health, or to be a good pupil – and instead carried on with the conversation. The technique used in James’s case is considered ‘teacher restate’ with no correction for Chris and Jenny.

If Vicky corrected every error made, not only might the communication not have flowed, but pupils may have been demotivated in expressing their opinions in front of people. She said:

*If I correct my pupils’ errors whenever they make errors, the next time they might get stuck in speaking because they had lost their confidence.*

(V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.5)

In addition, when pupils gave an incorrect response or could not answer the question, Vicky tried not to discourage the pupils and a strategy she used was to create a humorous atmosphere. For example, when Vicky was reading out Jenny’s answer, Vicky read it with a very humorous tone and made Jenny and the rest of the class laugh.

(V/OB1/18SEP08/00:11:23)

In conclusion, Vicky’s better understanding of error correction as a result of her INSET experience has contributed in creating a more communicative and natural “classroom atmosphere”, quoting Cullen’s (1998) term, avoiding solely form-focused feedback (i.e. feedback which focuses in the correct formation of the learners’ contribution) that would be regarded as non-communicative classroom interaction (Gil, 2002:274).

6.2.3.5. Classroom language use: classroom English

This section looks at the impact of language development on classroom practice with
respect to language use in the classroom, and the use of L1 vs. L2 in particular, since classroom English use is amenable to the effects of training (Long and Sato, 1983).

As it is widely recognised that teacher talk is a potentially valuable resource of comprehensible input for the learner (Cullen, 1998), the Korean government has also recommended that primary school EFL teachers should use only English in the classroom.

All trainee teachers who participated in the pre-INSET observation interview (seven out of seven teachers, see section 4.4.2) stated that their main aim in attending the course was to improve their English. Trainees placed language improvement as a top priority above methodology. In line with the other trainees, Vicky was also particularly concerned about her continuing lack of linguistic confidence when conducting her class. She answered the question about her main reason for participating in the INSET training in the following way: “I hope to improve my English communication skills and fluency so that I can get confidence” (V/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP. 1). Just as most of the trainees (six out of seven respondents) agreed that a teacher’s confidence is dependent on his or her own degree of language proficiency, Vicky also wanted to increase her confidence by improving her linguistic competence.

Concentrating on developing a command of classroom language has been proposed as a possible solution to help improve teachers’ command of English (Cullen, 2001). Classroom English refers to the language that teachers typically use when giving instructions, greetings, checking attendance, asking questions, responding to and evaluating pupils’ contributions, signalling the beginning or ending of lesson stages
(Kim, 2002; Cullen, 2001:29). The use of classroom English seems to not only have the potential to enhance teachers’ language fluency – and by extension their confidence (Cullen, 2001) – but can also heighten a communicative approach which emphasises
the importance of realistic and spontaneous classroom interaction. Two points then
arise: the value of implicit learning through the modelling of a tutor by the trainers on
the course, and the ability to foster pupils’ communicative use of English in class
through the teacher’s use of language in class. Both of these are dealt with in this
section.

Vicky was observed five times after the course completion. In the observed lessons, the phrases listed below were frequently used in greetings, warm-up activities, complimenting, giving orders, and initiating study in her class. Looking at the table below, it is evident that the expressions used by Vicky were similar to those used by the trainers at TTI.

Even though the ‘classroom English’ class was not run separately at TTI, it is clear that familiarity with classroom language and routines would maximise the effectiveness of trainees’ own language training.
Table 6.3. The use of classroom English by Vicky and TTI trainers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequently used expressions by Vicky</th>
<th>Frequently used expressions by trainers at TTI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greetings</td>
<td>Hi! How are you? Good morning?</td>
<td>Hello! Teachers!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hello, everyone?</td>
<td>Ok! It’s time to finish!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bye! Have a good lunch!</td>
<td>Please take good care of yourselves!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I will see you on Monday!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving instructions and introducing activities</td>
<td>Let’s sing along. Let’s chant.</td>
<td>Check the answers with your partner or together!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Let’s make song-peon.</td>
<td>Ok! Talk to your group members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Let’s watch the video clip.</td>
<td>Share the answer with your partner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Let’ make a money sound!</td>
<td>Ok! Would you please compare the answer with your partner?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ok! We have five minutes left.</td>
<td>Talk to your group members!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are you ready? It’s time for the</td>
<td>All right! Let’s move on to........</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English class. Do you like English?</td>
<td>All right! Take a look at page 30 together.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Today, we are going to do....</td>
<td>Moving on to the next group!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Let’s close today’s lesson.</td>
<td>Turn to the next page!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Today, we are going to talk about memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Why don’t we share the time we have got a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>special gift? From Elizabeth?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complimenting</td>
<td>Good job! Excellent! Great! I</td>
<td>Very interesting! Well done!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>am very proud of you. You are a</td>
<td>Very good!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>genius!</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving orders</td>
<td>Go back to your seat!</td>
<td>Ok! Teachers! Back to your seat!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ok! One more time!</td>
<td>Look at the pictures!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>English please!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking pupils’ understanding</td>
<td>Did you get it? Ok? Understand?</td>
<td>You get it?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparing the classroom English used by Vicky and the trainers at TTI, Vicky was clearly influenced by and learnt experientially through the tutors’ modelling and use of classroom language on the course, even though there are some differences in the expressions used and the contexts of use. As can be seen, expressions related to leading group- or pair-work tasks were more prevalent in TTI; whereas, expressions involved in leading teacher-directed and whole class work (such as let’s...) were used more by Vicky. This is because, as mentioned in the classroom management section, individual work or whole class work was more dominant in Vicky’s class.

I will now look at Vicky’s L1 and L2 use at a more practical level and examine how her L2 use helped scaffold the learners’ attempts at FL speech and construct an authentic learning environment.

6.2.3.6. Classroom language use: the use of L1 vs. L2

TETE (teaching English through English) is defined as speaking and using English as often as you possibly can, for example, when organising teaching activities or chatting to pupils socially (Willis, 1981, cited in Kim, 2002:3). The continued interest in better EFL pedagogy for elementary school pupils has led to many interesting suggestions, one of which is TETE. The Korean government has decided to introduce a new policy of TETE recommending that elementary school EFL teachers should only use English in the classroom (Kang, 2008, see section 1.5).

With respect to Vicky’s overall use of English, in the first class she tried to conduct her class in English and it appeared as though she lacked confidence and the pupils did not focus on their study during the class (in the observer’s opinion). Possible reasons for this low level of confidence in using English in the class were twofold. Firstly, there
were several parents observing the class. Since this English class was a trial class for the first grade pupils before starting a regular class in 2009, parents showed a lot of interest. Secondly, Vicky looked a little bit nervous about my observation. In any case, some pupils were drawing something unrelated to the class and others were chatting with their friends because they could not understand what the teacher said. When Vicky noticed that the pupils were not interested in the English class, she started to help them to change over from Korean to English instructions sentence by sentence. Thereafter, both Korean and English were used during the class. In spite of her efforts to use English, only approximately three pupils who had attended English-speaking Kindergartens for two to three years before entering primary school started to respond to the teacher. She thought that the key reason for the use of L1 (or mixed L1 and L2) in her class was mainly pupils’ lack of ability to comprehend the teacher’s L2 use. She said: “weak pupils cannot even understand very easy English nor write the alphabet” (V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.4).

After the class, during her informal interview, she mentioned this:

*I don’t have the confidence and enough time to prepare the class in English and the pupils struggle as well. This is the reason why I still have to mix English and Korean during the class.* (V/INT.CHAT1/18SEP08)

However, in the second observation, she looked more confident in her English. She said:

*Well, I need to conduct the English class using English, which is still a big burden for me [...]. And the ‘teachers’ talk’ that I learnt from TTI... If I practice it more [...]. I think I will be able to conduct my class in English.* (V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.2)
Indeed, Vicky conducted her whole class in English except on three occasions: (i) when making the sounds of animals, she used Korean; (ii) when giving the pupils detailed instruction on the given tasks; and (iii) when asking pupils to raise their hands if they had got all their answers correct after completing a handout. However, in the case of the first occasion, it was revealed in the stimulated recall interview that the use of Korean was intended.

[…] we mimicked the sound in Korean first and then tried the sound in English. We will be able to explain the difference in animal sounds between English and Korean. So they can learn the vocabulary of animals by listening to animal sounds in Korean. For example, even though they don’t know the word ‘goat’, they can come to know what animal it is after listening to the sound in Korean.

(V/INT.ST2/02OCT08)

However, the second occasion was a bit different from the first one. Since Vicky’s exclusive use of the TL (Target Language) might lead to pupils’ loss of interest, she tried to modify her pedagogical principle – the use of TETE – in order to sustain pupils’ interest and encourage their participation. The following extract shows that she perceived that her pupils were encountering difficulties and changed the use of language from L2 to L1.

<Extract 3>

(Vicky was explaining how to solve the given task in English, but some pupils were asking what to do)

1. V: Do you have a handout? You count down the number and write down the number
2. S1: I je udduge hae yo? (what should I do with this?)
3. S2: teacher! teacher! molla yo! (teacher! I don’t know!)
4. S3:sunsangnym! morueget ue yo! (teacher! I don’t know)

5. V: I explain it in Korean! 자 여기에 별도있고 동그라미도 있고네모도 있고..몇 개씩인가 세보세요. 몇 개씩인지 세보세요.

(V/OB2/23SEP08/00:29:33)

Vicky at first consistently used English, but as seen above, started to explain the instructions in Korean when pupils complained they did not understand. This shows well that Vicky’s language use in her classroom was not confined to English and that she might change her practice but still believed it would be better to use English to improve her pupils’ target language learning. While less often employed than the exclusive use of L2, L1 served as a major contributor to maintaining the pupils’ interest in learning English.

Vicky first felt that the use of only English was a barrier to transmitting knowledge to pupils which resulted in pupils’ disinterest since they seemed to be discouraged by not understanding the English. However, as time went by, she encouraged her pupils to use English in class and persisted in her own use of English in class. Consequently, English became spoken in the classroom and English songs were memorised and sung by the pupils as quoted below:

At the end of the second semester our class pupils presented the ‘Do Re Mi’ song in the school festival. When you came to do the observation in my class, you saw kids practising songs. Now the pupils are able to memorise most of the songs. And they do it really well and fun. The parents attended the school festival and watched their children’s performance. My principal praised my pupils’ performance as the best amongst the other performances.
6.2.3.7. Changes in teachers’ perception: professional confidence

In her study Tsui (2003:118) tends to link confidence gained through the INSET course to classroom interaction, though in many studies increased confidence has usually improved the quality of teaching or increased attempts to adopt new approaches (Cope et al, 1992; Powell et al, 2003; Davies and Preston, 2002). Professional confidence is a useful, and even necessary, precursor for implementing new knowledge and skills into practice (Harland and Kinder, 1997). Professional confidence is thus clearly essential in all cases where significant impact on practice is sought since teachers often point to their lack of confidence as a major obstacle to significant changes in their classroom practice. This section describes how Vicky increased her confidence after the completion of the INSET course. It influenced her classroom practice in two ways: (i) she was better able to conduct her class in English after gaining confidence; (ii) after redesigning/reconstructing new skills in order to put them into practice, she had a better grasp of how to adapt new knowledge and she developed a better understanding of pupils’ needs.

In fact, at first Vicky had a negative attitude to using L2 in her class due to her perception that using L2 was not suitable for her pupils, in particular the weaker ones, and because of her lack of linguistic confidence before returning to her real class. The following interview was conducted as soon as the INSET was completed (post-INSET observation interview), but prior to returning to her own institution. She said:

*Sim: Currently in this programme, trainers taught everything in English. Like this, what do you think about always using English in the classroom when you return to your practice?*
Vicky: To tell you the truth, it is still a big burden for me. (V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.4)

As time went by (by the third observation) Vicky looked more comfortable using English than she had in her first observed class where she had revealed her lack of confidence in using English in her class (see section 6.2.3.6). She said, “it’s [using English] getting comfortable for me...I have got more confidence to conduct the class in English” (VINT.CHAT1/02OCT2008). As illustrated in section 6.2.3.6, Vicky not only used mostly L2 but also encouraged her pupils to use English in real practice, which is in contrast with her post-INSET interview. Although it would be unrealistic to expect that her linguistic competence had improved in just a three-week period, she seemed more confident about conducting the class in English. This shows how increased confidence enabled Vicky to try out the use of English in her class, which was an unfamiliar teaching approach to her.

This phenomenon highlights two issues. Firstly, her increased confidence obtained through the INSET enabled her to start using new teaching approaches which were unfamiliar to her and different from her previous routines. It is clear that the use of English in class is of course a skill which is closely bound up with a teacher’s own command of English and above all his/her confidence in using it in the classroom. This was a new challenge for Vicky and one whose achievement she felt would improve learners’ output. This latter conclusion was a perception on Vicky’s part and was not based on objectively measurable evidence. She said:

This kind of confidence would be reflected while teaching. This will eventually affect pupils’ learning and output as well. The more the teacher’s enthusiasm increases, the higher the pupils’ desire to study is. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.8)
They [pupils] can all memorise the ‘Five little monkeys’ and the ‘Do Re Mi’ song all by themselves. I found that they are fascinated by songs and role-play in English. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.2)

In Vicky's case, she saw her increased confidence as directly impinging on her performance in the classroom and pupil outcomes. Secondly, as Guskey (1994) mentions very pragmatically, attitudes are best formed through practical experience. Vicky became more confident with the new practices after she had actively engaged in using them in her class. Vicky felt inhibited in speaking English at first, but after using English in her class she became more confident (see section 6.2.3.6. for more detailed discussion of this issue).

In a similar vein, Fullan (1991:45) suggests in his observation, “it is possible that beliefs can be most effectively discussed after people have had at least some behavioural experience in attempting new practices”. He goes on to say that if INSET courses strengthen participants’ confidence and enthusiasm to try things out and participants do, and it works, then they will develop new attitudes.

The second aspect of Vicky’s confidence can be found in her process of reconstructing new skills learnt from INSET in order to implement them in her own classrooms. For example, although she was introduced to new information regarding classroom activities in the course, she had problems in relating this to practice, especially in reconstructing and redesigning what she learnt according to her pupils’ level. For example, during the fourth observed lesson, Vicky asked pupils to memorise the scripts of the ‘three little pigs’ story and then do a readers’ theatre (a kind of role-play) in front
of the other pupils. While observing them during the activity, although it is a very simple story, she noticed (even I could notice) that pupils were getting confused, and did not seem to understand what they were doing or the meaning of the story. She commented:

The problem of that activity [readers’ theatre] was that the first grade pupils can’t read English. So I asked them to memorise the script that I read to them and present what they memorised. [...] I tried readers’ theatre but there was no effect. [...] I don’t think most of the pupils could understand what they memorised.

(V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.2)

As Vicky revealed, she did not fully understand how to adapt activities yet still retain the original aims. Rather she seemed to implement the activities exactly as experienced on the INSET course. The following quote from the trainer’s interview shows the aim of this activity, readers’ theatre:

They don’t need to memorise but just read the script. Through this, they can develop their literal, linguistic, communicative, and cooperative competence. Thus, this activity incorporates drama and reading together. (L/TTI.INT/17OCT08/PP.1)

As quoted above, trainer Linda states that when carrying out this activity the script need not be memorised, but can just be read, though this does mean that pupils engaged in this activity should be able to read. So Vicky would seem to show some evidence of a superficial level of transfer as indicated by her lack of assurance in adapting activities.

It was, however, found in her further interview six months after INSET completion that
eventually new ideas obtained from the INSET were successfully reconstructed and reinterpreted on her own terms in her class. In other words, Vicky was more flexible in adopting new knowledge obtained from TTI and would make adjustments to the scheme of work according to the level and needs of her pupils. This helped develop not only her teaching skills but also improved her confidence in applying and implementing the INSET ideas into her classroom practice by reinventing new ideas acquired on the training programme. As stated in the literature chapter (section 3.7.2), the capacity of the teacher to appropriately reinterpret the training experience is seen as a key to successful implementation. She said:

*I found that they [pupils] are fascinated by songs and chants in English. [...]Pupils’ grade, age, interest, demand, needs, and the level of the classroom are the crucial factors English teachers need to consider when redesigning.* (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP. 3)

*It is, however, true that even though redesigning materials and activities to fit into my own situation is hard it really helps me in improving my teaching skills. In addition, it gave me a challenge and confidence in terms of developing my English proficiency and better teaching skills.* (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.3)

Over time, during the period of my observation she seems to have come to know what her pupils need and what she is going to teach through an ongoing process of reconstructing her new skills rather than teaching according to her already developed routines. This also gave her confidence in that she was meeting the needs of the learners in the context she faces. This aspect appears to be greater and deeper than simply increased confidence, additional knowledge, or an expanded classroom
repertoire since Vicky is now aware of how to adapt new skills into her class and what to draw upon during the lesson in order to improve her teaching. Vicky’s change process can probably be regarded as one of developing ‘cognitive strategies’ (see section 3.4.1 for a fuller explanation). Cognitive strategy suggests that any change must address the more deep-seated beliefs and attitudes of the participants and their own ‘theories of action’ (West, 1992). And theory of action is based on teachers’ understandings of what education is and how children learn. This contrasts with ‘theory in use’ which refers to what teachers actually do in reality. As stated above, Vicky has reinvented new ideas according to the level and needs of her pupils; in other words, she came to understand how pupils’ learning has occurred, what her pupils need, and what she is going to teach through an ongoing process of reconstructing her new skills. Indeed, pupils were able to enjoy their English class as shown in the interview quotation in the previous page. This contrasts with the fourth observed lesson when Vicky transferred a readers’ theatre into her class without assurance of the activity (see section, 6.2.3.7 for fuller explanation).

This confirms Guskey’s four-step model of teacher change – a view strongly supported by more recent research literature (Ingvarson, 2003; Steadman, Eraut, Fielding and Horton, 1995, cited in Moore, n.d:3); that is, change in teachers’ perception, beliefs, and attitudes cannot come about without active engagement with new methods and finding improvements in pupil attainment.
6.2.3.8. Changes in teachers’ perception: professional motivation

Vicky’s increased motivation had two psychological aspects which appeared to challenge her to develop further her English and career. Furthermore, this motivation suggests the wish to strengthen professional self-identity. Comments were made by Vicky along the lines of these examples:

*I became very motivated. Thus, I started studying TEPS (Test of English Proficiency developed by Seoul National University) to improve my English competence. And as I mentioned, I applied for the six-month intensive course and will start from this March.* (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.16)

She went on to say:

*My school provides a free English class for teachers to enhance teachers’ English ability. Before I would never say anything in class, but now when the native teacher asks me a question, I can respond without hesitation. I gained confidence and motivation; it still needs to be improved but I am not afraid of speaking in English.* (V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.7)

This is an important aspect. I noted that attending this three-week short course provided Vicky with fresh input: motivation. At the same time, it made her more enthusiastic, which led her to improve her English skills. The enhanced confidence and motivation of Vicky resulting from the course also affected her professional self-identity; the INSET course affects both trainees’ reasons for doing it and their professional status. Vicky could also identify what she is going to do further and what she wants to do after the course:

*The TTI course gave people challenges and motivation to really learn English,*
which means that I could envision being a certified and qualified English teacher if I study English hard. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.8)

I will apply for a position as an, ‘English subject teacher’ from this September. […]

Then I would like to try various activities that I learnt in the course. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.7)

According to Harland and Kinder (1997:75), motivational impact refers to enhanced enthusiasm and motivation to implement the ideas received during INSET experiences. From this perspective, clearly, this INSET course influenced Vicky in relation to her perceptions of her professional status and her future teaching practice. In this light, the INSET course can be regarded as a vehicle for personal professional development, rather than something which might bear immediate benefit to the profession. As Freeman (1989) affirms, change in teacher education is not necessarily immediate. In this connection, an interesting question that arises is whether Vicky’s previous experiences of other INSET courses had similarly affected her motivation.

Indeed, she had attended quite a lot of courses before attending this course, as summarised earlier in the account of her personal background (see section 6.2.1. and table 6.1). This might mean that even before this course she was the kind of teacher who was professionally committed and realised her own need to keep motivated by updating her skills. It might be true. However, this also suggests that teachers’ personal (previous) learning experiences as well as new input or new information can motivate teachers to improve their teaching. Learners experience different developmental phases and may be more ‘ready’ at certain times to undergo new learning processes. This is linked to Day’s ideas of teachers’ ‘readiness’ to embrace new learning at different points in their lives/careers (1999:68). Moreover, this readiness led Vicky to
further INSET training when she needed further new ideas and challenges.

6.2.3.9. Further career development

Many writers (Ayling, 1989; Howard and Bradley, 1992) reveal that many of the teachers feel their initial professional training courses and INSET training courses contribute to their promotion. It seems, therefore, that courses of this type are fairly consistent in their impact on the career development of participants. Career development can be seen as a process of further enhancing expertise, and development of deeper levels of understanding in new knowledge and skills. Likewise, Vicky also gained motivation through this course to further her career development.

Vicky mentioned that in addition to her improvement in teaching, the training experience brought about better career prospects for her and led to deeper learning opportunities. She said:

*It [INSET course] gave me a challenge [...]. It led me to apply for the six-month in-depth course starting from this March. Out of the 12 participants of my class at TTI, five of the teachers applied for the in-depth course: Robin, Tracy, Tom, Elizabeth, and me. Robin had already been to England to take an overseas joint teacher training course. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.7)*

Although a number of writers (Joyce and Showers, 1988; Rhodes and Houghton-Hill, 2000) have indicated that the rationale for INSET should be rooted firmly in its effects on learners (see section 4.5.5), the result in this interview suggests that Vicky has derived a great deal of benefit from INSET in terms of teaching confidence and motivation. It is, of course, possible to argue that any benefits to learners from the career development of individual teachers that could be directly attributable to such courses seem unlikely. But, as Cope et al. (1992:307) mention, “the enhancement of
teachers’ self-esteem, confidence and general awareness of educational issues are not trivial gains”. They go on to say “we would argue that some benefits may be worthwhile without necessarily being quantifiable and that INSET designed to promote reflection, insight and confidence is of value to the system because of its effects on the quality of the teaching force” (ibid, 1992:307).

To sum up, the link between motivation and impact outcomes is not simple. It is possible, however, that the three factors of (i) development of linguistic competency, (ii) professional self-identity, and (iii) further career development may be connected.
6.3. Analysing impact: the case of Tracy

In this section I present the findings from the data of the second teacher in the study, Tracy. As with Vicky’s data, I firstly provide a brief profile of her giving background information. Secondly, I give a detailed account of her classroom practice after the completion of the INSET course by looking broadly at two significant features in implementing the knowledge gained from the course into her classroom by highlighting (i) the impact of the course on practice regarding the following areas: classroom management, classroom interaction, and classroom language use; (ii) professional motivation and confidence in respect of teachers’ perception change.

6.3.1. Personal background of Tracy

In this section, I introduce Tracy’s background information which I obtained from interviews during the study.

Table 6.4. Background information of Tracy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Tracy</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational background</td>
<td>Graduated from Chuncheon National Teachers’ College, BA, majored in general education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher training experience</td>
<td>Attended three teacher training courses (1st: 3-day workshop; 2nd: 3-week programme; 3rd: 3-month programme)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
<td>17 years’ experience as a primary school teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English language</td>
<td>4–5 years’ experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3.2. Teaching experience

Tracy’s teaching experience was atypical and therefore I would like to give more details. Before taking this course, she worked for two years in a Korean school in Singapore (the name of the school is concealed to preserve anonymity). Her teaching in Singapore was not related to teaching English, but it provided her with an opportunity to speak English while living there since the official language of Singapore is English.

*I taught the Korean language [in Singapore] and it really didn’t have a lot to do with the subject of English, but it is an English-speaking environment. Therefore, I was able to use English a lot.* (TR/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.1)

Also, her experience of living in Singapore contributes to how she now motivates her pupils:

*I didn’t have great English skills when I went to Singapore but it didn’t affect my ability to communicate. So naturally I became self-motivated. Therefore, I always try to motivate my pupils, reflecting on my experience in Singapore.* (TR/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.6)

The following table will summarise the various data sources in order to help the reader understand the chronology of events. In each observed lesson all activities were linked to a main theme.
| Observation 1 & Informal interview | Followed textbook | Group work; gap-fill activity after watching a video included in the textbook. | 25/09/2008 |
| Observation 2 & Informal interview | Followed textbook; reading storybook ‘the lion and the mouse’ | Learning new vocabulary introduced in the textbook; group-work activity (deciding each group’s line in storybook and reading its own lines) | 02/10/2008 |
| Observation 3 & Informal interview | Followed storybook ‘the lion and the mouse’ | Role-play with storybook; reading pupils’ lines in storybook; preparing readers’ theatre for next class. | 09/10/2008 |
| Observation 4 & Informal interview | Followed textbook; practicing readers’ theatre. | Watching a video and repeating sentences from video. | 16/10/2008 |
6.3.3. Impact on classroom practice

This section, focusing on Tracy, demonstrates the outcomes or impacts of the INSET provision and activities as previously discussed in Vicky’s case. In order to explore these impacts and outcomes in Tracy’s real practice, I look at specific factors of impact on classroom practice, professional confidence, and motivation which emerged as pertinent links between training and real practice as I analysed Tracy’s data. The following three areas will be analysed: (i) classroom management in respect of how to deal with mixed-ability and large classes (group/pair work), and maximising resources; (ii) classroom interaction involving better error correction, motivating pupils, and establishing rapport; and (iii) classroom language use including use of L1 vs. L2.

6.3.3.1. Classroom management: dealing with mixed-ability and large classes

As mentioned in section 5.4, the issue of managing mixed-ability and large classes was also recognised as significant at TTI and some ideas and activities were suggested to manage this more effectively. Large classrooms can negatively affect two significant and interrelated aspects of teacher practice: instructional time and classroom management (Benbow et al, 2007:6). Dealing with large classes may be a key element in managing classes in many countries not only in Korean primary schools. Indeed, Japanese (secondary) teachers in Sakui’s study (2007) mentioned that large classes consist of many different types of pupils which tend to cause management difficulties.

Consequently, the trainer Linda introduced activities to deal with mixed-ability classes
such as ‘grading tasks’ (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:38:20) and ‘self-access’ learning (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:46:03), which differentiate tasks according to pupils’ levels so that all pupils, regardless of ability, are able to engage in their own tasks. This is supported by Pinter’s (2006:15) idea that “exceptionally gifted children will need to learn early on to work independently so that they can carry on with motivating tasks while the rest of the class are engaged in something else”. Catering for different learners’ needs (L/OB/CLIP6/06AUG08/00:10:15), based on Multiple Intelligence theory established by Howard Gardner and content-based teaching (L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:53:00), was also introduced at TTI.

However, these activities for mixed-ability classes and various types of learners were not used in Tracy’s class. She might have already anticipated the potential difficulties that she might encounter when conducting the activities even before returning to her school: i.e. the opposition of pupils and parents and the increased workload preparing different materials according to pupils’ levels. Therefore, she expressed feelings of scepticism in dividing groups according to their levels. She said:

*The activity for ‘mixed-ability classes’ [one of the activities that participants learnt from TTI] is not very feasible to use in reality. [...] pupils should be divided into a stronger group and weaker group according to their level. But many parents and pupils do not willingly accept being divided [...]. After dividing pupils into groups, then teaching them individually...mmm...it must be very hard. Also, if I give them a different task as we learnt in this course, I can tell pupils must think it’s very unfair. (TR/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP. 4-5)*

Tracy’s comments above indicate that classroom management does not simply depend
on a teacher’s decision making or on teaching methodology, but also on complex societal issues that involve teachers, parents, and pupils (Sakui, 2007).

In addition, small-group work mixed with high and low level pupils was introduced to manage mixed-ability classes in the INSET (L/OB/CLIP2/06AUG08/00:08:33). This was suggested as a constructive way to deal with particularly isolated or less attentive learners, one of the problems which frequently arose in a large or mixed-ability class, by giving all pupils, advanced level or lower level, a sense of belonging and active involvement. The trainer Linda emphasised that “it is very important that everybody works together in the class” (L/OB/CLIP2/06AUG08/00:08:33). This is closely tied to Pinter’s (2006:15) idea that “children of all ability will enjoy working together in pairs or small groups and more capable learners can often help weaker ones”.

To promote pupils working together as in the statement above, the teacher’s role is to enable pupils to participate actively rather than to maintain the traditional routine of teacher-fronted teaching. However, in reality, most of Tracy’s classes during the observations were taught using a predominantly traditional teacher-centred, whole-class method. For example, she explained the meaning of new words written on the board using Korean or made pupils repeat what she had said in a traditional teacher-fronted style, translating the passage in a story book into Korean line by line. The following extract from the third observed lesson illustrates this:

<Extract 4>

(Tracy was reading a passage from the storybook ‘The Mouse and the Lion’, and pupils were repeating the words after her.)

1. T: I can cut the net.
2. Ss: I can cut the net.
3. T: Nanun guemuleul jarulsu iteyo (I can cut the net).
4. T: If you don’t know the meaning can you write it down? Do you understand the meaning of all the sentences? (Pointing out pupils who did not write down the meaning in Korean) (TR/0B3/9SEP08/00:00:18)

In this situation pupils were expected to sit quietly and just repeat the words after the teacher and seldom had an opportunity to work together with their peers.

Even when the class was occasionally conducted through working in groups, Tracy’s concept of a teacher’s role was clearly evident. For Tracy, the teacher’s role is focused on ‘teaching’, presenting knowledge to pupils. Although pupils were sitting in groups, the class was far closer to a teacher-dominated, whole-class working environment.

There was an absence of pupils being encouraged to share their ideas, listen to what their peers had to say, or involvement of pupils in discussions about the tasks among themselves and between the teacher and pupils to provide an interactive learning environment. The following extract is an illustration of the group work in the first observed class of Tracy:

<Extract 5>

(Tracy was telling the pupils to open their books.)

1. T: This is first time of this unit. Here, look at the picture. Who are they in this picture? (pointing to the picture in the textbook)
2. T: Do you know who they are? No?? (pointing to a specific girl) Who is she? Just guess!!
3. S1: (raising her hand) Nami!
4. T: Who is Nami? Yes! She is Nami! Ok! Just guess! Who is she? (pointing to another picture in the textbook)
5. Ss: Nami’s mum.
6. T: Nami’s mum. Who is he? (pointing to another picture)
7. Ss: Nami’s brother. [...] 
8. T: What are they doing? James? What are they doing?
9. J: Mmm...
10. T: [They are] finding something?
11. J: Yes!
12. T: They are finding something! (TR/OB1/23SEP08/VC1/00:04:35 ~00:05:58)

A. Group-work activity in Tracy’s class
B. Teacher-dominated class while sitting in groups

(TR/OB1/23SEP08/VC1/00:13:02) (TR/OB1/23SEP08/VC1/00:06:28)

Figure 6.6. Photos of a group-work activity in Tracy’s class

As can be seen from the extract above from the observation of Tracy and the photos, the class was highly teacher-dominated, using sequences of display questions to structure the children’s contributions rather than leading pupils to work collaboratively
Moreover, although the pupils were sitting in groups, each pupil generally undertook work independently; some pupils listened to the teacher and answered but others just chat to their friends (see the photo B). In such learning contexts, learners did not get the benefits of collaborative learning in a group as TTI envisaged, and talking in these settings often did not enhance learning. Consequently, Tracy experienced difficulties in securing active engagement and attainment from all the pupils; some of pupils did all the work and others sat there and did nothing. Galton and Williamson’s finding that “group work often actually involved working alone or listening to teacher instruction” (1992, cited in Thurston et al. 2008:264) seemed to be evident.

Then, at this point, the question arises as to why Tracy led a mainly teacher-dominated class rather than encouraging pupils to work in their groups even though she had shown quite a positive attitude towards group work in her post-INSET-observation interview, saying that

> [...] then the kids who have good English naturally help weaker pupils. I think group work is a very good tool for a large class and a mixed-ability class.

*(TR/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.5)*

By considering the opinions Tracy expressed during the interviews, I surmise this might be for two reasons.

Firstly, to some extent, a teacher-fronted method can be a good classroom management tool to allow her to keep pupils quiet and maintain class order because large class sizes and cramped classroom conditions often make the management of group activities problematic (Carless and Wong, 2000:213). When pupils were sitting
up straight and facing the teacher, she did not need to control the noise problems that arose during group or pair work. She said:

*It is sometimes better to do individual work like practical art or whole-class work in terms of reducing level differences and the level of noise.*  

(TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.8-9)

*Most of the activities are based on group work and require too much energy, [...] sometimes teachers have a misconception that an English class should be ‘fun’. [...] In this sense, the textbook should contain balanced activities between calm and excited.*  

(TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP. 12)

Secondly, Tracy was concerned that some pupils were too dominant so others were unable to collaborate during group work. She talked about this matter repeatedly:

*The concept that stronger pupils can help weaker pupils and work collaboratively sounds good, but in reality stronger pupils don’t care about weaker pupils much. Weaker pupils tend to be isolated instead of being protected.*  

(TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.1)

*I noticed that only one or two pupils within the group would present their group work [...] The stronger pupils just solve the given task, which means they are very competitive. [...] the weaker pupils are eventually isolated and unprotected by stronger pupils. [...] the rest of the pupils [weaker pupils] just become auditors or observers not participants.*  

(TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.7)

Another possible reason for the preference for a teacher-dominant class that might be considered here is “conflict with educational values and traditions” (Littlewood,
2007:245), although Tracy did not reveal this in her interviews. Hu (2005b:653, cited in Littlewood, 2007:245) describes the traditional Chinese culture of learning as one in which “education is conceived more as a process of knowledge accumulation than as a process of using knowledge for immediate purposes, and the preferred model of teaching is a mimetic or epistemic one that emphasizes knowledge transmission”.

Likewise, the predominant characteristic of Tracy’s practice was pupils’ reproduction of the information contained in the storybook, and pupils’ memorisation of prescribed scripts rather than negotiation of meaning with their peers through group-work tasks. This was in contrast with the peer interaction and collaborative learning that produced output to be shared with other groups through group-work activity, which Tracy had experienced in the INSET course. (see sections 5.3. and 5.4)

It is true that cooperative work in groups enables learners to reconstruct and elaborate their ideas through peer dialogue (Bereiter, 2002, cited in Thurston et al, 2008:264), but an essential element of group-work learning contexts is the quality of talk that takes place (ibid). In this vein, what comes through very strongly in the observations of Tracy is that the opportunity for co-learners to discuss ideas and study together to scaffold each other’s learning was very infrequent in Tracy’s classroom practice.

6.3.3.2. Classroom management: maximising resources

Generally, some teachers follow a set of school textbooks very closely, lesson by lesson, but other teachers are able to select their own materials and activities more freely. TTI stressed the importance of creating differentiated learning materials to accommodate the needs of all pupils as mentioned in the previous section (see sections 5.4 and 6.2.3.2). By doing this, teachers are able to have their own materials and activities in
order to maximise the range of resources used and thus try them out in their own classrooms according to how appropriate they seem for the given context. In addition, personalisation or localisation of new ideas acquired from the course was emphasised to meet special expectations, needs, and relevance that the school textbook cannot fulfil for various types of learners (L/0B/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:00:04). Tracy also had a belief that the standardised textbook cannot accommodate the variety in pupils’ ability levels and interests. She said:

*The thing is that the Education Ministry makes only one kind of English textbook and the whole nation should learn this same textbook. The level of pupils’ English is variable depending on region and school. It is a bit ridiculous that all pupils should study with only one book given by the Education Ministry without considering their levels.* (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.13)

*The level of the textbook is standardised. It is hard for the pupils who are weak at English and for the pupils who are learning their ABC for the first time. On the other hand, it is too easy for stronger pupils. This is the problem of the English textbook for primary schools.* (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.12)

Although she expressed her feeling of dissatisfaction with the textbook, Tracy’s management of resources for teaching was typified by a largely textbook-dominated class supplemented by the ‘readers’ theatre’ activity. Ng (1994:82, cited in Carless and Wong, 2000:213) states “many teachers, perhaps as a result of perceived or actual pressure from the school or from parents, try to ‘finish the textbook’ with little regard to the ability of the pupils”. Tracy also described feelings of pressure from school and parents to follow the textbook and it was eventually one of the constraining factors hindering the implementation of new ideas (see section 7.1.1.5). She commented:
If teachers use something else that they made, the pupils and the parents think that teachers are teaching unnecessary things. [...] if I teach differently from the textbook, pupils and parents think I haven’t taught anything and consider me lazy. [...] This is the reason why it is hard to put my own material and methods into practice. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP. 11)

There are, of course, benefits in using textbooks. They can support teachers, as Pinter (2006:118) states “particularly inexperienced teachers by providing detailed teachers’ notes including sample language used in the classrooms, tips, explanations, answer keys to exercises, full typescripts, ideas and activities in photocopiable sheets to use in the classes”.

Despite the pressure to follow the textbook, Tracy made an effort to incorporate what she had learnt from TTI to extend the resources and teaching methods she used in her class. For instance, she set aside two lessons out of five during the times she was observed for the activity ‘readers’ theatre’ introduced from the INSET using the storybook entitled ‘The Mouse and the Lion’ and gave each pupil a photocopied handout of the book. This included the English script, the translated script in Korean, chants, and a song. We can assume the reasons why Tracy chose readers’ theatre for a learning resource amongst many activities recommended by the INSET from what she said:

Well, I like storytelling and role-play as I have mentioned, using a very easy and familiar story. When you tell a story that everyone [pupils] already knows, then it will be less stressful for them to hear. (TR/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.6)
Despite her attempt to implement readers’ theatre activities in her observed classes, it was found that many of her old routines still remained within the activity; for example, there were lots of repetition and pattern drills. The following quotation illustrates this:

*I used to do lecture-based teaching, which focuses on lots of memorisation, asking pupils to memorise much vocabulary or patterns for speaking rather than drawing out learners’ motivation.* (TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.5)

As well as the interview quotation, the following extract from her third observed lesson also shows how she conducted the readers’ theatre activity.

<Extract 6>

(She was assigning character roles that appeared in the storybook to pupils.)

1. T: *You read your lines all together! Do you understand what I mean?*
2. Ss: *I am a mouse.*
3. Ss: *I am a rabbit.*
4. Ss: *I am a monkey.*
5. Ss: *I am a big lion.*
6. […]
7. Ss: *We are good friends! Ha, ha, ha.*
8. Ss: *Oh, they are very wonderful friends!* (TR/OB3/ 00:15:00-00:22:02)

As seen above, even though she attempted the activity ‘readers’ theatre’ acquired from the INSET the predominant characteristic of Tracy’s practice was pupils’ reproduction of the information contained in the storybook, and pupils’ memorisation of prescribed scripts rather than negotiation of meaning with their peers through group-work tasks. This contrasts sharply with her INSET experience in terms of the learning that occurred through peer interaction and the benefit she obtained through collaborative learning in the INSET course (see section 5.4).
Pupils might have had a sense of belonging and responsibility for their assigned lines through group work or by introducing a group competition to make her lessons more interesting and motivating, although in this case the level of noise would be higher. This might be attributable to Tracy’s prior learning experiences. What Lortie (1975, cited in Tsui, 2003) refers to as “the apprenticeship of observation” plays a powerful role in shaping teachers’ views of effective teaching and learning and their teaching practices (Crandall, 2000:35). Indeed, Tracy’s class for readers’ theatre reminds me of my secondary reading class where a communicative approach had not been introduced. She presumably relied heavily on the way she was taught in her schooldays.

The opportunities that create learner interaction with their peers were not provided, nor were many games or activities used in Tracy’s class, such as using memory card games in order to practise new words during the process of the ‘readers’ theatre’. In contrast, the practice of readers’ theatre at TTI was more interactive in that all trainee teachers were able to work together in their groups and to participate in reading their assigned lines in front of their peers. On the other hand, Tracy did use her voice as an interesting resource in terms of promoting her pupils’ interest and providing a positive environment, as learnt at TTI. The trainer Linda in her second observed teaching methodology class suggested using learners’ various voices to create a learning environment where pupils can seek creative opportunities for reading success. She said “[…] sometimes they [pupils] can make special sound effects, singing, […] pupils, young learners, are good at imitating sound” (L/OB/CLIP1/30JULY2008/00:06:37~00:07:01).

Moreover, the trainee teachers used various intonation and special sound effects when

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12 This game is often played by matching pictures and words to practise world-level reading (Pinter, 2006:71).
presenting readers’ theatre during the second observed class. The influence of experiential learning at TTI is evident here.

While reading the storybook, Tracy varied her voice according to the character in the story rather than using a monotonous voice. For example, she tried to use a very small and tiny voice when reading the lines of the mouse. This was a good facilitating factor to enhance pupil-teacher interaction and contribute to creating an enjoyable and fun classroom environment. This will be dealt with in more detail in the next section. She also used pupils’ work as a resource for learning; the bulletin board at the back of the classroom was full of pupils’ picture diaries. She posted on the board the pupils’ picture diaries with corrections for the rest of the class to look at and learn the right expressions through the teacher’s feedback.

Figure 6.7. Photos of pupils’ picture diary on the wall in Tracy’s classroom

Finally, Tracy displayed objects such as fruits, a piggy bank (money bank), storybooks, chopsticks, flowers etc. at the back of classroom and labelled the objects in English with word cards (see the photos below). According to Pinter (2006:69), this is a strategy
that can help make the children curious about reading and writing and could illustrate to them how words that they are familiar with orally are represented in writing. All of these visual aids would attract children’s attention and help them make the links between spoken and written forms. The following photos show words cards used in Tracy’s real classroom and Pinter’s book.

A. Words cards in Tracy’s classroom  B. labelling the objects in English with words cards in Pinter’ book.

Figure 6.8. Photos of word cards

6.3.3.3. Classroom interaction: better error correction

Tracy had positive attitudes towards errors as part of the learning process and thought that learners should not be continually corrected. She said:

*I don’t think correcting errors is effective for primary school pupils. They need to be able to just express themselves freely without thinking which one is right and which one is wrong. So they need to speak or write freely as much as possible.*

*(TR/PT.INT/03AUG08/PP.6)*

*If I start to correct them then they start to become aware of it and lose confidence. When there is a need to focus on form rather than free conversation,*
I will correct them. But in just normal cases I wouldn’t mind pupils’ mistakes.

(TR/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.6)

The following excerpt from the first observed lesson shows an example of how she corrected errors:

<Extract 7>

(She was pointing to a picture in the textbook and asking questions.)

1. T: What is this?
2. S1: Table!
3. T: Table. It’s a table.
4. T: What is this?
5. S2: Refrigerator!
6. T: Yes! It’s…(waiting for the pupils’ answer). It’s a refrigerator.
7. […]
8. T: What is he doing? Just guess!
9. S3: Watch….
10. T: Looking for a watch?
11. Ss: Yes!
12. […]
13. T: What time is it in the video? Paul?
14. P: Eight!
15. T: I want to hear the full sentence.
16. P: The time is eight!
17. T: It’s eight! Ok! Good! (TR/OB1/23SEP08/00:06:11 -00:09:37).

From the above excerpt, we can see that Tracy tried to find ways to engage learners with their errors; in other words, she explicitly corrected pupils’ errors using mostly teacher correction during the class, but she did try to wait for the pupils to self-correct first. She also reshaped pupils’ answers to make them more accurate and grammatically correct although the pupils’ answers above did not interrupt the flow of
the class conversation (or fluency). This illustrates her stated belief towards error correction well (see the interview quotation above). As she expressed in her interviews, errors should be corrected when the class are focused on form. It would be regarded as non-communicative in terms of the exclusive use of display questions (i.e. questions to which the speaker already has the answer) or form-focused feedback (i.e. feedback which focused on the correct formation of the learners’ contribution) (Gil, 2002:274).

Indeed, Tracy rather tended to prefer accuracy-based activities such as the ‘gap-fill’ activity used in the first observed lesson rather than fluency-based activities such as group discussions and naturally correcting learners’ grammatical errors.

However, it is also possible to consider this through a conciliatory perspective\(^{13}\); that is that a focus-on-form teaching style should be understood as complementary to communicative talk rather than considering it as a non-communicative feature (Nunan, 1987; Willis, 1987, cited in Gil, 2002). Since foreign language classroom discourse has a metalinguistic nature, due to the fact that the target language is both the object and the medium of communication (Gil, 1999, cited in Gil, 2002), the two styles of teaching need not be seen as mutually exclusive.

6.3.3.4. Classroom interaction: motivating pupils and building up rapport

Pinter (2006:36) states that motivation is crucial in learning other languages and learners are motivated by a positive environment to English and the learning context. TTI suggested various ways to promote better classroom interaction between teacher and pupils or pupils and pupils by motivating pupils (L/0B/CLIP2/06AUG08/00:00:01).

\(^{13}\) This term has been borrowed from Gil (2002:274).
One of the proposed ideas to motivate pupils used in Tracy’s class was to give them rewards, as Vicky did. Tracy asked them to summarise the book and rewarded them with a sticker if they gave a good summary. Another important way to motivate pupils to learn suggested by TTI and also the literature (e.g. Dornyei, 2001) is to create a good atmosphere: creating a pleasant and supportive environment in the classroom.

Tracy used her voice not only as a good resource for learning but also as a facilitating tool to improve classroom interaction in terms of creating a comfortable and enjoyable atmosphere. When she asked the pupils to repeat what had been said by her, the pupils were involved in the activity and showed enjoyment and fun in copying their teacher’s intonation. The following excerpt illustrates this in more detail, although there are limitations in how clearly her various forms of intonations can be depicted:

<Extract 8>

(Pupils were assigned the roles of the rabbit, lion, alligator, and monkey and read their own lines.)

1.  Ss (lion): Ah, I am trapped. I can’t escape from this net. Somebody help me! Help me!

  ➔  2.  Ss (alligator): Help you?

3.  T: Repeat after me! Help you? (the pupils were copying her voice). Not help you! (TR/OB3/9SEP08/11:19:05).

At this point, Tracy pointed out the pupils’ monotonous intonation and demonstrated how to read it in a different voice. Pupils who were assigned to read the role of the alligator were asked to bring out subtle nuances in their intonation to express the implicit meaning of ‘how can an alligator help a stronger, bigger lion’. In copying their teacher’s intonation, pupils laughed a lot and paid attention to her.

Korean teachers have traditionally been figures of authority, being respected by pupils.
Pupils are the ones who obey what teachers say, naturally leading to a ‘vertical’ relationship between teachers and pupils. However, at that moment at least, the relationship between Tracy and her pupils did not seem to be a hierarchical one, rather they seemed to be ‘one team’ trying to achieve their goals. This enhanced pupils’ active involvement in the activity and also gave a livelier atmosphere than there would have been simply repeating a tape or CD. In this case, Tracy’s use of variation in her intonation not only contributed to the pupils’ learning but also promoted pupils’ motivation because young children see the teacher as a source of motivation and also enjoy the process of learning English (Pinter, 2006: 101). This corresponds with what Tracy hoped to achieve in her class. She said:

Now I am trying to give my pupils lots of fun and motivation in English classes.

(TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.5)

6.3.3.5. Classroom language use: L1 vs. L2

Like most of the other Korean teachers, Tracy also expressed concerns about her low confidence and ability, particularly in her spoken English. This perception may be a contributory factor to her reduced English use, coupled with the use of the facilitating factor of code-switching in the classroom (see section 7.2). Tracy was not very persistent in using English when conducting the class during the observations and did not stick to the ‘Teaching English Through English’ policy recommended by the INSET and Education Ministry. Thus, she seemed to be more relaxed about getting her pupils to use both English and Korean in the class; rather, at some points, she encouraged them to speak in Korean (TR/OB2/24SEP08/00:01:57).

While participants of the INSET course were generally supportive of the use of English in the classroom, Tracy thought the need to use Korean in her English lessons was
inevitable. The reasons can be summarised in three ways through the examination of Tracy’s interviews: (i) the pupils’ difficulty in English expression or comprehension; (ii) her lack of competence to speak only in English; and (iii) dealing with class-discipline problems. These three reasons correspond with Kim’s (2002) study examining EFL teachers’ perceptions regarding TETE in Korea. Firstly, the pupils’ expressive language difficulties emerged as an evident reason to use L1 and L2 in her class. This ties in with one of Pennington’s (1997:230) classifications of appropriate code-switching in EFL classes: “compensatory use of mother tongue”; that is, if using English hinders pupils’ understanding of the lesson L1 can be used to offer further explanation.

Tracy thought that the pupils could become either unfocused or confused as a result of the sole use of the TL which they could not fully comprehend, therefore code-switching might help their understanding and be a more effective way to deliver the course. She commented:

_When pupils don’t understand what the teacher says, they are very confused._

_Some pupils said ‘this is what the teacher said’ and other pupils said ‘no, it’s not’ ‘we have to do it this way’ ‘no that way’... (TR/PT.INT/D8AUG08/PP. 5-6)_

_From time to time, I used Korean to explain things that they [the pupils] didn’t seem to understand, and they liked that. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP. 2)_

Indeed, when she asked her pupils questions in English the answer she often got was “I don’t know” (observation data). Thus she observed pupils’ difficulty and anxiety when only the TL was used. Secondly, her code-switching may have resulted from her low level of proficiency in the TL; in particular, spoken English. In addition, this limited proficiency in the TL may undermine teachers’ confidence. This will be dealt with more
specifically in the next chapter in the discussion of internal constraining factors.

Thirdly, the findings in Pennington’s (1997:229) study indicate that “the mother tongue can be used in dealing with the discipline problem in class”. Likewise, the following interview quotation points out that for Tracy using Korean makes it much easier to manage the class. She said:

When the kids start to speak loudly, it is better to scold them in Korean to discipline them. Korean is more direct than English. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.10)

Indeed, she switched from English to Korean quickly and forcefully when the discipline got really bad as in the case of one of the teachers in Tsui’s study (2003:172).

The following extract shows how Tracy switched from English to Korean when she attempted to discipline her pupils.

<Extract 9>

(Pupils were reading their lines assigned)

1. T: Repeat after me. Hey, big lion! I want to be your friend!
2. Ss (rabbit) : Hey, big lion! I want to be your friend.
3. Ss (lion): You are smaller than the monkey. I am a very big lion. So how can you be my friend? (pupils’ voice was getting smaller and smaller and seemed to lose their concentration)
4. (At this point, Tracy started to use Korean)
5. T: 야! 그렇게 해서 친구하겠냐? (she mimicked pupils’ small and monotonous voice and instructed the class in Korean). 자 그렇게 하지 말고 따라해보세요. 시작!
However, surprisingly, Tracy also used English when she wanted to make pupils concentrate or when the pupils were distracted by funny events (e.g. after watching a funny scene in a video). For example, at the very beginning of the class, after the greetings and checking the attendance, the pupils lacked attention and focus. Tracy started the class by saying “are you ready for the class?” (or “are you ready to study?”). She used this sentence repeatedly until the pupils concentrated. Even during the class when she felt there was a need to call their attention, she said “are you ready to study?” or “look at me!”. For example:

<Extract 10>

(At the beginning of the class.)

1. T: Good morning, everyone?
2. Ss: Good morning, teacher (but some pupils were chatting with their friends).
3. T: Last time we did... (pupils were not listening to Tracy).
4. T: Are you ready to study? (TR/OB3/9SEP08/00:01:29).
5. [...] (Tracy was assigning the lines to the pupils.)
6. T: Who was in the monkey group? (Pupils were voicing their opinions and it was very noisy.)
7. T: Shh! Be quiet! Look at me! Look at me! (TR/OB3/9SEP08/00:14:18).

This kind of finding appears to be rare in other studies investigating code-switching in EFL classrooms since EFL teachers generally switched to their mother tongue when keeping order in their own classrooms (Lai, 1996; Macaro, 1997, cited in Kang, 2008:219). It seems to be one of the rules, routines, and tacit understandings with pupils that Tracy established for dealing with discipline problems and it was effective at regaining the pupils’ attention. She did not establish the rule that pupils must speak English in the English class, neither did she impose a penalty on pupils who broke the
rule as the INSET course did. However, even though it is not engaging in a meaningful conversation, giving pupils a simple practice routine as described above contributes to enabling them to produce the target language since learners can learn through mechanical learning activities.

6.3.3.6. Changes in teachers’ perception: professional confidence

Many studies (e.g. Powell et al, 2003; Cope et al, 1992; Davies and Preston, 2002) consider increased confidence as one of the perceived outcomes of attending INSET courses. However, these studies describe teachers’ increased confidence as a result of INSET courses without analysing observed classroom practice. Even though, as mentioned in Vicky’s section, teachers’ perception change is not a measurable or observable issue, this section shows (i) how Tracy’s perception change (positive attitude towards new activities learnt from the INSET course) led her to conduct her class more successfully and consequently develop her confidence in her classroom, through an analysis of her actual classroom practices; and (ii) how increased confidence as a result of the INSET influenced her teaching of English through English.

In many studies increased confidence has usually improved the quality of teaching or increased attempts to adopt new approaches (Cope et al, 1992; Powell et al, 2003; Davies and Preston, 2002). This might be true in most of cases. However, in Tracy’s case, it was her positive and favourable attitude towards new ideas (in particular teaching listening skills and readers’ theatre) that enabled her to adopt new approaches in her classroom practice, rather than any confidence she gained during the INSET. This is also
confirmed by many studies (e.g. Freeman, 1989; Karavas-dukas, 1993b; Richards, Tung, and Ng, 1992; Guskey, 2002). In particular, Freeman (ibid:32) views attitude as a sort of bridge that influences the effective functioning of the individual teacher in specific circumstances since teacher attitude has been acknowledged as a critical variable in teaching. Moreover, Freeman (ibid:38) asserts that two individuals (the teacher and the collaborator\(^{14}\)) engage in a process in order to generate some form of change in the teacher. In more detail, the purpose of collaboration remains to generate change in some aspect of the teacher’s decision making based on knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness. In Tracy’s case, the collaborator (INSET and the trainer Deborah) has served to initiate the process of change since she formed a favourable attitudes new teaching methods through Deborah’s listening class. However, Lamie (2002:148) points out that a negative attitude did not always result in an act not taking place since there are always many other variables in real situations. Kennedy and Kennedy (1996:353) also state that too much emphasis on attitudinal change may be risky of excluding other features of the context which may be at least influential on the behaviour of teachers and pupils. In fact, Tracy had continuously expressed, through her interviews (see Appendix 9), her appreciation of the teaching method for listening classes practised by the trainer Deborah from TTI (see section 5.2. for more detailed explanation of listening skills). This favourable attitude towards new teaching methods led to a change in her old routines and the implementation of a different approach. The following interview extract provides an example of an aspect of methodology which particularly appealed to Tracy. Her immediate recognition of its relevance led to its wholesale adoption as an approach to teaching.

\(^{14}\) Freeman (1989:38) defines the teacher educator, trainer, supervisor, programme administrator, mentor, colleague, or peer as a collaborator.
I used to do lecture-based teaching, asking pupils to memorise much vocabulary or patterns for speaking rather than drawing out learners’ motivation [...]. However, now I try to conduct my speaking class through three stages as Deborah did at TTI in the listening class (TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.5)

It is also possible to say that Tracy’s attitude was crucial in determining whether changes were implemented in her classroom practice. Furthermore, she felt the new listening teaching method illustrated above enabled her to conduct a better speaking class, particularly in terms of her ability to manage her class – including addressing the needs of weaker pupils, an issue that has been continuously raised in mixed-ability class. She said:

*I think it is very effective to learn English and lead pupils’ participation by repeatedly watching video clips. It is also effective for the weaker pupils because they have still got a chance to watch 2-3 more times even though they had missed some scenes at first, which also made them not to give up watching.*

(TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.5)

She also implemented the activity ‘readers’ theatre’ in her class.

*A modified version of ‘readers’ theatre’ has been used quite successfully [in the classroom] since it makes pupils participate in the class and helps improve reading skills. I was not very confident as mentioned in using new activities but I feel more confident.*

(TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.6)

First of all, this data suggests quite clearly that Tracy’s perceived changes (positive attitude) might be linked to increased confidence in conducting her class. This might
start with an initial stage where Tracy forms an initial personal or professional attitude towards new knowledge. She may then make a decision to reject or adopt it. This may then lead to an attempt to implement it. Finally, she may reach the stage of confirmation where the change is either accepted, rejected, or continued within a slightly modified form. This process is what Rogers (1995) terms a “teachers and change process” as stated in the literature review chapter (see section 3.4.2).

Furthermore, Tracy’s experience of the successful implementation of new knowledge brought about greater confidence as a teacher and created a new teaching repertoire which was accompanied by a well-developed variety of instructional strategies for her class, which she applied skilfully.

Moreover, the new teaching repertoire, reconstructed according to her situation, not only brought about the learning outcomes for pupils, but also gave her insight, in particular in the teaching of vocabulary, reading, and grammar.

*Readers’ theatre was to be read just in front of the class but I upgraded it by making the kids memorise their parts.* [...] *Since, in the process of memorising, pupils naturally memorise and come to learn grammar, vocabulary, and expressions.* [...] *For example, in the past the kids often confused ‘do you know where am I?’ with ‘do you know where I am?’*. However, after reading a *storybook and memorising it, those expressions started to come out more naturally without any explaining of grammatical rules.*  
*(TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.4-5)*

This point is in contrast with a teacher presented in Borg’s study (2001) called Dave. His
lack of confidence was accompanied by a limited instructional repertoire for grammar work, which he applied less successfully and this led him to minimise its use in his work.

This situation, however, appears to be more complex than simply an issue of increased confidence, additional knowledge, or expanded classroom repertoire. The enhanced confidence obtained through successful implementation also [re]shapes teachers’ attitudes and beliefs (Guskey, 2002:383). Naturally, this appeared more comfortably and strongly in Tracy’s teaching identities. This confirms what Borg (2001: 27) asserts in his study about self-perception and practice in teaching grammar: that “confidence (i.e. positive self-perception of ability), even when unjustified, motivates behaviour”.

The relationship between confidence and classroom practice is complex, however, and in my own conceptualisation of the issue, I found a diagram useful. I present the diagram in Figure 6.9 in order to demonstrate the connections between attitudes, confidence, classroom practice, and professional life.
Initially Tracy felt a lack of confidence about her linguistic proficiency. In her pre-INSET observation interview, before the INSET, she expressed her lack of confidence in using English in her class as follows:

*Sim: So during class time, do you usually teach in English?*

*Tracy: No, not really. I usually mixed English and Korean in the class.*

*Sim: When you teach English through English, do you have confidence overall?*

*Tracy: Not really (TR/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.3)*

She perceived her increased confidence came mostly from the INSET. She said:

*The TTI course was a great help for me to increase my English proficiency. I didn’t*
realise that at that time, but when I returned to school and taught in class, I noticed that I had got better English than before. Especially my English in the classroom has become more diverse... There is no doubt that my better English gave me confidence. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.2-3)

She goes on to say:

[...] even these simple expressions didn’t come out very easily. But now it comes out more naturally... it gave me more confidence during class time. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.3)

As can be seen, the INSET contributed to a rise in Tracy’s self-esteem, which led to development in her language use in her classroom. The impacts her increased confidence had produced were firstly, the improvement of her teaching, particularly in terms of her use of English when teaching; and secondly, building up her confidence led to better career prospects. In other words, this enhanced confidence not only had immediate impact on Tracy’s ability to apply new ideas learnt from the INSET, but also influenced her professional life as a whole. This is very important because teachers’ lack of confidence in using English has been one of the reasons, coupled with large class sizes, for the failed implementation of curriculum innovation (see, Carless and Wong, 2000:216; Li, 2002). Conversely, Tracy’s increased confidence facilitated the development of her pedagogical content knowledge. Furthermore, her enhanced confidence resulting from the course also affected her professional identity; in other words, this confidence is expressed as an increasing ability to articulate her views in her professional life. This will be dealt with in more detail in the following section.
6.3.3.7. Changes in teachers’ perception: professional motivation

Tomlinson (1988:18) asserts in his study that “motivation and stimulus gained from INSET would soon have been negated by the confusion and frustration [teachers] would have suffered in trying to apply all that they had learnt”. There is much literature on teacher motivation (e.g. Dornyei, 2001) that has also concluded that pressures of the system coupled with heavy workloads, limited resources, prescribed curricula, lack of autonomy, and unsupportive colleagues have had a negative impact on teacher commitment and development (Kubanyiova, 2009:324). Indeed, Tracy had initially had difficulties in applying what she had learnt from the INSET to her class because of issues arising from external and internal factors (see section 7.1 and 7.2). However, her increased confidence and motivation were two psychological aspects which appeared to become a ‘fertile ground for further professional development’,15 enabling her to pursue her further career as well as strengthening her professional self-identity by reflecting on her classroom practice.

Tracy, like Vicky, started the course with strong intrinsic motivation to improve her linguistic competence and was relatively positive about the course. In addition, she was highly motivated as a result of the INSET and this increased her motivation and helped her reflect on her own teaching which affected her professional identity. The following comments illustrate these points:

    I was able to be reflective. It means that I come to know where I am and what more I have to do. Therefore, I am able to search for new ways of teaching in the future. (TR/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.2)

15 This has been borrowed from Child and Merrill (2003:322, cited in Price and Willett, 2006:36).
And...personally, I’ve become very motivated. I realised that I have to make continuous efforts to enhance my English proficiency and develop teaching methods to be a good teacher. (TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.2)

Once Tracy discovered the issue of professional self-identity, she started to reflect on her skills and felt a strong internal need for self-improvement as a teacher. Like Vicky, Tracy could also identify what she was going to do further and what she wanted to do after the course.

According to Ushioda (2008:1), “motivation concerns what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, and to persist in action”. She goes on to say that intrinsic motivation includes doing something as an end in itself for its own self-sustaining pleasurable rewards of enjoyment, interest, challenge, or skill and knowledge development (ibid: 21). Likewise, the motivation Tracy gained after the INSET led her to develop her career plans:

I became motivated and thought that I should become an English subject teacher rather than a homeroom teacher. Then I applied for the six-month intensive course, starting from March. I was able to improve myself during the three-week course and build up confidence. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.16)

This suggests that if motivation is gained or increased, it appears to be possible to embark on a further professional development course.

I’ve got some more confidence in speaking. The more confidence I got, the more challenge and motivation I get. Therefore, I want to challenge myself to take other training courses and even a programme abroad. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.16)
6.4. Summary

Chapter 6 has attempted to answer the research question regarding participant teachers’ various motivations for taking the course and general course impacts on seven teachers. Furthermore, this chapter has demonstrated that there appears to be some evidence of considerable impact on two teachers’ (Vicky and Tracy) practical and perceptional domains. Vicky and Tracy’s experience through the course significantly enhanced their confidence and motivation and enabled them to be aware of their identities as English teachers and of many aspects of their practices that they wished to develop to be better qualified English teachers. Furthermore, they were able to establish a new teaching methodology, extending their teaching repertoire by reinventing and reinterpreting new ideas learnt from the course according to the level, age, and needs of learners. Data findings showed that this seemed to contrast with the literature (e.g. Lamb, 1995; Tomlinson, 1988) which is rather negative regarding the impact of formal INSET/CPD events.

Nevertheless, problems and constraints in implementing new knowledge clearly did emerge in this study. The next chapter explores these issues, drawing extensively on extracts from interviews with three teachers, thereby answering the second sub-research question.
CHAPTER 7
FINDING 2: LIMITING FACTORS IN PUTTING NEW IDEAS INTO PRACTICE

This chapter attempts to explore teachers’ perspectives about the perceived difficulties that impinged on the transfer process from the INSET into their own classrooms. The previous chapter explored in detail the experiences of Tracy and Vicky. Originally I had three focal teachers but as mentioned in chapter 4 (see section 4.4.2), Grace withdrew from the observations and so only two cases were explored in the previous chapter. However, in this chapter, the views of Grace are included, along with those of Vicky and Tracy. In seeking to lay out the range of different perspectives of all three teachers, this chapter develops the analysis by integrating data from all three teachers, rather than teacher by teacher as in the classroom impact chapter; for this reason no individual vignettes are presented.

The teachers’ views about the constraints that had hampered the successful transfer of the INSET course after returning to their institutions were explicitly elicited. The constraints emerged as being of two types: external and internal factors. Constraining factors here refer to the obstacles to teachers’ attempts at innovation in their own teaching context.

7.1. Views about constraining factors

There is a growing sense that language teacher education programmes fail to prepare teachers for the realities of the classroom (Crandall, 2000:35). Guskey (2000) also contends that educators themselves frequently regard professional development as having little impact on their day-to-day responsibilities. As shown above, many INSET
courses are not good at the cutting edge of attempting to implement innovations in practice and only a few of the ideas presented on the course were taken up in teachers’ real classrooms.

Some Korean teachers may participate in professional development primarily because they are obliged to. However, the three teachers I interviewed and observed (Vicky, Tracy, and Grace) had obvious goals in participating in the INSET course: improving their linguistic and methodological competence and gaining confidence (see section 6.1)

The three teachers were generally positive about the INSET course and overall thought it met their needs in various ways (see section 6.1): (i) enhancing their linguistic ability, in particular listening and confidence; (ii) providing refreshment through a break from routine; (iii) exchanging useful teaching ideas by meeting new colleagues; and (iv) being stimulated by their colleagues and tutors. For example, Grace said:

*I think I got motivation from here. When I see the other teachers such as Tracy or Tom, they are really enthusiastic and studying English hard. They stimulated and really challenged me.* (G/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.1)

The interview quotations above are probably linked with up, to a certain extent, with what Widdowson calls the “social and professional intensity of the event” (Widdowson, 1987:27, cited in Lamb, 1995) in that the INSET course they took provided refreshment through time out from the classroom, resources and ideas, and helpful networking with like-minded people. This also corresponds with Wenger’s (1999) ‘communities of practice’ (see Chapter 3), which claims that learning occurs in the interaction between
people who share a concern or a passion for something they do. This was in contrast to the school context where teachers have difficulty in getting stimulating new ideas and critical friends who will give objective and informative feedback.

Despite the experience of feeling refreshed during the course, teachers in general did not perceive many outcomes in their classrooms because there seemed to be some constraining factors, and thus I would now like to explore what kinds of extrinsic and intrinsic (or internal) factors there are and how these factors militate against the implementation of certain practical ideas promoted on the course.

7.1.1. Extrinsic constraining factors
Extrinsic factors refer to the multiplicity of external elements and diverse perspectives influencing feasibility. In relation to these external factors, four constraints were identified: (i) the different context between the INSET and real practice in the light of contextual factors such as large and mixed-ability classes; (ii) the content of the INSET including unsuitable activities as a result of adopting Western-based resources, and lack of a reflective and experiential approach; (iii) lack of school support including practical constraints such as heavy administrative workloads, parental intervention, and poor resources. Although the sub-categorisations are used to give a clearer, more detailed account, it is recognised that in some cases the factors interact or overlap. For example, there is likely to be an overlap between lack of congruence between the INSET and school settings and lack of follow-up in the sense that there needs to be a bridge to fill the gap. Moreover, the constraints of large class sizes and mixed ability groups, which are so strongly bound together, possibly present as one linking issue since most Korean public (or state) primary schools have had these two problems
simultaneously over time, and it still remains an issue to be resolved.

7.1.1.1. Lack of congruence between INSET and real practice

According to Doyle and Ponder (1977), there should be congruence between a) the procedures contained in the change proposal and the way the teacher normally conducts classroom activities, b) the setting in which the innovation was developed and that in which it is to be implemented. Also, with respect to congruence, White, Martin, Stimson and Hodge (1991) point out that to be practical, an innovation needs to be able to fit into the existing school systems (cited in Carless, 2001:34).

There is generally, however, a tension which exists between the culture of the training centre and the culture of the workplace in reality. The difference between the two cultures of teachers’ learning and practice plays a key role as a hindering factor in implementing new knowledge. This is because teachers’ previously developed routines and existing school culture may appear to be resistant to the application of what they have learnt from the INSET, no matter how successfully an INSET course demonstrates new methods to teachers. This notion can be also described as “that sounds good but it wouldn’t work in my class” (Nolasco and Arthur, 1986 cited in Bax, 1995:350). Thus, some researchers (Bailey and Nunan 1996; Doyle 1986; Johnson 1996b, cited in Crandall, 2002) claim that decontextualised theory fails to consider the multi-dimensionality and unpredictability of the classroom environment.

As stated above, perceived difficulties emerged from the data; a sizeable gap, (incongruence) in terms of class size, types of learners, and materials, between the INSET and current practices were identified. According to Waters and Vilches (2000),
teachers who had acclimatised to the atmosphere of the INSET course found it difficult to successfully apply the ideas they learnt in their schools within the different cultural norms (my emphasis) of the school environment. Likewise, the three trainee teachers in my study experienced the same feeling of difficulty after returning to their own institutions.

At this point, then, we need to recall Miles’s (1964:454, cited in Waters and Vilches, 2000:127) metaphoric ‘cultural island’ (mentioned in section 3.6.1) in order to further explore the gaps that have existed between ‘seminar island’ (INSET) and ‘school land’ (real classrooms); Miles (ibid) likens the short INSET course to a ‘cultural island’. Waters and Vilches (ibid) go on to say that seminar Island tends to have something of a ‘holiday resort’ atmosphere, even though the teachers are working hard under the palm trees. However, the atmosphere of school land is totally different, as represented in the diagram below by the cloudy, rainy, and windy weather conditions. Thus, the aim of this diagram is to illustrate the different cultural norms existing between the two. This notion is applied to this study in order to explain the incongruence between INSET and real classrooms, one of the limiting factors that emerged. This will be dealt with more specifically later on when explaining lack of follow-up courses (see section 8.2.1).
7.1.1.2. Lack of congruence: contextual difference

Drawing on the data, I would now like to describe in more detail the kinds of incongruent factors that existed between the INSET and the teachers’ classrooms and how these factors hampered the implementation of the teachers’ new skills. Two constraints were identified in relation to contextual factors: (i) differences in class size; and (ii) differences in levels among pupils. Firstly, the conflict between new methods and conventional practice stemmed from the difference of class size between the INSET and real classrooms of the three teachers. This difference clearly restricted the use of activities when the teachers implemented them in their classrooms.

Tracy revealed the difficulties that arose from the large class:

Well...it is a small class (twelve people) in TTI so that naturally most of learners can participate in activities. However, there are over 30-35 pupils in the real class.

16 This figure has been adopted from Water and Vilches (2000:127)
In this situation, the teaching method or activities that I learnt cannot be applied.

(TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.4)

For example, collaborative learning such as solving tasks in groups or pairs during the INSET was encouraged to motivate trainee teachers to learn and to share their knowledge, and also in the hope that teachers would create this kind of collaborative learning environment when teaching in their classrooms.

However, in the first observation of Tracy, the explicit characteristic of Tracy’s practice was pupils’ reproduction of the information contained in the handout. In this lesson, Tracy used a ‘gap-fill’ activity where learners were required to fill in words in the blanks after listening to a conversation heard on a CD. After that, she presented the answers herself. The following excerpts help the reader to understand the situation in her classroom.

<Extract 11>
1. T: Did you fill in all the blanks?
2. S: No! No! Hanbun Deo Yo! (one more time listening please)!
3. T: No! I said to you this is the final time! Let’s check the answers together.
(Tracey started to write the answers on the board)

[...]
4. T: Ok! Repeat after me!
5. T: Mummy! Hurry up!
6. Ss: Mummy! Hurry up! [...] (TR/OB1/23SEP08/00:18:10)

After checking the answers, she first asked the pupils to repeat her and read the dialogue that the pupils had filled out with her; for example, the teacher read line A and the pupils read line B. She asked pupils to make four groups to expand this method
further through group work; group A read line A and group B read line B. Group C and D had to wait for the other groups to finish. Some pupils, however, were copying some of the vocabulary or the answers on the board and others were busy copying the answers from their friends while other groups read their lines. Accordingly, the noise level was high. This scenario can clearly be linked to the comment made by one South Korean teacher with large classes in D.F. Li (1998:691): “it is very difficult for classroom management if we use the communicative method; for example, when everyone starts to talk the class can be very noisy”. Similarly, in Tracy’s case, the issue of large classes illustrated the difference in context between the INSET and the real classroom which hindered her ability to implement the group work activity properly.

Tracy, at least, attempted to implement group work and the pupils looked as though they were completing their given tasks. However, although the class was physically organised into groups, it did not serve to promote the deeper meaning of group work to maximise a learner-centred environment where learners’ ideas could be elicited and knowledge shared.

The issue of large and mixed-ability classes was commonly cited by all interviewees as a main constraint in applying the knowledge gained from the INSET into their teaching practice. This will be dealt with in more detail in this section. Accordingly, large class sizes can play a crucial role in determining the practices of the classroom regardless of teachers’ attitudes or the content of INSET. Consequently, as Tomlinson (1988:18) argues, “teachers would have suffered in trying to apply all that they had learnt within the existing parameters of syllabus, examinations, materials, official expectations, and class size” (my emphasis).
The second facet that emerged from the data as a contextual factor was the issue of mixed-ability classes. Teachers were concerned about differences in levels among pupils even before returning to their school and attempting to use what they learnt. When asked the question in their post-observation interview (after completion of the INSET, but prior to going back to school), ‘What obstacles do you think you might face when implementing what you have learnt from INSET into real practice?’, Vicky and Tracy responded as below:

Different levels among pupils will be a problem. It will cause a problem since there is such a serious gap between strong and weak pupils. (V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.4)

Yes! As mentioned earlier, too many level gaps between pupils [...] will be major obstacles. (TR/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.5)

These differences found between the INSET and real classrooms are not restricted to the experiences of the three teachers in my study. Many teachers in general who attend INSET in Korea have encountered such differences in their own teaching practice after experiencing the refreshed, upgraded, and motivated feeling during INSET (e.g. Kim, 2002 and 2004; Lee, 2004).

Although many useful activities to minimise the problems of dealing with mixed-ability and large classes were introduced during the INSET course, related issues in the physical settings, such as desk arrangements and insufficient space in the classroom, exacerbated proper transfer of new knowledge:

It’s sometimes impossible to achieve an originally intended aim through group work because of an over-sized class and mixed-ability class [...]. Even the
arrangement of desks is different. At TTI, it was a U-shaped class, in which you can carry out group work or a learner-centred class better. In contrast, a teacher has to stand at the stage and all the pupils stare at me. Naturally, doing group work is not easily accessible unless I rearrange the desks.

(TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.4)

Given this feature, Tracy was clear that her teaching context was not conducive to the new ideas introduced on the course and felt the INSET tutors did not appear to truly recognise teachers’ practical constraints. As a result of the perceived discrepancy between the INSET context and teaching context, Grace chose to use school textbooks rather than attempting to do activities introduced during the INSET course.

I still think [...] some of the activities learnt at TTI were for advanced adults or a small group class. So, I just follow the textbook. That is much safer!!!

(G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.15)

One further possible reason for the lack of contextualisation by course tutors was highlighted by Vicky:

Most of the trainers don’t have any teaching experience in a real classroom. Then how will they be able to know the reality? How do they design an INSET course to cope with reality? Even though they have a web page and are able to receive feedback from the teachers who took the course. But I guess there are still some limitations in knowing what’s going on in English classes of primary schools.

(V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.11)

The statement below by the trainer Deborah supports Vicky’s view.
Teachers who have 10 to 20 years experience so that teaching is a part of their life know at once exactly how new knowledge and ideas will be applied in reality [...]. They are better able to imagine how this will apply in reality more than me. I can only guess what’s going on in real classrooms. I really don’t know how my teaching is being used in the classroom. (D/TTI.INT/08AUG08/PP.2-3)

As Hayes (1996) states, teacher training courses appeared to do little to help teachers deal with the issues raised by teaching and learning in large classes. The issues relating to large and mixed-ability classes were rarely dealt with at TTI during the study although trainers suggested some possible activities as solutions (e.g. mixed grouping with strong and weak pupils and grading tasks etc.). These activities appeared to be possible options in order to minimise the problems that arose from the large and mixed-ability classes, but they were not easy for teachers to use in the classroom, and realistic or basic alternatives were not given. This might be due to the fact that trainers who were responsible for the beginner class I observed had not been involved in any primary school teaching so they did not have a contemporary knowledge of practices in primary English classrooms.

This suggests that the INSET course trainers or designers may not have contextualised the INSET course in relation to the participants’ real practice and therefore may, in effect, have been delivering ready-made methods which were not embedded in the participants’ professional practice. A detailed account of these activities will be mentioned in the ‘unfeasible activities’ section later on. To counter this, trainers may feel that teachers still retain their old routines and do not try to change their attitudes, beliefs, or teaching methodology after returning to their schools. However, it is obvious
that all INSET courses should be directly centred on the everyday school situation, so that teachers are able to see immediately the relevance of the discussion to their own classrooms (Hayes, 1997a:107). The three teachers in my study attributed their difficulty in implementing new skills to the fact that the INSET course provided insufficient recognition of the teaching context and unrealistic preparation for the everyday teaching repertoire as Tracy claims:

Apart from those basic problems [the issue of large and mixed-ability classes], the programme of teacher training courses itself should recognise this reality. That’s not a problem that only teachers should take over or solve.

(TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.6)

7.1.1.3. The content of INSET

There has been an increased focus on participants at the level of in-service teacher training activities using an ‘experiential model’ rather than a ‘transmission approach’ and researchers have suggested that teacher learning experiences should be interactive (Waters, 2006; Roberts, 1998) and task-based (Hayes, 1995). However, content is still largely determined by trainers in the area of teacher development activities, although the form and structure tend to allow more trainee participation than before (Bax, 1995:347) and this is so in in-service training in Korea. These ‘ready-made’ (term borrowed from Bax, 1995:348) activities sometimes lose their relevance to the trainees’ particular teaching situations since INSET courses have usually been designed by trainers without negotiation with participants. This ties in with Lamb’s (1995) suggestion to carefully consider the context in which change has to occur, as already mentioned in section 3.8.1.
This section thus looks at the content of the INSET from the perspectives of trainees; particularly the perceived difficulties that have arisen from a lack of sensitivity to their classroom context, after they returned to their home institutions (see section 3.5). These difficulties took three forms and they may militate against the transfer of new ideas: (i) unsuitable activities as a result of adopting Western-based resources without negotiation with teachers who are experts in the real teaching context; (ii) lack of an experiential and reflective approach in the content of INSET; and (iii) lack of an interactive approach based on peer coaching or learning.

The content of INSET: unsuitable activities as a result of adopting Western-based resources

We have already seen that INSET needs to be relevant and practice based (see section 3.5. for fuller explanation). Equally it must be sympathetic in both principle and practice to the context in which it occurs. The recent mushrooming of literature on teacher development and training is essentially based on a Western paradigm of programmes approach and content (Carrier, 2003; Bax, 1995).

As mentioned in Chapter 5, the course content and resources used at TTI were also influenced by the Western paradigm of training programmes. This was one of the difficulties that emerged from the teachers’ data; the following comment made by Grace in her interview after returning to school reflects this:

I think the textbook or other materials used in TTI didn’t reflect our teachers’ everyday life conversation. [...]. If the textbook had dealt with current matters teachers may face in real classrooms, I could use it directly in real practice.

(G/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.12)
Grace’s comment is crucial since the Korean primary school English textbook now contains Korean cultural information such as famous events or historical figures; for example, the textbook used for fifth grade pupils during the observation of Tracy now includes English songs related to the day’s topic in each unit, and the words to songs are mostly related to Korean tradition, famous Korean architecture, Korean food etc. (textbook p. 43, 83 see Appendix, 6).

In further support of this argument, Bax (1995:348) claims the importance of ‘content-negotiable’ activities instead of ‘ready-made’ ones since the new skills and ideas teachers obtained might lose their relevance to the trainees’ particular teaching situations due to the lack of attention to the specific social and educational contexts in which an individual trainee works. To counter the effects of this, as a group task the trainee teachers could be encouraged to create a website for readers’ theatre or the storylines for storytelling activities that were appropriate for their own context, rather than being introduced to lists of information during the INSET. This is linked to Tomlinson’s idea that “the course provides lots of recipes for the participants to follow but does not help them to develop ideas and materials of their own” (see section 3.6.1). The trainee teachers could then have a chance during the group or pair work to discuss the real problems they will face in their real classrooms, such as the issue of large and mixed-ability classes, uncooperative pupils, and pupils’ noise levels. This kind of approach may help teachers enhance their own professional development through peer talk on practice (Crandall, 2000:40). Moreover, this kind of approach may provide a reflective, experiential, and interactive model of INSET course; this will be explained in more detail later on. It does not mean that being introduced to useful information or knowledge is futile, but deriving content from teachers’ own contexts through
experiential and interactive activities or peer talk might be more motivating and might therefore lead teachers to be more engaged with the implementation of change in their classrooms.

Although the teachers reported such constraints to me when faced with the reality of their classrooms, this contrasted with their observed behaviours during the INSET course itself. For example, the teachers looked delighted to engage in the above activity for ice-breaking during the INSET and to complete other tasks given to them such as individual and group presentations. This may be because they felt that new ideas obtained from the in-service course that had provided peer interaction and a wide range of problem-solving activities were the means of promoting their professional development. However, after encountering the reality of their classrooms, the teachers experienced the feeling of inadequacy in terms of their ability to implement changes in practice:

*In the case of activities used for ice-breaking at TTI, standing up and going to five people to look for things in common with me is very unrealistic because of time limitations and loss of control. (G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.15)*

The content of INSET: lack of an experiential and reflective approach

A substantial amount of literature exists on the subject of the importance of reflection (Day, 1999; Schön, 1991; Wallace, 1991) and some (Bartlett 1990, Freeman, and Richards 1993; Wallace 1991) have stressed the role of the teacher in generating knowledge through teaching reflection. A variety of reflective approaches have also been recommended. For example, Crandall (2000) emphasises that reflective activities such as observation of teachers or peers and self-observation through video recording,
journal writing, and feedback or discussion sessions are especially important for continuing teacher development. In addition, if the INSET course provided more opportunities for trainee teachers to exercise and develop new knowledge or skills during the course (although time was given to them to practice the song ‘sun sun Mr. Golden sun’ and readers’ theatre, see section 5.4), the teachers could have a chance to integrate new and existing knowledge before applying it to their teaching practice. To extend this experiential approach, in the in-service teacher training provided by the Project for the Improvement of Secondary English Teaching (PISET) in Hayes’s study in 1997, all training was conducted by trainee teachers who run English Resource and Instruction Centres in provincial schools (Hayes, 1997a:108). Using practising trainee teachers as trainers enables trainee teachers in this example to be aware of and familiar with the knowledge and skills on which they can draw during the lesson and enables teachers to share their experiences and expertise. With regard to this experiential approach, the importance of teachers acting as agents for change for each other is often underrated.

Despite the benefits of a reflective and experiential approach, such an approach (incorporating self-observation, videotaping, peer observation, or micro teaching) was unfortunately not evident at TTI. The respondents also clearly expressed the view that opportunities for reflection were lacking during the course. Vicky said:

As for the INSET course, it should provide teachers (trainees) with time to practice and reflect what they learnt, not only aiming at giving or introducing teachers a list of newer activities. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.10)

This comment also accords with a statement given by Hayes in terms of reinforcing
teachers’ assurance and confidence through a reflective approach: “teachers themselves valued the opportunity to practise techniques on the course, gaining confidence before using them with their own classes” (Hayes, 1997:82). Accordingly, it corresponds with Schön’s concept of reflection-on-action that has been seen as a way of becoming more expert in a professional field (Schön, 1991:278). Day (1999:205) also argues that learning is influenced by opportunities for reflection. Here, Tracy’s view links precisely with Crandall’s focus on reflective activities as above:

> Many people have suggested monitoring video clips after videotaping our teaching performance [...]. Then we can share it with participants and trainers and give each other feedback. It’s a necessary process in order to make the things we learnt during the training course truly become ours (my emphasis) [...]. Thus peer collaboration and sharing our teaching would be able to make us learn more things that the training course doesn’t cover. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.15)

The phrase “truly become ours” mentioned by Tracy shows clearly that she valued the experiential approach by reflecting on her own practice or peer role-reversal as opposed to the transmission approach in order to be fully aware of and familiar with new knowledge and skills.

Indeed, for the purpose of self monitoring, Vicky and Tracy asked for the videotaped clips I had made when observing their English classes after they returned to their home institutions. Although the participants at TTI had not experienced the reflective approach illustrated above (e.g. micro-teaching and getting feedback from peers), this is clear evidence to suggest that the teachers themselves were keen on monitoring themselves during their teaching.
The following quotation illustrates how self-reflection helped Vicky and would be a crucial tool in equipping her for a career in EFL.

*When you [the researcher] sent me the video clip [of her teaching performance], I watched my performance and noticed that there were a lot of problems with my pronunciation, use of activities, and time management. What I am trying to say is that this kind of reflecting on my own teaching shows me the good and weak points of my teaching.* (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.9)

Vicky could raise her awareness of her practice through the video clip and it was her reflections which seem to have contributed to her ability to identify the weaknesses in her teaching. In addition to watching her teaching performance during the course, Vicky also wanted to watch other previous trainee teachers’ real classroom performance to observe how obtained knowledge would be implemented in the classroom. This is a very important point in that participants are provided with opportunities to receive support and to learn from other teachers who have previously taken the INSET course by watching their performance in their classrooms. Moreover, this may promote teachers’ confidence and assurance in using the new knowledge:

*I would like to see how other teachers who previously attended the course handle the mixed-ability and large class problem with activities obtained from here in real classrooms so that I am able to get an idea of ‘this activity is used in this and that way’ in the real classes.* (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.10)

When asked the reason why reflection, on the one hand, did not take place during the course, trainer Linda gave the first reason as lack of time, saying that “Yes! It should be in the course. However, as you know, this course is very short, only a 3-week course.”
She, however, agreed that “there should have been micro teaching about how to teach speaking or listening in a language skills course even though this course was focused more on language skills than methodology” (L/TTI.INT/17OCT08/PP.3). Linda’s response is understandable when considering the length of the course, but even with one-off events the content could be made more experiential in many ways, through, for example, peer group teaching or writing materials that will actually be used etc.

Regarding interactive learning based on peer coaching and learning, Vicky even credited the group work with her peers during the INSET learning as being a good facilitating factor of the course in terms of learning through peers and sharing original ideas (V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.5). It is probably true learning in the company of a range of people from a variety of contexts and diverse teaching backgrounds encouraged a very fertile learning environment for the teachers attending the INSET. As Crandall (2000) notes as cited earlier, exchanging feedback and comments, with like-minded people promotes co-learners to scaffold each other’s learning.

The value of peer group learning and support within the context of TTI has been discussed in this section, and in the next section, the lack of such support will be considered as a factor that limits longer-term impact more specifically. I would like to end this section by quoting Edwards’ statement, on the work of Lamie (1996:100 cited in Lamie, 2002:150) that “effective teacher training courses include teaching practice activities to provide trainees with the opportunity to learn through teaching”. As stated, participants would be able to realise their limitations through reflective teaching and decrease their implementation difficulties; for example, what they need to improve further and how to apply new skills to fit into their own contexts.
7.1.1.4. Lack of school support

Although Hayes (1997:83) argues that a supportive school environment may not guarantee the implementation that the INSET providers desire, Veenman et al (1994:314) claim that a supportive and well organised school is one of the conditions (out of seven) that are significantly related to the impact of INSET.

Korean English teachers have been given insufficient opportunities for teacher training programmes in the past (Li, 2002) and in addition are reluctant to come on a fee-paying course due to their concern about the costs. The burdens of lack of training concern about the costs and they have been provided insufficient opportunities for teacher training programmes in the past (Li, 2002). The burdens of cost and lack of training have long been regarded as one of the difficulties teachers perceive in attempting to develop knowledge or an innovative curriculum. Fortunately, however, the three participants under focus here had opportunities for funded training from the government and had not had to pay the fees for this particular INSET course. However, the three teachers raised some of the difficulties they experienced in connecting new skills to their own classroom practice: lack of a supportive school environment in terms of a heavy workload, lack of resources, the absence of a follow-up and mentoring system, and lack of peer group support. In addition, the issue of the school textbook and parental intervention were also perceived by the three teachers to be further constraints.

Sato (1998) and Shimahara (1998, cited in Lamie, 2002) mention that the school culture exerts a powerful influence on personal change. In other words, in any change process the degree of institutional cooperation and support is important since teachers
by themselves are not in a position to accelerate their improvement within school limitations. Lamie (2004:130) confirms this point, saying that “individual teachers are not the only professionals held accountable in schools, or to have an impact on events”. Echoing the constraints perceived by the teachers, this section thus explores in more detail how a less supportive school environment (lack of school support) influences teachers’ innovative attempts in their own teaching context.

**Lack of school support: structural constraints**

The trainees referred to some structural barriers in their attempts to transfer knowledge into their own teaching contexts. Such structural hindering factors as insufficient resources, a top-down approach to decision making, a heavy workload, too many administrative duties, and parental intervention were mentioned. These factors discourage teachers’ confidence in their ability to improve and minimises possibilities of learning.

First of all, regarding the insufficient resources, Tracy revealed her perceived difficulties:

> What I strongly feel is that there are not many resource books or activity books at school. The training course just gave us general teaching ideas, and showed overall direction towards activities, not hands-on materials for each activity we can use directly in the classroom [...]. Preparing materials is very time consuming.  

*(TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP. 1-2)*

This view was echoed again by Tracy four months later in her longer-term sustainability interview. Budget constraints to buy the materials she wanted and a complicated
process to reimburse the money she had spent buying resources were very time and energy consuming.

The process of getting reimbursed later from school is very complicated, so I just bought it with my own money. I need to submit many forms and procedures are very long and complicated. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.6)

7.1.1.5. Parental intervention

Tracy thinks that the authority of management in decision making regarding their teaching subjects should be given to teachers. However, parental intervention in how subjects are taught was one of her perceived difficulties. She said:

If I teach differently from the textbook, pupils and parents think I haven’t taught anything and consider me lazy. To do some activities introduced from TTI such as ‘readers’ theatre’ in English class, I have to finish today’s lesson in the textbook first and then I am able to try it. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.11)

She knew that she had to complete the textbook, nobody told her how and why, but she felt the implicit pressure. It could be said here that according to Shim and Baik (2004:246), teachers in South Korea are “caught between government recommendations on the one hand and the demands of pupils and parents for a more examination-oriented (textbook-oriented) classroom instruction on the other”. This external factor did not allow her to rationalise theory into practice.

Tracy hoped to have authority in managing and decision making in her class. She said:

It would be great to give the teachers the authority to teach freely within the classroom [...] I hope to use materials freely, which means that Korean mothers
think that if there is a space in the textbook they think that teachers didn’t teach anything. Thus, following textbooks is a kind of a burden for me. I want to try various materials and activities if my pupils like them. It is, however, really difficult to try something else apart from the textbook. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.16)

As far back as 1993, Wong (1993: A2:22, cited in Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996:356) reported on this point, through the experiences of Chinese secondary school teachers trying to implement a new curriculum in Hong Kong. One quotation cited is as follows:

Many parents and pupils expect teachers to follow the syllabuses and the textbooks. Although teachers know it is better to teach something at a lower level...to suit the pupils’ standard, parents and pupils may have doubts, and ask: ‘Why didn't this teacher teach the textbook’. Consequently, many teachers, to play safe, just...teach according to the level set in the syllabuses and textbooks but not at the level of the pupils' proficiency.

Both this quotation from Wong’s study and Tracy’s comments above indicate the power that parents and pupils have in a particular educational context, and suggest that such power can override teachers' positive attitudes towards a change and influence the success of implementation of new ideas.

7.1.1.6. Lack of time

When we return to school, we teachers are really busy. Since the policy of education became more demanding, the Education Department requires us to show results. Then it is hard for me to set aside time to do English. When I return
home after work, I have to take care of the house and kids. (G/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.3)

There’s a time limit as well. I mean most teachers are very busy following the school textbook. Consequently, utilising the things I learnt at TTI along with the school textbook is very hard both in terms of time limitation and separated content between TTI and the school textbook. (G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.7)

The teachers’ comments above suggest that carrying out school routines, bearing the workload, and accepting the limitations that Korean primary schools have (e.g. mixed-ability classes) did not allow and encourage them to reflect on the implications of what they had learnt for a long-term effect; rather, this busy routine created a ‘tension between two opposites’ thus extending a gap between the INSET and practice instead of generating improvement.

7.2. Internal constraining factors

The teachers who attended TTI during the study had a positive view of it and saw the intrinsic perspectives of INSET as advantageous to them; for example, providing internal confidence and motivation to attempt new skills in their classes (see section 6.1). In particular, the three teachers (especially in the cases of Vicky and Tracy) appeared to be making a conscious effort to apply ideas and activities from the course. However, the three teachers tended to consider that their teaching of the English language was less reliable than native English teachers (henceforth NET) because of their lack of confidence in their spoken English. This fragile self-image of their status as English teachers exacerbated their difficulties. This section thus explores how the
teachers’ lack of confidence in their linguistic skills hampered their classroom teaching after the INSET and what the consequential side effects were, which in turn affected the teachers’ self-identity as English teachers and their emotional feeling.

Firstly, without doubt, this lack of confidence arose from their limited linguistic proficiency. Vicky said:

*Most Korean English teachers have a lack of accuracy and fluency in English. And this is directly linked with their confidence. So whenever I teach, I always worry about my English; for example, is my grammar and vocabulary appropriate in this context or correct? (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.11)*

This comment is closely linked to Murdoch’s survey of teacher trainees in Sri Lanka (1994:258): “89% of the English teacher trainees agreed that a teacher’s confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of language competence”. Miyazato’s study (2009) also supports the reality of Japanese English teachers’ language deficiency and their corresponding lack of confidence in conducting classes in English, quoting the newspaper report that only 3.9% of JTEs in public junior high schools and 1.1% of JTEs in public senior high schools conducted English classes mostly in English.

The data from five observations of Tracy also shows in more detail how this lack of confidence in her English proficiency impinged on the exclusive use of the target language in the classroom and consequently made her go back to her old routines – lots of pattern drills or repetition of phrases. She continuously used L1 immediately followed by the target language and asked the pupils the meaning of words and then answered in Korean as illustrated in Tracy’s data section during my observations (of her).
<Extract 12>

(Tracy started to explain new words in the textbook and pointed them out word by word on the board where she had already written them) (see the photo in Appendix, 10).

1. T: What does this word mean? (pointing out the word ‘late’)
2. Ss: Nutda (late).
3. T: Nutda! (writing down the meaning in Korean on the board) [...] 
4. T: What does this word mean?
5. Ss: Sigae (n. watch).
6. T: That’s right! It’s sigae. There is another meaning. (For example) Let’s watch a video!
7. Ss: Boda! (v. watch)
8. T: Yes! (TR/OB1/23SEP08/VC1/00:19:15~00:19:51)

In this way, Tracy explained the meaning of 20 new words using Korean. As can be seen above, Tracy’s exclusive use of the TL reduced the pupils’ TL production. Even during group work, the pupils used Korean more frequently than English although they were on-task and sitting in groups. Kang (2008:215) cited a number of authors who claim that sometimes the use of L1 along with the TL can provide (i) a scaffolding for tasks from cognitive perspectives (Anton and Dicamilla, 1998); (ii) improvements in meaning negotiations (Swain and Lapkin, 2000); (iii) facilitation of intake (Van Lier, 1995); and (iv) better L2 comprehension (Turnbull, 2001). However, the fact that Tracy did not exclusively use English in her class did not appear to be an intentional strategy, rather it seemed to arise from her deficient linguistic ability and also may indicate that her lack of confidence in language proficiency acted as an inhibiting factor in conducting her class only in English. In other words, the loss of self-confidence in her English language proficiency made her hesitate to attempt new ideas, teaching English through English, in her classroom. Tracy attributed her inconsistency in the use of the target language to
the pupils’ inability to comprehend English and her own deficiency in spoken English.

She said:

*I think most Korean English teachers are not ready to use only English in class. In
addition, when pupils don’t understand what the teacher said, they are very
confused.* (TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.5)

She explained in the informal chat after the class that

*Using the target language only would result in the pupils’ disinterest since the
pupils’ English ability is not adequate yet to follow an English-speaking only
learning environment.* (TR/INT.CHAT1/23SEP08)

Looking back on her pre-observation interview conducted prior to attending the INSET
course, her use of TL remained mostly unchanged afterwards, as indicated by the
following interview quotation:

*I usually mix English and Korean in class. It was a real burden having to teach the
class all in English.* (TR/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.3)

In the case of Grace, as mentioned in the methodology chapter (See Chapter 4), she
declined to be observed because of her lack of confidence. Although email was not my
main instrument for data collection, the following data, extracted from the email that
Grace sent to me explaining the reason for her declining my observation, underlines
her anxieties her language proficiency.

*If my English was fluent enough and I had confidence in English I would be willing
to open my class to you. However, my class was conducted mostly in Korean and I
didn’t want to show you. Not to show my poor English-conducted class – mostly
Korean-conducted class. I needed to prepare enough but as you know I did not have sufficient energy and time to prepare. Without sufficient preparation for the class, I couldn’t allow you to observe the class because my pride would be hurt.

(from Grace’s email 15/OCT/2008, see Appendix 8)

Therefore, Grace’s lack of confidence affected not only her classroom practice, particularly in terms of conducting her class in English, but also her willingness to open her classroom to the researcher.

Looking back on the interviews of the teachers, they claimed their self confidence had greatly increased because of the INSET programme. Conversely, it is also true that initially the self confidence of the three teachers dropped when they moved from the INSET to their home institutions. The teachers not only lost self-confidence, but also seemed to have anxieties about speaking English in public and even experienced deep frustration with their performance in the classroom. General frustration was common for teachers when they were not able to conduct the class in a way that they had hoped and something did not seem to go right; they could become fearful and sometimes depressed about their performance:

Though we, teachers, teach in English we still hesitate even if this is the right expression or not in English...this kind of hesitation will be sensed by some high level pupils since they are more fluent than me. So they don’t really want to listen to me. In this case, I feel very frustrated with myself, but what should I do? Spoken English cannot be mastered instantly. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.2)

...many of the Korean English teachers don’t use English with full confidence so
there is sometimes a kind of hesitation when I don’t know what to say. I really don’t like this hesitation, which makes me feel ashamed.

(TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.14)

Tracy’s frustration seemed to come from the discrepancy between what she had to do and what she could do since she had learnt of the amendment to the policy for primary English education: English teachers should only speak English in the classroom. Moreover, lack of confidence affected not only the teachers’ classroom performance but also their sense of professional identity:

I have to conduct the class in English and I can feel that I lack fluency. Thus, I can say that my lack of qualification as an English teacher can be one of the factors that limits the effectiveness of implementing for the longer term.

(V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.11)

To tell you the truth, I am a full time English subject teacher. However, since my English is not at the level of a native speaker and I haven’t got experience of living abroad, I sometimes doubt myself, that I am qualified to be an English teacher. (G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.12)

Their lack of confidence or, to take this further, their inferiority complex concerning their linguistic ability\(^\text{17}\) appeared to be a major internal hindering factor that limited the impact of INSET on classroom practice and longer-term outcomes.

\(^\text{17}\) This term has been adapted from the term ‘inferiority complex of linguistic handicap’ in Medgyes (1999:31).
The two teachers’ comments suggest that they see themselves as inferior and that their deficiency in spoken English caused them to feel unqualified as English teachers.

7.3. Summary

This chapter has addressed the limiting factors in putting new ideas into practice and the possible reasons behind teachers’ implementation difficulties. Broadly, two aspects emerged as fundamental: external and internal constraining factors. As for the external constraining factors, three sub-categorisations were identified:

- Different contextual factors between the INSET and real practice such as large and mixed-ability classes;
- The content of the INSET, demonstrating that there may be some links between adopting Western-based resources and unsuitable activities, and a lack of a reflective and experiential approach;
- Lack of school support, suggesting again that practical constraints such as heavy administrative workloads, parental intervention, and poor resources might hinder teachers’ classroom practice.

Chapter 8 focuses on teachers’ perceptions of longer-term outcomes of the INSET through self-report by listening to the teachers’ own accounts of their six-month work, highlighting decisive factors sustaining new knowledge for the longer term.
CHAPTER 8
FINDING 3: TEACHERS’ PERCEPTIONS OF LONGER-TERM OUTCOMES
(self reported lasting changes in thinking, knowledge, or practice)

This chapter explores the teachers’ perceptions of longer-term outcomes that emerged from self-reported lasting changes in their thinking, knowledge, or practice based on interviews undertaken six months after their completion of the INSET course. I hope to describe how the teachers’ teaching practice continued after the completion of the course and explore what the decisive factors sustaining new knowledge for the longer term were by listening to the teachers’ own accounts of their six months’ work. However, it should be acknowledged that, in the absence of further classroom observation data, it is not easy to make clear assertions about longer term outcomes. There arose positive factors and difficulties in sustaining the new ideas and skills in the classroom that teachers had obtained from the INSET course. It was pointed out by the teachers that the longer-term outcomes of the INSET largely related to two factors: inhibiting factors that hindered the teachers’ implementation and contributing factors.

8.1. Positive factors of the INSET for longer-term outcomes

The focus of this section is to gauge the three teachers’ positive perceptions of longer-term outcomes through the analysis of their self-reported data. In particular, this self-reported data pointed to two main longer-term outcomes to sustain new skills and knowledge learnt from the INSET: (i) increased confidence played a key role to reconstruct new activities and put them into practice for the longer term; and (ii) the tutor role-modelling approach also generated a positive synergy effect on teachers’ classroom practice.
8.1.1. The positive role of increased confidence

I have dealt with the course impact outcomes in detail in the analyses of Vicky and Tracy’s data in Chapter 6; the course seemed to have enhanced their motivation and confidence. The teachers said throughout the four stages of interviews that they gained motivation and confidence through the course. Also, this increased confidence played a crucial role in teachers’ ongoing attempts to acquire new skills for the long term and naturally helped teachers to reconstruct and adapt obtained knowledge according to their pupils’ level and class size, even six months after completing the INSET. In addition, this gained confidence stimulated the teachers’ desire to be well-qualified teachers. For example, Vicky commented:

*There is still a lack of confidence in my speaking, but overall I gained the confidence from the course that if I try hard I could be a qualified teacher.*

(V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.8)

The link between confidence and the improvement of teachers’ classroom practice is not straightforward and thus is debated. While some (e.g. Halpin et al, 1990, cited in Cope et al, 1992:306) find that effects on classroom teaching are frequently reported, others (e.g. Cope et al, 1992) find that perceived changes are more related to promoting teacher’s confidence, reflection, and insight rather than to classroom practice. However, the data from the two teachers below illustrates a positive interplay between their acquired confidence and improved classroom practice. For example,

*A modified version of ‘readers’ theatre’ has been used quite successfully since it makes pupils participate in the class and helps improve [pupils’] reading skills. I was not very confident as mentioned before in using new activities but I feel more confident.* (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.6)
I tried it (readers’ theatre) in my class and I was able to get more confidence in using that since pupils looked more confident and attentive than before [...].

(G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.1)

Thus, it is possible to say in these cases that the teachers gained great awareness of their personal confidence during the course, which was used as a catalyst to enhance their classroom repertoire. In particular, the teachers might have been able to gain a better understanding of pupils’ needs and interests, and deepen their understanding of recently acquired knowledge from the INSET. These interview quotations, to a greater extent, are also closely bound to Guskey’s (2002) assertion that the experience of successful implementation brings about changes to teachers’ attitudes and beliefs. It is likely true that the two teachers above felt more confident after finding that their implementation was successful with positive pupil responses to the activity.

8.1.2. Tutor role modelling

All three teachers seemed to really appreciate the valuable and stimulating input that the tutors provided at the INSET course. They said that the tutors played a crucial role in the course experience, probably far more than the tutors themselves realised. Grace said:

After coming back from TTI, my style of teaching listening has changed a bit. [...] During the listening class at TTI, the trainer Deborah showed us the movie ‘family man’ [...]. When I teach listening in my class, I apply it to my class. I let my pupils see the video without any explanation then I make them guess the story. My pupils seem to be more interested and pay more attention to the video.

(G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.5, see fuller description in Appendix 9)
Grace was clearly influenced by the tutor modelling on the course because this teaching method worked as a learning model in the training context, and she thought it would be a very useful learning tool in her classroom as well. This interview quotation shows how this listening class at TTI worked well as a learning tool for her:

She [trainer Deborah] made us think ahead and guess what was going on next.  
[...] so I think my listening ability has improved. And I want to teach listening in this way when I go back to my school. (G/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.1-2)

Here, tutor role modelling can be seen to sustain new activities for the longer term in Grace’s classroom practice and it enabled her to develop her own way of teaching.

Apart from the tutor modelling, especially in terms of teaching style, the tutors’ personal qualities were key in informing Vicky’s management of weaker and shy pupils. She was impressed with the trainers’ professional and personal skills, in particular patience, in dealing with less confident pupils.

I learnt about the teachers’ role. In particular in speaking to the class...usually shy kids are reluctant to speak in front of people; in contrast, some active kids continue to speak. But now I try to give them a fair chance. [...] This is what I learnt at TTI, not from a teaching method but from the professional and personal skills of the trainers (V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.7).

Despite the positive INSET outcomes, teachers’ implementation for the long term was not without its problems, which will be dealt with in the next section in more detail. The teachers had difficulties in sustaining their confidence (particularly in relation to conducting their classes in English) and struggled with a lack of assurance when
implementing the INSET ideas. The following interview confirms the teachers’ difficulties in sustaining newly developed skills over a long period. Vicky said:

*Since I had limited levels of competence in English and my own ability, assurance and confidence in using them were the hardest matter for me.* (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.3)

*I was not sure whether those activities or songs I modified would be appropriate for the very basic level or not.* (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.3)

### 8.2. Perceived difficulties in longer-term outcomes

#### 8.2.1. The absence of a follow-up or mentoring system

As mentioned in a previous section (see section 3.6.1), many researchers have emphasised the significance of follow-up support for teachers beyond the INSET experience itself. However, little research has been done to show the consequences of lack of follow-up courses with a few exceptions (e.g. Lamb, 1995; Tomlinson, 1988). It is, then, worth exploring in the data the difficulties that emerged as a result of a lack (absence) of follow up in implementing new teaching skills into trainees’ classrooms. The difficulties found in the data were of various forms; for example, (i) isolation in ‘school land’ without supplying mentoring and up-to-date information about what they had learnt; (ii) confusion from the lack of assurance on how to fit their new learning into their own sectors; and (iii) assimilation into teachers’ pre-existing classroom routines.

First of all, teachers mentioned in their interviews that much of the information and ideas which they had previously been introduced to by the INSET had been forgotten. My observations of their classes also gave an indication of the actual nature of the
constraining factors that limit a successful transfer. Only some new ideas had been transferred to real practice; for example, readers’ theatre and theme-based teaching from the methodology class (theme-based teaching only in Vicky’s class), teaching listening skills (three stages of listening, see a fuller detailed explanation in section 5.2 and figure 5.2), and classroom language use. Indeed, Grace had forgotten most of the new skills and ideas that she had previously been exposed to after returning to her real classroom. She just mentioned the activity ‘readers’ theatre’ and some of the activities were not mentioned at all including storytelling or theme-based teaching. This is presumably, according to Waters and Vilches (2000), because teachers, to some extent, reverted to their old routines in ‘school land’ since the ‘seminar land’ (INSET) environment was far away, which negated the applicability of its new input in school. Grace thus concluded that continuous follow-up training would help teachers to improve the potential long-term impact of such courses. She said:

...continuous stimulus and challenge for teachers are essential, [...]. Teachers are cut off from the outside world since they have gone back to school even though they received the training. Without continuous follow-up courses, it is impossible for the teachers to try something new, upgraded, and refreshed.

(G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP. 8)

Secondly, the teachers’ lack of assurance when using new skills is an important concern for them. They would like, to some extent, to implement new skills, but they could not conceive of how to put them to good use. Thus, the teachers made a suggestion that there should be a regular mentoring system even after the INSET course. For example, Vicky said:

One of the reasons I want a regular follow up or continuous mentoring is to check
whether the use of activities in my class goes down the right path or not so that the adaptation has been made in real practice. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.9-10)

Grace also mentioned:

I was not able to discern whether those activities can be applied properly or not in my English class. (G/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.1)

Professional trainers can also mentor or check how teachers are implementing the things in real classrooms. Then I think that the methodology we learnt during the summer will not be forgotten and can be used in the classroom. Otherwise, only a couple of things would remain and the rest would be forgotten (G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.9).

On the one hand, there are several ways in which mentoring can be addressed; for example, peer coaching with an experienced teacher and novice teacher can be a particular form of mentoring as Richards and Farrell (2005) mention, or mentors working with a trainee on thinking ahead about how a lesson might be planned, what the learners are like, what kinds of activities and language are appropriate as Kennedy (2002:52) did in her study. Also, the regular observation of peers’ teaching with the provision of constructive feedback as a developmental rather than a judgemental tool is another form of mentoring, which allows teachers to develop and to try out new ideas, techniques, and methodologies in a safe context. However, the teachers might want a mentoring system that supports and helps them with regular checks and feedback as in the case of Kennedy (ibid) above. Grace said:

It would be great if the trainers would come once a month to the school and do mentoring and checking. This is the support I would like to have.
With this kind of support and help, the teachers believe they would be freed from their concerns that their implementation of INSET ideas into their classrooms was inadequate and feel less worried after returning to their home institution. Thus, they would become much more confident and their level of uncertainty about using new skills would be reduced.

8.2.2. Lack of peer group support after the INSET

A teacher support group can be defined as “two or more teachers collaborating to achieve either their individual or shared goals or both, on the assumption that working with a group is usually more effective than working on ones’ own” (Richards and Farrell, 2005:51). Much literature has stressed the importance of collaborating with other teachers in professional development (e.g. Day, 1999; Lieberman and Wood, 2002; Wenger, 1999; Erut, 1994; Lieberman and Grolnick, 1998). This collaborative learning or peer support group can be set up during any kind of INSET courses or after the courses. The three teachers mentioned positive experiences of group learning in the INSET and cited this as being one of the factors which influenced the impact of the course on their subsequent teaching. The teachers remembered discussions both inside and outside class and valued these discussions. The INSET course also emphasised lots of group discussion with co-learners scaffolding each other’s learning. (see section 5.3.)

This section looks particularly at how lack of peer group support after the INSET course affected the teachers’ feeling of difficulty in implementing new skills for longer-term
outcomes. Vicky mentioned the benefit of learning with peers:

*We can learn lots of things from peer teachers such as motivation and stimulation.* (V/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.2)

As mentioned in the previous section (see section 7.1.1.3), she even accredited group work during the course as a good facilitating factor and useful learning tool in that good experiences of fellow participants may enhance the learning considerably.

Tracy revealed positive experiences of peer group learning, in particular getting assurance about her teaching method through informal chatting with her peers during the course:

*I could have a chance to chat with my colleagues after lunch, drinking coffee during the course. I could get assurance about my teaching by sharing teachers’ own teaching methods and experiences. I was not very sure whether I was doing well in my class and if activities I was using were effective for pupils and so on. I could get a chance to share other teachers’ hardships in teaching English, which reassured me that I am not the only teacher who is left behind* (my emphasis). (TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.6)

This comment is supported by Richards and Farrell’s (2005:51) statement: “[in] a support group teachers get to know their colleagues better and begin to function as a community of professionals rather than as individuals working in isolation from each other”. Likewise, we can see clearly from Tracy’s comment that this kind of support by peers gave her a feeling of security, unlike working in isolation. In other words, peer
sharing and peer learning, or to some extent becoming part of a community of practice, was clearly perceived as a source of learning.

Grace also talked about the significance of classroom practice development with co-learners scaffolding each other’s learning:

_ I was not able to discern whether those activities can be applied properly or not in my English class._ (G/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.1)

_ I didn’t have any confidence whether it [the method she used for her pupils’ readers’ theatre activity] would be effective for my pupils or not. But if I was able to [...] know how other teachers have used it [the method learnt at TTI] in real classes, then I think I would have used the activity for a long time with clearer assurance._ (G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.9)

As can be seen, Grace described her uncertainty and lack of assurance about using the activity learnt from the INSET over time. Thus, she wanted to see how the activities and teaching methods obtained from the INSET were used in other teachers’ classrooms. Vicky also expressed her insecurity when adapting new skills in her classroom:

_ I was not sure whether those activities or songs I modified would be appropriate for the very basic level or not._ (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.3)

Indeed, the three teachers had had opportunities to discuss their teaching life, beliefs, and experiences and to introduce new activities to each other during the course through group work or informal chat, but continued contact with each other was not maintained after the INSET. In this situation the teachers felt isolated and lacked certainty about their classroom practice. Day (1999:205) points out that CPD needs
“extended critical engagement with peers and others” (it can be another type of follow-up course in the form of a regular group meeting). If the teachers, such as Grace and Vicky, who participated in the INSET during the study had continued their contact and established a regular group meeting, they could have had an opportunity to share experiences on how to implement new skills and ideas in their classrooms even after the course.

Accordingly, the teachers could have communicated with peers and exchanged new information through the network they made. Furthermore, this network would give teachers the ability to not only exchange ideas and practical knowledge for their own work, but would also help to create communities of professionals in pursuit of constant improvement of their practice, in line with Wenger’s (1999:4) characterisation of “learning as social participation”. Wenger (ibid) also suggests that participation in communities of practitioners shapes not only what we do, but also who we are and how we interpret what we do and that such communities become arenas for professional learning because the people in them imbue activities with shared meanings, develop a sense of belonging, and create common identities.

8.3. Summary

This chapter has explored the positive factors and difficulties in sustaining the new ideas and skills that teachers obtained from the INSET course in their classroom practice six months after the INSET. In terms of positive factors that emerged from the data, the growth in confidence that teachers gained through the INSET and the tutor
role-modelling approach appeared to have had a beneficial effect in sustaining longer-term impact.

The data has also broadly shown two perceived difficulties in longer-term outcomes: the absence of a follow-up or mentoring system and lack of peer group support after the INSET. In particular, the data has highlighted the significance of continuing professional development through mentoring, follow-up courses, sharing learning resources, or providing support. The next chapter draws together practical applications, offering a summary of the impact of the INSET and practical suggestions, based on the data, which have emerged from the study. The following chapter will conclude this study by revisiting my experience and addressing the contributions this study has made to the understanding of the impact of INSET.
CHAPTER 9
PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter I shall come back to the three questions that have informed the study of the teachers: What are the impacts on the teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change towards English teaching? What are the longer-term outcomes as a result of the INSET? What are the facilitating and constraining factors in implementing the new knowledge from the INSET into the teachers’ classrooms?

To respond to these questions, this chapter consists of three parts: (i) a summary of substantive issues that emerged from this study; (ii) practical recommendations for in-service language teacher education; and (iii) an examination of the limitations of the research.

9.1. A summary of the impacts of the INSET that emerged from the study

Although the degree of impact of the INSET varied according to participants’ personalities and the factors underlying them, overall all interviewees felt that they had benefited considerably from the course. The findings in this study need to be considered in view of the following three main areas of impact of the INSET found in the data: (i) practical classroom aspects; (ii) personal and psychological aspects; (iii) developmental learning aspects.

9.1.1. The practical classroom aspects

I have dealt with three aspects of INSET impact on classroom practice in the previous chapter: classroom management; classroom interaction; and classroom language use.
The practical classroom aspects as discussed here took many forms: trainees could apply what they learnt from the INSET to their own classes; they had more time to process and digest new knowledge; and they could experiment with new ideas in a non-assessed environment.

With respect to trying out new ideas in the classroom, the two teachers’ (Vicky and Tracy) cases show that not all of them were able to implement new ideas or knowledge to the same extent. Vicky focussed on achieving the new instructional objective of ‘theme-based’ teaching, or catering for different learners, that she had learnt from the INSET. However, while Vicky was able to implement new teaching methods to maximise learning by trying out various activities (i.e. wearing Han-bok, clay modelling, singing, role-play [readers’ theatre]), Tracy was not quite able to achieve this. Tracy attempted to apply what she learnt into her class; for example, she tried group-work activities or readers’ theatre but could not maximise the benefit; in other words, pupils did not work collaboratively, engage in the negotiation of meaning, or produce output that would be shared with other groups. She seemed to have difficulty integrating collaborative learning with the achievement of instructional objectives. This may have been due to Tracy’s understanding of the purpose of group work: to make pupils feel a sense of belonging and to get them to participate through group competition.

The second issue relates to TL production. The new policy of the government and INSET encourages teachers to teach English through English. However, there were qualitative differences in the way the two teachers made sense of these practices. While Vicky reinforced pupils’ use of English and Vicky herself persevered in using English, Tracy did not. Consequently, through Vicky’s persistence she created an
English-rich environment where English songs were heard and sung in her school festival (see section 6.2.3.6). However, Tracy did not enforce the new policy of TETE; instead, she allowed pupils to use L1 and used pattern drill skills which contain lots of mechanical repetition rather than providing opportunities for peer learning or sharing. Consequently, her class naturally provided a much less English-rich atmosphere than that of Vicky.

9.1.2. Personal and psychological aspects

The impact of the INSET on the teachers’ confidence and motivation varied. The five main areas of impact on the personal and psychological aspects in the data extended to: (i) better understanding of their class in English; (ii) development of how to adapt new knowledge through reconstructing new skills; (iii) development of linguistic competency; (iv) professional self-identity; and (v) further career development.

The teachers lacked confidence in their English language proficiency before attending the INSET, and this still remained even when they returned to their schools. However, Vicky and Tracy became more confident in their teaching even though the impact of professional confidence was sometimes delayed and came to have a strong professional self-identity. Regarding self-identity, Vicky and Tracy both benefited from reflecting on their own professional identity as English teachers. In other words, they asked themselves ‘Where are they now and where would they ultimately like to be’? (e.g. see section 6.3.3.7. and Tracy’s interview [TR/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.2]).

Perhaps I need to acknowledge, however, that their participation in my study (the interviews and observations) may also have served to accentuate this process of self-
reflection triggered through their INSET experiences. After all, they wanted copies of
my videos of their lessons so that they could reflect further on their teaching. This self-
reflection led them to develop their further career and be aware of their professional
self-identity. In this sense the INSET course appears to function better for those seeking
a stronger sense of professional identity.

9.1.3. Developmental learning aspects
As mentioned in the previous chapter (see section, 6.1.1.2 and 8.1.2.), the INSET
course offered not only practical training and pedagogical learning but also valuable
and stimulating input from the tutors through their personal qualities and as role
models. The tutors were seen as a key learning tool; in particular NNS tutors’ L2 use
and their teaching style were experienced by the teachers as challenges and stimuli.
Moreover, learning from peers was perceived as one of the most effective learning
tools during the INSET. Teachers could share their teaching life, new ideas, and
communicate with their peers during the INSET through group work and during their
break time. This connects with writing by Day (1999) and Wenger (1999) (see section
8.2.2).

9.2. Practical suggestions
The impact of an INSET course on teachers’ classroom practice is not determined solely
by the course itself but by various external and internal factors. The findings in the
previous chapter show some inhibiting or constraining factors in implementing INSET
ideas in real teaching practice. On the basis of the findings of this study I present the
following recommendations to in-service teacher training and to prospective INSET
trainees.
9.2.1. Recommendations for INSET course provision and follow up

9.2.1.1 Follow up, mentoring, and peer group support

In their interviews, the three trainees suggested that follow-up support took various forms (Chapter 7); for example, (i) creating a network of like-minded teachers to regularly share and exchange new ideas; and (ii) providing a mentoring system since teachers did not have enough assurance about how to fit their new knowledge within their own sectors. Considering these, INSET programmes should provide ongoing support to promote developmental continuity as training alone is not enough (Elmore, 2000:47). Follow-up monitoring, mentoring, and peer group support should be provided both during and after the course to ensure that the pedagogical and practical activities learnt from the course are not employed on a ‘one-off’ basis only. In addition, monitoring or follow up is not only a means of providing feedback on progress, but also provides insights into whether or not the programme needs to be adapted in some way or another (Mohammed, 2006:384).

Moreover, the impact is not always immediate and thus continuing post-course support can connect valuable input from an INSET course to real teaching practice as closely as possible. Thus, through continuing support such as mentoring, ‘hands-on’ contact between trainers and teachers, or peer group support, trainee teachers who participated in any INSET course should not be ‘remote from the ongoing development’.

9.2.1.2. Awareness of the teaching contexts of participants

As was discussed in Chapter 7 (section 7.1.1.3), language teacher education programmes need to address teaching contexts sensitively, especially the more problematic situations involving large classes, limited materials and resources, and
unfamiliar educational policies and teaching practices (Braine, 1998, cited in Crandall, 2000:43). Without a realistic and profound recognition of the reality of teaching contexts, all efforts made by trainers through INSET courses would be less effective. Thus, INSET trainers, designers, or directors should be able to help teachers who have to cope with the difficulties they encounter by developing a more realistic programme that fits into the real context. Although a perfect match between INSET and classroom practice is not feasible, further research about the overall needs of participants or further consideration of teachers’ teaching contexts when designing the content of the programme is important in order to ensure INSET can lead to the implementation of change in teachers’ practice.

9.2.1.3. Reflective approach

In the previous chapter, I have already stressed the importance of an experiential and reflective approach during the INSET course. The study has illustrated the value of opportunities for participants to put into practice what they learnt in a non-threatening environment. This can take the form of micro-teaching or peer or self-observation, lesson planning, the making of visual and other aids, and so on (Crandall, 1994). Some six-month intensive teacher training courses in Korea do often provide micro-teaching and peer observation, but if the opportunities were consistently created for teachers to observe their own as well as peers’ teaching with subsequent peer feedback and coaching, it is likely they would benefit, in particular when undertaking their own continuing professional development during and post INSET (Malderez and Bodoczky, 1999).
9.2.2. Recommendations for INSET trainees

9.2.2.1. Teachers’ own continuing professional development

The findings in Chapter 8 suggest that it is helpful if trainee teachers continue their professional development. Many approaches (e.g. follow-up courses, a mentoring system, and regular meeting with peers) have been suggested from the perspective of the institution. However, teachers can plan many aspects of their own professional development and their own continuing education has been recommended (Crandall, 2000). In this vein, teachers’ own continuous and conscious professional development can be carried out under the teacher’s own initiative through, for example, self-observation (self-monitoring), talking to more experienced colleagues, active involvement in teachers’ communities to share the ideas and difficulties they encounter, and peer observation. Although a reflective approach should be carried out throughout an INSET programme (Freeman, 1996; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Kennedy, 1987; Richards and Lockhart, 1994), it is also essential for teachers to practise self reflection in their own teaching practice, bearing in mind that INSET courses can play an important role in facilitating the individual initiatives of its teacher trainees (Richards and Farrell, 2005:15).

9.3. Limitations of the study

There are potential limitations in this study. Firstly, the research methods used in this study have their own limitations which need to be taken into account when considering the reliability of the data. Due to the distance between England and Korea, the last stage (the fourth) of research, which focused on the longer-term outcomes, could only take place in England; therefore, the interviews had to be conducted through Skype. Since the data for the fourth stage of research came from a single source (self-report
interviews) that provided the teachers’ own recollection of past events, the data for this stage was not verified through other methods such as classroom observations or stimulated recall interviews. Achieving data triangulation through the use of different methods such as classroom observation (Merriam, 1984) would have made it possible to yield perspectives that interviews alone would not reveal since they may provide limited insight into the teachers’ classroom practice. However, the interview data in this study was not just from one-off interviews, but multiple interviews through four stages so I believe the reliability of the data was assured.

Secondly, the nature of the research design also led to unobserved gaps between the period before the start of the INSET course when teachers were neither interviewed nor observed and after the INSET course. This may have caused a problem in summarising what was happening in teachers’ classroom practice and their perceptions about English teaching before attending the INSET. On the other hand, the main aim of this study was to explore the impact of the INSET on teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change, rather than comparing their classroom performance before and after INSET.

Thirdly, I conducted several interviews through the research stages and was able to carry out informal interviews or chats with interviewees. Naturally, as mentioned in section 4.3.1.1, familiarity and rapport were built up between the interviewer and interviewees and this contributed in creating an interviewee-friendly and comfortable atmosphere that may have enabled me to collect richer and more in-depth information. Conversely, multiple interviews could also limit this study in that there were natural distractions arising from the relaxed relationship (e.g. talk unrelated to the topic).
tried to maintain a balance between formality and informality.

Lastly, the researcher’s status and the process of working alongside the participants (particularly Vicky and Tracy) during the research may have influenced the outcomes of the study. I briefly mentioned the advantages of their participation in my study in terms of it serving to develop the process of their self-reflection (see section, 9.1.2). Furthermore, although it was beyond the scope of this study, Vicky and Tracy were encouraged by the researcher to participate in a further intensive INSET programme. Eventually they participated in a six-month INSET course (five months in Korea and one month in the U.K). This is likely to be viewed as a positive influence of the research and researcher. However, participants (particularly Vicky and Tracy) may have felt the need, consciously or unconsciously, to impress on me the knowledge they had learnt from the INSET course, and to show how they had implemented new ideas obtained from the course into their classrooms since they were already aware of my research aims from the process of completing the consent form. Although I took steps to enhance the reflexivity and objectivity of the outcomes of the study, the process of working together with the researcher also raised the possibility that the outcomes of the study would be influenced, drawing conclusions which matched my previous expectations.

**9.4. Revisiting the study**

**9.4.1. Contributions of the study to understanding of the key issues.**

To conclude this study, I now summarise the main contributions it has made to the understanding of teacher education, teacher learning, the nature of short INSET courses, and teachers’ real teaching context. In further detail, this study contributes to a more sophisticated understanding of the impact of INSET courses on teachers’
classroom practice and their perception change through empirical research. The empirical research conducted for this study made it possible to obtain rich data from real classrooms and to develop a more complete picture of INSET and participant teachers’ ability to apply new knowledge obtained through INSET into their classroom practice. This study also reveals that there are difficulties and constraints teachers experienced when they implement new ideas into their classrooms. It shows that the impact of INSET is not always reflected in teachers’ real practice, but provides insight into the complexity of the limiting factors.

The fundamental picture of the impact of teacher development courses I have painted in this study will produce fruitful ground for further study aimed at maximising the impact of INSET courses so that language teachers should have continuous opportunities to develop their professional and practice innovations.

9.4.2. Personal gains and insights through the study

This study has also contributed to my personal understanding of the nature of the research process. Undertaking this research study has given me an invaluable learning experience. I have learnt, for example, the sophisticated nature of the research process. In the early stages of the research, as an inexperienced researcher, I was very frustrated after the first interview with the participant teachers at my lack of confidence, despite the fact that the pilot study had helped me in many ways (see section 4.4.1). However, the research was greatly rewarding and sometimes challenging; as time passed by this study has provided deeper insight into the target phenomena by demonstrating the value of exploring the impact of the INSET through teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change. Moreover, using different
instruments such as interviews, observations, informal chat, and stimulated recall interviews to draw out teachers’ perspectives about the impact of the INSET was a very valuable experience. This may help me explore further the impact of other INSET courses with which I may be involved in my future profession.

In Chapter 1 I mentioned why I was interested in the impact of INSET courses. One of the reasons was that, as a previous teacher trainer, I have wondered how much Korean English teachers who participate in INSET courses in Korea put the new knowledge obtained from the courses into their practice and what they bring to the classroom after INSET courses. This study also sheds light on the ways in which in-service teacher education facilitates teacher learning and impacts on teachers’ classroom practice and their perception change.

Above all, this study has helped me to review my own professional values of teacher education and also contributed to broadening my understanding of teacher development.
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Appendix 1

Sample of explaining terminology during an interview (extracted from pre-INSET observation interview of Tracy)

Sim: If you have the opportunity to give advice to other teachers regarding teaching English, what kind of advice will you give them?

Tracy: As everyone says, make it fun.

Sim: So you mean increasing motivation?

Tracy: The reason that students learnt English for a long time but didn’t improve much is because they think of it as study.

Sim: Then isn’t it studying?

Tracy: It is studying, but it depends on where you put the focus. In elementary English, the focus is on making the students feel free to speak and listen. It is not about an academic score or memorising vocabulary. If this is the focus of learning English, then it will make students have a prejudice that English is scary and I am not good at English and so on. It will not help them improve their English.

Sim: It means that you focus more on a communicative approach which emphasises fluency rather than accuracy?

Tracy: Communicative approach?

Sim: Sorry to ask, but have you ever heard about communicative language teaching?

Tracy: No!

Sim: Can I explain briefly what a communicative approach is?

Tracy: Yes! Please!
Sim: What communicative language teaching emphasises is to develop learners’ oral skills and communicative competence rather than mastering grammatical rules.

Tracy: Oh, I see. Then, what we are doing [in the classroom] is based on communicative language teaching?

Sim: I think so. Since the Korean government adopted a communicative approach, the government has also tried to change teaching methods and to design the syllabus more effectively to develop learners’ communicative competence.

Tracy: Yes! In that sense, I can say that increasing communicative competence rather than mastering grammar should be stressed at an elementary level.
Appendix 2

Consent form

Title of Project: The impact of in-service teacher training on teachers’ classroom practice and perception change

Researcher: Ju Youn Sim

Institution: Centre for English Language and Teacher Education, University of Warwick. (Now, Centre for Applied Linguistics)

Please Initial Box

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet dated 21/07/2008 for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, without my medical care or legal rights being affected.

3. I understand that this study will store my basic personal information.

4. I understand that my information will be held and processed for the following purposes:
   • To be used anonymously for internal publication for an EdD project and submitted for assessment with a view to being published in academic journals / conferences.
   • I understand that quotations from the web survey may be used in writing up the results of the research and that these will always be anonymous and not attributed to me in any way.

5. I understand that the interview can last over 60 minutes, and will be audio-recorded and classroom observation will be video-recorded.

6. I agree to take part in the above study.

Name of Participant ___________________________ Date ___________ Signature ___________________________

Researcher ___________________________ Date ___________ Signature ___________________________
Appendix 3.1. Example of coding (data-driven coding): brief analysis of pre-INSET interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Q.1. For what reasons are you participating in this teacher training session?</th>
<th>Q.2. What are you hoping to gain from this training session?</th>
<th>Key words &amp; Repeated words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Robin</td>
<td>To improve English skills, in particular listening to be an ‘English subject teacher’.</td>
<td>Listening is the biggest problem for me. So I want to improve my listening skills.</td>
<td>• Improve English proficiency (Speaking &amp; Listening)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom</td>
<td>I want to be an ‘English subject teacher’ and join the ‘abroad joint programme’.</td>
<td>To increase overall English proficiency, in particular listening and communicative classroom English.</td>
<td>• Gain confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace</td>
<td>To improve my English ability, in particular speaking and listening skills.</td>
<td>My speaking and listening skills to be improved.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracy</td>
<td>To improve English proficiency</td>
<td>To develop speaking ability so that confidence in teaching English will be better</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vicky</td>
<td>To increase my communication skills, fluency, and confidence.</td>
<td>Hope to gain many new teaching methods that can be used directly in the class</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunny</td>
<td>To improve English fluency; communicate with foreigners. To develop new teaching methods.</td>
<td>Hope to gain confidence about English teaching and to share teaching methods through peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diana</td>
<td>To improve communication skills and to be a qualified teacher.</td>
<td>Confidence in English teaching</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 3.2. Example of coding (data-driven coding): brief analysis of interview after returning to school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Q.1. Have you applied any of the activities that you learnt in INSET in your class? If ‘yes’, what are they? And how often do you use it? If ‘no’, why?</th>
<th>Q.2. Are there any things you tried but then discarded for some reason? What were they?</th>
<th>Key words &amp; Repeated words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vicky</td>
<td>I’ve applied ‘theme-based teaching’ and ‘readers’ theatre’.</td>
<td>In the case of ‘readers’ theatre’, students should be able to read. However, my students are in the 1st grade, so they haven’t learned reading. They just can read alphabet. I tried this activity but I had to stop trying this.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tracy</td>
<td>I’ve been using ‘readers’ theatre’ and activities for ‘mixed-ability’ classes. I am using what I’ve learnt from TTI almost every day.</td>
<td>Activities obtained from TTI have been used very successfully, but some of activities such as those for mixed-ability classes require much time to prepare. Since I have to teach not only English but other subjects, I haven’t got much time to prepare materials for both stronger students and weaker students separately.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grace</td>
<td>I’ve applied most of activities I learned at TTI.</td>
<td>To be honest, most of the activities I’ve applied in my class did not seem valid since the activities introduced by TTI were for participating teachers. Thus, I found that the activities were not very effective in real practice.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix 3.3. Example of coding: table of categorisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From INSET</th>
<th>To real practice</th>
<th>Vicky</th>
<th></th>
<th>Tracy</th>
<th></th>
<th>Grace</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Classroom management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How to deal with mixed-ability classes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- self access learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Grading tasks</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Content-based teaching based on MI (Multi intelligence) theory</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Organisation of learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Group work or pair work</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Individual work</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Whole-class work</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Maximising resources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use of appropriate or relevant material rather than authentic material</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td>*v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use of familiar resources</td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td>*v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Motivating students & establishing rapport
- Rewards
- Familiar activities
- Activities that all students can participate in

### Classroom English
- Using target language in class

### Impact on practice (Implementing new ideas or activities)
- Usability of new teaching skills (ideas)
  - Reader’s theatre
  - Ice-breaking

### Teachers’ perception change
- Gained confidence and motivation through 3-week short course. Consequently, she attended six-month deeper intensive course.
- Also gained confidence and motivation through the INSET course, but she couldn’t overcome her lack of confidence in using English. There was no further development for her.
Appendix 3.4
Example of double checking the original transcript

Vicky: We learned a lot of things and games at TTI during listening, speaking and methodology class. But I wasn’t able to implement those things directly in the classroom due to the level of the students. In addition, I think I’ve forgotten many of them.

Sim: Well...you don’t remember the games and activities you did during the listening, speaking, and methodology class?

Vicky: Mmm...I can’t remember most of the things. Of course some have been used in my class, but I don’t remember what I learnt.

Sim: Okay, well...There were presentations, group activities, and watching movies.

Vicky: Ah yes, yes. I remember. It’s true that we played games, role plays such as finding directions, and had presentations about our ‘most valuable memory’ and group discussion to practise, develop, and improve our speaking and listening skills. However, actually I tried only some of the activities that seemed to fit to the primary school English class, which were, as mentioned earlier, story telling or songs. In reality, I wasn’t able to utilise the things I learnt such as the ‘radio drama’ or ‘puppet show’.

Sim: Why is that?

Vicky: What should I say...it is very hard to lower the level. The activities I learnt were for adults so I have to lower it to fit the primary school English classroom, which means I have to reconstruct them, but it isn’t easy for teachers.

Sim: What was the hardest thing to reconstruct or redesign that you learnt from TTI for your class?

Vicky: That [redesigning] is very important. Students’ grades, age, interests, demands, needs, and the level of the class that I teach are the crucial factors English teachers need to consider when redesigning, rather than just applying teaching methods that I’ve obtained from a training institution.
Appendix 4.1.
Examples of field notes (1)

This was the first of the speaking classes. Sally came to the class and called the trainees’ names to check the attendance. She began her class by introducing her name and background. Then, as an ice-breaking activity, she asked people to introduce themselves and give three things that they like to do. The trainees answered in turn. Sally then asked the participants to stand up and make a circle and she demonstrated how to introduce their names with an appropriate alliterative adjective, along with a gesture; for example, “I am Sally, swimming Sally” with a swimming gesture. Participants soon introduced their names with a gesture as she did. This activity was then repeated with participants using their own and their neighbours’ names. Participants laughed a lot and memorised their peers’ names very naturally. This was a good way to start to build up rapport between the trainer and trainees, and also between the trainees themselves.
Appendix 4.2
Examples of field notes (7)

The class began with a game like Bingo, practising new words related to fruits and vegetables. Today’s topic was “Food around the world”.

Pair-work or group-work activities were mainly used during the class. Each group was busy creating the menu that was assigned to it. The first group’s target was for college students, so the group members made inexpensive cafeteria food. The second group focused on nutrition as they had to cater for older people. The group I belonged to started to clarify the characteristics of teachers and their needs first. Teachers in my group were all agreed that they needed a menu that was good for their voice because they have to use it so much. In the process of deciding the menu, they shared their difficulties in their work and how much their voice got hurt easily. (They looked very sympathetic to the difficulties they face in teaching).

An appetizer, main dish, one side dish, and a desert had been decided upon in the hope that this food would protect teachers’ voices.

Appetiser: Pumpkin soup
Main dish: 삼겹살 Samgyepsal
One side dish: 도라지 Doraji
Desert: Pear juice

Grace and Suji presented what their group had made and why they had made those decisions in front of their peers.

Participants were very actively engaged in the day’s activity and presentation.
Appendix 5
Four types of error correction made in Sally’s speaking class

5.1: Example of trainer error correction

(Daisy was showing her photo to her colleagues and explaining the photo)

Daisy: Birds came near my hand, and sit down...sit down...
Trainer: Sat down! Sat down! (S/OB/CLIP3/28JULY08/00:03:26)
Daisy: (showing another photo) This is Emerald Palace!
Trainer: Temple or palace?
Daisy: Oh! Temple! Temple! Emerald Temple! (S/OB/CLIP3/28JULY08/00:04:08)

5.2: Example of trainees’ self correction

Isabelle: I have travelled with my friends...7 years ago? I have forgot most of all. (pointing out a photo). This is Indonesia. Indonesian people danced their tradition...tradition?? (S/OB/CLIP3/28JULY8/00:00:53)

5.3: Example of trainee correction: peer correction

Daisy: This place is Singapore! Bird park! It showed us many birds talent...??? (she asked the class) many birds talent????
Trainer and peers: Show! Birds show!
Daisy: Right! Many birds show! (S/OB/CLIP3/28JULY08/00:03:14)

5.4: Example of no correction (conscious or unconscious)

Even though one of the trainees, Robin, made errors while talking about his family, trainer Sarah did not correct him and just let the conversation flow.

Robin: They are my sons (pointing out his sons’ photo). He is 9 years old, 2 years ago take a picture.
Sally: Oh...How old are they now? They look so cute! (S/OB/CLIP3/28JULY08/00:10:00)

Daisy was trying to explain her travelling experience in Japan.
Daisy: (Japanese) Department store our face is similar mine in Korea. (S/0B/CLIP3/28JULY08/00:01:00).

Isabelle was explaining her trip to Indonesia.

Isabelle: traditional dance. Got their traditional dress [meaning that “they were traditional dancing wearing their traditional costume”]. After dancing my friends and all dancers talking photo!

Trainer: I guess they held the performance. After the performance, you wanted to take a picture with dancers. (S/0B/CLIP5/28JULY08/00:01:00)
Appendix 6

Examples of a Korean textbook

A. An example of a song in a textbook (5\textsuperscript{th} grade textbook, p.43)

B. An example of a song in a textbook (5\textsuperscript{th} grade textbook, p.83)
Appendix 7

A photo of Tracy’s explanation of new words
(TR/OB1/23SEP08/VC1/00:19:15~00:19:51)

ate ATE CADE
box
bookcase (book)
here LAKE
under ARCA

orange ORANGE
pencil PENCIL
영화 FILM
in front of IN FRONT OF
watch (i) 시계 (clock)
watch (ii) 보다

lunch LUNCH
تين في
in IN AN I
Appendix 8.1
Grace’s e mail stating the reason why she turned down my observation

Grace's e-mail:

Subject: Re: Observation Request

Dear Ju Young Sim,

I have received your message regarding the observation request. Unfortunately, I am unable to accommodate it at this time. Here are the reasons why:

1. I am currently engaged in teaching duties that require my full attention.
2. My research activities are currently prioritized over observation requests.
3. I have scheduled my day for the next few weeks and cannot fit in additional tasks.

I understand the importance of the observation and appreciate your understanding. I will be happy to discuss this further at a later date.

Best regards,
Grace
Appendix 8.2
Translation of Grace’s email

Thank you for sending me such a thoughtful email but I’m really sorry to decline your observation of my class. To be honest, I have been under quite some pressure for a while. School work has been hectic and I am currently in charge of managing a 16 million won (approximately 8000 GBP) scholarship project for homeroom teachers. In addition, I also had to manage the national ‘scholastic aptitude test for the 3rd and 6th grade’ that started yesterday and ended today.

To add to this, today I had to go on a trip to see the facility beforehand and coordinate the schedules and meals for the teacher education programme that will be starting next week for the teachers in my school. I sometimes feel very frustrated with my busy schedule.

If my English was fluent enough and I had confidence in English I would be willing to open my class to you. However, my class was conducted mostly in Korean and I didn’t want to show you. Not to show my poor English-conducted class – mostly Korean-conducted class. I needed to prepare enough but as you know I did not have sufficient energy and time to prepare. Without sufficient preparation for the class, I couldn’t allow you to observe the class because my pride would be hurt.

I do not have time today because of my trip for the teacher education programme but I will be able to be interviewed by you tomorrow and the day after tomorrow. I will be working until 4.30, so that you can come to my school after 4.30 [...].
Appendix 9
Grace’s interview about the listening class at TTI

Grace: After coming back from TTI, my style of teaching listening has changed a bit. Before, I just turned on the tape player and asked who would repeat the sentences, and just made students repeat the tape, but after the course, now I focus more on context. I now say “listen again and try to find the main idea.” I think now there are more detailed phases to understand the content of listening. During the listening class at TTI, the trainer Debbie showed us the movie ‘family man’. But before showing the video to us, she asked us to guess the story of the scene we were going to watch and then made us listen and watch. After that, she made us repeat phrases and it made us understand the story more easily. When I teach listening in my class, I applied it to my class. I let my students see the video without any explanation then I make them guess the story. Through these kinds of phases, when they seem to understand the story I make them repeat some important and useful expressions over and over. And for the important parts I would pause and ask “why would they behave like that?” My students seem to be more interested and pay more attention to the video.
Appendix 10: Interview questions

Questions of pre-INSET observation interview

Pre-INSET observation interview questions (prior to the course)
1. For what reasons are you taking a teacher training session?
2. What are you hoping to gain from this training session?
   (What would you say are your needs as a participant in this course?)
3. How often do you participate in this kind of training session?
4. Do you use English as the main medium in your class?
5. Which would you say is your main teaching method in the classroom?
6. What do you think is important when teaching young children?
7. What kind of problems do you have?
8. If you were advising someone on how to teach, what kind of advice would you give?

Questions of post-INSET observation interview

Post-INSET observation interview questions (after the course but prior to returning to school)
1. Trainees’ views on the course
   1.1. In what ways do you think your needs have been met or not?
   1.2. What did you like and what did you dislike about the course?
   1.3. What aspects of the training course have since been influential in your teaching, and in what ways?
   1.4. In your opinion what makes an effective teacher training programme?
   1.5. How would you describe the significance of this in-service training programme?
   1.6. How much do you think that the in-service training programme helped teachers to accept and implement new ideas?
1.7. Do you think a ‘follow up’ course, which can support or encourage teachers, is necessary after the training course?

1.8. Did you like the way the course was delivered? Did it relate to your own personal style of teaching and learning?

2. Trainees’ views about the usability and feasibility of the knowledge regarding classroom activities gained during INSET

2.2. Do you think you will be able to use what you have learned on this course directly in your classroom? Can you give some examples?

2.3. What obstacles do you think you might face when implementing what you have learned from INSET to real practice?

2.4. Do you think the course has prepared you in a way that is suitable for your students?

3. Any change in trainees’ perception of English teaching

3.1. What do you believe about your own teaching about English language teaching? Do you think your beliefs or perceptions about English language teaching have changed during your involvement in this present course, and, if so, in what ways?

**Questions of after returning to school interview**

**After returning to school interview questions**

1. About application of the new ideas

1.1. Have you applied any of the activities that you learned in INSET in your classroom? If ‘yes’, what are they? If ‘no’, why?

1.2. How frequently do you use of teaching techniques from INSET in everyday classroom practice?

1.3. Among the topics listed below, which classroom activities that were presented on the course you have successfully used with your classes:

- Reading
- Writing
- Listening & speaking
1.4. When you introduce such activities above to your students in real classroom, how much did students understand on those activities? And how do those activities motivate and stimulate students’ learning?

1.5. How do you deal with the errors students made in the class?

1.6. Is there a discrepancy between the teaching methods (activities) obtained from INSET and teacher’s predominant set of actual classroom practices?

2. About change about teachers’ perception about English language teaching

2.1. Would you say there has been any change in your understanding and approach to teaching since you attended the training programme?

2.2. Do you think your understanding of English language as the subject matter, including any background in linguistics, cultural issues, and English grammar, has changed after INSET?, and can this affect your teaching in class? If so, in what ways?

2.3. Do you think you could get more confidence in using English and get clearer understanding of English through INSET?

2.4. Have your beliefs about particular things, for example, such as always using L2; or getting learners to work together or not correcting errors changed?

3. Constraints during implementation

3.1. Did you have any problems implementing any of the new ideas that were introduced to you on the programme? Can you give some examples?

3.2. What have you done or will you do to overcome these obstacles?

4. Others
4.1. Are there any aspects of your work and your teaching which you feel were insufficiently covered on the course?

Questions of longer-term outcomes interview

Longer-term outcomes questions

1. Looking back at the Teacher Training course you attended in TTI can you say a little about how it has affected what you do in the classroom now. For example, you could tell me a little more about any activities you do now which you think you learnt about on the course?

2. Among the things that you learned at TTI, what were the things that you weren’t able to have a successful outcome and what do you think the reasons were? Thinking about the Teacher Training course in general, why do you think many of the things that they suggest are not actually implemented by teachers in the long term. That is, teachers may try something but then not continue to use it.

3. It has been suggested that different factors can limit the effectiveness in the long term of teacher training courses. Thinking about the course you attended, what factors do you think might have led to this? For example, perhaps it was the teacher’s lack of fluency in English which prevented them from understanding the content of the course; perhaps the teachers were not persuaded that the ideas were good ones; they might have felt it was too difficult for them to do. Or it might be that the factors are external to the teacher e.g. lack of institutional support; the ideas were not appropriate to the teacher’s own context.

4. When you come back from an INSET course to your own institution, what support would you like to receive in order to help you continue to implement any changes that you think appropriate?

5. Thinking back to the course itself; and your situation now; in what ways could it have been made more effective so that it had a more long term effect on your teaching. For example, you might want to say something about the design of the course, or the content; or your own role on the course.
Everybody in teaching has problems and issues which need addressing. Choose two things which you think would help make your teaching easier, more effective, more rewarding and more motivating.

Appendix 11
Sample translation of a transcription

1. Theme-based method & story telling, readers’ theatre

The Theme-based method, storytelling, and readers’ theatre.....Those activities have been used not only in English classes but in other subjects as well such as Korean language classes. After doing storytelling, I tried to use the readers’ theatre. I mean, the students become familiar with the story first, then they can do whatever it is, a role play or readers’ theatre. The kids really liked the story and, in particular, that the phrases and sentences are repeated a lot in the story telling books, so it is good for practising speaking. Especially, at Halloween, on 31st October, I read my kids a story about the origin of Halloween and we had a Halloween party dressing up in Halloween costumes. It was really fun. (V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.1)

2. 몇몇의 stronger students들은 weaker students를 가르쳐 주려고 노력은 해요. 근데 효율성이 너무 떨어져서 내가 가서 몇마디 하면 애들이 이해를 하는데 학생이 학생을 가르치고 학생들만의 언어로 가르치려니 좀 떨어지는 애들이 이해가 안가나 봐요. 게다가 그룹활동은 주로 어떤 given task를 해결해야 하고 결과물을 내야 하기 때문에 다른 그룹보다 잘하고 더 잘하고 싶고 빨리 좋은 결과를 내고 싶다는 생각에 결국은 잘하는 아이들이 못하는 아이들을 보호하고 도와준다고 보다는 그들이 나서서 given task를 solve하는 경향이 있기 때문에 결국 weaker students들은 isolated된다. 그러므로 나머지 아이들은 정말 참여자가 아닌 관찰자, 방관자가 될수 밖에 없다.

To be honest, a few stronger students would lead the group as group leaders for the
weaker students and help each other. Then this might help to solve the mixed ability class problem, but this works only in theory, not in reality. In reality, stronger students don’t protect weaker students. Weaker students just sometimes get ignored or isolated. (TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.7)

Appendix 12

Interview & observation code

Contexts in which data was collected are represented as follows:

INT: Interview
INT.PR: Pre-INSET observation interview
INT.PO: Post-INSET observation interview
INT.AR: After returning to school interview
INT.LS: Longer-term sustainability interview

OB: Observation
ST: Stimulated recall interview
INT.CHAT: informal interview/chat
VC: Video clip

Seven participants in Pre & Post-INSET observation interview
R Robin
S Sunny
V Vicky
D Diana
T Tom
TR Tracy
G Grace

Three participants in the after returning to school and longer-term sustainability interviews
TR Tracy
V Vicky
G Grace

Key to data references: Details of data sources are presented as follows:

Interview: Participant/ how data was collected/ date/ page of transcription
e.g.) V/INT.PR/23JULY2008/PP.5

Observation: Participant/ how data was collected/number of video clip/ date/ digital
time
e.g.) V/OB1/VC1/18SEP08/00:04:23

**Stimulated recall interview**: participant/ how data was collected/ date/ page of transcription
e.g.) V/INT.ST 1/ 25SEP2008/PP.6

**Informal interview**: participant/ how data was collected/ date/ page of transcription
e.g.) V/INT.CHAT1/25SEP2008/PP.7

**Table 1. Data relating to Vicky**

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<th>Interview date</th>
<th>Methods of data collection</th>
<th>Interview code</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1 21-07-2008</td>
<td>Pre-INSET observation interview (at TTI)</td>
<td>V/PR.INT/23JULY08/PP.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 08-08-2008</td>
<td>Post-INSET observation interview (in a café with other teachers)</td>
<td>V/PT.INT/03AUG08/PP.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 23-10-2008</td>
<td>After returning to school interview (in her school)</td>
<td>V/AR.INT/23OCT08/PP.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 11-02-2009</td>
<td>Longer-term sustainability interview (in England by Skype)</td>
<td>V/LS.INT/11FEB09/PP.</td>
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**Table 2. Data relating to Vicky**

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<th>Methods of data collection</th>
<th>Stimulate recall code</th>
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<td>Stimulated recall interview 1 (classroom)</td>
<td>V/INT.ST1/18SEP08</td>
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<td>2 25-09-2008</td>
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<td>V/OB2/25SEP08/</td>
<td>Stimulated recall interview 2 (classroom)</td>
<td>V/INT.ST2/02OCT08</td>
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<td>3 02-10-2008</td>
<td>3rd observation</td>
<td>V/OB3/02OCT08</td>
<td>Methods of data collection</td>
<td>Informal interview code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 09-10-2008</td>
<td>4th observation</td>
<td>V/OB4/09OCT08</td>
<td>Informal interview 1 (common room)</td>
<td>V/INT.CHAT1/18SEP08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 16-10-2008</td>
<td>5th observation</td>
<td>V/OB5/16OCT08</td>
<td>Informal interview 2 (common room)</td>
<td>V/INT.CHAT2/25SEP08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24
Table 2. Data relating to Grace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviews</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-INSET observation interview (prior to INSET course)</td>
<td>21-07-2008</td>
<td>G/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-INSET observation interview (after INSET course)</td>
<td>08-08-2008</td>
<td>G/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After returning to school interview</td>
<td>16-10-2008</td>
<td>G/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longer-term sustainability interview (six months after completing INSET course)</td>
<td>13-02-2009</td>
<td>G/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 3. Data relating to Tracy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview date</th>
<th>Methods of data collection</th>
<th>Interview code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 21-07-2008</td>
<td>Pre-interview (at TTI)</td>
<td>TR/PR.INT/21JULY08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 08-08-2008</td>
<td>Post-interview (in a café with other teachers)</td>
<td>TR/PT.INT/08AUG08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 16-10-2008</td>
<td>After returning to school interview (in her school)</td>
<td>TR/AR.INT/16OCT08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 17-02-2009</td>
<td>Longer-term sustainability interview (in England by Skype)</td>
<td>TR/LS.INT/17FEB09/PP.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observation date</th>
<th>Methods of data collection</th>
<th>Observation code</th>
<th>Methods of data collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 23-09-2008</td>
<td>1st observation</td>
<td>TR/OB1/23SEP08/D.TIME</td>
<td>Informal interview 1 (common room)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 24-09-2008</td>
<td>2nd observation</td>
<td>TR/OB2/VC/24SEP08/D.TIME</td>
<td>Informal interview 2 (common room)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 30-09-2008</td>
<td>3rd observation</td>
<td>TR/OB3/9SEP08/D.TIME</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 01-10-2008</td>
<td>4th observation</td>
<td>TR/OB4/01OCT08/D.TIME</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 07-10-2008</td>
<td>5th observation</td>
<td>TR/OB5/07OCT08/D.TIME</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Data relating to trainers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviews after the three-week course</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Interview code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linda</td>
<td>17/October/2008</td>
<td>L/TTI.INT/17OCT08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deborah</td>
<td>09/August/2008</td>
<td>D/TTI.INT/08AUG08/PP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sally</td>
<td>27/August/2008</td>
<td>S/TTI.INT/27AUG08/PP.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Observation**: Trainer/ how data was collected/ number of video clip/ date/ digital time e.g.) L/OB/CLIP3/06AUG08/00:00:04