

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND USING ENGLISH
AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN EGYPT:
TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING APPROACHES
AND SOURCES OF CHANGE

by

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for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
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Abstract

With the internationalization of English there is a growing demand for high quality English language education around the globe, particularly in non-English speaking countries. Consequently, there is an increasing demand worldwide for competent English teachers and more effective approaches to teaching and teacher professional development. In Egypt, in a context of educational reform where communicative language teaching approaches have been adopted as a way to improve teaching, this study explores how teachers perceive and respond to this call for change in instructional practices. It examines the professional development experiences of a group of English as a foreign language (EFL) and English-medium subject (EMS) teachers working in the private and public basic educational sectors in Cairo, Egypt. The research questions focus on teachers' perceptions of change and improvement occurring in their teaching practices, their beliefs on the sources of change available to them, and the perspectives of school principals and professional development providers on teachers' change prospects.

In this study, a multi-method approach was applied, with a teacher survey administered to 174 teachers; in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 36 teachers, 15 principals, and 8 professional development (PD) providers; field observation; and examination of relevant documents and artifacts. The analysis of data is informed by sociocultural theory perspectives (Vygotsky, 1978).

The findings indicate that (1) teachers perceive great change in their practices, though their conceptions and implementation of communicative approaches are context-bound, (2) teaching is influenced by various professional learning opportunities, and (3) change or lack thereof results from teachers' adaptability to their local contextual demands through a process of resistance, resilience, or maintaining the status quo.

The findings highlight the centrality of teachers in change processes. They suggest that change results from a process of interaction between teachers and other individuals within their community, and that the nature of change as experienced by the participants is shaped by a multitude of contextual factors. The implications of the study include the need to replace the technical conception of professional development with a more ecological orientation, to establish professional learning communities among teachers and within schools, and to establish a coherent framework for change initiatives.

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List of Acronyms

| | |
|---|--------|
| Communicative language teaching | CLT |
| English as a foreign language | EFL |
| English as a second language | ESL |
| English language teaching | ELT |
| English-medium subjects | EMS |
| Ministry of Education | MOE |
| Professional development | PD |
| Teacher education | TE |
| National Strategic Plan for Pre-university Education Reform | NSPPER |
| National Center for Educational Research and Development | NCRED |
| Non-governmental organization | NGO |
| Sociocultural theory | SCT |
| Ministry of Education | MOE |
| United Nations Development Program | UNDP |
| Zone of proximal development | ZPD |

PROLOGUE:
RESEARCHING CHANGE IN PRE-REVOLUTION EGYPT

The ancient dunes of Egypt have long beckoned explorers from around the world. They have searched – and occasionally discovered – long buried treasures. As these were excavated and exposed, the facts about previous human civilizations came to light. Their findings often inspired and amazed thousands of people, both locally and globally. However, not all excavations are equally welcome in Egypt – nor can everything hidden under the calm sands be easily brought up for scientific inspection. The desert seems to have its own rules for exposing its secrets and hidden possessions and it does not easily allow for excavations that may interrupt the tranquility of the land. It is also the case with Egyptian society.

My research journey began at a time when the notion of change in Egypt was considered taboo. It was a country ruled by martial law for more than 30 years; even things that were permissible were often accompanied by strict regulations. A research study such as this had to be approached with caution. As a researcher, obtaining official approvals for accessing information was physically and emotionally straining. Truth – or the perception of truth at times – was tightly concealed by layers of national security measures and other restrictions, compiled over the years to maintain a status quo. As I successfully passed numerous and prolonged safety checks during my journey, I became more aware of both the advantages and challenges of digging for truth in the hot dry Egyptian desert.

Excited about my excavation for teacher perspectives on educational change, I proceeded to bring to the open teacher voices that were rarely heard in Egypt. In this work, I invite my reader to tour my excavation sites – the various Egyptian school systems – to hear teacher voices calling for change loud and clear. At the time of the study, real change seemed far from becoming a reality. No one could foresee the 2011 revolution that has since swept the nation. The Egyptian youth were at the forefront of the revolution, rallying under a slogan of change. Now that the country has experienced profound political and social change, will the commensurate change in education also become a reality? I am hopeful that this will happen, but only time – and perhaps further studies on the Egyptian context – will provide an answer to this question.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Issue

Globalization and reform movements – as recently witnessed around the world – invite waves of change impacting aspects of human life, including the language and culture of communication and exchange (Canagarajah, 2005). With English becoming the lingua franca of the global community in major professional fields such as science, technology, commerce, and education, there is an increasing demand for effective teaching and learning of English in many world contexts. Effective English language skills are seen as vital for the workforce of countries which seek to participate actively in the global economy and want to have access to the information that forms the basis of social, educational, and economic development (Burns & Richards, 2009). Even on the individual level, a good command of the English language has a major role in elevating an individuals' socio-economic status and thus is key to success and prosperity.

In non-English speaking countries particularly, this situation necessitates a reconsideration of teachers' competencies and the introduction of professional development opportunities as a way of increasing the effectiveness of English language teaching and learning. Egypt is one such country where the improvement of English language teaching is undertaken as an integral part of its reform and development plans. As in the case of other countries undergoing improvement initiatives in English language teaching, such as Japan (LoCastro, 1996; Savignon, 2004), China (Hu, 2005; Jin & Cortazzi, 1996), Taiwan (Wang, 2002), and Korea (Li, 1998), improvement in this area entails introducing and training teachers in Western methods, namely *communicative language teaching* (CLT) or as it is also called in the Egyptian context *student-centered approaches* (Ginsburg, 2010). The present work examines how teachers perceive and actually respond to this wave of change in education, how they interact with various change initiatives, and what inspires them to change or make them resist.

Rationale

Despite the fact that the exportability of ‘Western methods’ has been questioned over the past two decades (Burnaby & Sun , 1989; Burns, 2005; Canagarajah, 2005; Coleman, 1996; Holliday, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006; Scovel, 1986), ministries of education, educational policy makers, and legislative bodies continue to set policies that impose those methods. This is often done without full consideration of the context-specific constraints, even though these might ultimately affect the extent to which teachers are willing or able to implement those strategies and ultimately affect the changes sought. For some policy makers and reformers, improving teaching is mainly a matter of developing better teaching methods. While these are important, it must also be considered that developing teachers and improving their teaching involves more than giving them new strategies and “tricks” (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. ix) to apply in their classrooms.

The teacher – among other actors involved in any educational improvement efforts – is a central agent. When a change in teaching is introduced, teachers consider its intended scope and reach “interpreting its aims and strategies in relation to their own values, beliefs and practices and circumstances” (Little, 2001, p. 286), and respond according to their assessment of that. While we are increasingly coming to conceptualize that change and teaching improvements are, to a great extent, in the hands of teachers – “it is what teachers think, what teachers believe and what teachers do at the level of the classroom that ultimately shape the kind of learning that young people get” (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. ix) – policy makers continue to ignore and override teachers’ perspectives and desires, relying instead on principles of compulsion to get teachers to adopt change. This study examines one such case. It focuses on teacher learning, stance, and perspectives on implementing change in a context of reform and innovations in English language education.

Teachers’ voices should be heard clearly in the prospects of educational change, not shadowed, or used to validate existing theories of writers and researchers (Hargreaves, 1994). Believing in the validity of their voice in leading to true theories and profound understanding of educational aspects, in this study, I extend the work of researchers who place teachers center stage and give them voice. I structure the present work around teachers’ perspectives, yet contextualize them by perspectives of others who share teachers’ work and professional communities. Freeman and Johnson (1998) and other researchers (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006; Richards, 2008; Tsui, 2003) argue that the core of teacher education and professional development must center on the activity of teaching itself, the

teacher who does it, and the context in which it is done. While many of the theories and research on teaching, teacher learning, and teacher change processes are generated in or with reference to North American and European settings, such is not representative of many world contexts; relatively little has been studied in EFL teacher education and even less among teachers of English in ‘*Outer Circle*’ countries (Kachru, 1986). The present work represents teacher voices from Cairo, Egypt, where the field of ELT has been growing rapidly, and adopting results of much of the research on language pedagogy produced in ‘*Inner Circle*’ countries.

From another perspective, and like the case in other countries undergoing reform, much of the research on teaching, in-service education, and educational change is conducted within the government-funded public system; this often constitutes funded evaluative procedures carried out by ministries of education and international governmental or non-governmental organizations (NGOs) for various reform projects. According to the Egyptian Ministry of Education report (2006) on the National Strategic Plan for Pre-university Education Reform 2007-2012 (NSPPER, 2006) and to my knowledge, little or no research has looked into teaching and instructional innovations in the private school sector despite the fact that it is rapidly expanding in the country. In this study, I examine both the public and private sectors, drawing attention to the process of teacher development and change of practice across sectors. By that, the present work will contribute to the understanding of the complexities of the process of change of practice in order to assist teachers in different contexts in meeting the standards of practice expected in today’s world.

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

This study gives a practical and reasonable sense of the process of change as teachers experience it. The central aim of this study is to describe the experiences of local and native-speaking English teachers. This study examines the phenomenon of change in English language teaching approaches in the context of Cairo, Egypt. It focuses on teachers’ perspectives on their professional development experiences and change prospects during their careers in education. It explores how a group of English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and English-medium subject (EMS) teachers, working in the public and private sectors, cope with the contextual constraints they encounter in their work as they address the new educational demands brought by the profound currents of change in English language teaching and content-based language instruction. Employing

both quantitative and qualitative approaches, the present work is based on data from teacher surveys, semi-structured, in-depth interviews, and notes from observation and documents. While the primary aim of this study is to elucidate the process of change of practice through the eyes of teachers, it invites the perspectives of others who work closely with teachers, namely school principals and professional development providers, so as to contextualize the topics addressed. The main questions addressed are:

1. How do EFL and EMS teachers perceive their teaching as having changed over the period of their careers in education?
2. How do EFL and EMS teachers perceive their professional development opportunities and the sources of change available to them?
3. How do school principals and professional development providers perceive their role in relation to the professional development of teachers and what are their perspectives on the process of change?

The Researcher

My interest in conducting this research stems from my personal philosophy and conceptualization of teaching as well as who I am and my life experiences as a learner and a teacher in North American and North African educational settings. I believe that teaching is a sacred profession, a prophetic mission worthy of all possible means of support. Through my eyes, I see teachers as messengers to humanity and ‘agents of change’ (Fullan, 1991; Wallace, 1991). I am convinced that a better future for generations around the world lies in effective teaching that aims at “the development of a mind to learn” (Wells & Claxton, 2002, p. 2), so that learners become able to address the uncertain demands of their time and their ever-changing world and communities. This research, I feel, is one way of actualizing myself as an agent of change, as it may directly or indirectly contribute to the enhancement of teachers and teaching.

Considering that the researcher is the instrument of his or her own research (Kavle 1996), I introduce myself here and reveal aspects of my identities and relationship with the research context. First of all, my interest in this research stems from my academic and professional identity as a teacher, a teacher educator and a researcher in the field of second language education. I have a good

understanding of my research context and I can relate to it on various levels. I have had multiple educational and administrative experiences in the Egyptian context and thus have procedural knowledge of the professional communities involved in this study. I have a sense of what it might take to pursue change or PD avenues, not only at the individual teacher level but at the school executive administration level as well. Hence, it is through an array of lived experiences that I became accustomed to the social, academic, and professional culture investigated in this work.

I approached this investigation with context-specific experience and a strong theoretical and practical knowledge base established through my graduate studies in North America. I perceive myself as an insider in the professional community examined and identify with my participants in many ways. The professional communities investigated in this study (schools, teachers, principals, and PD providers) are also a part of my academic and professional history and experience. Therefore, I have approached this work with multiple perspectives on the contexts and topics examined. I identify with my different participant groups in many ways. Given my cultural background, I share with my teacher participants the experience of being raised and educated in the Middle East. Like some of them, I learned English as a foreign language through the 'Grammar Translation' method; like others, I have also been immersed in English as second language learning and teaching settings; and like the teacher participants in my study, I have teaching and work experience across these educational contexts. I have also experienced teacher training in settings similar to those of the study context.

During the 2 years of data collection, I also worked in the field of schooling and teacher education in Cairo. I worked as an in-house professional development officer in an international school setting: I facilitated and delivered workshops for teachers, analyzed instructional materials, participated in school innovation projects, and held a position as principal in a school with an American program. I participated in parent nights, school councils, and board meetings and thus had interactions with a wide range of individuals involved in the educational field examined in this study. Moreover, I approached this study as an academic pursuing higher education in a North American institute, and as a parent of children enrolled in Cairo schools. Through these opportunities, I worked closely with teachers in their classes, seminar rooms and lounges; and with school administrators and PD providers, and consequently became a member of the various professional communities represented in this study. Through my experiences in Cairo, I gained an in-depth understanding of the contextual layers surrounding the issues raised in the present study. In

Cairo I developed networks and connections that also served this research in terms of accessing schools and having participants open up and speak their minds. Hence, I believe that with such experiences and identities, I had the multiple lenses necessary for conducting this research.

Although challenging at times, I did my best to maintain objectivity and separate my personal knowledge of the context from knowledge generated by the participants while recognizing that my background allowed me to develop important insights from the data.

Research Organization and Overview

Following this introductory chapter, in Chapter 2, I describe the context of Cairo, Egypt, and the educational aspects and domains of focus of the study. I introduce Egypt as a dynamic environment of social, economic, and educational change that has undergone change for the past 30 years. I describe the central role English language education is perceived to play in the prosperity of the country and explain how the national goals of language teaching and learning are addressed throughout the basic education systems. In Chapter 2, I also highlight the major features of the teaching profession including the sources and activities of initial and continuing teacher education programs. In Chapter 3, I review the literature on PD, drawing on research from the field of second language teacher education I also draw on literature written by leading scholars on professional development and educational change. My review provides a broad picture of the various models of PD which teachers may pursue, the principles of effective PD and highlights the necessity of structuring PD programs with consideration to the perspectives of all those involved.

In Chapter 4, I discuss the changing theoretical perspectives on teacher learning, pointing to the shift towards a social view of human learning. Employing a sociocultural theory (SCT) stance in looking at teacher professional development, I discuss the major contributions of SCT to the field of teacher education and elucidate several practical interpretations of this theoretical perspective in the area of in-service teacher education. Chapters 5 to 8 describe my research methods, data collection strategies as well as my analytic procedures, and then conclude with a brief summary on the findings. In Chapters 6, 7 and 8 the findings are presented. Chapter 6 focusses on how teachers perceive aspects of their practices as having changed. Chapter 7 highlights perspectives on the impact of various PD avenues and sources of change on teachers' classroom practices. Chapter 8 is divided into two parts: the first presents the perspectives and roles of school principals in teachers'

change prospects; the second focuses on the services and views of the professional development providers working in the field of bilingual education in Egypt. In Chapter 9, I propose a theoretical framework based on the general constructs of SCT and use it as analytic lens to understand and interpret the findings related to each of the contexts explored (government, private national, and international systems). I draw a broad picture of the multi-faceted process of change in each context, how these processes work and what patterns of practice they lead to. Finally, I bring this work to a close in Chapter 10 where I discuss the implications of this study for the different parties involved in the process of change, including teachers, school administrators, PD providers, and policy makers.

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH CONTEXT

Egypt: Facts and Figures

This study took place in Cairo, Egypt -- a country that is often portrayed in the North American media through images of pharaohs, pyramids, camels, and a sparse nomadic population in the desert. This portrayal shows very little of the reality and intricacy of modern life there. What such pictures miss is the significant societal and economic change and development that has occurred in Egypt over the past few decades. In this chapter, I describe the larger context in which my participants live and work. I first present general facts and figures to provide a sense of the social and economic growth in the region, and then I describe aspects of the educational system, bilingual education, trends in English language teaching and teacher education.

Egypt is a country the size of Ontario; a little over one million square kilometers (1,000,460), with a population of over 81 million with a current annual growth rate of 2.1% (UNDP, 2008). The country occupies a strategic location in the northeastern corner of Africa. The Mediterranean forms its north shore boundary and the Red Sea denotes the eastern boundary. It is bordered by Libya, Palestine and Sudan. In the Great Sahara and all through the length of the country, one of the greatest rivers in the world, the Nile, extends for approximately 1500 kilometers. For more than 6000 years, 95% of Egypt's population has lived along the river banks.

Cairo is the capital and the administrative and business center of Egypt. It is one of the world's megacities and is the largest city in the Middle East and Africa. As described by many in the Arab world, it is 'the city that never sleeps'. Cairo's population is approximately 8 million while as many as 18 million live in the Greater Cairo area (The National Strategic Plan for Pre-university Educational Reform – NSPPER - for 2007- 2012, 2006). The total area of Greater Cairo is about 86,369 square kilometers (8.5% of Egypt's total land). The city displays a very rich culture, representing all facets of Egyptian society. Cairo is home to all sorts of universities: public, private, and foreign. Prior to the university level, there are different avenues to education with public, private, and international schools.

Since the 1970s, the country has undergone educational and economic reform with social development movements aimed at improving the overall living conditions of its citizens and establishing a position in the modern world. Government reports (for example, NSPPER, 2006) describe Egypt as having 40 seaports with a capacity of approximately 67 million tons; a total of 9435 kilometers of train tracks and 28 railway lines; 48,100 kilometers of paved highway networks; 30 airports through which approximately 22 million passengers travel annually and over 300 tons of goods are transported by air. These facilities are yet to be increased to meet the demands of the expanding social and economic goals. Key sectors that drive the country's economy are agriculture and industry as well as, of course, tourism. The warm weather and constant supply of water from the Nile have long made multiple annual harvests possible. In addition, desert-based agriculture has been in effect for more than a decade, vastly expanding the agricultural land and the products grown. Among the major products of investment on the national and international levels are cotton, wheat, sugar; and industries include textiles, food processing, tourism, chemicals, cement, metals and light manufacturing. Along with crude oil and natural gas, Egypt exports such goods and products to many diverse markets as the US, UK, Germany, and Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, being home for much of the world's known antiques, the finest Islamic monuments, ancient sites, and seaside resorts, Egypt is a world-class player in the leisure tourism market; and is an attraction for millions of tourists every year.

According to the United Nations Human Development Index (UNHDI, 2008), there is a rapid economic growth in Egypt. It is not among the world's poorest countries but rather a middle-income country (World Bank, 2009) that is no longer a recipient but a donor to the International Development Association (UNHDI, 2008). In the Middle East, Egypt is currently reported as having the second largest regional gross domestic product after Saudi Arabia (NSPPER, 2006). Despite the country's encouraging economic growth, there is a high poverty rate that seems to slow its economic progress. According to a UNDP (2008) report, 19.6% of the population lives under the poverty level of US \$2 a day and that the job market employs only half of the work force each year leading to a high unemployment rate. In an effort to improve the economic and employment prospects of the nation, the government has put tremendous efforts to improve the quality of education for all students.

Until recently, and before the January 25th, 2011 revolution, Egypt had a republican form of government where the National Democratic Party controlled the People's Assembly for almost the

past 40 years. The regional structure included 27 governorates with governors appointed by the president. Although the county has a history of a centralized system, it is committed to instituting a high level of decentralized services including those in the education sector.

Egypt as a Research Context

Egypt is one of the nine most populous countries in the world with one of the largest education systems (UNESCO, 2006) which plays a central strategic role “in determining the stability of the Middle East and southern Mediterranean area” (Sayed, cited in Ginsburg and Megahed, 2008). The significance of Egypt as a context for exploring the present research topics also lies in its potential representation of many states in the Middle East and North Africa. Akkari (2004) who compared countries of the Middle East and North Africa contends that from the Atlantic Ocean to the Arab Persian Gulf, this vast region shares common historical and cultural experiences. First, Islam and Arabic are key factors in the identity formation of the region. In the 19th and the first half of the 20th century each of the counties within the region was under European colonization which left the countries economically and culturally dependent on developed nations. Most of the Middle East and North African states are officially bilingual with English, French or both used in various fields (particularly in the scientific and business arenas) alongside the native languages (Arabic, Turkish or Farsi) and are similarly promoted through the public and private education systems. Even in countries that are officially claimed monolingual such as Saudi Arabia and Libya, the knowledge of English has become a must for large segments of the work force who seek social and economic prosperity and need to connect to the global arena.

According to Akkari (2004) and other researchers from the field of comparative education (e.g., Abdo, 2001; Ginsburg, 2010; Ginsburg & Megahed, 2011; Megahed, 2008) among many common themes found across these countries are issues of educational reform related to access to education, dropout rates, the predominance of bureaucratic structures emphasizing top-down approaches to learning, high-stakes testing and the implementation of rigid curricula content memorization and dictation as common strategies. Poor school facilities and a lack of teacher incentives have also been recognized as common concerns in the region (Abdo, 2001; Megahed, 2002, 2008). Even in higher income countries such as the UAE where there are state-of-the-art school facilities and ‘laptop universities’, research points to poor quality of education including

English language education (Syed, 2003) and insufficient support systems. Most of the Middle Eastern states are undergoing educational reform movements, bearing on similar avenues of national and international approaches to educational reform that target parallel areas of development through the cascade model to teacher professional development (Akkari, 2004; Ginsburg, 2010).

Abdo (2000) compared the perspectives of teachers from nine countries in the Middle East and North Africa (Lebanon, Yemen, Oman, Iraq, Syria, Tunisia, Iran and Djibouti) on issues of work conditions, pre-and in-service training, remuneration, concerns and obstacles in change and improvement. She found that teachers across the region have analogous work experiences and perceptions of their workplace that tend to impact their teaching performance in ways counter to the innovation proposed in their setting. For example, common among Abdo's cross-region teacher participants is their perception that large class size, lack of sufficient instructional materials, poor school facilities and low remuneration are obstacles mediating against the improvement of their teaching and student achievement. Abdo also found that in many countries teachers perceive in-service training not as a requirement for improvement but rather an "add-on" activity not necessarily connected to their everyday work. Similar findings are reported in Megahed's (2002; 2008) work on the Egyptian context and in Ginsburg's (2010) case study research where he compared teachers' experiences and the impact of change initiatives across five developing countries including Egypt, Cambodia, Jordan, Kyrgyzstan, Malawi and Egypt.

While similarities exist among countries in the Arab World in the field of education, it is important to note that Egypt has the largest education system in the Middle East and North Africa and is the leading exporter of educational services to the Arab region (Engman, 2009; Wikipedia, 2010). Examining the period between 1952 and 2007, Engman's (2009) analysis of the export of Egypt's education sector shows that the government secondment of Egyptian school teachers covered as much as 639,370 years of full-time teaching in the Arab world. Engman found that Iraq (under former president Saddam Hussain), Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and UAE hired a large number of expatriate teachers. For example, between the 1980s and 1990s in the Gulf countries, Egyptians constituted the majority of the teaching force (more than 75% in the case of Oman and Saudi Arabia) (Looney, 2009, cited in Engman). His data however, show that Egyptian teacher recruitment went through three phases: a gradual increase from the 1950s to the 1970s; a boom between the 1970s to the 1990s and a gradual decline since the mid-1990s with the instigation of teacher preparation programs which produced local teachers and the implementation of labour

nationalization policies in many countries. However, researching teacher development in Egypt and understanding the perspectives of teachers in the public and private sectors there is worthy of all efforts because “tens of millions of Arab children have been educated by Egyptian tutors” (Engman, 2009, p. 40) and most likely many other millions will be, especially because teaching, compared to other professions, appears to be less attractive to many locals across the region (Abdo, 2001; Megahed, 2008).

Development and Education in Egypt

Over the past few decades, the Egyptian government has accorded great priority to improving their education system. Similar to some of its neighboring countries undergoing reform in the Middle East such as Jordan, or Yemen, or others in the Far East including China, the Philippines, Japan and Korea, the reform of education systems is coordinated with other development goals. Egypt has targeted the education system as an essential component of its development strategy. According to reports of the National Center of Educational Research and Development (NCERD) (1996, 2001) and the NSSPER (2006) on the educational goals and progress achieved in the country, the political leadership of Egypt has placed the improvement of education as the country’s top priority emphasizing that Egypt’s future, its economic prosperity and the well being of generations to come are reliant on the success of educational reform. Reform in Egypt is declared as ‘the giant national project’ (2001, p. 2) and teachers are pointed to as “*the pillars of educational reform*”. This has put forth the professional development and improvement of teachers as a necessity for achieving Egypt’s national goals (Monem, El-Sokkary, Haddaway, & Bickel, 2001, p. 26).

Egypt has achieved substantial progress in its education reform plans and has been recognized both locally and in the international arena for its progress. Education has become within the reach of more children than ever before (Galal, 2002). Galal points out that by 1997, the expansion of education was able to cover the entire population of primary-age students and 78% of the population within the relevant age group of secondary levels. According to the 2004 UNESCO report on development and education reform in Egypt, the school (primary and secondary levels) enrollment rate has increased reaching about 89.4% of school-aged students. Approximately 2.5 million students attend institutions of higher education. Literacy rates have also improved. The UNDP (2008) accredits Egypt with a 69.5% adult literacy rate. These achievements are appreciated

by international institutions concerned with education such as UNESCO and UNICEF (The International Conference on Education, 1996; NCERD, 2001).

The Role of English in Egypt's Modernization

Over the past four decades, the political leadership of Egypt has been working towards establishing the country's presence in international affairs and in the global economy. Increasing the dialogue with the West as an avenue for development in many fields -- particularly scientific, technical and economic -- is emphasized in Egypt's strategic plans (NCERD, 2001; NSPPER, 2006). This necessitates learning to communicate in foreign languages in general, and places extra value on the English language as it is the lingua franca of commerce, data banks and scientific exchange. Contemporary life and the ongoing change in Egypt's economy (for example, implementing a policy of open economy, invitation of foreign investors, privatization of assets and government sectors, expansion of private sectors and growing competition among businesses), along with other forms of social development and modernization taking place, has made it obvious that individuals who wish to participate in the workforce in Egypt must have at least some command of English. On both the national and individual levels, English is perceived as an essential tool for development and prosperity. This puts forth English language education as an essential channel for achieving this instrumental component of growth and modernization.

The link between knowledge of English and success in the changing Egyptian environment and in the global economic community has resulted in a growing demand for English language proficiency among individuals, sufficient enough to meet the new societal and global market needs (Galal, 2002). Increasing English proficiency among Egyptian citizens has been a major objective for policy makers, educators, economists, as well as parents of school children and individual learners. This situation positions the improvement of English language teaching in Egypt as another 'pillar' (Snow, Omar, & Katz, 2004, p. 309) essential for achieving the goals of national development. Over the past three decades, considerable resources, both human and monetary, have been put forth as part of the reform efforts to increase English proficiency. English is now introduced in elementary school (in Grade 4 in Arabic programs, Grade1 in public language school and starting in Kindergarten in the private sector), communicative language teaching (CLT)

approaches are promoted, the language curriculum and the professional competency of the teaching force within the basic education system nation-wide have been upgraded.

Like China, Japan, Korea and its neighboring Arab states, Egypt is an “Expanding Circle” country (Kachru, 1986) where the use of English is restricted to scientific and business purposes. The promotion of English through the education system and the endorsement of CLT may entail some social and socio-political challenges because the ELT industry in Egypt is dominated by the major English-speaking countries (America, the UK and Australia). It has been noted by Pennycook (1995) and Phillipson (1992) among others that the Western ELT industry constitutes a political activity that linked to some form of linguistic and cultural imperialism. Other researchers (Canagarajah, 2005; Ellis, 1996; McKay, 2002) contend that Western-based models to education such as CLT are not culturally sensitive and hegemonic in their impact (Holliday, 1994, 1996, 1997). They argue that these approaches to teaching assume values and orientations not equally assumed in different parts of the world. Such include emphasis on individualism and self-expression, process rather than product and meaning at the expense of form. Anne Burns’ (2005) discussion of global issues in English language teaching highlights several challenges in connection with CLT identified by teachers located in ‘Expanding Circle’ countries. These issues include the dissonance embedded in the cultural norms and philosophies underpinning curriculum and educational ideals; the mismatch between the syllabus recommended and the public examination systems; students’ resistance to participatory approaches; teachers’ feelings of insecurity with new methods; the substantial redefinition of teachers’ and learners’ traditional roles suggested by CTL approaches, and the lack of relevant local materials and authentic samples of language. These issues in bilingual education have and continue to occur in many parts of the world where English is being promoted such as in China (Hu, 2005; Li, 1998), in Pakistan; (Shamim, 1996); and in Egypt and its neighboring states. In Egypt teacher training in CLT is found to have limited impact on practice because of the teaching conditions (Ginsburg, 2008; 2010), norms and cultures of schools (Holliday, 1994, 1996). More information on the challenges faced by teachers and their views on the implementation of CLT approaches will appear in later chapters.

School Systems: Structure and Types

The general structure of the basic education system in Egypt is illustrated below in Figure 1. It consists of three main levels: a primary stage of 6 years (Grades 1-6), followed by preparatory for three years (Grades 7 to 9), then the secondary stage for 3 years. Secondary school programs (high school) consist of five tracks: the 'general secondary', two technical and two vocational secondary programs. The secondary schools involved in this study are general secondary programs that offer all the regular academic subjects. General secondary education is considered more prestigious than technical education as entry into general programs requires higher scores on achievement tests taken during the preparatory stage (Grades 8 and 9). During the second year of this stage, and based on students' scores in standardized achievement tests, students may proceed into one of three academic streams: humanities; sciences; or mathematics. Successful completion of the third stage (passing three end-of-year national standardized exams) leads to the General Certificate of Secondary Education which is a basic requirement for admission to academic departments at state/national universities.

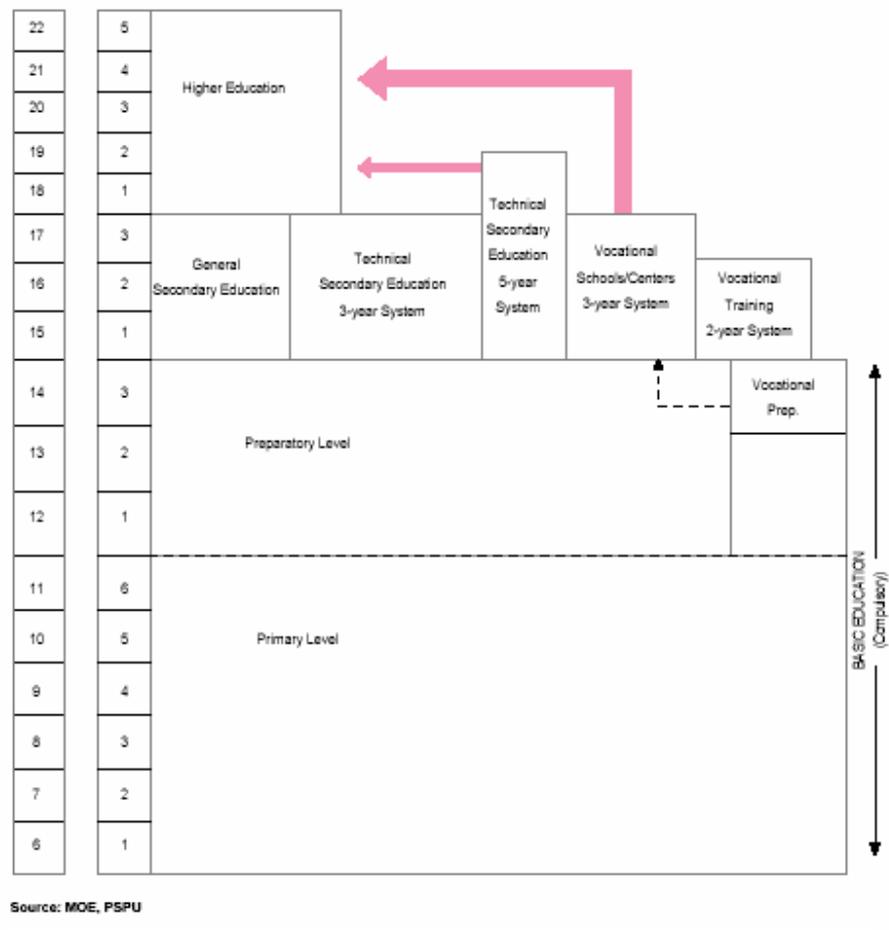


Figure 1. The Egyptian Education System NSPPER (2006).

The system also includes two years of Kindergarten for children 4 to 6 years old. However, this pre-schooling is optional and not considered a part of basic education. For the visually impaired, deaf or children with disabilities, there are several government established vocational preparatory schools that care for this segment of student population.

Education is compulsory only to Grade 9. The school year is approximately 9 months long (38 weeks) with the average number of classes/periods per week being 35 with a duration of 45 minutes each. The education system in Egypt is centralized and all schools must follow this general structure which is determined by the government through its Ministry of Education (MOE). Under this general structure for basic education, both public and private sectors co-exist in Egypt providing different options of school programs.

The Public Sector

Comprises two types of state owned/operated school programs (K-12) -- schools where Arabic is the medium of instruction and experimental language schools. This the public form of education attended by 76.7 % of the student population (UNDP, 2008).

The Public-Arabic Schools

These schools provide the government national curriculum in the Arabic language. English as a foreign language is taught as a core subject at Grade 4 and French is added in the secondary stage. Arabic schools are the most widely attended across the country. Given the high rate of poverty in Egypt, this officially free form of schooling attracts the majority of students most of whom come from lower income families.

Experimental Language Schools

These schools teach the same national curriculum but through the medium of English (for sciences, mathematics and computer). French is also added as a second foreign language starting in the preparatory stage (Grade 7). Unlike the Arabic programs, education in the experimental schools is not totally free. Costs are considered symbolic and affordable (from 40 – 60 USD a year depending on the grade level) to a large segment of society and are comparatively lower than those of the private sector where fees start at 2000 USD for JK/SK levels and increase at every grade level. Thus experimental language schools are affordable for a wide range of families. Compared to Arabic schools, experimental schools are less crowded with better facilities and services. Being semi-private institutions, the public perceives them as a source of better quality education than the traditional Arabic programs.

Egypt's public free system has been running for the past 40 years. In these years the access to education has increased while the quality of education itself has not (Galal, 2002; Ginsburg & Megahed, 2008; Kozma, 2005). Several studies on the Egyptian context (for example, El-Tawila, Lioyed, Bensch, & Wassef, 2000; Galal, 2002; Ginsburg, 2010; Herrera & Torres, 2006; Kozma, 2005; Megahed & Ginsburg, 2002, 2008; NCERD, 1996, 2001; NSPPER, 2006; UNDP, 2008) raised concerns over public schooling in terms of its crowded classes (45 - 60 students and in some areas reaching as high as 70 per classes), the high-stakes test orientation, teachers' commitments to after school private tutoring rather than to classroom teaching, lack of sufficient instructional materials

and poor school facilities. These studies have also related the shortcomings of the public education system to motivational problems with respect to students, parents, teachers and supervisors. Here is an example that characterizes the system: generally parents are not engaged in school affairs (e.g., management and selection of teachers) (Harrira, et al., 2006; NSPPER, 2006) and have no option but to enroll their children in the only available school in the neighborhood. Even when there is choice in school selection, the lack of sufficient information about school ratings makes selection a matter of chance.

Another issue is the important role played by high stakes tests which are the only determiner for entry to university education. These tests often focus students' learning merely on memorizing information to achieve high exam scores. The dominant test-orientation in the system forms a major impediment to school and pedagogical improvements as it reinforces the 'teach to the test' practices (Ginsburg, 2010; Shohamy, 2004). However, given the unemployment crisis in Egypt and the general societal perception that holding a university degree will lead to social and economic prosperity, the majority of students (approximately 80% of the country's student population) and their parents work within the system. To ensure success in standardized tests for their children and make-up for the poor teaching conditions of the public sector, parents resort to hiring private tutors; those parents interested in providing their children with the best learning opportunities support the vast private tutoring market (Galal, 2002; Kozma, 2005). Although the pitfalls of this high stakes exam system is recognized by teachers and policy makers (NSPPER; 2006; 2007) the academic culture of Egyptian schools has long been and tends to continue to be very test-oriented; and students, parents, teachers and school administrators all conform to the prevailing norms of that culture. Ginsburg (2010) contends that for change in instructional approaches to occur in the Egyptian context, there is a need for policy change going beyond the introduction of continuous assessment of student achievement to restructuring the exam system so that teachers, students and parents would be less likely to value styles of teaching involving knowledge transmission and content memorization.

Private tutoring is another major concern and a shadow system that characterizes basic education in Egypt. Several studies investigating the Egyptian context (e.g., Harrira, et al, 2006; Kozma, 2005; Megahed, 2002) indicate that low salaries for teachers and separating their career development from their students' achievement discourages teachers from improving their instructional practices and leads them to become private tutors. Private tutoring tends to be a must

for both parents and teachers in Egypt. For parents wishing to support their children throughout their educational journey it seems to be the only way to compensate for poor conditions in the public system. For teachers, it is observed that their “low salaries constitute a pressure for practicing tutoring as a way to improve their income and provide their own basic needs” (Fawzy, cited in Megahed 2002, p. 19). In Megahed’s (2002) study eliciting perspectives of a group of twelve teachers from public secondary schools on their social and economic status and their ideologies of professionalism, she compares teachers’ government salaries to the income they make from private tutoring pointing out that “ the starting monthly salary for a teacher in the public school.....is LE 120 [\$ 25], which is increased gradually to LE 430 [\$ 85] after twenty years of service” whereas, “in contrast, the monthly income from private tutoring varies between LE 1425 [\$250] to LE 3325 [\$650] depending on the teacher’s reputation and performance.” (p. 19). She also contends that although private tutoring for a fee is forbidden by ministerial law, most teachers in academic secondary schools including her interviewees tutor seven to ten hours after school and feel that the government does not provide a substitute that allows them to provide for their families. Kozma’s (2005) review of economic and educational reforms in Egypt draws attention to the link between low teachers’ salaries and their reliance on income derived from private tutoring at the expense of quality instruction schools. Kosma points out that private tutoring has made the notion of free education a false entitlement in Egypt.

The lack of good quality public education and low teacher remuneration has led to an ever growing market of private tutoring. According to the five-year national strategic plan (NSPPER, 2006), “an estimated 50 percent of basic education and up to 80 percent of general secondary students receive private tutoring.” (p. 46). Although the practice of hiring a tutor was originally intended to support a student during a challenging course and over a short period of time, it has become an integral part of many students' education rather than a remedial activity. Families often hire tutors for the entire year and for as many courses (subject areas) as they can afford. Although private tutoring is officially forbidden, it has been reported as such “a widespread phenomenon that the sum spent on them by Egyptian families has almost become equivalent to the state budget for education (19 billion Egyptian pounds)” (Saad, 2006, p. 95) (over \$3 billion US).

Like teachers, supervisors too are poorly paid, their career achievements are not measurable and their performance, good or bad, is difficult to assess (El-Tawila et al’s, 2000; Galal, 2002; NSPPER, 2006). The National Strategic Plan for Pre-university Education Reform for the academic

years 2007/2008- 2011/2012 attributes the overall poor school performance within the education system to its lack of efficient monitoring that regulates and improves the educational process. This is caused by the centralization of supervision and authority by the ministry of education. These factors, in addition to others both inside and outside the educational system, namely: “the low economic return on investment that characterizes the educational system...traditional pedagogy; ...the learning and teaching methods as well as assessment; ...and the low level of teacher performance” (NSPPER, 2006, p. 47) have had a major impact on shaping the public education system. In this context, the private education sector described in the next section constitutes an alternative educational system for parents who can afford to meet the financial demands of private education.

The Private Sector

In the private sector, there are four main types of private school programs: Arabic, Religious, Language (English, French or German), and International schools. The private system was initiated in the early 1990s, as a way of addressing the pitfalls of the public system and taking the load off government schools. The Ministry of Education opened doors for the private sector to work side by side in providing better quality education to the citizens of Egypt. Due to the difficult public schooling conditions, the private sector has rapidly grown over the past two decades. Apart from the tuition-free Al-Azhar Institutes, schools of this sector function as private business oriented institutions and offer educational services at a high cost. The costs are justified by the provision of an educational alternative and higher quality services than those in the government sector with better facilities, increased hygiene, smaller class size, modernity of curriculum, emphasis on desired foreign languages, use of technology and modern materials, cutting edge pedagogy, increased communication with parents with better follow- up on issues, and the provision of transportation services. The growing need for English education in Egypt has served to maintain a demand for these schools despite their high cost.

Private Arabic Schools

These schools are similar to the public Arabic programs in terms of subjects and curriculum, but they are privately owned and pay more attention to students' individual needs and the school facilities.

Religious Schools

A system runs in parallel with the Arabic public education system and is known as Al-Azhar Institutes. This system functions independently from the MOE and is overseen by the Supreme Council of the Al-Azhar Institution. It provides most of the curriculum of ordinary schools but focuses more on religious subjects.

Private National Language Schools

Private national language schools are also referred to as simply ‘national’ or ‘language’ schools. These schools teach most of the government curriculum in English and add French or German as a second foreign language at Grade 3. Some schools use French or German as their main medium of instruction. These schools often have better facilities but their fees are high and not affordable for many middle-class families.

International Schools

These schools are privately established but regulated by international agreements between Egypt and interested countries. They offer additional educational programs along with the national curriculum such as the American High School Diploma, the British IGCSE system (International General Certificate in Secondary Education), the French Baccalaureate, the German Abitur and the International Baccalaureate. These schools follow different educational measures with higher standards. They are typically advertised as providing by better quality education, superior services (staffing and equipment) and school facilities. However, compared to the general curriculum, this system is criticized for providing less depth and breadth of instructional content. Therefore some Egyptian universities require higher grades than normally accepted for enrollment or an additional high school certificate (for example, SAT completion). International schooling is the most expensive form of education and it constitutes an additional option of education for interested parents and students of the upper socio-economic class as only a small segment of society can afford this type of education.

A UNDP (2008) report on the educational progress and enrollment rates in Egypt shows that 73.7% of school-age students are enrolled in public schools, 19.8% in Al-Azhar institutions, and 6.5% in the other private schools. In this study exploring the phenomenon of change in English

language teaching across sectors, approximately 50% of the data is from the public sector while the other half is from the national and international school systems in the private sector.

Trends in English Language Teaching Across Sectors

Generally speaking, the Egyptian basic education field is a three-language context. Most school children speak Arabic as their first language, English as second and French or German are their third or foreign language typically introduced later. Arabic is the mother-tongue and taught as a core subject at all levels (K-12). Although Arabic constitutes the medium of instruction for most subjects in the public school system and for some subjects in the private sector (for example in Islamic and social studies classes) teaching Arabic is not emphasized across subjects and curricular content. Most students would have acquired English (formally or informally) to varying degrees depending on their grade level and social and socio-economic backgrounds. English is compulsory across all school systems, however, the practices of teaching the language differ across sectors and are largely shaped by the context in which they take place. In this section I focus on the apparent differences in teaching approaches between the public and private sectors.

In the public system, English is taught through traditional teacher-centered approaches. Instructional practices are structurally-oriented focusing on developing knowledge about language forms rather than building competency and fluency in language use. English is taught through discrete grammar points and drilling in pattern repetition. Classes are crowded (45-70 students), and that obviously constrains a range of interactive or communicative options in language teaching. The common dependence on private tutoring among teachers and students decreases the perceived value of time spent in class and the benefits derived from the teaching or learning activities (Galal, 2002; Kozma, 2005). The standardized high stakes tests at the different grade levels encourage teaching to the test and reinforces the need for rote learning and memorization of subject content. The teaching of subjects such as mathematics or science through the medium of English seems to follow the same approach. There is also heavy reliance on the ministry assigned textbooks which often form the syllabus taught. Classes are teacher-led and conducted mostly in English. This approach generally leads to low levels of English proficiency and high levels of student dissatisfaction. This system has not produced proficient speakers of English, especially for the global market demands and the goals set by the ministry's national strategic plans (NSPPER, 2006; Snow et al., 2004). Most of the studies

reviewed in this chapter attribute the poor quality of language learning to teachers' inability to implement communicative language teaching methods. Low proficiency levels in English among teachers are also mentioned because teachers in this sector are not able to model proficient and effective use of English.

Despite the many large scale MOE initiatives to change language pedagogy in the Egyptian context, most classrooms and schools remain unchanged (Ginsburg, 2008; 2010) and evidence of improvement is still limited (World Bank, 2007). For example, with respect to adopting communicative language teaching approaches as a way of improving the English language teaching practices, Gahin and Myhill (2002) point to a number of impeding obstacles including social-psychological factors such as people's attitudes and their deeply rooted traditional beliefs about teaching and learning; economic factors including the lack of sufficient funds, resources, and materials; educational factors such as system imposed regulations, curriculum issues related to goals, content and assessment, teacher preparation/competencies, and the entrenched views on what constitutes appropriate language teaching and learning; and environmental and physical settings such as room conditions, class size, etc.). They explain that even in the best language teaching scenarios (as in some private schools), controlling for all of these factors is a difficult task to achieve.

In the private sector, English language teaching is characterized by the use of modern textbooks and materials, up-to-date technology, better school facilities and classroom conditions, and more importantly, foreign /native English speaking teachers' or locals with higher fluency in English (that is native or near-native fluency in English). The two features that seem to stand out in the private schooling business and distinguish it from the public education system are the use of communicative student-centered approaches to teaching and native or near-native English speaking teachers who can model the use of language effectively. These two features explain the increasing popularity of the private sector. While private sector teachers are usually proficient enough to be able to teach through the medium of English, they often know little about education and pedagogy. Also, since private schools are mainly business oriented institutions owned and run by individuals who may have come from professions outside education, school policies and administrative decisions may demonstrate an imbalance prioritizing/supporting issues of profits/finance over others of academics and professionalism. Most private schools emphasize the luxury and vast resources available to teachers and students.

The MOE and various program accreditation bodies do monitor some aspects of practice in the private sector (for example, printed materials used, legal status of teaching staff and school improvement plans), but there is a lack of information regarding school ratings as there are no established criteria or a comprehensive system to evaluate the efficiency of the private programs. According to the five-year National Strategic Plan for Pre-University Education Reform (2006) and NECTR (2001), the MOE has been taking several steps to enhance the educational services of both the public and private sectors. Through various reform projects, it has focused on increasing the number of school facilities, developing new language curriculum guidelines, presenting new materials, technology, re-considering the practices of teacher preparation and providing the public sector teachers with extended opportunities for training and development as described in the following sections.

The Teaching Force: Teacher Education and Professionalism

Being a professional educator may mean something different in every context (Burns & Richards, 2009). In Egypt, as is common in many countries, there is no official system to certify teachers (NSPPER, 2006). In the public sector, there are two main avenues for training teachers for English language teaching positions. The first involves the completion of a 4-year program at a faculty of Arts and Education leading to a BA in English. The second route is for holders of university degrees in other disciplines and involves the completion of an additional one-year preparation program offered at an education faculty and leading to a general diploma in education. These two routes to teaching English offer a number of courses that provide participants with an educational knowledge-base and help them develop subject-specific pedagogical skills. Graduates with an education degree are sometimes recruited to teach their subject of specialization through the medium of English. Traditionally the MOE had been committed to appointing all education graduates. However, since the early 1990s, it has refrained from doing so due to an over-saturation in the teaching profession and increasing numbers of new graduates.

To further support the professionalization of the government sector teaching force, the Egyptian MOE is actively involved in the PD of its teachers. The MOE has identified the lack of adequate skills in English language amongst its teachers as well as the use of traditional teaching approaches with little integration of technology as the main problems in this sector (El-Tawila et al,

2000; Galal, 2002; NCERD, 1996; 2001; NSPPER, 2006; Salamah, 2004). Focusing on these areas, teachers participate in a range of mandatory MOE organized PD activities such as training workshops, seminars, courses, school-based PD activities as well as overseas training programs. In the next section I explain these structures in more details.

In the private sector, the situation with English teachers and their qualifications is quite different. Private language and international schools often require that their teachers have an excellent command of English, up-to date pedagogical skills as well as knowledge of and exposure to the foreign culture. However, the commercialization of language education in this sector, and the shortage of qualified teachers with native or native-like proficiency in English have led school owners/principals to exercise flexibility in their hiring criteria in ways that best serve their businesses. This means that in the hiring processes, 'nativeness' or fluency in English is often prioritized over knowledge of pedagogy. Teachers in this sector represent a mix of educational, cultural and professional backgrounds. They may be locals with different experiences and qualifications, expatriate native speakers of English with varying educational degrees, returning locals, etc., and may or may not have educational qualifications. Importantly, they are either native-English speaking individuals or locals who look or sound like them.

In the private sector, policies for the PD of teachers differ from one school to another depending on the owner's vision. Private school teachers resort to various PD programs/activities in and out of school as a way of upgrading their skills and keeping abreast with the global field developments. These teachers also pursue further certification and accreditation to make themselves more marketable and justify their premium salaries.

As it is the case in many world contexts, the increasing demand for better English language learning and the rapidly growing market for private education has resulted in a need for more competent teachers who can teach effectively, satisfy their societal and institutional requirements while successfully addressing individual and contextual challenges for improved language teaching (Braine, 1999; Burns, 2005; Wallace, 1998). This situation in Egypt led to the birth of a new industry in the field of language education, namely career development and training programs for teaching English. In the next section, I describe the array of PD structures and teacher support services available in Cairo.

The Professional Development Industry

Forms and Approaches

Considerable efforts have been expended in Egypt to improve English language teaching (Ginsburg, 2008; 2010, 2011; Holliday, 1991, 1994, 1996; Snow et al., 2004; Warschauer, 2003). Since the 1970s and the start of the reform movement, the Egyptian Ministry of Education -- supported by international aid agencies such as The World Bank, The British ODA (Overseas Development Administration), The European Union, and The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) -- have directed tremendous efforts to teacher education (Kozma, 2005; NSPPER, 2006). They have collaborated with several national and international higher education institutes, training centers, research institutes and with specialists from the field of TESOL to raise teachers' efficacy, improve language education, and provide teachers with the necessary support through varied PD opportunities.

The major teacher training organization in Egypt has been USAID which permeates many of the available PD structures and targets the largest segment of the teaching force, namely the public sector teachers and educators. Among the agency's largest funded projects was the Integrated English Language Program II (IELP II), initiated in the late 1980s and lasting for more than two decades. The program focused on language pedagogy, curriculum and material development, use of technology (CALL), and management of English language education and training programs. It served in three main sectors: The MOE, faculties of education at Egyptian universities, as well as English for specific purposes and English for occupational purposes programs. Through a cascade (training-of-trainers) approach it trained local educators and emphasized assistance programs so as to increase the capacity of national educational institutions. The development effort was also directed toward reforming the Egyptian faculties of education and curriculum innovation in initial teacher education (Ginsburg & Megahed, 2011; Holliday, 1994, 1996); the integration of technology (CALL) in English language teaching and teacher education programs (Warschauer, 2002; 2003); the promotion of active learning pedagogy throughout basic education (Ginsburg & Megahed, 2008; Ginsburg, 2010; World Bank 2007); and the provision of varied PD activities including courses, distance learning, workshops, school-based training and training missions abroad (Ginsburg, 2010; NCERD, 2001; NSPPER, 2006).

There are numerous other PD providers in Egypt working alongside the NGOs. These include: local national and foreign universities, colleges, and research institutes; professional organizations such as TESOL Egypt; international cultural-educational organizations; local private training centers; international book publishers; local consultants; and individual private professional development providers. These varied PD providers operate on different levels and target different clients in the field (e.g., teachers, administrators, or teacher educators in the public or private sectors).

Universities and language institutes: In Cairo, as in other contexts, colleges and universities are common providers of PD where hundreds of working teachers annually enroll in additional certification programs (NESSPR, 2006). They offer afternoon, evening and summer courses to accommodate the needs of working teachers. The pursuit of a more advanced degree is common. Higher education institutes in Cairo also cater to the needs of those who might already have higher teaching certifications or do not wish to do so, by offering non-degree courses for teachers to update particular skills and knowledge. Numerous language institutes, both local and foreign provide training programs that vary in form (courses or workshops), goals (language and/or skill focused), content (pedagogical activities such as lecturing, discussions, micro-teaching or job shadowing experienced teachers), and length (short-intensive or long term courses). These lead to various types of certificates. Some examples include: The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and the Preliminary Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults (PCTEFL) offered at The American University Cairo (AUC); the Certificate in English language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) offered by the British Council and numerous other TESL certifications offered by private and local institutions. Various universities and colleges in Cairo also organize professional forums and weekly seminars for teachers, educators and graduate students on a variety of pedagogical topics. Some also coordinate with the national broadcasting company to use a television channel to model desired teaching practices.

International cultural education organizations: There are several international cultural education organizations in Cairo including the AMIDEAST and the British Council, which are sources of a variety of opportunities such as access to research, resources and services that might be uneasy for teachers to obtain on their own. They organize in-service sessions for teachers and teacher trainers as well as provide access to information systems, materials and practical information

to help teachers and schools meet state requirements. They also facilitate teacher networking and partnerships by providing opportunities for collaboration and sharing expertise.

School-based structures: Teachers in both the public and private sectors work with their supervisors, mentors and colleagues to meet the standards of practice in their contexts. In the public system, the ‘training unit’ is a school-based PD structure that functions as a channel through which the MOE implements and monitors their vision for school-based training for change. This unit includes a number of senior teachers, department heads as well as the school principal and is responsible for receiving and implementing orders from school authorities related to the development of a new skill or the implementation of a new teaching strategy micro-teaching, peer coaching/observation, or lesson study. Such activities are facilitated, supervised and reported on by the school-level training unit. At the board level, public teachers also participate periodically in ‘Advisory Board’ PD activities such as workshops on curriculum and teaching methods. Teachers also have PD opportunities as they can work on a one-to-one basis with their assigned board advisors through routine classroom observation/feedback sessions.

Conferences and seminars: On another level, teachers participate in district and/or province-wide PD activities often provided through 1-3 day conference workshops and seminars. Most of these are facilitated through partnership between national and international organizing institutions and with different providers working in-and-out –of Cairo.

Overseas training programs: These programs involve a 3-month in-service institute in an English speaking country such as the US, UK or Ireland. These programs are confined to government teachers only and organized by the Egyptian MOE and international bodies.

Professional organizations: Through their membership in TESOL Egypt, teachers can gain access to a variety of services and events including conferences, lectures, presentations and workshops given by teachers and experts, publisher’s book displays, professional publications, videos, and computer software.

Textbooks providers: Their services constitute new and effective avenues of PD for language teachers particularly in the private sector where teachers are in more immediate contact with book providers and have access to a wider variety of instructional materials. As the MOE is upgrading curriculum, introducing modern textbooks within its sector and allowing the use of alternative materials in the private sector, the textbook market with a PD component included in sales packages

is growing. Teaching resource companies provide a variety of PD services in the field of language teaching including workshops, consultations, and other customized support to encourage and assist teachers in using new instructional materials.

Local private training centers and individual consultants: These centers and consultants cater mainly to private schools. Their services include workshops, consultations and mentoring services. They are also sometimes called upon to help with particular school issues. Their work also varies from a one-time consultation to routine weekly monthly supervisory visits.

The Impact of Professional Development Structures

Several studies have assessed the impact of the reform initiatives and PD structures available in Cairo (for example, Ginsburg & Megahed, 2008, 2011; Ginsburg, 2008; Holliday, 1997; Kemhi-Stein, 1997;1998; NSPPER, 2006; Salamah, 2003; Warschauer, 2002,2003; World Bank, 2007). Most of these studies indicate that despite the considerable resources being deployed in Egypt to respond to the need to enhance pedagogy, the impact of most initiatives is not significant. For example, focusing on CALL projects, Warschauer (2002, 2003) found that several initiatives in the area of technology proved limited in their impact, reaching only a small percentage of Egyptian teachers and failing to achieve full integration in the Egyptian educational institutions. Warschauer attributed the lack of success to the reform policies and the differing priorities and agendas of both the funder/donor and the recipients. Similar conclusions appeared in the work of Holliday (1994 and 1997), Salamah (2004) and more recently Ginsburg and Megahed (2011) on other projects aimed at reforming faculties of education and introducing curriculum innovation in teacher education programs.

Holliday's (1996, 1994, 1992) work with local instructors aimed at improving ELT in some Egyptian universities highlighted issues of resistance to innovation (adopting more student-centered teaching approaches) on the part of local university instructors. He described the results of much of this work as cases of "tissue rejection" (1992, p. 403) caused by the cultural insensitivity of content and approaches of the change initiatives implemented by foreign innovators. In a more recent study on the impact of reform on teacher preparation programs Ginsburg and Mehaged (2011) found that since the country's liberation in 1952, the major educational institutions in Cairo (e.g., faculties of education at Ain Shams and Cairo universities) still maintained the same structure and orientation to education. The authors contend that these institutions were criticized by the media, parents and

academics for producing teachers with unsatisfactory professional standards. The media pointed out that despite the reform movements of the 1980s, 1990s not much change can be seen. According to the authors, even the more recent reform initiatives of 2002 funded by USAID and World Bank did not achieve the goals intended due to the lack of sufficient coordination between the funding organization and the bureaucratic nature of the Egyptian MOE and local institutions.

Ginsburg (2010) and Ginsburg and Megahed (2008) explored teachers' understanding and implementation of active-learning pedagogy after having participated in numerous mandated workshops and school-based PD activities geared at changing teachers' instructional practices from the traditional teacher-centered to student-centered approaches. In their study, which is based on data from teacher self-reports, classroom observations, project documents and statistical databases, they found that teachers who participated in training workshops were able, with varying degrees of depth, to articulate the rationale and strategies of active-learning while exhibiting modest movement over time towards implementing student-centered practices in their classrooms. However, in both studies they contend that the outcomes of the training programs were limited and teachers' ability to implement the desired change was constrained by challenges such as having to work in a high-stakes test environment, poor teaching conditions (large class size and lack of relevant instructional materials) and the absence of incentives.

Another USAID efforts initiated to increase the number of qualified teachers in both the public and private sectors was the 'Phroes's Project' (Snow, et al., 2004) in the early 2000s which was aimed at establishing standards for English language teachers, in-service teacher educators, educational leaders, and in-service training courses. Through collaboration with local experts and educators by 2003 a comprehensive set of English language education standards were developed comprising seven broad domains for the practice of teaching including: "Vision and Advocacy; Language Proficiency; Professional Knowledge Base; Planning and Management of Learning; Assessment and Evaluation; Learning Community and Environment; and Professionalism" (Snow et al., 2004, p. 312). This work was later used by the National Committee on Standards who further developed it for the ministry's use to supplement other work within the Egyptian context, focusing on standards for prospective teachers of English in pre-service programs. Important to this project is the fact that the standards provide a road map for English language teachers as they progress through their professional journeys. It also suggests a vision for PD throughout teachers' careers and the need to upgrade the status of teachers. Unfortunately, according to a recent situation analysis of the

education sector performance (NSPPER, 2007-2012), the use of standards to monitor, evaluate, and improve teacher's performance is not yet widespread despite the fact that they were developed and released as part of the National Standards of Education.

From teachers' perspectives, Megahed (2002) examined the impact of school reform initiatives (i.e., reaching teachers through their school training-units, workshops, etc.) on their work and their students' lives. In another study (2008) she explored the views a group of teachers and school administrators with respect to the school-based training they received to promote and raise awareness of the implementation of standards in their schools. In Megahed's 2002 study the majority of teacher participants strongly argued that change initiatives would not result in any improvement as long as they not address the status of teachers and the quality of their work life. The teachers in her 2008 research expressed similar views and described the reform efforts as rhetorical movements and the culture of standards as "posters, papers, words on paper, but nothing...implemented" (Megahed, 2008, p. 14). Megahed identified the main reasons for such teacher perceptions as being: the lack of action towards improving school conditions or 'infrastructure'; the persistence of bureaucratic centralized management system; and the lack of reward systems and incentives for teachers. Her findings confirm those of Abdo's (2001) study examining teacher incentives in the Middle East and North Africa. In this study the teacher participants identified similar factors as discouraging and impeding change.

Throughout many of the studies reviewed above, similar themes tend to appear and re-appear as factors affecting teachers' perceptions, practices, and the impact of change initiatives. Collectively, they paint a picture with more challenges than promises in Egypt. Yet, after three decades of reform movements "targeting factors on the teaching-learning process in the Egyptian schools, there is not much evidence of...impact on pedagogical practices." (World Bank, 2007, p. 47)

The situation in Egypt is no surprise. The educational reform policy there is based on a top-down approach to change that aims at altering the goals, content, delivery and outcome of education. Major decisions on national curricula, exams, and teacher education are made at the top-level of the Egyptian hierarchal system and represented by macro-structures. Typically, as Johnson (2009) puts it,

proposed change as such is assumed to trickle down to teachers through teaching materials and in-service activities gradually ending up as new ways of teaching and learning...this approach to educational reform rarely has the wide-spread impact that policy makers expect. (p. 80)

The present work takes us into a journey exploring teachers' perceptions of the sources of PD and avenues to PD described above. Given their busy lives, societal demands and contextual norms, the findings shed light on the factors that influence teachers' decisions to take advantage of the opportunities available to them in order to upgrade their knowledge and skills, stay abreast of curricular innovations and/or address their changing professional needs.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

Teacher Professional Development: Sources and Avenues of Change

Introduction

Having presented a picture of the educational context and the sources and avenues of PD available for teachers in the Egyptian context, in this chapter I review the topic of teacher professional development and change. In doing this, I draw on literature from the general field of teacher education (TE), second language teacher education, and educational change. My discussion focuses on three main topics relevant to the questions addressed in this study: the different concepts of teacher professional development, current and historical models of teacher learning, and the factors that contribute to success in teachers' PD pursuits. I first define the concept of PD that I use throughout the present work and then introduce and discuss other meanings adopted in the field. I elaborate on how our understanding of PD has changed over time, explaining the implications for teachers and educators. Next, I present an overview of the avenues and pursuits taken by teachers towards professional development and change. Finally, since this study is mainly about teachers, I bring to the discussion the principles of effective professional development focusing on the significance of teacher centrality to the success of PD prospects and drawing attention to the role of reflectivity and collaboration as mechanisms for improvement and change.

Terms and Definitions

Several terms of overlapping concepts are used alternatively in the TE literature to refer to the professional development of working teachers. 'Teacher education' and 'teacher development' are the two comprehensive terms encompassing various phases of teacher development and professional learning -- from pre-career and initial preparation to continuing and in-service teacher education, extending to higher education in teaching-related fields. However, unless precisely defined, they tend to be general catch-all terms referring to various continuing professional development and training opportunities. The main distinction made in the literature is one between 'teacher training' and 'teacher education', where the first refers to approaches that familiarize

teachers with classroom techniques and skills to apply in their teaching. The second characterizes approaches “that involve teachers in developing theories of teaching, understanding the nature of teacher decision making, and strategies for critical self-awareness and self-evaluation” (Richards & Nunan, 1990, p. xi). That is, ‘teacher training’ implies the acquisition of practical skills whereas ‘teacher education’ has an added intellectual component, namely, the acquisition of knowledge.

Recently, the term ‘teacher training’ connotes a technical view of teaching and a deficit model of teacher learning in which teachers passively receive knowledge they lack from an outside expert (Richards, 2008). However, the boundaries between these conceptions may not be similarly drawn by practitioners in various contexts around the world, particularly in settings outside of North America. The notion of training rather than education seems prevalent in many countries where teachers undergo career development programs in response to school or external mandates. In Cairo, the concept of ‘teacher education’ refers to the pre-service academic preparation of teachers. ‘Teacher training’ -- although an element included in teacher preparation programs -- refers to the extended learning opportunities in which working teachers attempt to improve current practices (for example, participating in workshops, obtaining additional certificates, pursuing further studies, or taking part in school-based PD activities, etc.). In this study I use the terms, ‘teacher professional development’ and ‘teacher training’ interchangeably when referring to the various professional learning opportunities in-service teachers undertake.

It is important to understand the range of meanings of ‘teacher professional development’. While this term is often used by researchers and educators to refer to teaching professionals becoming involved in a variety of activities to enhance their own development as professionals we must be reminded that teacher professional development means different things in different places (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009). What constitutes recognized sources for professional learning in one context may not be recognized in another. For example, while the textbooks or teacher guides used regularly at schools are not recognized in the North American context as a legitimate source for PD, in some EFL settings teachers and institutions depend on them as sources of PD and input on practice (Richards, 1998).

Similarly, we must be aware that the skills and qualifications required for teachers vary a great deal from one context to another -- particularly in the field of English language education. According to Barduhn and Johnson, while a Bachelors degree is among the highest qualifications

required for teaching around the world, English proficiency or the completion of a short certificate program may be all that is required. In Egypt many different qualifications are acceptable with teachers holding PhDs at one end of a continuum and no certification at all on the other. Such situations are challenging, particularly when it comes to providing appropriate PD for English teachers.

Professional Development in a Shifting Field

In the past, in-service teacher education focused more on the ‘education’ rather than the ‘teacher’, emphasized the scientific ‘method’ or ‘scientific certainties’ as opposed to ‘situated certainties’, valued the outsider-expert knowledge at the expense of teachers’ beliefs and practical knowledge and offered one-size-fits-all knowledge *about teaching* rather than context-specific knowledge *of teaching* (Hargreaves, 1994, 2010). The traditional transmission models have long marginalized the teacher’s role in the development process and offered teachers sets of disconnected and de-contextualized experiences that do little to help teachers improve their practices or generate new knowledge. As reported in the literature, those models of PD have proved ineffective in addressing the learning requirements of today’s world of higher educational expectations and ambitious reforms. According to Guskey (2003), Fullan (2010) and Hargreaves (1994, 2010), conventional PD initiatives had often failed to achieve improvement and change due to a mismatch or a lack of *connective tissue* (Holliday, 1994) between the teacher on the one hand and the content and goals of PD efforts on the other.

Over the past 40 years, profound changes occurred in the theoretical conceptions on teacher learning (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009, 2008; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Schon, 1983; Schulman, 1987; Vygotsky, 1978). These led to new definitions on what constitutes professional development. Moving from an era of ‘the craft mode’ (Wallace, 1995) -- where the professionalization of teachers involved them in the observation and imitation of the trainer, receiving knowledge in the form of skills and strategies proven effective in another context to implement it in theirs -- it is now seen as a process of socializing teachers into the professional thinking and practices of their work communities (Johnson, 2009; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Singh & Richards, 2008; Tsui, 2003, 2009). The field has been shifting from a positivist position where the focus is on ‘the method’ to a ‘post-method’ stand (Johnson, 2008; Kumaravadivelu, 2001) where the

activity of teaching is understood in its specific context and on its own terms. As a result, TE and PD are no longer about assisting teachers to master a 'method' or a set of practices that were proved effective in particular contexts but rather, about assisting teachers to become active users and producers of knowledge and theory appropriate for their own use in their specific instructional contexts.

Professional Development in a New Light

Although in the minds of many people, in-service professional development is often associated with particular activities such as courses, workshops, in-service work days, and working under supervision to improve professional practice or gain tenure, the notion of professional development has extended much beyond this typical traditional image. Selected from the TE literature, the following conceptions illustrate how teachers' professional learning and growth is currently conceptualized:

For Lange (1990), teacher professional development is: "a process of continual intellectual, experiential and attitudinal growth of teachers" (p. 250). Adding a dimension of planning to the concept, Blandford (2000, p. 6) defines it as the "planned activities practiced both within and outside schools primarily to develop the professional knowledge skills, attitudes and performance of professional staff in schools." Agreeing with the conceptions above, yet linking them to the ultimate goal of better student learning, James (2001, p. 2) describes teacher professional development as the range of means, experiences and activities geared to "helping practicing teachers to develop their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes, in order to educate their learners more effectively." Diaz-Maggioli (2003, p. 1) sees professional development as: "an ongoing learning process in which teachers engage voluntarily to learn how best to adjust their teaching to the learning needs of their students." Diaz-Maggioli further contends that it "is not a one-shot, one-size-fits-all event, but rather an evolving process of professional self-disclosure, reflection, and growth that yields the best results when sustained over time and in communities of practice and when focused on job-embedded responsibilities" (p. 1-2). To Feiman-Nemser (2001), PD refers to two aspects. First is "the actual learning opportunities in which teachers engage, in their time and place, content and pedagogy, sponsorship and purpose; and the learning that occurs from participating in such activities", Second is the "transformations in teachers' knowledge, understandings, skills and commitments in what they do and what they are able to do in their individual practice as well as their shared responsibilities"

(p. 1038). Emphasizing the view that teachers are constructors of knowledge and building upon the value of collaborative culture in teacher learning, Thompson and Zeuli (1999) add another layer of meaning to PD by linking teachers' learning to the collective development of the profession as whole, defining PD as "learning by widening circles of teachers, so that it is not only these teachers' knowledge but the whole profession that develops" (p. 367). Fullan (1995) contends that PD involves "learning how to bring about ongoing improvements" (p. 255) and Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) argue that the ultimate goal of PD is to help teachers "become adaptive experts" (p. 359) who are to balance efficiency and innovation.

These conceptions speak to the new paradigm of teacher education where PD is about teachers learning teaching (Johnson, 2009) and PD is conceived of as a process, dynamic in nature, nurtured by school-based experience, continual over time, involving growth on the intellectual, attitudinal, and performance/skill levels. It is individually based yet socially negotiated and contextualized in nature. According to these conceptions, or perhaps ideally, PD is no longer limited to the conventional mandated practice that often involves teachers attending full or half-day sessions delivered by outside experts who report on the latest research findings and suggest new classroom techniques for teachers to implement. As well, it is not confined to a university course in which teachers participate in order to renew their certification. The new paradigm of PD rather focuses on "structures that allow for self-directed, collaborative, inquiry-based learning that is directly relevant to teachers' classrooms" (Johnson, 2009, p. 25) and which takes place within teachers' workdays and through their formal and informal social professional network. Action research (Burns, 1999, 2009), Cooperative development approaches (Edge, 1992, 2002, 2008) and Narrative inquiry (Ball, 2002; Golombek, 2009; Johnson & Golombek, 2002, 2004) are examples of these structures. Thus, the forms and structures of what constitutes PD have currently changed. The literature on teacher education and professional development (for example, Burns & Richards, 2008; Darling-Hammond & Bransford; 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994, 2010; Johnson, 2009) mentions a wide range of formats, processes and organizational arrangements for PD in this new light.

Having presented PD in this light, the question here is to what extent is the new vision of PD experienced by teachers across contexts. It must be stressed that the type of PD teachers opt for as well as what benefits they derive are often determined by several social, professional and personal factors including the nature of the professional experience, the context in which it takes place, and

the intrinsic and/or extrinsic motivation involved in the process (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001; Bailey, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009). For example, in the context of the present study, some PD options are readily available while others are not; some are theoretically and practically recognized and institutionally afforded but others are not. In the following section, I explore the various PD options generally pursued in the field of in-service teacher education. As the study unfolds, the applicability of these options to the teachers involved in this study context are discussed.

Avenues and Pursuits of Teacher Professional Development

Professional development is implemented through a wide range of avenues and activities where language teachers individually or collaboratively are involved in processes/work that enrich their professional knowledge and skills. The list of activities teachers could engage in to enhance their knowledge and practices is endless. These include pursuing further studies in their subject fields, participating in seminars, experimenting with their own teaching practices, following guidelines from course books, collaborating with others in joint work, reading or being engaged in self awareness and reflective practices. The level of complexity of PD activities also varies -- from as simple and informal as engaging in a professional conversation with colleagues or reading an article on a topic of interest -- to more formal PD activities such as attending a course, presenting at a conference or participating in development projects. In this section, I use Sparks and Loucks-Horsley's (2003) five models of teacher development to provide a holistic picture rather than a list of the various PD activities that language teachers can pursue in the field. According to Sparks and Loucks-Horsley, most PD activities fall into five models or categories:

1. individually guided staff development,
2. observation/assessment,
3. involvement in a development/improvement process,
4. training, and
5. inquiry. (p. 291)

Each model is explained in the following sections.

Individually Guided Model

This model refers to the processes where teachers, individually or collaboratively, plan for and pursue activities that they believe will promote their professional learning and growth. It is based on the premise that adults can direct and monitor their own learning as they can best judge and determine their needs (Knowles, 1980). Activities within this model can take any form: reading professional publications, observing lessons, working with peers and supervisors, as well as setting a goal and finding ways to achieve it. Teachers might also engage in complex activities such as participating in a school-based project or funded professional development venture. According to Sparks and Horsley (2003), the key characteristic here is that activities are chosen, designed and carried out by teachers on their own without a formal organizing body. However, external PD programs may actively support such teacher initiatives. Ideally, as teachers employ activities of this model, they go through gradual phases of identifying a need/issue or setting a goal for themselves, followed by finding a plan to address the issue(s), undertaking a particular activity or implementing the plan, then finally assessing their achievement and learning so as to act upon it. Activities within this model can be undertaken either informally or almost unconsciously, or formally as when teachers participate in action research. This model accounts for the centrality of the teacher to his/her development process, principles of adult learning (Kidd, 1973; Knowles, 1980) as well as the stage-related needs of teachers across their career time (Huberman, 1989, 1995). It fosters reflectivity and collaboration among teachers as mechanisms for development and change. Thus it is widely supported in the literature on TE, particularly by proponents of inquiry-based approaches to professional development (for example: Burns, 1999, 2008; Johnson, 2009).

Observation / Assessment

Practices of this model often take the form of peer observation, self-observation, peer coaching and clinical supervision as well teacher evaluation procedures. Although in the minds of many, this model is associated with evaluation and judgment, it is a powerful development approach (Randall & Thornton, 2005) as it provokes thought and reflection on action (Schon, 1983, 1987; Wallace, 1998, 1999). Randall and Thornton (2005) suggest that this model is better seen as ‘observation/feedback’ or ‘input/feedback’ procedures, which are processes that form the basis for learning. They contend that activities within this model are known to nurture the teacher learning process as they tend to provide teachers with opportunities or ‘mediational space’ (Johnson, 2009)

for engaging in in-depth systematic reflections, examinations and reconstruction of their teaching practices and their students' learning. From another perspective, Johnson adds that participating in observation/assessment practices supports teachers in creating/expanding their social professional networks and perceiving their own classrooms as powerful sites for professional learning.

Peer Coaching

These programs are one example of this practice model where teachers observe one another, and provide feedback and assistance to each other. It is a process that focuses on the mechanism for teachers' professional growth.

Two types of peer coaching are often reported in the literature, 'technical coaching' (Joyce & Showers, 1995) and 'collegial coaching' (Garmston, Linder, & Whitaker, 1993). In the first, teachers support each other in implementing instructional innovations. They focus their discussion during the phases of the process (pre-conference, observation, and post-conference) only to the extent to which the instructional change is implemented. In collegial coaching, teachers identify an issue of concern to them, examine it and then experiment with alternatives. In both types of peer coaching, the goal of the observation is determined in advance, shared and discussed during the pre-conference phase, then recorded during the observation, and further discussed in light of the observation in a post-conference session. Peers collectively reflect on the process and decide on an action or a plan. The use of proper observation instruments/grids (Wajnryb, 1992) is important in order to keep focus on the issues being observed. Falling within Edge's (1992, 2002, 2009) collaborative teacher development framework, integral to the success of these processes is the creation of non-evaluative, safe, non-threatening learning environments for teachers where they can experiment with new instructional techniques while at the same time rethinking the quality and impact of their instructional decisions and practices. Moreover, because feedback is an integral component of this model, it must be accurate, specific, and provided in a non-directive and non-judgmental approach. Underlying this model is the assumption that reflection and analysis are central to development and that reflection on one's work can be enhanced by another person. The process benefits both parties -- the observed and the observer.

Involvement in a Development / Improvement Process

This model focuses on the learning that results from involvement in projects or field-related improvement plans at the school or district level. It encompasses various forms of collaborative teacher development (Johnston, 2009). Activities may include teacher's participation in curriculum development, writing of school policy or collaborating with teachers/staff in projects aiming to improve an aspect of concern to school. This model is known to nurture teachers' professional growth as it motivates them to acquire the specific knowledge and skills needed to implement the tasks undertaken. Thus it is intellectually engaging (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Richards, 2008).

Typically, and like those of inquiry based approaches (Burns, 1999, 2009), practices of this model begin by an individual teacher, a grade level-team or by the school administration identifying an issue or a need. This can be done informally through discussions among colleagues or result from a sense of dissatisfaction with a workplace issue. The identification of an issue can also occur in a more formal structured way, such as brainstorming or using standardized instruments (such as surveys or needs assessment measures). Once an issue is identified, a response is formulated and a plan is set for implementation. Usually, specific knowledge and skills may be required to carry out the plan. Depending on the type of response needed, teachers may engage in many activities to get the specific knowledge or skills such as professional exchange, reading, experimenting with new instructional materials or researching for information about their issue. Curriculum writing is one example of the development/improvement model. When teachers participate in curriculum development, this task can push them to go beyond their content knowledge to acquire curriculum planning skills. Similarly, when teachers work together or with school administrators to write a discipline policy, the task may engage them in professional discussions with colleagues, parents and students. It may engage them in examining other school policies or board guidelines. It might also stimulate teachers to explore research on management skills and dealing with disruptive behaviours so as to make informed and suitable decisions with regards to the new policy. When the project is completed, teachers may engage in a follow-up/assessment phase where they test the effectiveness of the product (new curriculum, new guidelines, or a school policy) as well as test and re-test their own assumptions during the earlier stages of the work. The learning and involvement continues as teachers act upon the outcomes of the projects. By taking an active part in the development of these projects, they develop a sense of ownership in it.

Activities of this model are considered effective professional learning experiences because they are school-based, goal-oriented and closely linked to teacher's experiences and needs. Furthermore, as this model necessitates interaction and socialization among teachers and staff, it is known to foster collegiality and strengthens interpersonal relationship and builds stronger sense of community among teachers (Hargreaves, 1994).

Training

According to Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (2003), training refers to approaches where teachers acquire knowledge and skills through an organized predetermined instruction with clear goals set forth. In this model activities take the form of workshop-type sessions led by an expert/presenter (who may be peer or group leader) who determines the goals, content and flow of activities during the session. Training practices may also include peer observation, coaching and collegial problem solving. In reality, and for many teachers worldwide, the training model is the most common form of PD activity. It is often implemented through the compulsory training days managed or carried out for teachers by the local educational authority, advisory teams or school heads (Blandford, 2000; Burns, 2005, 2009). According to Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (2003), the term 'training'-- which characterizes this model -- refers to skill development strategies, not simply aiming to generate a set of external visible teaching moves but rather to involve teachers in skill development that is cognitive in nature, characterized by theory exploration, modeling of skills, using feedback on performance, and coaching in the workplace. Within this model, teachers are also encouraged to take part into the various phases of training activities such as program planning, goal and content selection. Training as such would feature elements known to be integral to success in altering teachers' knowledge, attitudes and instructional skills.

Inquiry

This model involves teachers, individually or collaboratively, in solving local problems that they face in their careers and examining issues of interest or need to them. Inquiry-based approaches to PD emerged in the mid 1980s following the reflective teaching movement (Lockhart & Richards; 1994; Schon, 1983, 1987; Zeichner & Liston, 1996). They gained support with the predominance of action research (Burns, 1999; Farrell, 2001; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; McNiff, 2002; Wallace, 1998) and the focus on the *teacher* in his/her own work context as a

source of legitimate knowledge for teaching (Bailey, Curtis, & Nunan, 2001; Johnson, 2008, 2009; Johnson & Freeman, 1998; Nunan & Richards, 1990; Richards & Nunan, 1996). This body of research argues that reflection on and inquiry into teachers' own practice is a mechanism for change in practice and a forum for PD over time. Some inquiry-based structures include: action research (Burns, 1999, 2008), teacher study groups (Burns, 1999; Clair, 1998), critical friends groups (Bambino, 2002), peer coaching (Ackland, 2000) and cooperative development (Edge, 2008).

In inquiry-based practices, teachers go through gradual phases of identifying an issue, formulating a question, setting a plan to find answers, gathering relevant data, examining and interpreting the data to reach answers or conclusions about their issue. Teachers then take actions based upon their findings. However, because teachers might lack knowledge of research skills or systemic approaches to inquiry, the degree of formality in carrying out inquiry practices may vary across individuals, contexts and issues. Inquiry practices engage teachers in generating knowledge about their own work, through more systematized approaches to professional learning and practices.

Inquiry-based approaches are strongly supported in the literature and consistent with sociocultural perspectives on teacher learning (Johnson, 2009; Lantolf, 2004; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). The nature of inquiry activities evokes thought and reflection, and creates conditions for 'dialogic mediation', 'scaffolded learning' and assistance in performance which, in turn, support teachers' conceptual development and leads to change and more productive instructional practices (Johnson, 2009). Underlying this model is the assumption that teachers are willing to improve their knowledge and practices and are capable of generating knowledge about their own teaching and classroom practices. Therefore they should be given the opportunity and resources to engage in professional growth by examining their own practices and contexts.

The positive impact of inquiry-based practices on teachers' professional growth has been voiced in the literature, not only by researchers, but by teachers themselves who have undertaken inquiry experiences (Burns, 1999, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Grossman, 1990; Johnson, 2009). This model tends to be placed on the top of the list of what constitutes effective PD.

As in many other parts of the world, the in-service activities for teachers in Cairo take the form of PD in the workplace and participation in organized formal programs. Elements of all five of the staff development models above can be found in teachers' daily work. However as we hear the voices of teachers, principals and PD providers describing their experiences with these PD models,

we will get a sense of their preference for particular models and the varied manner in which these various models have been implemented in Cairo.

Which PD Option Is Most Effective?

Having presented various avenues of teacher professional development in their ideal sense, no one option is known to be ‘the best’ or has proven effective across contexts. So, there is no straight forward answer to the question of effectiveness. We know from the literature on teacher education and PD (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Johnson, 2009) that the success of any PD experience is related to many factors. These include who the teachers are, what they bring to the professional learning situation and the social and academic nature of the context in which the experience takes place (Bailey et al., 2001; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Guskey, 2003; Johnson & Freeman, 1998; Wallace, 1991, 1998). Richards (1998; 2008) and Barduhn and Johnson (2009) argue that professional development programs for language teachers vary across contexts and providers. PD programs also vary in terms of their theoretical orientations and views on language learning and teaching, educational goals for teachers pertaining to the skills that they are expected to develop, and perceptions of means for achieving the goals. All the above factors, as well as others such as teacher’s needs, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, etc., profoundly affect the shape and outcomes of PD activities. Each PD opportunity is unique in its circumstances and characteristics, including the factors that constitute success; therefore professional learning is better interpreted and understood with reference to its particular context (Freeman & Johnson 1998; Johnson, 1996).

Principles of Effective Professional Development

Particular forms and structures of PD do not guarantee consequential teacher learning and change (Guskey, 2003). However, there is a consensus among researchers (Burns & Richards, 2008; Clair, 2000; Darling-Hammond, 2003; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Fullan, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994, 2010; Johnson, 2009) that successful PD programs can be characterized as teacher-centered, goal-oriented, context-appropriate, inquiry-focused, collaborative, sustained over time and linked to everyday school work. Also the “clarity of goals..., adequate levels of challenge,capitalization on previous knowledge,... organizational support, and alignment of

achievement with the goals set” (Pontz, 2003, as cited in Maggioli 2003, pp. 4-5) are emphasized as conditions for success. Informed by a blend of theoretical views from SCT, adult learning as applicable to teachers (Bandura, 1986; Hopkins, 1986; Huberman, 1989; Jarvis, 1987; Knowles, 1983; Smylie, 1995), and teacher cognition research (Borg, 2003, 2009), the field of teacher education has come to incorporate these elements through pedagogical approaches that place the teacher at the centre, promote reflection, collegiality and meaningful collaboration by creating conditions that support the generation of knowledge and continuity of learning and improvement. Structuring PD while taking into account these issues is seen to create a link between the various the entities involved in the PD process and thus narrows the gap between teachers and their work realities on the one hand and the content and goals of PD effort on the other. Guskey (2003) argues that such gaps have long been reported as a main cause for failure in achieving the expectations and desired goals of PD initiatives. Among several aspects integral to narrowing this gap in PD initiatives, I now discuss the necessity of placing teachers at the process of their own professional renewal and change as a way of connecting the means and ends of PD endeavours.

Positioning Teachers in the PD Enterprise

I have used the term ‘positioning’ to draw attention to the fact that in many of the reform movements and teacher PD efforts carried out around the world, teachers are either positioned on the periphery or allowed only limited roles. In either case, they have few options in directing their learning and participation. We have come to know that development and change in teaching practices cannot be accomplished in contexts where teachers are assigned passive recipient roles and where their readiness, needs, goals, perspectives and unique input into the process of their own professional growth are overlooked (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Guskey, 2003). Clark (1992) draws attention to the fact that in some educational contexts the phrase ‘professional development of teachers’ tends to carry a negative undertone. “It implies a process done to teachers; that teachers need to be forced into developing; that teachers have deficits in knowledge and skill that can be fixed through training; and that teachers are pretty much alike” (p. 75). In his discussion, Clark poses a concern that I believe is rarely addressed in many countries in the world where teachers are subjected to ‘top-down’ mandated PD. He points to how teachers might feel about engaging in a process in which they are “presumed to be passive, resistant, deficient and one of

faceless, homogeneous herd” (p. 75). Obviously, these are not optimal conditions for teacher learning and development and such conceptions of teachers are not validated. Research on teacher thinking (Borg, 2003, 2009; Woods, 1996) supports the view that teachers are more active than passive, ready to learn, knowledgeable of their practices, and are complex individuals, diverse and unique in their social, professional and personal competencies and traits. Teachers are reflective practitioners (Farrell, 2007; Schon, 1983, 1987) who can direct their own learning (Bailey et al., 2001; Clark, 1992), design their own PD plans (Burns 1999; Wallace, 1998) and become theorists and generators of knowledge about the practice of teaching (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009).

Underestimating the value of teachers’ perspectives, potentials and their central role in PD processes has long been a major cause for breakdowns in teacher development and improvement efforts (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Guskey, 2003, 2005; Hargreaves, 1994, 2001; Hargreaves et al., 2010; Little, 2001; Joyce; 1980). Effective PD structures give teachers a center place in the process of their professional enhancement and perceive them as able to take ownership of their own learning. They recognize teachers’ need to be self-directed and accept that they are capable of identifying their own goals needs and working toward their fulfillment. Effective PD structures allow teachers the place they deserve while counting for factors such as teacher readiness, goals, and perspectives on the desired improvements and/or proposed change.

Teacher Readiness and Choice

Another lesson from the research on PD is that development and change cannot be forced on teachers. In order to develop and improve, teachers must have a sense of responsibility and control of their own learning/improvement process (Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves 1994, 2001, 2010). When teachers feel in control of the change process, they are likely to realize the full value of it as opposed to situations where they have no say about the form, content and goals of the change process (Bailey et al., 2001; Clark, 1992; Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2005). Bailey et al’s (2001) work focusing on ‘*The Self as a Source for Professional Development*’ draws attention to the important issue of accounting for ‘teacher choice’ in pursuing PD. This tends to be overlooked, particularly in large scale development/reform efforts, despite of its direct impact on the processes and outcomes of PD initiatives. They explain that “no one can be made to develop” and “we develop as professionals only if we choose to” (Curtis, in Bailey et al, 2001, p. 5), pointing to those situations in which

teachers are obligated to compile a portfolio, attend courses or participate in what seems to be PD activities. Development can easily be faked by teachers and displayed at a surface level. No matter how advantageous/useful PD programs may seem to be, the issue of whether or not teachers benefit and actually develop or change is dependent upon the teacher's willingness and choice to do so. Research (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves, 1994, 2010; Joyce, 1980; Little, 1990, 2001) argues that PD should satisfy teachers' needs for a better stimulating life because teachers' decisions on whether or not to take advantage of a given PD opportunity are directly linked to their perception of how the opportunity may satisfy their work and life. So teacher perceptions of the various learning opportunities available to them are main determiners for engagement. Therefore, in order for PD programs to be inviting and engaging for teachers, they have to be structured with consideration to teachers' perspectives.

This issue is exemplified in the present study. In the findings and discussion chapters, we will see that teachers analyze their various learning situation by weighing the value and expected outcomes of PD in relation to their personal, social and professional lives. We will also see that it is these choices that lead teachers either to be resistant to change, resilient in learning to change, or intent on maintaining the status quo.

Teachers' Goals and Needs

The nature of the teaching profession is cognitively, emotionally and physically demanding (Hargreaves, 1994; Little, 2001). Despite both a full work day and after-hours work, it is a job that is never really done. Teachers are often in a race with time to fulfill their daily teaching responsibilities. Therefore they may not be receptive to adding another dimension to their already full agenda unless they perceive a need for such an endeavour. Despite the numerous benefits that teachers may gain by participating in professional learning opportunities, teachers will display readiness and actively engage in PD opportunities only if the substance and process of the given activity are relevant to them and directed to their perceived goals and needs. Teachers' professional needs vary according to their identity, career stages, professional background, dispositions, and context conditions. For example, the needs of language teachers working in ESL and EFL settings are different from those teaching in monolingual English contexts. Likewise native and non-native English speaking teachers have different needs (Braine, 2004; Kamhi-Stein, 2008; Liu, 1999;

Midggy, 1999) pertaining to their linguistic proficiency and professional preparation (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004).

Moreover, career stage and teacher development research (Huberman, 1992, 1995, 1989; Tsui, 2009) established that teachers have stage-related needs as they proceed through their career phases. To elaborate, the needs of a novice teacher in the 'survival' stage may be related to exploring the realities of his/her new environment or mastering particular instructional skills while the needs of a mid-career teacher may be directed to professional renewal, innovation and increasing the impact of his/her classroom instruction. Therefore, it would be insufficient to provide one-size-fits-all PD that falls short of addressing the particular needs and goals of teachers at different career stages.

There are various purposes that PD can serve and the benefits of PD are heavily supported in the literature and well recognized by educators, teachers, parents, school administrators and policy makers. Generally, mandated or school-based teacher PD often serves to enhance teachers' performance, rectify ineffective practice, meet the requirements set in educational policies, and facilitate change (Blandford, 2000; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Johnson, 2009). The larger the difference between the PD agenda of teachers and authorities, the less likely teachers will benefit from the PD and the narrower the difference between these agendas, the likelihood that teachers will benefit increases. Therefore, effectiveness in PD and change initiatives hinges on the match between the perspectives of teachers and those of the organizers/providers (Bailey et al., 2001; Blandford, 2000; Fullan, 1991, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 2009; Richards & Burns, 2009).

Teachers' Voices and Visions on Change and Development

Since teachers' input on the relevance and practicality of particular practices and proposed changes in their fields is valuable, their voices and visions on the content of PD and desired changes should be built into all development efforts. After the 1970s and 1980s and the questioning of the applicability of scientific educational research, the field moved towards empowering teachers by helping to establish the legitimacy of their local knowledge (Burns, 1999; Johnson, 2009) and encouraging PD and educational change through approaches based on teachers' local understandings of persistent and relevant problems. According to Kumaravadivelu (2005, 2001) and most of the studies reviewed here, there is a consensus among researchers in the field of teacher education that

over time, teachers develop an awareness of what does and does not work in their contexts. They become more sensitive to and knowledgeable of the particularities of their work contexts than outside experts. This awareness is acknowledged in the literature and referred to as the ‘teacher’s conception of practice’ (Freeman, 1996; Johnson & Freeman, 1998), ‘sense of plausibility’ (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Prabhu, 1990) and ‘beliefs and assumptions’ (Woods, 1996). Hargreaves (1994) refers to this teacher knowledge as ‘the ethics of practicality and describes it as the teacher’s:

powerful sense of what works and what doesn’t; of which changes will go and which will not — not in the abstract, or even as a general rule, but for this teacher in this context. In this simple yet deeply influential sense of practicality among teachers is the distillation for complex and potent combinations of purpose, person, politics and workplace constraints. (p. 12)

Such teacher awareness and insights are integral to the dynamics and success of professional learning and development processes and therefore should be used as basis for PD efforts. Teachers are the front liners in the process of teaching and learning and they are the ones who are expected to carry out and implement the desired changes and improvements in their teaching contexts. They are the ‘agents of change’ (Fullan, 1991) and therefore deserve to have a say on the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of PD initiatives if success is to be expected (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Importantly, they have profound understanding and realistic knowledge of their contexts which should productively inform professional development and change efforts. Moreover, studies on PD and change over the past two decades (e.g., Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Fullan, 1992; Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves, 1994; Hargreaves, Lieberman, Fullan & Hopkins, 2010; Little, 2001) have shown that considering teachers’ perspectives and involving teams of teachers in the planning, implementation and follow-up procedures of PD agendas is important to success; otherwise the difficulties and anxiety that accompany change and development are compounded. This proclamation proves true particularly not only in the case of the present study but in other studies conducted in Egypt (e.g., Holliday, 1996; Megahed, 2002; Salamah, 2004; Warschauer, 2003, 2004), in China (Hu, 2005), Japan (LoCastro, 1996; Savignon, 2004) and Korea (Kim, cited in Johnson, 2009; Li, 1998). While each of these studies across contexts adopted different forms of PD, they each focused on the introduction of communicative teaching as part of reform efforts. These studies emphasize the importance of accounting for teacher issues and visions and narrowing the gap between the perspectives of all of those involved in the process of change.

Reflectivity and Collaboration

According to sociocultural views on teacher learning, PD emerges through reflective activities, in collaboration with colleagues and others within teachers' communities of practice. It occurs through engaging teachers in professional discourse, about tasks related to teaching and learning and using authentic resources and artifacts from teachers' work contexts as learning tools (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Johnson, 2009). When the substance and tools of the improvement efforts are real teacher issues of every day practice rather than imported topics and methods, potential gaps between teachers' needs and goals and those of PD providers are likely to be narrowed.

The general teacher education literature promotes PD designs and activities that evoke reflection on practice and foster collaboration. Johnson (2009) explains that when teachers engage in reflective activities such as journal writing and sharing or study groups where they reflect on their ideas, thoughts, beliefs and teaching practices, they externalize their current knowledge and internalized concepts about teaching. As such thought takes shape through the activity of reflection (verbal or written), it becomes an object that can be examined, altered, confirmed, or changed. The common manifestation of reflection in teacher professional learning is *dialogic engagement* or *talk*; or *serious talk* in the sense of 'critical thoughtful conversations' described as the professional discourse in which teachers involve when discussing guiding principles in their practices, or in providing rich descriptions of their teaching with attention to evidence and consideration to alternative interpretation (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). According to Feiman-Nemser, this kind of talk or dialogue in whichever form it takes -- critical conversation, journal writing or online dialogues -- is considered a "central vehicle for sharing and analyzing ideas values and practices" (p. 1042); and it is through such talk that teachers develop and refine their thinking and practices of teaching and learning. The literature on TE and PD is rich with ideas and activities on reflective practices (for example, Farrell, 2007) and collaboration (Edge, 2009; 1992) that involve teachers in building on and refining their knowledge and skills.

Teachers do not develop their knowledge and skills exclusively on their own. They learn from the interaction and contact with others who are knowledgeable in the field, from 'experts' by participating in courses or in staff development programs, from their supervisors, mentors, and peers through the feedback and review of their practice and from their students through getting feedback

on their own teaching. Among the many groups and sources in and out of school, teachers learn most from their colleagues -- the other teachers working at their same school. Edge (1992, pp. 3-4) points out that "Self-development needs other people....By cooperating with others, we can come to understand better our own experiences and opinions." Several studies on collaborative teacher development, for example, Burns (1999; 2005), Edge (2009, 2002, 1992), Hargreaves (1994), Little (1990, 2001, 2007) Johnson (2009), Johnston (2003, 2009), and Smith (2004), established that teacher collaboration has potentials as a vehicle for professional growth, benefits teachers personally and professionally and is key component in teacher growth. In Smith's (2004) study of collaborative teacher development, he contends that collaboration facilitates teacher reflection on practice, promotes collegial interaction and involves teachers in school change. Hargreaves (1992) emphasizes the value of collaboration among teachers in the process of development and change arguing that "the relationships between teachers and their colleagues are among the most educationally significant aspects of teachers' lives and work. They provide a vital context for teacher development" (pp. 217-218). Collaborative approaches to teacher PD are manifested through numerous practices, the most common of which are action research, team teaching, peer coaching, dialogue journal writing, or participating in development/improvement projects such as curriculum development work. They are viewed as self-directed, inquiry-based and directly relevant to teacher's professional lives as these practices can accommodate teachers' individual competencies, the particulars of the context and the specifics of everyday teaching and learning practices (Johnston, 2009; Richards, 2008).

Collaborating with colleagues is considered a powerful source of professional learning. However, while there is an array of possibilities for collaboration in and out of school, research (Hargreaves, 1992, 1994; Little, 1990; Thompson & Zeuli, 1999) that examines the impact of collaboration on teacher learning shows that not all forms of collaboration are equally effective. The outcome of teacher engagement in various forms of collaboration may range from the simple sharing of ideas and providing emotional support to the generation of useful knowledge.

Feiman-Nemser (2001) suggests that teachers can benefit from collaboration on an intellectual professional level by taking a critical stance and commitment to inquiry into practice and practicing "the traits of critical collegiality" (Lord, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1043). This involves probing questions, inviting and involving each other in critical observations, reviewing practices and holding out ideas for discussion and debate for the purpose of considering different

perspectives, clarifying beliefs and gaining better understanding of professional issues. Feiman-Nemser points out that such collaboration leads to change in knowledge and beliefs and is different from the work of ‘support groups’ which benefits teachers mainly on the emotional and moral levels.

Little (1990) looked into the impact of different types of teacher relationships on teachers’ professional learning and identified four types of collegial relations among teachers ranging from complete independence to deep interdependence. At the independence end, collaboration/collegiality may take the form of “storytelling and scanning for ideas” (p. 515) which serves social and interpersonal intentions and does not seriously commit teachers to taking action toward change or improvement. It “serves to sustain rather than alter practice” (p. 515). Another type is “aid and assistance”, and it is characterized by the mutual help and advice readily available among teachers only upon request. It “treats the matters of teaching in a piecemeal fashion while resting on implied asymmetries in teachers’ status” (p. 515) and therefore the degree to which collective expertise can be developed is limited. The third type of collegiality is developed through a routine of sharing and exchanging materials, methods and ideas relating to teachers’ work. Although this can lead to productive discussion and desired results, it could pose problems in contexts where collaborative school culture does not exist. The fourth type is “joint work” which is “expressed in collective action and joint responsibility toward the work of teaching” (p. 519). As exemplified when teachers engage in collaborative school-based projects or action research, this type of collaboration supports teachers in achieving complex goals and promotes thoughtful examination of practices. *Joint work* however, is time consuming and may invite the potential for interpersonal conflicts, loss of individual prerogative and the external manipulation of effort. In a similar vein, Hargreaves (1992, 1994) also distinguished between ‘contrived collegiality’ and ‘collaborative culture’ and contended that while some forms of collegiality may improve teachers’ professional development, others may hinder it. Contrived collegiality refers to the mandated top-down compulsory teacher collaboration effort introduced and managed through administrative means in fixed time and space. According to Hargreaves, this form of collaboration is insufficient in leading to improvement because it tends to violate personal sensitivity. It ignores teachers’ needs and holds teachers accountable for others’ decisions. By contrast, collaborative culture is teacher collaboration that emerges spontaneously and voluntarily among teachers as social professional groups working towards common goals. This type of collaboration/collegiality occurs within teachers’ smaller professional circle and may (or may not) be linked to external support and outer circle initiatives. It is not necessarily bounded to limits of

time, place or predictable outcomes. Such collegial collaboration supports teachers on the moral emotional and intellectual levels. It provides teachers with the assistance and sense of assurance needed in times of difficulties and frustration and reduces their overload by sharing materials/resources and expertise. It creates opportunities to draw on collective efforts and to learn from each other. Yet, Hargreaves explains that it empowers teachers as it provides them with “situated certainties” in resistance to “false scientific certainties” and “debilitating occupational uncertainties” (1994, p. 246). Through the mutual exchange, feedback and joint pursuit that characterize collaborative collegiality, teachers continuously enhance their capacity for reflection, become more articulate and analytic of their practices. Through such collegial practices, teachers refine their performance, capabilities and deepen their conceptual understanding. Collaboration as such encourages teachers to perceive change and development not as a task to be completed but as a continuous process of improvement.

Success and the Wider Perspective of PD

The professional development of in-service teachers, whether small or large scale, is a process situated in a sociocultural, socio-political and socio-psychological context; it does not occur in a vacuum. Whether carried out by teachers or focused on them, teachers are not the only party involved in this enterprise, nor the sole source of influence on its success. Students, parents, school administrators, societal factors, organizational features and policies within the context of PD all play an important role in the direction that PD takes. Research (e.g., Wells & Glaxon, 2002; Hargreaves, 1994, 2010; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992; Hu, 2005; Johnson, 2009; Kumaravaldivu, 2001, 2005; Lang, 2001) recommends approaching PD from a coherent standpoint by accounting for the multiple perspectives held on PD by teachers, school administrators and policy makers. Alignment between the aims and needs of all parties involved provides a foundation for success and sustainability of PD efforts over time (Hargreaves, 1994). Speaking to this issue, Joyce (1980) supported by others (for example, Fullan, 1992; Hargreaves, 1994; Wells & Glaxon, 2002) argued that PD is a multi-fold process and should satisfy three needs -- “the need of society for an efficient education system; the need for the school to develop its students personally, socially and academically; and the need of the teacher for a satisfying and stimulating life” (p. 664). Research on teacher professional development (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001;

Fullan, 2010; Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves, 1994; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992; Hu, 2005; Johnston, 2009) strongly supports this view and further emphasizes it as a way to establish coherence between the various layers and aspects involved in the process of development and change. PD as such is seen to provide the common grounds upon which a link between teachers and the development effort can be established and realistic suitable goals can be achieved. This common ground in turn increases the likelihood of success in PD endeavours.

Improvement and change must be recognized as “both an individual and organizational process” (Guskey, 2003, p. 324). School improvement and teacher development are two sides of a coin. Improving schools, student learning and enhancing the teaching practices require developing the skills and capacities of teachers and staff in schools. To focus PD effort solely on teachers and ignore factors such as organizational features and system policies limits the likelihood of effectiveness and sustainability of professional growth over time. This is especially true since schools -- being the structures within which teachers function -- have a direct effect on teachers’ choices and pursuits with regards to their professional renewal. Likewise, schools are part of a larger hierarchal educational system and function under local and national policies. PD initiatives that overlook contextual factors such as the political structures, policies, the social and academic culture (including the expectations of students and parents) are likely to find resistance, fade out and weaken over time (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Hargreaves, 1994; Hargreaves et al., 2010; Little, 2001; 2007; Smylie, 1995). Therefore, PD efforts should be built on the intersection of the perspectives of all of those directly or indirectly involved in the process, such as students, parents, teachers, school administrators and policy makers. It should be fairly applicable in terms of goals and content to the context in which it is carried. At the school level, in order to invite teachers’ active engagement in development/improvement activities, schools should create a context in which teachers are enabled to develop while fulfilling their potential and satisfying their needs. In practice, this may be done through delegating significant responsibilities to teachers, engaging teachers in identifying their needs and the needs of the school as a whole and involving all staff in PD activities. This would encourage staff ownership of PD policies, goals and programs.

From another perspective, school systems and educational policies should give due value to PD efforts that teachers undertake, by motivating them and linking PD work to appraisals, promotions and other forms of reward. Working towards mutual goals invites various types of organizational support such as providing sufficient time and resources, encouraging productive

collegial relationships among teachers and between teachers and staff. School-based or inquiry-based approaches to PD, such as action research, curriculum development, and improvement/innovation projects, are examples of PD structures known to encourage connections between the entities of PD and perspectives of the parties involved. Such models are strongly promoted in the literature for being practice-based, context-specific and teacher-centered and for enabling teachers to connect their needs and interests to the priority of their schools and education policy makers and thus gain the support needed for PD to take hold. The following chapter includes a detailed theoretical analysis of these approaches. Finally, when PD is structured on common grounds schools can become '*learning institutions*' (Blandford, 2000), not only for students, but for teachers as well. Teachers can develop a strong sense of ownership of the innovation and expand their commitments to development and change. For policy makers, this approach can insure good value for the vast resources invested in the PD of teachers.

CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

Introduction

In Chapter 3, I defined the changing concept of professional development and discussed several models and strategies through which PD is pursued, pointing to factors that support success in teacher learning. In this chapter, I focus on the theoretical principals underlying the concepts of PD and approaches to professional renewal. Adopting a sociocultural theory (SCT) stance (Vygotsky, 1978) in the present study, I begin by highlighting the social constructivist view of teacher learning that has revolutionized the field of teacher education (TE). This is followed by a brief historical overview of the three professional learning models that, so far, have appeared to illustrate the changing trends in the professionalization of teachers. Following this, I explain the significance of employing SCT perspectives in understanding the process of teacher development and discuss key constructs of the theory, namely, the ‘zone of proximal development’, ‘mediation’, and internalization which I use as a lens for analyzing and interpreting the findings. Next, I discuss the notion of reflectivity in teacher learning as it permeates these constructs. And finally, among the several theoretical models built on the tenets of SCT, I discuss Wallace’s (1991) ‘Professional Learning Model’. This model demonstrates the application of the theoretical views discussed in this chapter and, when coupled with the key SCT, constitutes the framework I have used to understand the phenomenon of change examined in the study.

Sociocultural Theory and Teacher Education:

Recent Shifts

Underlying the change in the field’s conceptualization of professional development discussed in Chapter 3 are the changing theoretical views of teacher learning. In this chapter, I present a brief overview of the field development, discuss the significant contribution of SCT to our understanding of the process of teacher professional development and then present Wallace’s (1991) professional learning models to exemplify its adoption.

Over the past 40 years profound movements have occurred in the field of L2 teacher education with regards to conceptualizing teacher learning and professional development. From embracing behaviourist theories to cognitive and mentalist views on human learning, the field has shifted towards taking sociocultural epistemological stance (Cole, 1996; Kozulin, 1998; Lantolf, 2000, 2008; Leont'ev, 1981; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986; Wells, 1999; Wertsch, 1991). Drawing on perspectives from Lev Vygotsky's (1978; 1986) sociocultural theory (SCT) which was later extended by his followers (Cole, 1996; Lantolf, 2000, 2006, 2008; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Leont'ev, 1981; Wells, 1999, 2002; Wertsch, 1985, 1991, 2007) and teacher cognition researchers (Borg, 2006, 2009; Woods, 1996), the field has arrived at a new understanding of how teachers learn to teach, how their knowledge, skills and attitudes are formed and how might they be altered. According to SCT, teacher learning is viewed as a social cognitive process "situated in physical and social contexts, and distributed across persons, tools and activities". (Johnson, 2009, p. 1). It is a process of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of teachers' work communities (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Johnson, 2009; Singh & Richards, 2009; Tsui, 2002, 2008). In this process, teachers learning results from teachers' participation in social practices of teaching and working in classrooms and school settings as they examine their theories and conceptions of teaching and engage in processes of continuous reconstruction of their knowledge and beliefs about their practices. In light of the new perspectives on teacher learning, the field of TE has come to re-conceptualize its practices and redefine its boundaries of what constitutes an adequate knowledge base for L2 teachers and what forms effective means for professional learning (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Freeman, 1992; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Johnson, 2009). With respect to in-service programs, Kumaravadivelu (2005, p. 1) describes the major field innovations brought by the adoption of SCT perspectives as a shift of focus towards the following:

- more on personal knowledge than on received wisdom
- more on production of knowledge than on application of knowledge
- more on acceleration of agency than on acceptance of authority
- more on teacher research with a local touch than on expert research with global reach
- more on becoming transformative intellectuals than on being passive technicians
- more on mastering the teaching models than on modeling the master teacher

These aspects have been operationalized through an array of strategies and professional learning models such as those included in Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (2003) framework. In the following, I

provide an overview of the various professional learning models adopted in the field then discuss the significance of adopting SCT perspectives in understanding and operationalizing teachers' professional learning processes.

Historical Overview on Teacher Learning

Moving from behavioural to social views on teacher learning, several trends have dominated the field of teacher education over the past half century. Historically, the professional development of L2 teachers has been implemented through three major professional learning models that occurred chronologically as follows: *The Craft Model, the Applied Science and the Reflective model*.

The Craft Model

It is the traditional knowledge transmission approach to learning where novice teachers develop or enhance their performance through observing and imitating an 'expert teacher', one who presumably has the wisdom of the profession. Influenced by the behaviourists' views of language learning and teaching, it is an apprenticeship model that emphasizes the practical acquisition of teaching behaviours through the replication of what is perceived as 'good practice'. Within such approaches to skill development, teachers are provided with models of practice and practical workable tips on teaching. Yet the learning is mainly organized around the acquisition of a set of observable classroom behaviour rather than understanding the principles underlying teacher's behaviours and the structures of teaching and learning. The observation of good teaching practice is seen to guide teachers towards learning and adopting the effective strategies demonstrated by the more experienced professional. According to Burns and Richards (2009), the origins of the Craft Model of teacher education were in Europe during the 1960s with short training programs such as Cambridge CELTA (Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults) offered by teacher training colleges and the British Council. These approaches were designed to offer teachers a set of strategies and skills needed to teach new methods such as the audio-lingual and situational methods.

A major drawback of this model identified in the literature (Bailey, 2006; Randall & Thornton, 2005; Wallace, 1991, 1998) is its over-simplification of the process of teaching by limiting it to a set of external behaviours and ignoring the complex cognitive processes in which teachers get involved as they teach or learn to teach. Another drawback is that it does not account for

factors such as context, students and teacher variables. Despite such criticism of this orientation, the process of involving teachers in observing 'good practice' (demonstrated by an 'expert' as opposed to a peer) and expecting them to replicate it forms an essential curricular component in various pre- and in-service programs (Burns & Richards, 2009; Hu, 2005; Johnson 2009; Randall & Thornton, 2005; Richards, 2008). So, although the craft model gives due value to the practical aspect of teachers' professional development, its static and imitative nature makes it deficient in handling the complexities and dynamics of teaching as well as the multiple demands of today's fast-paced change in education.

The Applied Science Model

It is the traditional knowledge transmission approaches to teacher learning, concerned with the application of research findings as opposed to 'a master's' intuitive knowledge. The applications of this model draw on research from the discipline of linguistics and SLA and provide teachers with a set of identifiable classroom teaching skills that are empirically proven as effective to student learning. Like in the craft model approaches, the knowledge of teaching in this model is generated and delivered by an expert who is often an academic or a researcher, but not necessarily a teacher practitioner. Both models view teacher learning as an issue of improving the effectiveness of instructional delivery. If gaps occur between the prescribed practices and anticipated results, then such was perceived as a failure on teachers' part to acquire and implement what was presented due to problems of 'teachers' resistance to change' (Singh & Richards 2009). In this model, good teaching is that which conforms to research findings. As a result of the continuous change and developments in research, teachers need to constantly update themselves on current changes and seek matching strategies for them. A major critique of this scientific-based orientation is the gap between the nature of 'research-knowledge' and 'real-life' classroom practices. This gap is the misfit of the content (chunks of identifiable strategies and lists of competencies) produced in one context, delivered in another, and yet to be applied in a third (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Johnson, 1996). Another drawback is its tendency to downgrade the value of teachers' input and practical knowledge which provide solid grounds for teachers' professional growth and development. Despite considerable efforts and resources invested worldwide in this PD paradigm, such approaches have often failed to present scientific solutions for the very complex

dilemmas of teaching and have been unsuccessful in bringing about desired changes (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Hargreaves, 1994, 2001; Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

The Reflective Model

In line with the social constructivist views of learning, this model represents the latest approaches to teacher education and professional development. This model emerged following the reflective teaching movement in the 1980s, initiated by the work of Schon (1983, 1987), and continued by others (Kolb, 1984; Lockhart & Richards, 1994; Wallace, 1991). It was expressed through various avenues and strategies such as action research (Burns, 1999; Edge, 2002; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; Wallace, 1998) and the teacher research movement (Burns, 1999; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Edge & Richards, 1993; Freeman, 1998). The model is built on the legitimacy of practitioner knowledge as bases for professional development and renewal. It emphasizes the importance of reflection on and inquiry into teachers' experiences as a mechanism for professional renewal and change in classroom practices. Unlike the other two models, within this model teachers are neither positioned as passive recipients nor consumers of knowledge generated by others. Instead, they are reflective practitioners and theorists who build and develop their knowledge and skills by reflecting on their own professional experience (Burton, 2008; Kolb, 1984; Schon, 1983, 1987; Wallace 1991, 1998). Teachers within this paradigm are seen as professionals who are open to new ideas, are able to direct their own learning and resolve problems rationally, proactive, and capable of generating their own professional dynamics and launching further independent studies (Wallace, 1991, 1998).

It is worth noting that although the craft and applied science models are often discussed in the TE literature as past paradigms (Bailey, 2006; Randall & Thornton, 2005; Wallace, 1998). In reality, these models are still in use to varying degrees in many TE contexts around the world (Burns & Richards, 2009). Having described the three models of teacher education, I turn now to discuss the basic constructs of SCT. These form the tenets upon which the recent approaches to TE are structured and which I use as an analytic lens to understanding the process of teacher conceptual development and change in this study.

Sociocultural Theory Perspectives on Teacher Learning

Sociocultural Theory as an Analytic Tool

In this section I provide the rationale for employing SCT as a tool for analyzing and understanding my data and findings. SCT is not a method of teaching and learning but rather a theory of mind (Johnson, 2009). It is “about the development of understanding and the formation of minds” (Wells, 2002, p. 2); more precisely, it is about “the development of a mind to learn” (p. 2). SCT is known to provide powerful analytic tools through which the process of teacher learning -- with its inherent interconnectedness of the cognitive and social aspects -- can be understood (Bailey, 2008; Freeman, 2004; Johnson, 2009; Johnson & Golombek, 2004). Employing an SCT stance in this study enables us -- as Johnson (2009) contends in her discussion of the nature of teacher learning -- to do several things. First, trace the process of how teachers learn and develop their conceptual awareness of aspects of their work, and then understand how such processes transform teachers’ understanding of themselves as teachers, their learners, and their classroom practices. Second, allow us to examine the dynamic process of change that involves teachers in reconstructing and transforming their teaching practices as well as their refashioning of existing resources so as to be responsive to both individual and local needs. Third, using an SCT lens on the data provides directions for assessing the content of change in relation to teachers’ notions on teaching and learning upon which they operate in their classrooms (Borg, 2003, 2006, 2009; Freeman & Johnson 1998; Lortie, 1975). Finally, SCT can serve to examine teacher tools and activities and the extent to which they provide the type of mediation and space that allows teachers to externalize and refine their conceptions. The relevance of employing SCT perspectives for understanding teachers’ change of practice is further crystallized in this chapter by highlighting the principles of this social view of learning and showing how the central constructs of the theory can provide insights into teacher learning and competency development. From the perspective of SCT, I turn now to presenting how teacher learning is conceptualized and the key constructs of SCT namely, *internalization and transformation, the zone of proximal development, and mediational means* that enable researchers to trace the process involved.

Teacher Learning: A Process of Conceptual Development

At its core, SCT argues that the human mind is mediated by socially constructed symbolic artifacts, including, above all, language (Lantolf, 2000). It holds that learning is a process of knowledge co-construction and concept development through higher-cognitive thinking. In SCT views, human cognitive abilities, thinking and memory, originate in and are fundamentally shaped by the social activities in which we participate (Flavell, Miller, & Miller, in Johnson & Golombek, 2004; Johnson, 2009; Lantolf, 2002, 2008; Wells & Glaxton, 2002). Learning is not simply the straightforward appropriation of skills and knowledge from the outside in, but rather the progressive movement from external, socially mediated activity to internal mediational control by individual learners which results in the transformation of both self and the activity. SCT emphasizes that learning is about the reconstruction and transformation of resources and practices in ways that are responsive to both individual and local needs. In addition, all social activities are structured and gain meaning in historically and culturally situated ways (Leont'ev, 1981; Vygotsky, 1978). Central to this view on learning is that how individuals learn, what is learned and how the knowledge will be used will depend on the sum of the individual's prior experience, the context in which the learning takes place, and what the individual wants and needs and is expected to do with this knowledge (Johnson, 2009; Tsui, 2003).

Bringing these broad conceptions to the context of teachers, the professional development of teachers, at its core, is about teachers as learners of teaching. From an SC perspective, teacher learning is normative and a life-long process. It emerges through phases of experiences in multiple contexts, first as school students (Borg, 2004; Lortie, 1975; Robart, 1998), then as participants in TE programs, and eventually as teachers in communities of practice (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Lave & Wenger, 1991). Also, what teachers learn and “what teachers do and how they use knowledge in their classrooms is highly interpretive, and contingent on knowledge of self, setting, students, curriculum, and community” (Johnson, 2009, p. 13). According to SCT perspectives, teachers are central agents in their own learning. Thus, professional learning is not about something that is done for teachers by others, but rather something that teachers do amongst themselves and with others. These views suggest that teachers' professional growth is not about mastering a set of formally acquired skills and applying them in practice, but rather the building and refinement of teachers' existing knowledge and skills. Richards (2008, p. 164) puts it this way: “it is about the construction of knowledge and theory through participating in real teaching-learning contexts and engaging in

activities and processes that relate to everyday teaching practices.” Through the key constructs of the Vygotskian theory, internalization, ZPD and mediation we can understand the process of teachers’ conceptual development in an ideal sense, as a higher order cognitive process, occurring within the individual’s zone of proximal development, mediated by social and psychological tools and activities leading to internalization and transformation of self and activity.

The Key Constructs of Sociocultural Theory

Internalization and Transformation

In Vygotsky’s (1978) sense, ‘internalization’ refers to the process of cognitive development as it progresses, initially from external socially mediated activity to internal mediation controlled by the individual. It is a process through which a person’s activity is initially mediated by other people or cultural artifacts and then gradually becomes within the individual’s control as he or she appropriates and reconstructs resources to regulate his/her own activity. The cultural artifacts or social relations constitute the tools and activities that people use and which have the potential to support cognitive development. These tools could be physical (materials and objects devised in relation to an activity) or symbolic (language and symbols) or both (for example a teacher manual in the form of a physical book or CD where instruction is communicated through language). According to Leont’ev (1981), internalization does not refer to the mere appropriation of knowledge from the outside in, “it is not the transferal of an external activity to a pre-existing ‘plane of consciousness’: it is the process in which the plane is formed” (p. 57). Thus, internalization by means of concept development/renewal is not simply a replacement of skills but rather a higher cognitive development process that is dialogic in nature and involves transformation of self and activity (Valsineer & Van der Veer, in Johnson, 2009). Accordingly, human agency is central in determining what is learned (internalized), how is it acquired and will be used. Concepts are developed dynamically over time, and through use while engaging in processes of syntheses and analyses of knowledge and experience and while moving repeatedly between involvement in activities and abstract reasoning. When concepts are well formed in the mind, the individual can display such ‘internalization’ or higher-cognitive development through his/her ability to apply the acquired concepts in various situations, articulate the reasons for doing so, and use them as basis for further learning. This is referred to as “thinking in concepts” (Johnson, 2009, p. 22).

An example of the use of artifact in mediating a process of internalization may be seen in a scenario of a novice teacher's use of course textbooks and manuals. Initially, the teacher relies heavily on his/her materials, following step-by-step instructions for each lesson (his/her activity is regulated by a cultural artifact). Eventually the teacher develops familiarity and knowledge of what is to be done, as well as when and how. His/her dependence on such tools decreases (develops control or becomes self-regulated) as he/she develops automatization in practices and becomes able to construct similar or other relevant instructional activities.

The Zone of Proximal Development and Mediation

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) captures the notions of internalization and mediation, allowing us to see the inherent interconnectedness between the cognitive and the social aspects of teacher cognitive development (Johnson, 2009; Lantolf, 2000, 2008). The three concepts - ZPD, internalization and mediation -- are interrelated in the sense that internalization develops through mediational means within the individual's ZPD.

In SCT, what an individual can do confidently and independently comprises an area of self-regulated action. According to Van Lier, (1995, pp. 190-191), the ZPD is the area "beyond that, that is the range of knowledge and skills which the person can only access with someone's assistance". Vygotsky (1978) refers to the ZPD as the difference between what an individual can achieve independently and what he/she can do working with others (peer or an expert or) with the help of cultural artifacts (Lantolf, 2000). However, "it is not a physical space situated in time and space; rather it is a metaphor for observing and understanding how mediational means are appropriated and internalized" (Lantolf, 2000, p. 17). Within the ZPD, individual cognition originates in the social collective mind and merges in and through engagement in social activity with others (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

In the context of language teaching, TE and PD, the ZPD may be conceived of as the 'occasions for learning' (Swain & Lapkin, as cited in Lantolf, 2000). Johnson (2009) describes it as an arena for potential growth where the individual's both independent and supported performance can be displayed during a given goal-directed learning task beyond the individual's sole capability. It can also be conceived as the collaborative construction of learning opportunities (Bailey, 2009; Lantolf, 2000, 2008) where teachers as learners of teaching work together or with more expert individuals (supervisors or more expert teachers) towards a shared goal. The creation of these

opportunities is realized through employing approaches to TE that foster forms of interaction among teachers and with other experts, collaboration, inquiry-into-practice, and the use of relevant activities and materials. These activities allow teachers to engage in dialogic processes reflecting on their practices and negotiating meanings and knowledge. These have the potential of creating a ZPD for teachers where they can outperform their competencies through the assistance and support of the other individuals (colleagues or instructors) involved in the socially mediated activity of learning.

The features of teachers' ZPDs are critical to shaping opportunities of potential conceptual development. Meira and Lerman (as cited in Johnson, 2009) draw attention to the dynamic nature of the ZPD by pointing to three aspects of learner capability that can be captured within such: the 'performative' refers to the individual's ability to independently complete a task beyond his/her current capabilities and is not reflective of the potentiality for growth. The 'interactive' shows what the individual can do in collaboration with others who are more capable, and such is informative of possible stretches in the learner's competencies. The 'emergent' aspects of the ZPD are suggestive of some level of expertise or automaticity in performance. In all cases, performance varies according to the mediational activities (the type of learning task and quality of dialogic engagement), context situation and tools used in the learning task. The recognition of the ZPD as a multi-dimensional and dynamic site of potential growth teachers informs TE practices that in order to move teachers from their current level of performance to the next, it is critical that the type of help (mediational means) provided to them is in Wertsch's (1985) sense 'strategic'; meaning relevant to the teacher's needs and potentiality for growth rather than fixed or random assistance.

Strategic mediation that accounts for the dynamic and unstable nature of the activities within the ZPD is sometimes referred to as *scaffolding*. In SCT perspectives, scaffolding occurs through dialogic engagements that shift and change according to the changes in learner's potentiality. It is considered a psychological tool that serves to reduce the cognitive load required to perform a certain task so that the learner can remain in the center of the task and fully engaged and without which he/she cannot be fully involved (Donato, 1994; Johnson, 2009; Lantolf & Pohner, 2007; Van Lier, 1995). In Vygotskian theory, scaffolding is distinguished from simple '*assisted performance*' which is the straightforward directions to complete a given task, in the sense that scaffolding targets cognitive development and nurtures concepts that are already developing. It is the type of assistance adjusted with what the learner can do with it to build on his/her existing knowledge. Yet it can be given and withdrawn at certain points to allow the learner to appropriate and internalize the

cognitive function in hand until eventually the learner demonstrates internalization in the form of independent control over the task. In this sense, scaffolding leads to cognitive development. Johnson (2009) argues that in order to be able to support teachers strategically, teacher educators must be able to assess the mediational means from the perspective of teachers. Educators should also examine their mediational tools and spaces and provide alternative ones through which teachers can externalize their current understanding, appropriate new concepts and knowledge and then re-conceptualize this knowledge and develop alternative ways for using the new concepts.

Mediation and Mediational Means

The concept of mediation as discussed widely in SCT literature (Lantolf, 2000, 2004; 2008; Kozulin, 1998, 2003; Rogoff, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 2007, 1985) refers to the individuals' engagement in social dialogic processes through the use of various tools and activities leading to some form of re-conceptualizing and re-contextualizing knowledge. The tools constitute cultural artifacts which can be physical in nature (for example, equipment, textbooks, specialized kits, student-teacher generated materials) or symbolic (such as language) which mediate our relationships with others and represent the concepts used within a particular social context to define experiences and negotiate meaning. There are three types of tools that mediate human learning activities: cultural artifacts and activities, concepts, and social relations (Johnson, 2009). However, the physical and symbolic tools (also referred to as physiological tools) are not necessarily separate entities. For example, a course manual or a reflective journal that a teacher may use to better understand particular aspects of his/her practice could be both a physical object (a booklet or CD) and symbolic in the sense that it is language that communicates/ regulates the concepts and strategies to be acquired. In fact, and by nature, language constitutes vital aspects of all three types of mediational tools (cultural artifacts and activities, concepts and social relations) and thus plays several roles in the process of cognitive development.

Language as a tool for learning

SCT emphasizes the role of language as a tool for learning and cognitive development and holds that human mind is mediated by socially constructed symbolic artifacts, including above all language (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Poehner, 2008). From an SCT perspective, language is viewed as a social practice and it is central to learning because it is the means by which humans,

intrapersonally or interpersonally tend to process their thinking, understand and make sense of their experiences and represent their thoughts (Wertsch, 2007). In this sense, it is a psychological tool for understanding, formulating and sharing ideas and concepts. Vygotsky (1978) describes language as being a cultural tool. In his views, it is a vital means for transforming experiences into cultural knowledge and understanding. It is through language that the culture and experiences of people across time are passed from one generation to another. So in the context of teaching and teacher education, it is teachers' institutional socialization processes, interactions and talk with one another is what shapes their thoughts, practices, professional culture or in Thorne's (2004) sense 'the doxa of school'.

Language and human mediation

From SC perspectives, human mediation plays a major role in shaping and facilitating the process of internalization and cognitive development. It is the social relationships and activities in which learners engage with others using language (Karpov, 2003; Kozulin, 2003). In the context of TE, Rogoff (1995) draws attention to the fact that not all forms of human mediation are equally social in nature. He classified human mediation into three types: 'apprenticeship', as in classroom observation practices when a novice teacher is exposed to community models to learn from; 'guided participation' where teachers are involved in activities with mentors, advisors or more expert peers; and 'appropriation' where teachers rely on use of a tool (instructional kits, manuals, instruments) in order to learn something without social mediation. By nature, these relationships form opportunities for dialogic mediation, by means of simply talking, expressing or exchanging ideas in a verbal, written, or symbolic form. In this process, speech makes a person's thoughts accessible to social influence. Through dialogic mediation or language oriented exchange, meanings and concepts are negotiated, among individuals and socialization in turn leads to cognitive development or conceptual renewal.

Language also functions as a tool for cognitive development when it is self-directed. Lantolf (2004) and Wertsch (1998, 2007) explain that even without being involved with other people, language mediates one's learning on an intrapersonal basis; for example, when a person engages solely in an activity trying to make sense of something or appropriate a concept for his/her own use. In such situations, a person engages in 'private speech' or speaks to him/her self. It is, in effect, a conversation between one's novice and expert self when attempting to understand issues or gain

control of an activity. Explaining the relationship between speech and thought, Lantolf and Poehner (2008) point out that while speech and thought are not identical, speech is implicated in the thought process, and together they form a dialectical unity in which they uphold each other. Wertsch (2007, p. 183) describes the interaction between the two as “a developmental struggle” at the micro-genetic level. In this relationship, while thinking is synthetic and unpartitioned, speech is discrete and analytic and eventually separates thought as “thought comes into contact with speech, first on the level of inner speech and even more so at the level of social speech” (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008, p. 8). Thus, individuals’ involvement in *private* or *inner* speech creates mediational space for negotiating meaning or appropriating knowledge and thus is an opportunity for potential conceptual development. While the core of Vygotsky’s theory is that human involvement in dialogic mediation, as part of goal-oriented activity, both leads to and shapes higher-level cognitive development and since dialogic mediation occurs through language use, then the nature of language use within the ZPD is critical to shaping opportunities for learning that, in turn, create potential for cognitive development (Johnson, 2009).

For the practices of TE and PD, this is suggestive of employing ‘dialogic teaching’, pedagogical strategies or forms of dialogic engagement that involve teachers in relevant activities and conversations focusing on teaching and learning issues (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Edge, 2009; Johnson, 2009). During these, teachers examine their own beliefs and practices and engage in collaborative planning, problem solving, and decision making. While the dialogue could take the form of conversation, journal writing, or online dialogues, it is often through this process that teachers externalize their thoughts and conceptions of their practices and thus make them accessible for social influence and refinement. It is through this dialogue that teachers develop, create and experience different representations of themselves. Johnson (2009) points out that this very act of engaging with others and speaking about one’s own understandings makes the conceptions and ideas less abstract and more explicit to oneself and to others. It opens opportunities for dialogic processes that can lead to re-conceptualizing and reorganizing of one’s current knowledge.

Concepts as mediational tools

In my discussion of the notion of mediation, I have mentioned that human learning is mediated by three types of tools, cultural artifacts, concepts and social relations. Among these tools, Vygotsky and his followers (for example, Cole, 1996; Johnson, 2009; Lantolf, 2000; Van Esch & St.

John, 2004; Van Lier, 1996; Wells, 2002; Wertch, 1991; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) emphasized the importance of concepts in cognitive development as the means and ends in the process of learning. In the SCT literature, there are two types of concepts: *everyday concepts* and *scientific concepts*. The connection between both types forms the basis of higher-cognitive thinking and conceptual development.

Everyday concepts

Vygotsky divides everyday concepts into ‘*spontaneous*’ and ‘*non-spontaneous*’ based on their susceptibility to conscious inspection. Spontaneous concepts refer to intuitive knowledge. In the context of teacher education, these are the notions about how to teach which teachers develop as a result of their participation in various experiences and contexts across time as students (Borg, 2003, 2009; Lortie, 1975), learners of teaching and teachers in their own instructional histories and contexts (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009). They are the unarticulated, deeply ingrained knowledge for which teachers may be unable to provide accurate declarative description or basis upon which it is built (Borg, 2006, 2009; Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 2009). Non-spontaneous concepts refer to the knowledge that is consciously acquired. It is the knowledge formally taught and/or deliberately and consciously acquired by teachers through their various teaching-related experiences. It is teachers’ explicit knowledge of the ‘how to’ of teaching (for example, design or organize instructional activities) which they are able to apply and bring-up to conscious inspection. However, according to Johnson (2009), this knowledge is somewhat shallow as it relates more to surface performances than to the theoretical underpinnings of the applications. All the studies cited in this chapter recognize that despite the way these conceptions (teachers’ everyday concepts) are formed, an important aspect is that they shape teachers’ thinking and decision making, and form the basis for their reasoning. Also important is the fact that teachers use these conceptions (current understanding) as tools for understanding, de-codifying new knowledge (new concepts) and in thinking about and considering their practices and the activities of others. Hence, these concepts become the foundation upon which further knowledge is built for more complex and creative activities.

Scientific concepts

Scientific concepts are acquired through the theoretical investigation of a specific domain. They “represent the generalizations of the experience of human kind that is fixed in science,

understood in the broadest sense of the term to include both natural and social science as well as humanities” (Karpov, 2003, p. 66). In other words, scientific concepts consist of ‘expert’ knowledge (Kennedy, 1999) and research work that is officially codified in books and publicly accepted as a principled way of understanding phenomena within a particular discourse community (Johnson, 2009). This type of knowledge is instrumental in broadening teachers’ understanding of their own practices and enabling them to go beyond their everyday experiences and function effectively in a range of alternative settings in which they may be.

In this respect, SCT informs the content and process of L2 TE. It recognizes that teachers enter their profession and operate in their classrooms on the basis of notions on learning and teaching already established throughout their histories and experiences (Borg, 2003, 2006; Freeman & Johnson 1998; Lortie, 1975). It suggests that addressing such intuitive or practical knowledge through the lens of the ‘expert knowledge’ (Kennedy, 1999) or ‘scientific concepts’ (Vygotsky, 1978) assists teachers in reorganizing and reconstructing their existing knowledge with consideration to the publicly accepted discourse of the broad discipline and the particulars of their teaching contexts.

From a sociocultural perspective, the PD of teachers is a process of building upon teachers’ everyday concepts about language, learning and teaching in order to help teachers move beyond their everyday experiences and their current conceptualization of their practice. The goal is to enable them to function effectively in a range of settings and to meet the ever changing demands of the profession. In this view, the key to concept development and professional renewal is the extent to which teachers can appropriate scientific concepts to build on their everyday experiential knowledge while, at the same time, using everyday concepts to understand and interpret scientific concepts. Vygotsky (1963, as cited in Johnson, 2009) describes this interaction of concepts as dialectical relationship where “scientific concepts grow down through spontaneous concepts, and spontaneous concepts grow up through scientific concepts” (p. 14).

In this respect, in order to support teacher learning, teacher educators and PD providers should create opportunities for teachers to participate in activities in which they can engage in systematic exploration of their own conceptualization of language teaching. They should be given direct experiences in the use of new psychological tools and in ways that make the evolving histories and functions of these tools explicit as these tools have the potential to advance cognitive

development (Johnson, 2009). From an SCT perspective, the professional development of teachers means engaging them in a long-term cyclical process of dialogic mediation in which they establish connections between the formal scientific knowledge of their fields and their personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 2009). Dialogic mediation can occur through reflective practices where teachers -- individually or collaboratively -- engage in professional exploration of issues of concern to them with the goal of understanding, improving or changing aspects of their practices. Reflectivity permeates the key constructs of SCT discussed above. Currently, it is widely accepted in language teacher education that teacher learning, development and change occur through reflective practice and “being reflective assists teachers’ lifelong professional development, enable them to critique teaching and make better-informed teaching decisions” (Burton, 2009, p. 298). In the remaining part of this chapter I shed light on the notion of ‘reflectivity’ as it pertains to teacher professional development. Then I present Wallace’s (1991) professional learning model as it crystallizes the role of reflection in the process of teacher conceptual development and change. Based on my findings, I later (in Chapter 9) adapt and employ this model as part of a framework for analyzing and understanding the topics addressed in this study.

Conceptual Development and Reflectivity: A Framework

Reflectivity

Burton’s (2009) review of reflectivity in TE indicates that it is Dewey’s 1938 distinction between routine and reflective action in teaching that brought attention to the importance of teachers reflecting systematically upon their working contexts, resources and actions and applying what they learned from their reflection in their every day and long-term decision making. To Dewey, reflective teaching refers to teachers’ constant awareness of their teaching circumstances and the implications of the issues and concerns arising during their practices. He sees professional learning/renewal as a process occurring through four phases: experience, description, analysis, and intelligent action.

Building on his work, Schon (1983, 1987) proposed three concepts involved in the process of constructing professional knowledge: reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action, and the coach. According to Schon, there are two types of reflection: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. The first refers to teachers’ skills of drawing upon their ‘theories in use’ (Argyris & Schon, as cited

in Burton, 2009) while teaching which leads to an immediate change of teaching strategy. Reflection-on-action occurs outside the classroom and refers to teachers' ability to reconsider classroom decisions, issues or actions after the event. Teachers draw on their own experience, 'espoused theories', or 'received knowledge' (Kennedy, 1999) and factors outside the immediate teaching context. It occurs through looking back and rethinking about what had happened in the classroom (reflection-on-action), and also through the process of thinking and/or rethinking the teaching situation in the midst of it without interrupting it (reflection-in-action). 'The coach', Schon (1987, p. 39) argues, represents the construction of new knowledge through the support and guidance of a more experienced person 'a professional coach', who will "emphasize immediate zones of practice" and will help draw out from the teacher the concept developed through "reflective conversations with the materials and situations."

Burton (2009) contends that all people are reflective to various extents; though, when combined with practice, being reflective links active theorizing (tacit knowledge) and action (live concrete-experience) in ways that traditional processes of learning do not do. According to Burton, the nature of reflection is characterized by the notion and meaning of thoughtful action involving teachers in three central investigative questions with a particular issue in mind or focus of concern: "What do I do?" "How do I do it?" "What does this mean for me and those I work with and for?" (p. 301). She suggests that reflection involves a sequence of phases within the reflective-learning process including developing a concern, expressing it, responding to it, relating it to experience or input, finding responses and information, applying the responses and acting upon the insights gained. As addressing these questions and engaging in such phases effectively requires different levels of cognitive processing, technical, practical and critical reflection, research (e.g., Burns, 2009; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Edge, 2009; Feiman-Nemser, 2001,2006; Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 2009) suggests that teachers could be supported to get to deeper critical levels of reflection on their practices when engaged with others (like minded colleagues and/or experts) in relevant context-based, goal-directed activities characterized by dialogic feedback on practice. This practice would lead to conceptual development and professional renewal.

While most teacher educators would argue that reflection is an essential tool in professional learning, the quality and effectiveness of reflection on practice often depends on the teacher's personal choice and sense of responsibility towards the action, as well as the purpose to which it is put (Bailey et al., 2001; Burton, 2009). Korthagen, Vasalos and Sim (cited in Burton, 2009) who

investigated the nature of teacher knowledge, found that how teachers reflect on actions and operate cognitively may be influenced by personal and external factors. These include how they view themselves as people and teachers, their feelings towards the actions which they draw upon when reflecting, and their perception of and attitudes towards the environment in which they work. Hence, the contextual factors and purpose of reflective practice, whether it is personally or institutionally motivated, influence what teachers are encouraged to do and the type and level of reflection in which they engage. To help teachers break their barriers and progress to deeper levels of reflection, Korthagen and Vasalos (2005) propose a strategy for reflection they refer to as the 'onion model'. Their model suggests that teachers reflect first on outer-layer issues (such as their work environment) and then gradually proceed to core issues relating to their identity, beliefs or attitudes. This approach might be ideal for assisting teachers who work in monolithic centralized environments (such as those examined in the present study) where creativity, flexibility of roles and thought can be constrained. In such situations, the authors suggest that teachers often need support, distance, and time to become reflective, ask incisive questions, and avoid negative self-constructions about their positions. The model could be significant to employ in the Egyptian context where many teachers suffer difficult work conditions (to a greater degree than to which others are accustomed in North American contexts) and have to deal with personal, socio-economic and socio-political challenges.

Having defined the notion of reflectivity, Wallace's (1991) reflective model as discussed below further illuminates the process and role of reflection as a mechanism for professional learning and change.

Wallace's Reflective Model

Wallace's framework for the professional learning of teachers (1991, 1996, 1998) is built on the tenets of SCT and Schon's (1983, 1987) views on the '*theory to practice approach*' which found strong support in the reflective movement of the 1980s (Burns, 1999; Kimmis & McTaggart, 1988; Kolb, 1984; Lockhart & Richards, 1994; Schon, 1983, 1987). His work shows how reflection, in the form of dialogic feedback on practice, can be employed as a mechanism for professional development. Figure 2 illustrates Wallace's reflective approach to teacher learning. As shown, it is a two-stage model leading to the goal of professional competency.

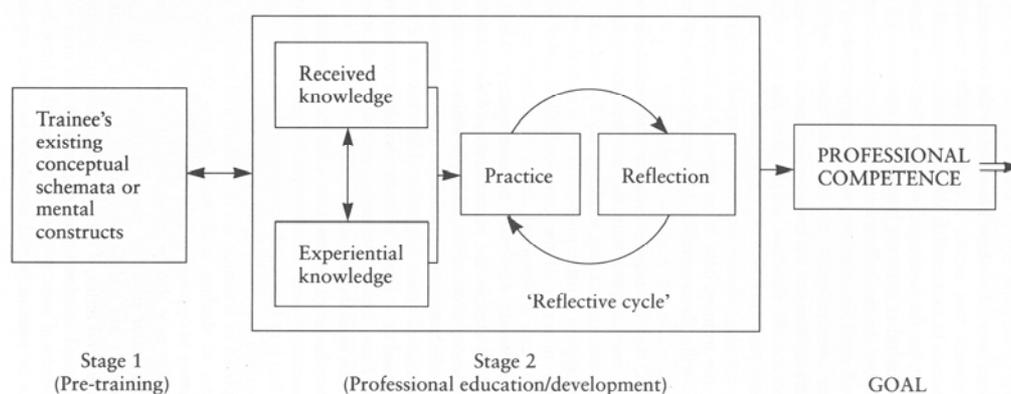


Figure 2. Wallace (1991) Reflective Model.

Wallace's framework is a version of Kolb's (1984) four-phase '*Experiential learning cycle*'. Maintaining 'from practice to theory' approaches, the model suggests that teachers renew their professional knowledge through involvement in a learning cycle where concrete experience is examined and reflected upon. It emphasizes that the extraction of concepts from experience as a more effective approach to teacher learning than applying rules and theories to make sense of the experience. It stresses the value of real classroom experience as an essential element in the process of gaining new knowledge. Consistent with this model, the literature (for example, Farrell, 2007; Lockhart & Richards, 1994; Zeichner & Liston, 1996; Burns, 1999; Johnson, 2009; Edge, 2002) discusses a wide range of practices and procedures through which teachers, either individually or collaboratively, may be involved in critical and reflective reviews of their knowledge and classroom practices through activities such as journal writing and sharing, action research, analyzing critical incidents, peer coaching and study group activities.

Stage 1: Pre-Training

The first phase represents the entry time at which teachers approach a PD activity or program. In line with SCT views and conceptual research on the knowledge-base of L2 teacher education (e.g., Freeman, 2008; Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 1996; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Richards, 1998) and on teacher thinking and decision making processes (e, g., Borg, 2009, 2006; Freeman, 2002; Woods, 1996), the model emphasizes that the PD of teachers is a process that is identity and meaning-oriented, contingent on the setting of the learning-teaching, and occurs over

time. At the initial stage it is acknowledged that teachers approach their work and/or various professional learning situations with an already ‘existing conceptual schemata or mental constructs’, that function as guiding principles in teachers’ perceptions on teaching and classroom practices (Borg; 2003, 2009; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Lortie, 1975; Woods, 1996). These conceptions are accumulated consciously and unconsciously and result from being who they are and engaging in social cultural activities as learners in their classrooms, participants in TE programs, and later as teachers in their workplaces and professional communities (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009). These conceptions form teachers’ core knowledge of their practice -- one that has been characterized in the literature as personal, practical, and situated. It is this knowledge that forms the base of further conceptual learning blocks.

According to Wallace, at this stage, in order for teacher educators to support teachers properly, they should understand and account for teachers’ thoughts, beliefs and attitudes and use these as a point of departure to assist teachers in exploring their issues and practices. This could be done through approaches that engage teachers in activities in which they externalize their mental constructs so that they become known to educators/providers and prone to examination, reconstruction and refinement. Wallace emphasizes that while it is useful for teacher educators and program designers to find out where teachers are coming from, “it is vital to find out where they are ‘at’ now”, and that “no training or supervisory procedures can function with maximum effectiveness without this information” (p. 51).

Stage 2: Reflective Cycle

This stage involves the interaction between the theoretical and practical aspects of knowledge leading to professional renewal. It suggests that acquiring professional competency requires a merge or a dialogic relationship between teachers’ ‘received’ and ‘experiential knowledge’ through a process of reflection. According to Wallace’s (1991) professional development, this competency results as teachers establish a reciprocal relationship between the two knowledge types.

An underpinning assumption of this model is that the relationship between teachers’ knowledge and the context in which it develops is dialectical, and so the development of teachers’ knowledge should be understood and supported in relation to teachers’ experience and the way that they respond to their work contexts. The model suggests that the professional education of teachers requires providing teachers with input in the form of received knowledge (for example, theories

about language, language teaching and learning) to be examined in light of their everyday practice. According to Wallace (1991, 1998), professional competence emerges through the process of a 'reflective cycle' as teachers evaluate and compare the input they receive (expert knowledge) to their experiences and decide either to find a place for such and apply it, or simply discard it. Then, if they incorporate it, they may re-evaluate it again in light of their experience. At the same time, and from 'practice-to-theory' direction, teachers refine their competencies as they examine and evaluate aspects of their own practices in light received knowledge. Wallace explains that "received knowledge' can be taught and learned 'experientially' by using appropriate techniques" (p. 54). He also argues that within the reflective model, the content and pedagogy of in-service courses should provide teachers with opportunities to reflect on the course inputs in light of their classroom experience. The classroom experience can then feed back into the course content or program goals. The 'reflective cycle' and the circular arrows refer to "the continuing process of reflection on received knowledge and experiential knowledge in the context of professional action" (p. 56).

Wallace points out that the degree to which teachers benefit from various types of received knowledge depends on how such knowledge relates to teachers' reflection and practice. Reflection can take place 'before the event', as when teachers read professional articles or listen to a lecture and try to understand or make sense of the content with reference to their experience or professional concerns. It can take place after an incident that posed a professional problem or dilemma, as teachers through recollection draw on relevant previous experience for help evaluating the situation or finding solutions. Reflection can also be in-action (Schon, 1983) as when teachers reconsider their practice while teaching and act upon their thinking.

Wallace's model highlights the element of 'practice' as being central to building and refining teachers' knowledge bases and the process of reflection and professional growth. To maximize the effectiveness of learning through reflection, Wallace's work -- and most of the studies reviewed in this chapter -- suggest the sharing of the experience (the topic of reflection) through reflective dialogue characterized by focused discussion and a structured mode for articulating reflection.

Final Stage: The Goal

The model suggests that the output of the process, 'the goal' could be either 'initial competence' or professional 'expertise'. However, the goal here is not an end but rather perceived as a point of departure for another reflective cycle.

In summary, the model emphasizes the role of reflection in learning, the practice-theory direction to theorizing and professional learning, and the role of teachers in appropriating input by establishing links between their experiential knowledge and other received inputs. In conclusion, Wallace (1991) states that “development implies change, and fruitful change is extremely difficult without reflection. The unthinking or rote application of innovation is an invitation to disaster” (p. 54).

Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented a brief overview of the TE models embraced in language teacher education, discussed the relevance of employing SCT perspectives in understanding the process of teachers’ development and change focusing on the basic constructs of SCT. I also highlighted the notion of reflectivity and displayed its adoption through Wallace’s reflective model for professional learning. In the next three chapters I present the findings displaying teachers’ thinking and mental constructs, their reflections on practice, and aspects of their work and life. In Chapter 9 I revisit the theoretical perspectives discussed here, specifically SCT and Wallace’s reflective model in order to create an integrated framework which I employ in analyzing my findings.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Principles of Design

In this chapter, I describe my research methodology including the research sites, participants, data collection procedures, and data analysis strategies. This study addresses three main questions:

1. *How do EFL and EMS teachers perceive their teaching as having changed over the period of their careers in education?*
2. *How do EFL and EMS teachers perceive their professional development opportunities and the sources of change available to them?*
3. *How do school principals and professional development providers perceive their role in relation to the professional development of teachers and what are their perspectives on the process of change?*

Each of these questions is addressed through a sub-set of questions. In my answer, I attempt to center-stage teachers and illuminate their voices as they comment and reflect on their professional survival and development experiences in their teaching contexts. However, teachers' professional growth and the dynamics of their career development are often influenced by various aspects within the larger community, such as the socio-politics and conditions of the workplace as well as the roles and practices of other professionals in the teaching and teaching-related fields. For this reason, and to better contextualize the issues raised in the study, I invite other voices from the teachers' wider community – voices of educational administrators (school principals) and teacher educators who work closely with teachers. While this provides additional insights to the study, teacher survey and interview responses remain the primary source of data in this research. Nevertheless, I employed a multi-method approach and an 'emerging design' (Creswell, 2002) throughout the study process I used different tools for gathering information, made decisions on including various types and sources of data, and was constantly involved in modifying my approach so as to best serve the study.

Research Sites

School Sites

Twenty-two schools representing a cross-section of the basic educational system in Egypt are the main sites of this study. These schools include the public and private educational sectors and various teaching contexts in Cairo. Four types of schools (K-12) are explored in this work as follows:

- Six public Arabic schools (state-owned, providing the basic public free form of education where all subjects are taught in Arabic except for English and French which are taught as core subjects);
- Six public experimental schools (the public low-cost schools, partly English-medium, where the language of instruction in sciences and mathematics is English);
- Five private national schools (similar to the experimental English-medium programs, MOE monitored, but privately owned and administered);
- Five private international schools (privately owned schools that offer international programs leading to the American High School Diploma and IGCSE).

Although nearly 20% of school aged students are enrolled in Al-Azhur institutes, this type of religious schools is excluded from the sample for two reasons: First, Al-Azhar programs emphasize the teaching of Arabic language and Islamic studies and are less focused on foreign language teaching and learning. I anticipated less interest on their part to participate and less comparability. Second, because this system is state-owned, yet independent from the MOE, its inclusion in the study would have necessitated an additional set of official approvals and timely procedures. In addition to the description of the four school systems provided in Chapter 2, Table 1 illustrates the main features of the particular sites involved in the study. While the summary of characteristics highlights differences between the school systems, it is worth noting that there is a range of variation within each system in terms of school features, size, facility, and general standards.

Table 1
Characteristics of School Sites

| School characteristics | Public Arabic | Public experimental | Private national language | Private international |
|---|--|---|--|--|
| Ownership | Government owned and administered | Government owned and administered | Privately owned and administered; Conforms to government regulation | Privately established; regulated by international agreements |
| Programs | Grade-level MOE mandated curricula; Standardized exams leading to General Certificate of Secondary Education. | Same as public Arabic public; but use more English in instruction. | Provides similar program and Certification as that of the public system. | Offers grade-level programs leading to The American High School Diploma and/or The British IGCSE. |
| Language of instruction | All Arabic except for core English classes. | Math and sciences are taught through the medium of English. | All subjects are taught in English except Arabic, religious and social studies (which are mandated by (MOE). | All English Instruction. |
| Facility, support services, furnishing and equipments | Old school buildings; poorly maintained; very limited outdoor and indoor facilities (under-equipped classes, labs and libraries, and no outdoor facilities). | Built in the early 1990s, one-size, L-shaped, four-story buildings. Large facilities, but under equipped and poorly maintained. | New, large, modern style buildings; well furnished, with extended well-equipped facilities including: commuter and science labs, libraries, music rooms, cafeterias, and full indoors and outdoors sports facilities and services. | New large modern buildings; luxurious interior and exterior; and extended facilities with state-of-the-art technology. Sports facilities may include tracks for horse-back riding, semi-Olympic indoors and outdoors swimming pools. |
| Average class size | 50 | 45 | 22 | 15 |
| Range of annual fees per student | Free | From US \$40.00 - \$60.00 (depending on grade level) | From \$2.000 – \$6.000 | From \$4.000 – \$12.000 |
| Number of students | 1000 – 2000 | 1000 - 1500 | 700 - 1200 | 150 -500 |
| Socioeconomics | Low and middle working class | Middle working class | Upper & upper middle | Upper class |

| School characteristics | Public Arabic | Public experimental | Private national language | Private international |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| Certification and/or teaching requirements | Four-year local university program leading to degree in education | Same as public with additional English course or passing an English language test | University graduates; with or without degrees in education. Must be fluent in English | Locals and foreigners with various credentials; Must be native or native-like speaker of English. |

Design: A Multi-method Approach

This study included the following data collection tools and strategies:

1. A survey (Appendix A) administered to 174 Grades 1 to 12 teachers of English language and English-medium subjects working in public and private schools in Cairo.
2. In-depth semi-structured interviews conducted with the following groups of participants:
 - a. 36 of the 174 teachers who had completed the survey (see Appendix B for teacher interview guide);
 - b. 15 school principals representing the private and public sectors (see Appendix C for principal interview guide);
 - c. 8 professional development providers from the field of in-service teacher education in Cairo (see Appendix D for interview guide);
3. The retrieval of various institutional and public documents relevant to the research topics.
4. Field notes based on observations of research sites.

As is common in educational research, I used these techniques simultaneously and in conjunction with one another. For example, during site visits for survey or interview purposes I often had opportunities to tour and observe the sites as well as interact with participants and other individuals from the professional communities. During these field visits, I collected data in the form of written field notes, documents, and artifacts relevant to the study topics explored. Figure 3 illustrates the multiple sources of data used in the study.

The use of such multiple data sources and multi-method approach provided a wider perspective on the issues examined and allowed for the comparison and triangulation of data. This is necessary to eliminate biases and validate the findings for two reasons. The first is that the investigation is based primarily on participants' perceptions and self-assessment of their own professional competencies and field related experiences. The second is that the investigation was conducted solely by me and I performed the roles of researcher, analyst, interpreter and writer of the study.

Having presented the basic grounds for this investigation, I now describe the major tools and procedures employed in the study.

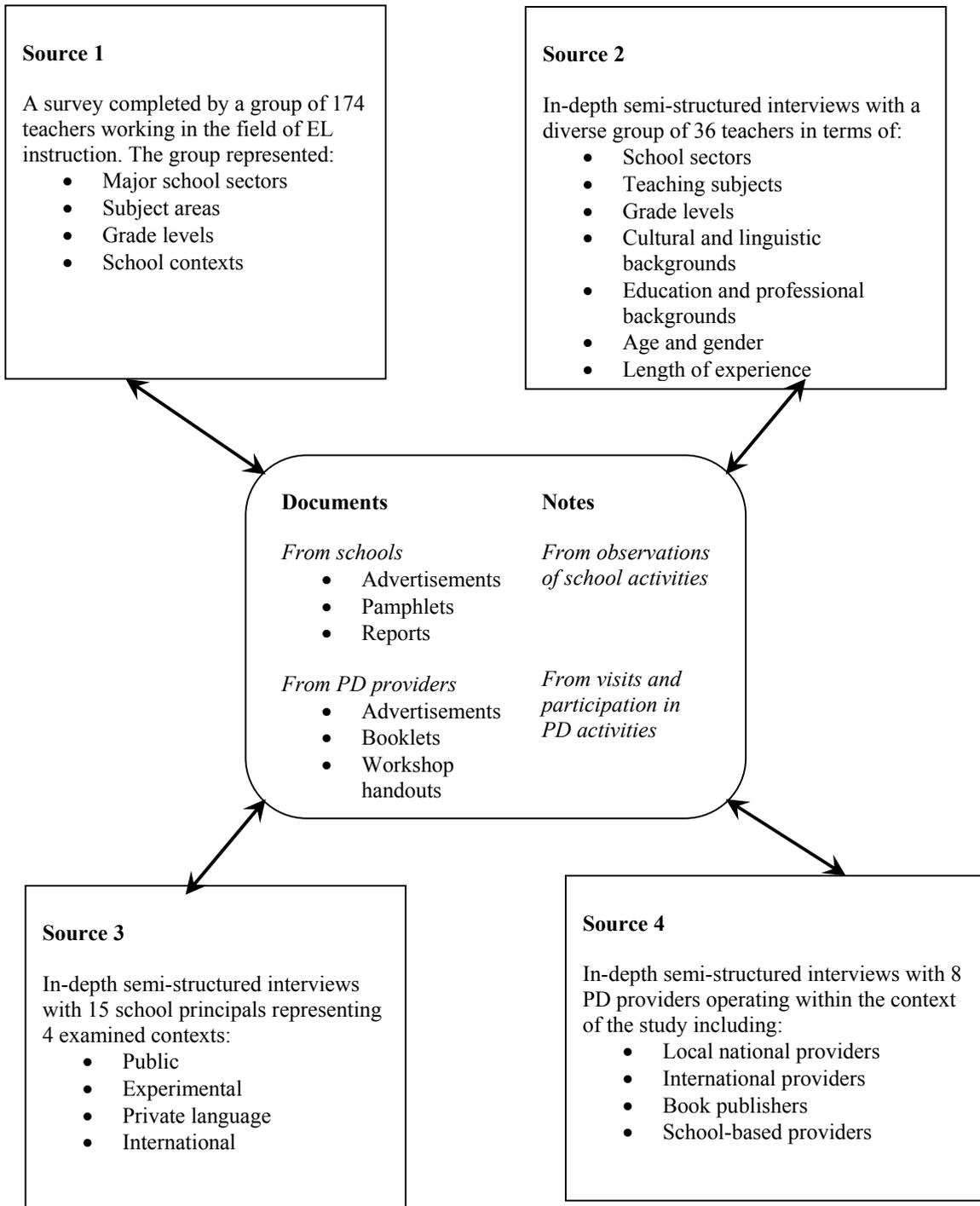


Figure 3. Research methods: Multiple sources of data.

Teacher Survey

The teacher survey is the main quantitative strategy employed in this work (see Appendix A). It is partly based on Richards, Gallo, and Renandya's (2001) survey for examining teachers' beliefs and processes of change. I adapted their survey by modifying the teacher background section (e.g., changing the list of school types). In the second section which includes 3 questions and participants were invited to describe their beliefs on teaching, aspects of change in their practices and sources of change, I worked with the essence of question 2 and 3 but reformulated them. I organized the survey into a cross-sectional fourpart instrument in which participants were invited to provide "opinions," and "experiences" as well as describe "behaviours" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 448). Part 1 consists of six items about teachers' backgrounds and demographic information. Part 2 includes 17 items representing areas of teaching practices where change may have occurred and an open-ended question; and Part 3 consists of 17 items representing sources of change and development and an open-ended question. In each part, 70% of the item lists are adopted from Richards, Gallo, and Renandya's (2001) study while 30% were added. A six-level Likert scale is used to allow teachers to indicate their perceptions on the extent to which their teaching has changed (Part 2), and on the influence of their sources (Part 3). By adding the choice of "N/A - non applicable" to the original 5 point Likert scale, the respondents had more flexibility .. Part 4 is an additional section that I developed consisting of the two item lists from Parts 2 and 3 and focuses on the link between categories of practice and sources of change.

Based on the questions addressed in this study, the survey is designed to elicit data on teachers' opinions and practices relating to their professional development and to compare teacher groups across the different school systems examined. The survey is not intended to evaluate teachers' performances, but rather to detect change related to their teaching practices (skills and attitudes) across time and to provide useful information on the various teacher support options perceived by teachers as linked to their change or career development. The survey may also have served as an awareness raising tool for teacher participants since its completion required them to think and reflect on various experiences and aspects of their professional learning. The survey was written in Arabic and English (see Appendix A) for the ease and convenience of respondents who were of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds (locals, foreign native-English speakers and Arabic-English bilinguals with varied levels of proficiency in English). Approximately 1500 survey

copies were distributed to teachers at different schools. There was an 11.6% return rate with 174 surveys completed and used.

Interview Protocols

Building on the strengths of different data collection tools, I employed qualitative interview techniques to supplement the survey and other data sources (documents and field observation). This was done by gathering related descriptive data that is more individualized and in participants' own words. I felt that this strategy was relevant to my research questions. This approach is also known to capture a more complete picture of the research problem or rather to develop a "complex" representation of the social phenomenon being examined (Greene & Caracelli, as cited in Creswell, 2002, p. 568).

I developed a semi-structured interview guide for each of the three groups of participants: teachers (Appendix B), school principals (Appendix C), and PD providers (Appendix D). Each guide consisted of questions intended to elicit data pertaining to my research topics. I used pre-determined sequences to make the collection process more systematic, increase completeness of data on each topic and allow for the comparability of responses. Within this structure, and as recommended by qualitative researchers (for example, Kalve, 1996; Marriam, 1998; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009), I adopted strategies aimed at making the interview a genuine 'social encounter' by matching each interview to the individual participant and particular circumstances of the situation. I was also open to other data emerging during the course of the interview.

Research Procedures and Data Collection

School Selection

I followed several avenues in selecting school sites. In a '*stratified random sampling approach*' (Fraenkel & Wallen 2009, p. 94), I included both the public and private sectors, all four school types and established a balance in level representation (primary, middle and secondary). I also accounted for a range of school characteristics and geographic locations (schools in both urban and rural areas) within the Greater Cairo Area (GCA). I included a few sites of 'convenience', i.e., those that were either close to my residence or ones that I knew from previous experience in Cairo. I

also used public advertisements and recommendations by teachers, parents and friends. My selection of sites has also been shaped by the official approval obtained for accessing particular schools, as well as other accessibility factors such as safety, transportation and the travel time required.

Access to Schools

It was first necessary to obtain official approvals in order to approach schools for the purpose of this research. Permission to access private sector schools for recruiting participants involved direct negotiation with school owners and/or principals using my letters of information (Appendix I) and the administrative consent forms (Appendix J). These detail all aspects of the study and ask for the institution's approval and consent.

Accessing government schools required compliance with an array of legal official formalities. Over a period of six months, I followed all the required procedures and obtained an approval to access a total of 40 schools. Identifying potential schools sites was part of the process of obtaining legal authorization from the School District Board offices. The schools approved fall within the jurisdictions of the three School Districts in Cairo: the Cairo, Giza, and Alyoubia School Districts. However I only included schools from Cairo and Giza for several reasons. Both districts were comparatively larger than Alyoubia and I felt that a sample from these two districts would be representative of the GCA as a whole. In addition, there were difficulties with travel to Alyoubia. Once the schools were identified, letters of approval from the local Board office were directed to the principals of each potential school site explaining my intent and asking for their assistance. According to the approved study plan, school participation in all study procedures was optional and was to be done in a way that did not obstruct the flow of the daily work. I approached 33 of the approved schools to invite their participation; 22 were formally involved in the study.

Overview of Research Population

A total of 197 participants took part in the present study: 174 school teachers of EFL and English-medium subjects, 15 principals and 8 professional development providers (teacher educators). Although the design of the study invites three groups of participants, it focused primarily on exploring teachers' process of development and change and teachers are the main participants and major source of data upon which the study is based. However, including the views of school principals and teacher educators is essential to contextualize the topics raised in this study. They are

the professionals who share and shape the field and work closely with teachers and their work directly or indirectly impacts teachers' performances, choices and their attitudes and actions toward development and change. Their views provide valuable insights and additional perspectives to the phenomenon examined. With regards to the recruitment of teachers and principals, I followed the official routine prescribed for accessing school personnel. The flow of communication was from School Board to principals and from principals to teachers. For professional development providers, I utilized a direct contact approach. In the following sections, I describe my three groups of participants (teachers, principals and PD providers), their recruitment and data collection procedure as well as the other data sources and strategies maintained in the present study (related documents and field observations).

School Principals

This group of participants consisted of 15 principals working at the schools where teacher-participants were also recruited. This group included both male and female principals and both local and non-local individuals who were in their mid 40s and 50s. They had worked closely with the teachers and had considerable experience within the field of schooling and education both in and out of Cairo. Three of the principals represent the Public Arabic system, four represent the Experimental schools, four represent the National Language schools and four represent the International schools. The 15 principals took part in a semi-structured interview approximately one hour in length where they responded to questions on their perception of and roles in their teachers' professional development. Principals were the gatekeepers to teacher participants and other school data; approaching them effectively was critical to the quality and quantity of the data obtained from their schools. The principals who were interested to participate facilitated teacher recruitment in their schools and often unlocked multiple opportunities for additional data. They eased the procedures of data collection at their schools as a whole. Those who were less keen about taking part in the study restricted data from their schools to varying extents. Principals who were interested supplied the bulk of the data. Table 2 summarizes the information on their backgrounds, workplace and interview protocols.

Table 2***Summary of Principals' Information***

| Principal code | Gender | School type | School level | Nationality | English background | Years of experience | | Recorded interview (minutes) | Number of visits |
|----------------|--------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------------|---------------------|--------|------------------------------|------------------|
| | | | | | | Teaching | Admin. | | |
| PP1 | F | Public | Secondary | EG* | EFL/NES** | 15 | 5 | 60 | 4 |
| PP2 | F | Public | Secondary | EG | EFL/NES | 10 | 7 | 75 | 3 |
| PP3 | M | Public | Prim-Mid. | EG | EFL/NES | 13 | 5 | 60 | 3 |
| PP4 | M | Public | Secondary | EG | EFL/NES | 17 | 5 | 45 | 2 |
| PP5 | F | Exp. | Primary. | EG | EFL/NES | 10 | 2 | 75 | 2 |
| PP6 | F | Exp. | Mid-Sec. | EG | EFL/NES | 10 | 3 | 45 | 4 |
| PP7 | M | Exp. | Secondary | EG | EFL/NES | 12 | 8 | 45 | 2 |
| PN1 | F | National | K-12 | EG/British | L1 | 0 | 3 | 45 | 2 |
| PN2 | F | National | K-6 | EG | ESL | 5 | 2 | 70 | 3 |
| PN3 | F | National | K-9 | EG/American | L1 | 0 | 2 | 60 | 2 |
| PN4 | F | National | K-12 | EG | ESL | 5 | 7 | 70 | 3 |
| PI1 | F | Int. | K-12 | EG | ESL | 2 | 3 | 65 | 2 |
| PI2 | F | Int. | K-12 | Canadian | L1 | 3 | 5 | 55 | 3 |

| Principal code | Gender | School type | School level | Nationality | English background | Years of experience | | Recorded interview (minutes) | Number of visits |
|----------------|--------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------------|---------------------|--------|------------------------------|------------------|
| | | | | | | Teaching | Admin. | | |
| PI3 | F | Int. | K-8 | EG/American | ESL | 0 | 1 | 60 | 2 |
| PI4 | M | Int. | K-12 | EG/Canadian | ESL | 0 | 2 | 70 | 3 |
| Total | | | | | | | | 900 (min.) | 40 |

Note. *EG: Egyptian; **NES: Non-English speaking. Principal code consists of two letters and representing participant group, school type and principal number.

Principal Recruitment and Interview Protocols

Once permission to access schools was granted, in some cases I contacted the principals by phone (for script of initial phone contact see Appendix G). In other case, contact was initiated by visits to each school for a brief meeting with the principal or head administrator. During the initial contacts, I introduced myself, explained my purpose, provided a brief overview of the study and requested their participation. I came prepared with proof of identity and official permissions. I also handed out information letters (Appendix I), consent forms (Appendix J), and copies of the interview questions written in English and Arabic (Appendix C). This gave them the opportunity to think and reflect on the questions and issues to be raised and thus give their consent on an informed basis. Principals had the following options – to agree or not agree to allow access to school for teacher recruitment or agree or not agree to participate in an interview schedule. Where there was an agreement to participate, an appointment was set for meeting at their schools to discuss further involvement. During a recruitment phase of over six months, 33 principals/schools were approached for the study purpose; 15 volunteered to be interviewed and permitted access to their schools, 7 consented to providing access to teachers in their schools and 11 declined the invitation as a whole (for different reasons). All 15 interviews were individually conducted and took place at the principals' school offices at their convenience.

During the interviews, participants often presented documents and artifacts in support of their discussions such as pamphlets, teaching kits, teacher evaluation forms, reports on teacher training, letters of awards and recognition, certificates of accreditation, school newsletters, statements of missions, goals, etc. Some of these I was able to collect for this work. In some cases, I was escorted by the principal or another staff member to tour school or see an aspect relating to issues raised during the interview. All interviews were recorded and I wrote notes during and after the meetings. After completing the interviews, I listened to some of the recordings for the purposes of preliminary processing of data and member checks. My repeated visits to school sites for other data collection purposes provided me with ample opportunities to clarify or request additional information and follow up on issues when required.

Teacher Participants

The teacher participant group consisted of 174 male (41%) and female (59%) English language teachers of Grades 1-12. Teachers participated by completing a survey or by taking part in a 60 to 90 minute interview or both. In each procedure, teachers responded to questions on their career development experiences. Of the participants, 70% represented teachers of English as a core subject and 30% were English-medium subject (EMS) teachers. Figure 4 shows this distribution:

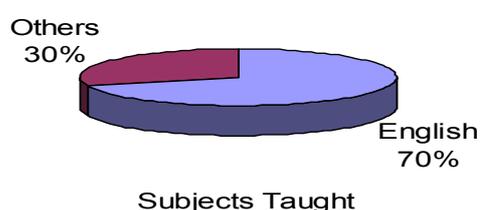


Figure 4. English and English-medium subjects taught.

I included teacher participants from the four school systems since each school type differs in terms of program characteristics, teaching expectations and work demands. Inclusion of data from both the public and private sectors is thus critical. Figure 5 illustrates the fairly balanced teacher representation of the two sectors where 52% of the respondents come from the two public school systems and 48% from the private school systems.

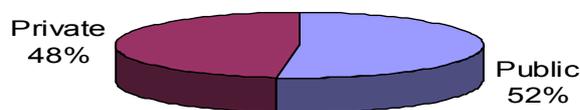


Figure 5. Teacher participation across school types.

Participants also represent the three school levels which form the basic education system: 38% teach at the primary level, 24% teach at the middle level and 38% teach at the secondary level. Figure 6 illustrates teachers' distribution over grade levels.

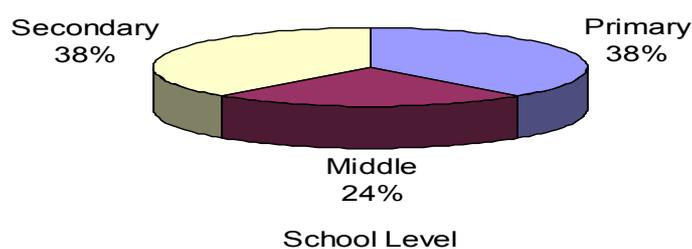


Figure 6. Teacher participation from each school level.

Due to the diversity of the teacher population involved in English language and English-medium teaching in Cairo, the teacher participants of this study come from different cultural, educational and professional backgrounds. Teacher participants included Egyptian nationals, returning expatriates and native English speaking professionals working as teachers in Cairo. Since school sectors also differ in their requirements of teaching certifications and professional competencies, teacher participants held varied credentials and teaching qualifications. Figure 7 illustrates the educational backgrounds of the teachers. The majority of teachers (95%) held Bachelor degrees, many (11%) had additional graduate qualifications and some (5%) were working without having completed a four-year university program. It is also worth noting that teachers' qualifications do not necessarily relate to the field of education or language pedagogy. Figure 8 shows that 34% of the teacher participants have obtained additional teaching certification. For some teachers, this may have been taken in attempts to continue their education and upgrade their skills. For others it may have been a requirement to enter teaching.

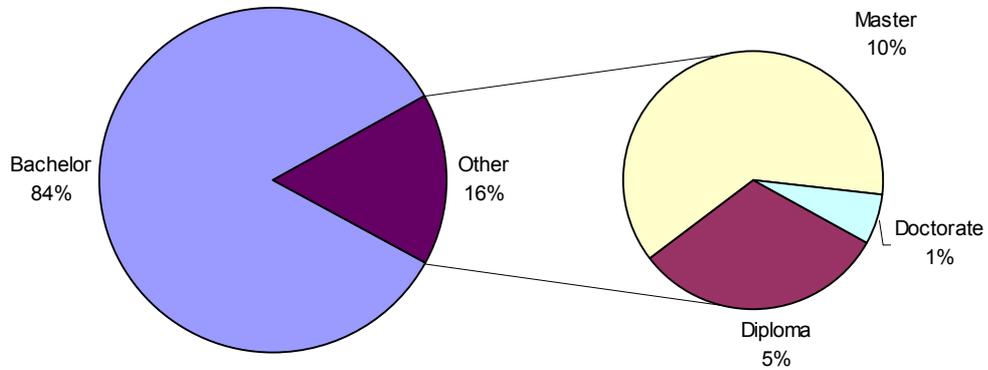


Figure 7. Teacher educational backgrounds.

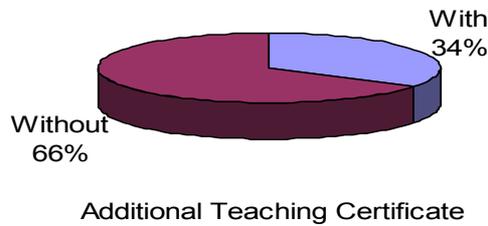


Figure 8. Additional teaching certification.

Given my research questions, I targeted teachers at different career stages but with a minimum of one year of experience at the time of the study. This experience criterion was to ensure that participants would be able to respond to questions regarding their professional development and change over time. Teachers with less than a year of experience would have limited experience and knowledge on the process of teacher development and change over time. The selection criteria were

indicated in the teachers' letters of information (Appendix K). Figure 9 illustrates the length of teaching experience across the teacher sample.

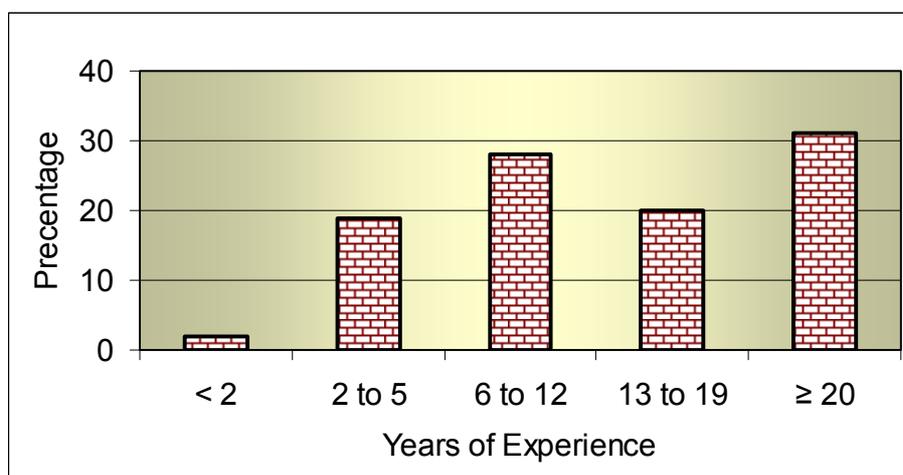


Figure 9. Teachers' length of teaching experience.

Teacher Recruitment

After obtaining the school administrative consent, I hand-delivered to each school administration packages consisting of the following documents: a letter of information for teachers (Appendix K); consent form (Appendix L); copy of the survey (Appendix A); a list of the interview questions (Appendix B) and an envelope in which completed documents could be sealed if the applicants preferred. Based upon my request, principals posted my letters of information in their schools, distributed the packages to teachers and placed extras in teachers' rooms and lounges. In my letters, I requested teachers' participation in the study, explained the procedures, the roles that they were expected to perform, and the risks and benefits involved. On the consent form, teachers had the option to select whether they wished to participate by completing the survey, taking part in an interview, or do both. I also included my contact information so that I could answer questions and clarify any aspects of the study if required, pick up completed surveys/packages and establish an interview schedule.

During my visits to schools I was given access to teachers' rooms and lounges and this provided another avenue of recruitment through direct encounters with teachers I took these opportunities to meet with teachers during their free time to explain my purpose and invited their

participation. I also handed out teacher packages, explained their content and asked teachers to complete them if they wished to take part.

Several teachers showed interest and immediately agreed to participate, signed and handed their consent forms to me. Others needed time to decide whether to participate, so I contacted them later to follow up. I took contact information from all those willing to volunteer and subsequently contacted them, either in person during my visits to their schools or by phone. Meeting arrangements were then set at times convenient to the participants so that they could give their consent, complete or return surveys or meet to determine interview schedules. All recruitment meetings took place at schools during school hours. The average number of visits to each potential site for recruitment purposes was four visits. However, recruiting potential participants often took place concurrently with other procedures such as administering surveys, interviewing participants, or attending/observing school events.

A Pilot Study

In preparation for data collection, I conducted a pilot study with four participants -- two secondary school teachers and two preparatory teachers working in the public school sector. All four had completed the survey and volunteered to be interviewed. With each participant, I scheduled an interview in which participants started by discussing their survey answers and then proceeded to responding to the interview questions.

I conducted two separate interviews with the two secondary teachers and one dual (group) interview with the two preparatory teachers. The interviews took place at participants' workplaces; in a classroom, a small conference room, and in the teachers' room. All three sessions were tape-recorded with participants' permission. Participants either brought their completed survey with them or I supplied them with an additional copy to support the discussion. I led participants through the survey items, often asking them to explain or elaborate on their responses. Through this, process, I also intended to test my interpretation of sample answers. I then proceeded to the interview schedule part.

This pilot experience was informative to the study as it pin-pointed to pitfalls in the interview procedure. From one perspective, I found that participants were actively engaged in the discussions and provided rich input to the study.

From another perspective, shortcomings in the two part interview design appeared and were later addressed. First, time management and focus-on-topic were problematic. Participants had a lot to say and share on the numerous topics raised by the survey. They often expanded on some issues, calling on their personal professional experiences across the years of their career, and thus the interview took longer than scheduled. Moreover, the tendency to branch off main issues was prominent in all three meetings. As there were a lot of emotions involved in their tone and discussion, I felt that repeatedly interrupting my interviewees would affect their willingness to participate in an open and free manner. Another concern experienced was session interruptions. In some cases, these were due to the participants requesting that the recording be paused or rewound so that they could clarify or erase segments. In other cases, it was due to intrusions by others coming into the room and interrupting the conversation. Most importantly, it appeared that in the extended two part interviews, discussing survey responses came on the expense of the quality of the second part, i.e., the interview schedule. The interview time limit was reached before covering all the questions. It was also apparent that participants' engagement and interest in the discussion seemed to be fading, often because many issues were already touched upon on by the survey discussion and thus were repetitive or redundant.

Alternatively, I decided to eliminate the survey discussion part from the interview schedules and limit the procedure to one 60-90 minute session. To reduce the incidence of off-topic discussions and control for time, I listened carefully to the recorded conversations to examine the patterns of the exchange throughout the interviews. This resulted in the employment of different questioning strategies. For example, I framed my questions by providing examples of possible responses so as to direct the discussion to the topic domain. I commented on other responses by summarizing or paraphrasing them to signal my understanding and bring the issue to a closure.

Beyond these technical adjustments, piloting the interview procedure allowed me to gain insights on my interviewees' conceptions and attitudes towards several issues in their professional. For example, I became more cognizant of some of the issues or questions that would ignite a strong emotional response (including anger) and extended the discussion. This awareness helped me to better manage the data collection procedures as well as maintain the quality of data received. Moreover, this preliminary application served in refining my theoretical framework for the issues raised in this investigation.

Teacher Survey

From the 22 schools involved, 174 teachers working within the four examined education systems volunteered to complete the survey. The survey was administered through three avenues:

1. Eighty teachers received their surveys through the packages/envelopes I delivered to schools during the recruitment phase. These participants completed their surveys on their own time without my presence, signed their consent forms and sealed them together in the envelopes provided with their packages. The envelopes were left for me to collect at the school offices.
2. Forty-three participants completed their surveys and hand-delivered them to me directly, through both pre-arranged and spontaneous meetings. These meetings took place at participants' schools, at teachers' rooms, libraries, and lounges. They were brief (10 - 20 minutes) depending on participants' time, need for clarification and/or their willingness to comment. In all cases, I asked if they had any concerns and invited their comments on the survey and reflections on the experience as a whole.
3. Fifty-one teacher participants chose to respond to the survey in my presence. They felt that this was an opportunity for them to share their perspectives on their own professional issues. I met with this group of participants at their schools individually and in small groups of two to four teachers. All meetings were pre-scheduled and took place at times and places convenient to participants: in teachers' rooms, lounges, meeting rooms, and in vacant classrooms. Meetings varied in time length between 10 and 45 minutes. The process of completing the survey took the form of a '*think-a-loud protocol*' in an informal nature. Participants read each of the survey items, responded, commented, asked questions and shared several of their experiences which they thought relevant to some items. In some cases, teachers also brought forth some of their school materials in support of the discussion. During these meetings, I used a blank survey to make brief notes on the items and later I added details from memory. With participants' permission, I also gathered copies of some of the materials shared during the discussions (teacher lesson plans, samples of tests, teacher assessment guides and hand-outs distributed to teachers during PD sessions, etc.). Participants spoke comfortably during the sessions and at the

end I was handed the completed survey and the signed consent. These sessions were not recorded.

I believe that having teachers complete the questionnaire in my presence while externalizing their thinking and reflecting on the various items was an effective strategy for collecting deeper insights on the survey issues. Based upon the quality and depth of information received, it more than compensated for canceling the survey discussion and collected information on the same topics..

Teacher Semi-Structured In-Depth Interviews

Thirty-six teachers of the 174 participant volunteered to take part in the interview procedure in addition to completing the survey. This group consisted of male and female teachers at different career stages working at the 22 participating schools. Table 3 provides a summary of the teacher interviewees' information and backgrounds.

Table 3

Summary of Teacher Interviewee Information

| Case no. | Teacher Code | Nationality/status | English learning background L1, ESL, EFL | Qualifications | Grades taught | Subjects | School type | Years of experience |
|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------------|---|--|----------------------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | PA-1 | local | EFL | BA BEd English | 4-6 | English | Public Arabic | 13 |
| 2 | PA-2 | local | EFL | BA English | 10-12 | English | Public Arabic | 15 |
| 3 | PA-3 | local | EFL | BA English & Teaching Diploma | 10-12 | English | Public Arabic | 24 |
| 4 | PA-4 | local | EFL | BA English, Teaching Diploma & MA English | 10-12 | English | Public Arabic | 19 |

| Case no. | Teacher Code | Nationality/ status | English learning background L1, ESL, EFL | Qualifications | Grades taught | Subjects | School type | Years of experience |
|-----------------|---------------------|----------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|---------------------|----------------------------|
| 5 | PA-5 | local | EFL | BA E, BA Arabic, Teaching Diploma | 6-8 | English | Public Arabic | 29 |
| 6 | PA-6 | local | EFL | BA In English | 3-6 | English | Public Arabic | 18 |
| 7 | PA-7 | local | EFL | BA in English | 7-8 | English | Public Arabic | 15 |
| 8 | PA-8 | local | EFL | BA linguistics (legal translator) | 7-12 | English | Private Lang. | 10 |
| 9 | PE-1 | local | EFL | BA in English | | English | Public Arabic | 24 |
| 10 | PE-2 | local | EFL | BA in English & ED Diploma | 7-8 | English | Public Experimental | 20 |
| 11 | PE-3 | local | EFL | BSc & Ed Diploma | 10-12 | Science | Public Experimental | 23 |
| 12 | PE-4 | local | EFL | BSc., Ed Diplomas & TESL | 7-9 | Math & Science | Public Experimental | 24 |
| 13 | PE-5 | local | EFL | BA. & MA Ed | 4-6 | English | Public Experimental | 16 |

| Case no. | Teacher Code | Nationality/status | English learning background L1, ESL, EFL | Qualifications | Grades taught | Subjects | School type | Years of experience |
|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------------|---|-------------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|
| 14 | PE-6 | local | EFL | BA in English | 11-12 | English | Public Experimental | 20 |
| 15 | PE-7 | local | EFL | BA in English | 7-9 | English | Public Experimental | 16 |
| 16 | PE-8 | local | EFL | BSc & Ed Diploma | 4-6 | Math & science | Public Experimental | 25 |
| 17 | NL-1 | local | EFL/ESL | BSc. Engineering. | 3-4 | math, & English | Private Lang. | 18 |
| 18 | NL-2 | Returning expatriate | ESL | BA in English | 7-8 | English | Private Lang. | 5 |
| 19 | NL-3 | local | ESL | BA Economics & Political Science | 1-3 | Math & science | Private Lang. | 14 |
| 20 | NL-4 | Returning expatriate | L1 | BA in English | 4-7 | E | Private Lang. | 10 |
| 21 | NL-5 | local | EFL/ESL | BA Economics (AUC), TEFL (CDC, USA) | 4-8 | English & social studies | Private Lang. | 3 |
| 22 | NL-6 | local | ESL | BSc. Biology & MSc. Immunology | 3-6 | Science | Private Lang. | 18 |

| Case no. | Teacher Code | Nationality/status | English learning background L1, ESL, EFL | Qualifications | Grades taught | Subjects | School type | Years of experience |
|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------------|---|---|----------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| 23 | NL-7 | local | ESL | MA in business administration | 8-12 | English & IT | Private Lang. | 5 |
| 24 | NL-8 | Returning expatriate | ESL | BA Economics (AUC) | 11-12 | Math | Private Lang. | 20 |
| 25 | NL-9 | local | L1 | BA E | 10-12 | English | Private Lang. | 8 |
| 26 | NL-10 | local | ESL | BSc Science | 3-9 | Science | Private Lang. | 4 |
| 27 | IN-1 | American | L1 | Menonite University Virginia & ECE Teaching Cert. | 3 | All subjects | International | 4 |
| 28 | IN-2 | Australian | L1 | BA Scinece & BEd. | 2,5,6, 11 | Science & social studies. | International | 4 |
| 29 | IN-3 | Egyptian | L1/ESL | BSc. Science (AUC), TEFL (CDC, USA) | 9-12 | Math, SAT | International | 2 |
| 30 | IN-4 | Egyptian | ESL | PhD Biology | 9-12 | Science | International | 3 |
| 31 | IN-5 | Egyptian | ESL | BA S.S. (AUC) | 9-12 | S.S. | International | 3 |

| Case no. | Teacher Code | Nationality/status | English learning background L1, ESL, EFL | Qualifications | Grades taught | Subjects | School type | Years of experience |
|----------|--------------|--------------------|---|---|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 32 | IN-6 | Irish | L1 | BA Law & TEFL (Dublin) | 6-7 | E and S.S. | International | 3 |
| 33 | IN-7 | Egyptian American | L1 | BA History (AUC), Cert. in Curr. & Inst. (MA in progress) | 4 | Class teacher | International | 4 |
| 34 | IN-8 | Lebanese American | ESL | BA E (Lebanon) & MA E Litature | 10-12 | English | International | 12 |
| 35 | IN-9 | Egyptian | ESL | BA Linguistics TESOL (AUC) | 10-12 | English | International | 6 |
| 36 | IN-10 | American | L1 | BA HSS (Duke Univ.) | 4-5 | English | International | 2 |

Note. Teacher codes consist of two letters representing the school system followed by a number assigned for each interviewee (e.g., PA for public Arabic, PE for public Experimental, NL for national language and IN for international).

I conducted an in-depth semi-structured interview with each of the 36 volunteering teachers. All interviews took place when convenient to participants, during school hours and in participants' workplaces. The length of time for each interview varied from 70 - 90 minutes. However, the actual meeting time often extended beyond this time frame and included informal conversations before and after the meeting. All interviews were audio-recorded with the participant's permission. However, occasionally participants requested to pause the recording to ask for addition information or clarify their responses. Depending on each participant's language preference and comfort level, discussions were carried out in English, Arabic or code-mixed. The total recording time was approximately 45 hours (see Table 7 for details).

During the interviews, I followed the questions in the interview guide (Appendix B), took written notes and teachers often shared various samples of their materials. I was able to collect or photocopy some of these materials with participants' permission. At the conclusion of the interview, my participants and I exchanged our contact information for clarification or follow-up purposes if needed. I listened to several of the recordings immediately after the interview. When there was any missing information or items that needed clarification, I met my interviewee again the next time I visited school as data collection was still in progress.

Professional Development Program Providers

The third group of participants involved in this study includes 8 professionals from the field of in-service teacher education in Cairo. These participants were working at six organizations considered major sources of English language related services and career development for teachers. They also were in leadership positions at their workplaces and thus representative of their institutional perspectives. Table 4 outlines participants' demographics, affiliations, job positions and the services that they provide through their programs.

Table 4
Summary of PD Providers' Information

| No. of participants and code | Age/ gender | Nationality | Position | Organization / affiliation | Services |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--|---|---|
| 1 (PD1) | Male in early 40s | Egyptian American | Coordinator of teacher training programs | Cairo Branch of a North American Cultural/educational institute | A wide range of English language support services including language and teacher training courses |
| 1 (PD1) | Female early 40s | Egyptian American | Program director | | |

| No. of participants and code | Age/ gender | Nationality | Position | Organization / affiliation | Services |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--|---|--|
| 1 (PD2) | Male in 50s | British | Head of Teacher Training Unit | An international European cultural and educational center | Testing services; certificate/none-certificate English language courses, CELTA and other teacher training programs |
| 1 (PD3) | Male in 60s | Egyptian | A faculty/ professor of Educational psychology; and a teacher educator | An Egyptian state university in Cairo World Bank educational reform project; and The National Center for Assessment and Evaluation (MOE) | Designs and delivers pre-and in-service teacher education courses; participates teacher training and training of trainer school-based programs |
| 1 (PD4) | Female in 30s | Egyptian | Owner and manager of a teacher training center | A local privately owned Career development center accredited by a university in UK | A small scale business offers short courses and workshops for English language teachers |
| 2 (PD5) | Males in 50s | Local Egyptians | Heads of school training unit | Public middle and secondary school | Coordinates between MOE and school, follows and report on implementing MOE training agenda |

| No. of participants and code | Age/ gender | Nationality | Position | Organization / affiliation | Services |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--|---|---|
| 1 (PD6) | Male in 30s | Local Egyptian | Professional development facilitator | North American textbook publisher and distributor | Focus on encouraging and orienting teachers to use particular sets of academic materials though in and out of school workshops, consultations and one-to-one teacher support. |

PD Providers' Recruitment

To seek potential participants and obtain contact information, I visited 14 PD sites representing a cross section of PD organizations in Cairo. These included both local and international PD organizations in Cairo and included organization functioning at different levels and capacities. The sites as indicated in Table 4 included four international educational and cultural organizations, two national local universities, one national (MOE) institute, two North American textbook publishers, one private local large scale career development organization, one small private PD center, and three schools. From the 18 individuals approached to take part in this study, eight PD providers agreed to participate. However, several of those who declined formal participation discussed the interview questions informally with me, shared their experiences and opinions and provided various documents of information (booklets, brochures, and information letters) describing their institutional services and philosophy. These were public documents which I added to the document collection used in this study.

Initial communications to PD providers by phone (see Appendix H) proved ineffective in attracting enough attention and understanding of my request, so I contacted several teacher educators, program coordinators and managers by visiting their offices directly. During these visits, I was successful in making appointments to meet with representatives at later times. During my meetings with potential participants, I briefed them on the study aims and clarified their role and the potential risks and benefits associated with their participation. To each individual, I handed an information letter (Appendix M), a consent form (Appendix N) as well as a copy of the interview questions (Appendix D) so that participants could give their informed consent. I answered any

questions that emerged. I asked participants to complete the consent forms and return them to me before or during the interview if they wished to participate. Decisions to accept or decline participation were often made during these preliminary meetings. A number of consent forms were signed and returned during those preliminary meetings and appointments were set for the interview schedules.

PD Provider Interviews

I conducted six in-depth semi-structured interviews with the eight PD providers described. All interviews were carried out during office hours and at participants' workplaces (their offices and conference rooms). All participants were individually interviewed except for the two participants representing the North American international program and the two interviewees of the public school training unit. In these cases, both providers were interviewed together. All six sessions were audio-recorded with an average length of 60 minutes each. However, additional time was spent with participants before and after the formal interview schedule. I took hand-written notes during the interviews and collected various documents from the PD sites involved. The documents collected included booklets, posters, leaflets, and records informative of providers' history, philosophy, goals, a description of their services, plans and schedule of offerings. I stayed in touch with most participants (by e-mail, phone or visits) during and after the data collection procedure for purposes of updates on the interview schedules, clarification of information and member-checks. Table 5 summarizes the data collected from the PD provider group.

Table 5

Summary of PD Providers Interviews Data

| Case no. | PD provider affiliation | No. of interviewees | Length of interview (minutes) | Length of recorded interview (minutes) | No. of visits / meetings | Other data |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1 | North American cultural/Edu. Org. | 2 | 90 | 75 | 3 | Docs. |
| 2 | European Cultural Education. Center | 1 | 60 | 60 | 2 | Docs. |

| Case no. | PD provider affiliation | No. of interviewees | Length of interview (minutes) | Length of recorded interview (minutes) | No. of visits / meetings | Other data |
|----------|---|---------------------|-------------------------------|--|--------------------------|---------------|
| 3 | Local University World Bank MOE (Egypt) | 1 | 75 | 75 | 4 | Docs. & Notes |
| 4 | Private Local Teacher Training Center | 1 | 70 | 60 | 3 | |
| 5 | Public School Sector (MOE) | 2 | 90 | 90 | 2 | Notes |
| 6 | North American Book Publisher | 1 | 75 | 60 | 4 | Docs. & Notes |
| | | Total | 460 | 420 | 18 | |

Other Data Sources

Documents

In their discussion of qualitative research methods, Bogdan and Biklen (2007) contend that significant documents stand as considerable source of data on their own. As part of my multi-method approach, I collected and examined various personal, public and institutional records, documents and artifacts pertinent to my topics such as: (a) institutional handbooks, (b) guidelines for teaching, (c) teacher evaluation forms, CVs, (d) handouts from teacher workshops, (e) samples of standardized tests, (f) brochures, (g) school policies, (h) school self-study reports, (i) evaluation reports, (j) lesson plans, (k) exam booklets codes of ethics, (l) statements of philosophy, (m) public reports, (n) advertisements and (o) course/program descriptions.

Following Bogdan and Biklen's (2007) criteria, I accounted for authenticity, accuracy and relevance of the material by looking into the origins of those documents, the writers, purposes and contexts in which they were written. I read the materials and during the collection process, I also

often discussed them with the providers of this information. Through this, I believe that I have been able to include the perspectives of the keepers or producers of these materials into the study. The materials consist of approximately 70 pieces (varying in type and length between one page document and 150 page booklets). Roughly 80% of such were collected from participating sources (teachers, principals, PD providers) during site visits and various data collection procedures. Approximately 20% came from non-participating sources (from the general field) and those are mainly documents intended for public distribution and use (such as ads, booklets, MOE reports). In many cases, interviewees had referenced these documents.

Field Observations

The other qualitative strategy that I employed was writing field notes based on my observations of the examined context. Along the study journey, I wrote descriptive and reflective notes that compensate for what tape-recorders and survey procedures usually miss. My written accounts include not only descriptions of the environmental and physical aspects of the settings attended, but also comments on the social dynamics, such as participants' attitudes, peoples' professional conduct and cultural trends and the emotions involved. My notes also included captions on/from participants' comments on the issues raised in the survey and interview discussions. Although, I have been visiting classrooms during the course of the study, structured lesson observations were not the focus of this work.

I took a non-participant observer stand and adopted a low key role because I viewed the research setting as 'politically charged'. There was apparent divergence over system issues among teachers and between teachers and their top authorities. I often wrote 'post facto' notes and refrained from holding a pad and a pen while observing my surroundings in order to build trust and get people to feel comfortable discussing their views openly with me. The notes taken during various interviews and survey administrations were brief, limited to a few words to which I added details later after the incidents. They were taken in a manner that did not break the natural flow of events.

I was aware that the successful outcome of data collection strategies relies on the researcher's monitoring of his/her own role (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Fraenkel & Wallen 2009). Accordingly, in addition to my recording/documentation of external aspects, I also documented my own thoughts and feelings during various field work experiences including my sense of, enthusiasm, uncertainty, support for and empathy with others, and sometimes my sense of fear, embarrassment or

puzzlement. So, while the descriptive notes help in better understanding and contextualizing the issues raised by the study, these personal reflections proved invaluable to the analysis of data as they helped me relive experiences, re-examine my perceptions of situations, and help control for my potential biases during the analysis phase. In other words, I used this strategy to separate between incidents of data (what I saw and heard) from my interpretation of them.

Having described the variant tools and strategies used in this study, I will present a summary of the data obtained and analytic measures taken.

Data Sets and Analysis

The study procedures described above were completed over a year, resulting in a set of 174 completed teacher surveys, audio-recorded interviews with 36 teachers, 15 school principals and 6 PD providers, a collection of relevant documents, and a set of field notes pertaining to aspects of the data obtained. Table 6 illustrates each school contribution to the data sets. Using quantitative and qualitative measures, the data sets (detailed below) were then analyzed and used to supplement one another.

Table 6**Summary of School Data Units**

| No. | School | | | | No. of surveys | No. of teacher interviews | Principal interview | Docs. | Notes | School tours |
|-----|---------------|------|--------|-----------|----------------|---------------------------|---------------------|-------|-------|--------------|
| | Type | Code | Gender | Level | | | | | | |
| 1 | Public Arabic | PA-O | Girls | Secondary | 7 | 2 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 2 | | PA-G | Girls | Secondary | 10 | 2 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 3 | | PA-S | Mixed | Primary | 4 | 1 | | √ | √ | |
| 4 | | PA-A | Boys | Middle | 10 | 1 | | √ | √ | √ |
| 5 | | PA-B | Boys | Primary | 6 | 1 | √ | | √ | √ |
| 6 | | PA-M | Mixed | Prim-Mid | 3 | 1 | | | √ | √ |
| 7 | Experimental | PE-O | Girls | Secondary | 15 | 2 | √ | | √ | √ |
| 8 | | PE-G | Girls | Secondary | 7 | 1 | √ | | √ | √ |
| 9 | | PE-A | Boys | Middle | 5 | 1 | | √ | √ | √ |
| 10 | | PE-M | Girls | Middle | 8 | 2 | √ | | √ | √ |
| 11 | | PE-S | Mixed | Primary | 9 | 1 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 12 | | PE-R | Girls | Middle | 1 | 1 | | √ | | |
| 13 | National | NL-B | Mixed | K-12 | 8 | 1 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 14 | | NL-M | Mixed | K-12 | 11 | 2 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 15 | | NL-S | Mixed | K-12 | 27 | 3 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 16 | | NL-N | Mixed | K-9 | 2 | 2 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 17 | | NL-J | Mixed | K-12 | 2 | 2 | | √ | √ | √ |
| 18 | International | IN-N | Mixed | K-12 | 6 | 2 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 19 | | IN-B | Mixed | K-12 | 8 | 1 | | √ | | |
| 20 | | IN-S | Mixed | K-12 | 3 | 2 | √ | √ | | √ |
| 21 | | IN-A | Mixed | K-9 | 6 | 2 | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 22 | | IN-M | Mixed | K-12 | 11 | 3 | √ | √ | √ | √ |

The Quantitative Set: Survey Data and Analysis

Responses to the 174 completed surveys were quantitatively analyzed using SSP statistical software. Descriptive and non-descriptive statistics was conducted for the collected responses. The six-levels of Likert scale in Parts 2 and 3 were merged to three categories according to the distribution of responses across the scale. The frequency, mean, standard error, median, mode, standard deviation, range, minimum, maximum, sum and confidence level were all calculated. The responses elicited by the open-ended questions were analyzed qualitatively in terms of their relation to the topics raised by the survey. A total of 32 comments were collected varying in length from one-short sentence to three lines of text. Part 4 was not completed by the majority of respondents. Even those who attempted to complete this section responded only to a few items on the list. This is perhaps due to the nature of the question, where responding to each item might have required reading the seventeen-item list repeatedly. However, with a cross-tabulation conducted for the responses obtained, the results are analyzed qualitatively to supplement other data when applicable.

The Qualitative Set: Interviews, Notes and Documents

At the completion of the interview protocols with all three groups of participants (teachers, principals and PD providers), the data obtained consisted of a total of 67 hours of recorded discussions (57 interviews) with 59 participants. Table 7 summarizes all interview data.

Table 7
Summary of Interview Data

| Participant group | Number of interviews | Number of interviewees | Average length of recorded portion of interview (minutes) | Range in length of interview (minutes) | Approximate total time of recorded interviews |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Teachers | 36 | 36 | 75 | 60-90 | 45 hours |
| School principals | 15 | 15 | 60 | 45-75 | 15 hours |
| Professional development providers | 6 | 8 | 70 | 60-90 | 7 hours |
| Total | 57 | 59 | | Total average recorded time: 67 hours | |

The documents and field notes collected in relation to the interviews and survey are genuine sources of data. However, they were analyzed (classified according to topics) and used as supplementary sources to support the interpretation, comparison and triangulation of data.

Initial data processing

Several qualitative researchers (for example, Cohen, Manion, & Morrison 2006; Creswell, 2002; Fraenkel & Wallen 2009, pp. 488, 281; Kvale, 1996) suggest that the interview procedure should be more of a social encounter than merely a data collection practice. Concurrent with this view, my approach to the collection and processing of interview data has been systematic but not rigid, structured but receptive to emerging categories, themes and concepts. My analysis involved various phases of data processing, from organizing and pre-analyzing data to translating, transcribing and coding, categorizing codes and then progressing to thematizing the findings.

Organizing data

In preparation for transcribing the interviews, the data collected (including notes, documents and copies of interviewee's completed survey) were classified in ways that allowed for easy retrieval of related information. For example, for each interview I created a data-package consisting of the verbatim (on tape or transcribed), related notes, institutional documents, materials or artifacts relating to the event. In another way of categorizing data, I organized all pieces of data pertaining to one domain together creating different 'units of data' such as school documents, PD program materials and teacher/teaching related documents (including test samples, lesson plans, instructional materials, CVs, and others). Following Cohen, Manion and Marrison's (2004) suggestions, I find that looking at data 'unitized' in such ways provides descriptive and inferential information significantly valuable to the process of transcribing and analyzing data. So, employing this strategy helped in contextualizing the narrative accounts and provided a wider perspective on the incidents/topics examined. Such has also guided my understanding of my participants' views in relation to their workplace or the wider context of which they are part, and thus better directed my interpretation of data.

Converting oral data into text

While most of the collected documents were already in a text form, the hand-written notes and verbal data were put in word files. I processed the recorded data over multiple phases of analyses. Prior to actually transcribing the verbatim, I listened carefully to each interview repeating portion of it when necessary. I also reviewed the data package of each interview event (related documents and notes etc....) so that I could bring together the pieces of the experience and get a sense of it as a whole. My first draft of the transcripts involved translating the literal verbatim as is. In a following phase, I revised/edited all transcripts deleting all off-topics, side discussions, and comments that I felt were unnecessary or unsuitable to include (socially or politically problematic and comments that revealed identities of people and places). While transcribing, I referred to the related notes so as to have my translation of the speakers' voices as accurate as possible. The interviews featured three modes of linguistic codes: Arabic only (60% of the interview cases); Arabic-English code-mixed (33%); and English only (7%). Oral data was transcribed in English only.

In their discussion of interview data, Kvale (2006) and also Cohen, Manion and Marrison (2007 p. 281) point out that in transcribing interviews, data loss is unavoidable due to the changes involved in the process of transforming language from one rule system (the oral) to another (the written). They caution researchers against believing that they can recapture in full things that occurred during the interview. In the present study, I was aware that having to translate the interviews from Arabic to English was another factor that may increase the risk of data loss and the challenge of preserving the quality of data as rich as it was during the real encounter. For this reason, I used transcription conventions through which I tried to keep the richness and complexity of data obtained, to represent the conversations to the best of my ability as lively as they were during the real social-interpersonal experience and to have the transcription in a form that was useful to the research. My transcription conventions included elements such as: repetitions incomplete utterances; descriptions of speakers' tone, voice and mood written in brackets, pauses and interruptions, as well as notes on behaviours, setting or background issues that I felt worth mentioning and relevant to the situation examined. Also, as "*there can be no single 'correct' transcription*" but the issue is rather "*to what extent and how a transcription is useful for the research*" (Cohen, Manion & Marrison, 2007, p. 282), I used summarizing as a strategy to better present interviewees' responses when necessary. Furthermore, being a sole investigator, I was aware that my role in the study as both the interviewer and transcriber would naturally involve a certain degree of interpretation. Therefore, while writing the transcripts, I constantly made conscious efforts to withhold my personal perspectives and interpretation and to document the interview accurately

Member checks

My member check procedures had actually begun at the earlier phase of data collection. Accounting for the particular circumstances of the study context, I adopted a strategy during the course of the interview whereby the "...interview is to a large extent interpreted throughout the interview" (Kvale, 1996, p. 145). During the interview, I often verified my interpretations of my participants' responses. I repeatedly asked for clarifications, examples, and elaborations on various aspects of the responses. I elicited interpretations along with the data and also getting participants' approvals of my own interpretation of their views. Kvale describes this technique as one that characterizes an 'ideal interview'.

Another strategy that I followed was listening carefully to the recording while transcribing interviews, focusing on my grasp and understanding of my interviewee's responses and monitoring for the needs of clarification and/or additional information.

For member checks, I randomly chose 12 of 57 interviews for transcription or approximately 21% of the oral data. These were examined within 2 - 4 weeks following the interview schedules. For verification purposes, I contacted my interviewees by phone or meeting with them again in person while collecting other data at their schools. However, for purposes of expediency, I only consulted with participants on those portions that I felt might be prone to interpretation. In all cases, participants either confirmed the transcript or added explanations and comments or recalled vignettes pertaining to the issues revisited. All additions and comments were noted and considered in the interpretation and further analysis. The meetings with participants in this regard were brief (10 – 20 minutes) and were casual in nature.

I have been aware of alternative means for member checks prescribed in the qualitative research literature, such as providing the participant with a full transcript of his/her interview for confirmation, changes or deletion. While it can be argued that this strategy would have better served the study in terms validity and reliability, there are valid reasons why I chose the strategies described above. Of utmost importance was the political environment. By asking each participant to review their complete interview in a written form, I was concerned that I might trigger suspicions or second thoughts about my intentions and specifically doubts that they were purely academic. In Egypt, this approach to interviewing is often associated with acts of interrogation with criminal implications. Another reason was the legal restrictions on the use, production and sharing of unauthorized printed documents (including those of personal nature) in public places. The third reason was the impracticality in terms of time and efforts, of having to transcribe full interviews twice, once in Arabic for participants to read and another in English for data analysis and further work. However, the fact that any alterations consisted mostly of additions and expansions on topics rather than change was assuring in terms of the quality of my interpretation.

Approach and Mechanics of Analysis

Although I had initially planned to use Nvivo, software, a qualitative data analysis program, I had all data as word files and I completed most of the data organization and coding by hand. I used the computer program at the final stages of coding, organization and search purposes. I felt that the

intrusion of a machine in the initial coding phases might hide particular underlying meanings in the written text and affect the richness of the data. Another reason was that having been so close to my data -- I collected it, discussed it with participants, listened to it numerous times, transcribed it and revised it -- I wanted more hands-on feel for it, especially given that the size of the data base was within the range of 500 pages which, according to Creswell (2002 P. 261), is considered manageable. Following, I present my analytic measures in this regard.

Guiding principles

In addition to a priori coding which is set by my pre-determined topics and interview guides, I also employed strategies identified as key elements of grounded theory research designs (Creswell, 2002):

Studying a process related to a substantive topic

Sampling theoretically involving the simultaneous and sequential collection and analysis of data

Constantly comparing data with an emerging theory

Selecting a core category as a central phenomenon for the theory

Generating a theory that explains a process about the topic. (pp. 447-448)

First, the present work is a study of a process of teacher change and development. In grounded theory research, the term ‘process’ refers to “the sequence of actions and reactions among people and events pertaining to a topic” (Strauss & Corbin, as cited in Creswell, 2002, p. 448). In my research, I documented and examined the performances of teachers, the actions that they take and choices that they make towards their own advancement and professional growth in their fields. To contextualize and better understand the issues under study, I used ‘theoretical sampling’ techniques (Charmaz, as cited in Creswell, 2002), whereby I purposefully included varied forms and sources of data -- all geared to and useful in generating a theory -- in order to explain the phenomenon explored. In addition to the survey data, I conducted interviews to obtain information from teachers *in their own words* because they are the individuals whose professional performances and interactions are focal to the process under study. Although presumably less central to the process of teacher development, I included data from school principals and professional development program providers. Their work directly or indirectly impacts teachers’ processes of change. Moreover, following an ‘emerging design’ during the course of data collection and analysis, I often took

decisions on modifying my procedures, collected additional data, searched for and included other sources to provide insights into the process examined. Finally, my coding strategy included constant comparisons between codes and categories leading to core categories of central themes that provide explanations to the phenomenon examined.

Coding

As an initial step, I determined the ‘unit of meaning’ as basis for my coding and analysis. I adopted Ratner’s (2001, p.4) definition of a meaning unit which refers to a single utterance or sentences that are of coherent and distinct meanings embedded within the protocol. Each unit of meaning “can be composed of any number of words.... It simply must be coherent and distinctive from other ideas”. According to Ratner, the unit of meaning “must preserve the psychological integrity of the idea being expressed. It must neither fragment the idea into meaningless, truncated segments nor confuse it with other ideas that express different themes.”

In an inductive coding approach, I read through the data segmenting the texts into units of meaning and ascribing a code for each. As my interview questions targeted particular research topics, several codes and data categories (or units) were decided in advance, where as others emerged throughout the analysis in response to the data collected. I coded for both the ‘manifest’ and ‘latent’ content of the communications represented in the text (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 486) and therefore several units were assigned more than one code. I started with discrete open coding of data units. Subsequently, using the method of ‘constant comparison’ I moved from the coding of small specific units to classifying codes into broader categories. I proceeded with phases of comparing, re-coding, changing and merging codes, and generating categories of major and sub-themes. The units/categories were also compared to incidents within the whole set of data (for example, data from notes and documents). This process of data reduction led to units of meaning relevant to my research questions, clustered into categories of common themes in which they naturally fit. The clustered categories were further condensed and examined to determine main themes that are common across the data, arriving to ‘core categories’ that are central umbrella themes encompassing ‘middle-range’ theories (Charmaz, as cited in Creswell, 2002, p. 452) explaining the process of teacher change in the context examined. In order to validate the theories emerging from my data, I followed Creswell’s (2002) advice of triangulating the data between the information and the emerging categories.

Reliability, validity and limitations

No research study can be completely perfect. This study focused primarily on self-assessment and first-person narratives. As with all types of research, it features some limitations related to the inherent nature of the instruments used (the interviews and survey) and the procedures maintained. For example, a major limitation to this work is the fact that it was designed, implemented, compiled, analyzed and written by one person – me. Moreover, there are a multitude of factors (social, personal, environmental, and technical) that could have impacted the data and findings of the study; and even if some were accounted for, it is unrealistic to control for all. Among the measures I took to control extraneous influences are my use of multiple sources of data and strategies, being critically reflective on my role as a researcher and eliminating personal opinions and feelings to maintain objectivity. I have also employed a constant comparative method in my analysis of data, through which I was continually revising my coding and assessing the agreements between two or more categories. Following a test-retest method (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009), approximately three months after completing the coding and categorization procedures, I randomly selected parts of the data (15% of qualitative data base) for re-visits to examine the extent of my own consistency in the coding and categorizing of units. Although there were few discrepancies due to the layering and additions of codes to the categories, the process generally reflected high intra-coder agreement.

Reciprocity

All Participant Groups

Kvale (1996) reported that research participants generally enjoy sharing their experiences and opinions. Rubin and Rubin (1995) added that:

At a basic level, people like to talk about themselves: they enjoy the sociability of long discussion and are pleased that somebody is interested in them...you come along and say, yes, what you know is valuable, it should not be lost, teach me, and though me, teach others. (p. 103)

So, beyond simple enjoyment, participating in the study may have provided some individuals with a sense of empowerment and increased self-value or self-esteem. The survey and the interview schedules used in the procedure are also awareness-raising tools from which participants may have

benefited by developing a more profound self-awareness or better understanding of issues within their contexts. While these were general advantages that seemed to apply for all participants, there were also group-specific compensations linked to participation.

Teacher Reciprocity

Teacher participants may have also benefited from the opportunities that I provided (according to my offer in the letter of information) for consultations, discussions and feedback on teaching and professional development issues of concern to them. They may have broadened or refined their conceptualization of their own professional development and/or expanded their knowledge with regards to new options they might peruse towards professional enhancement. Such development in teachers' knowledge or attitudes obviously contributes to school improvement.

School-Principal Reciprocity

Principals taking part in this study appear to have benefited in multiple ways. On the individual professional level, the benefits may be similar to those described above, gaining knowledge resulting from undertaking their roles as required, engaging in context-bound discussions and obtaining research-based professional feedback on issues of concern to them. Such knowledge might in turn be transmitted to the teachers in their schools and further benefit their schools.

Some of the benefits are much more concrete. In return for participating in the study and as agreed upon with participants (according to my letters of information), I provided several principals with professional support services. These include delivering/facilitating workshops, designing and analyzing course materials, and participating in other school-based teacher support activities.

Professional Development Program Providers

The professional development providers may also have benefited from the interview procedure. As compensation for taking part in my study, at their request I participated with three of the providers in various teacher and school support activities that were part of their programs. Through this collaboration, I believe that these participants benefited and from the addition of my voice and perspective to the components of their practices.

Conclusion

The analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed aspects important to understanding the features and processes of change in each of the school contexts. In the following three chapters (6, 7 & 8), I report and explain the findings in detail using participants' voices, vignettes and descriptive statistics derived from certain sections of the survey. Allocating a chapter to each of my research questions, in Chapter 6 I present teachers' perceptions of their change of practice and what change meant to them. In Chapter 7, I report the findings on teachers' perceptions on their sources of change and in Chapter 8 I present the roles and perspectives of school principals and PD providers in relation to teachers' change prospects. As the data obtained from the two public contexts (the Arabic public and the experimental school systems) was very similar, I report the findings for both systems together referring to them as the *government* sector, system or context.

CHAPTER 6
TEACHER PERCEPTIONS ON CHANGE OF PRACTICE:
A CHANGE WITHIN AND ACROSS PARADIGM

Introduction

In this chapter, I report the findings for my first research question: How do teachers perceive their teaching as having changed over the period of their careers?

I address this overarching issue through the following subset of related questions:

- 1.1 Have teachers perceived change in their practice over time? And if so, to what extent?
- 1.2 Are there cross-group differences in teachers' perceptions?
- 1.3 How do teachers conceptualize their change of practice?

These three related questions are interconnected as each reveals a layer of findings on the phenomenon of change investigated in this work. Questions 1.1 and 1.2 are examined quantitatively. Question 1.3 is qualitative in nature and provides insights on the first two, enabling a better understanding and interpretation of the results. In this chapter, I report the findings under three sections, drawing first on the quantitative data and then on the qualitative data which I will use to explain and interpret the numerical findings. Through this approach, I provide a fuller picture of the first research topic.

Has Change Occurred and if so, to What Extent?

A Drift Towards Great Change

The quantitative results show that teachers perceived change did occur in the aspects of teaching represented by the 17 items of Part 2 of the survey. Accounting for the scattering of responses across the Likert scale, and since they tended to fall at either sides, I merged the scale of six-levels into three levels: little change, great change and not applicable. Table 8 illustrates teachers' response tendency of perceiving change in their practices.

Table 8
Perceived Change Among All Teachers

| Item | Number | Mean | Median | Mode | Frequency (%) | | Standard Deviation |
|---|--------|------|--------|------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | | | | | (1)Little change | (2)Great change | |
| 1. Increasing student-talk in class | 174 | 1.96 | 2.00 | 2 | 11(6.3) | 162(93.1) | .393 |
| 2. Using more task-based and student - generated projects than pattern drilling | 168 | 1.83 | 2.00 | 2 | 32(18.4) | 135(77.6) | .509 |
| 3. Including group work strategies | 170 | 1.85 | 2.00 | 2 | 37(21.3) | 130(74.7) | .694 |
| 4. Implementing lesson plans more effectively | 165 | 1.93 | 2.00 | 2 | 12(6.9) | 153(87.9) | .260 |
| 5. Addressing learners' different styles | 169 | 1.93 | 2.00 | 2 | 15(8.6) | 153(87.9) | .425 |
| 6. More efficient use of class time | 173 | 1.92 | 2.00 | 2 | 22(12.6) | 149(85.6) | .554 |
| 7. Using supplementary materials other than the textbook | 171 | 1.91 | 2.00 | 2 | 36(20.7) | 130(74.7) | .821 |
| 8. Becoming better able to implement the curriculum guidelines as intended | 171 | 1.96 | 2.00 | 2 | 18(10.3) | 150(86.2) | .622 |
| 9. Integrating language elements through content | 162 | 2.04 | 2.00 | 2 | 18(10.3) | 138(79.3) | .841 |
| 10. Having more personalized or one-to-one interactions with students | 169 | 1.96 | 2.00 | 2 | 15(8.6) | 152(87.4) | .527 |

| Item | Number | Mean | Median | Mode | Frequency (%) | | Standard Deviation |
|--|--------|------|--------|------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| | | | | | (1)Little change | (2)Great change | |
| 11. Taking new roles in class such as a guide or a parent | 171 | 2.01 | 2.00 | 2 | 18(10.3) | 148(85.1) | .759 |
| 12. Feeling more confident in relation to writing tests for students | 169 | 2.01 | 2.00 | 2 | 19(10.9) | 145(83.3) | .768 |
| 13. Increasing your proficiency in English | 170 | 2.05 | 2.00 | 2 | 15(8.6) | 149(85.6) | .809 |
| 14. Being more receptive to comments and feedback on your teaching | 172 | 1.97 | 2.00 | 2 | 18(10.3) | 151(86.8) | .620 |
| 15. Gaining better understanding of your teaching philosophy or the principles that guide your practices | 171 | 1.99 | 2.00 | 2 | 13(7.5) | 155(89.1) | .599 |
| 16. Being better able to establish constructive dialogue with parents | 174 | 1.91 | 2.00 | 2 | 19(10.9) | 154(88.5) | .441 |
| 17. Being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching | 174 | 2.02 | 2.00 | 2 | 12(6.9) | 158(90.8) | .662 |

The results reflect teacher consensus that change has occurred across the different aspects of teaching listed in the survey. The response percentages allocated for 'great change' on all items ranged between approximately 75% and 94% and indicated teachers' tendency to report *great* rather than *little* change as occurring in their classroom practices. Despite apparent differences in the response rates among the 17 categories, the median (2.00) and mode (2) calculated for each by in large confirm the percentage rate pattern of teacher responses. This tendency may be due to the respondents' natural inclination to convey positive mode. Alternately, it may also be a result of the

respondents' desire to affirm what is presented by the researcher given that all the statements were positively written.

Within the overall context of great change occurring in all aspects of teaching, two items stand out: Item 1 (increasing student-talk in class) where over 93% of all teachers reported change and Item 17 (being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching) receiving 90% agreement on change among all teachers. These two items highlight the two aspects of teaching where great change seems to have occurred for the majority of teachers (approximately 94%). Items 3 (including group work strategies) and 7 (using supplementary materials other than the textbook), both have the minimum response rate to great change (N=130 74.7%) when compared to the other 15 categories. The response rates of the rest of the practices fall in the middle. Although great change in relation to these two items (Items 3 and 7) is also agreed upon by the majority of teachers (approximately 75%), on a comparative basis, these items may have been perceived as less prone to change.

At this level of analysis, it can be concluded that the majority of teachers perceived change in relation to the 17 categories of practice represented in the survey, even if one were to assume some levels of bias in the responses. In the remaining sections of this chapter, I move further with my data analysis to present teacher group differences, their conceptions and implementation of change of practice. With these findings, I shed more light on the tendency of great change reported here.

Is There Cross-group Difference in Teacher Response?

Group Difference

To answer question 1.2 and determine whether or not there are group differences in teachers' perception of change on the 17 categories of practice, I segregate the data (great change category) based upon the four different school systems used in this research. Table 9 illustrates these results. While some variances among the responses from the four different school systems would be expected based upon sampling errors and statistical sample sizes, in many cases the data supports the conclusion that great change has occurred across all four of the Egyptian education systems. Considering the responses from the four education systems within the 17 areas, there are items

where the responses are generally consistent and items where there is significant variation between the responses. I will take a look at several of these items in greater detail.

Table 9
Comparing Teacher Groups on Great Change Responses

| Item | School type | Great change | | |
|---|-------------------|--------------|------------|--------------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage | Total % all school types |
| 1. Increasing student-talk in class | Public-Arabic | 39 | 97.5 | 93.1 |
| | Experimental | 50 | 98.0 | |
| | National Language | 43 | 89.6 | |
| | International | 30 | 85.7 | |
| 2. Using more task-based and student-generated projects than pattern drilling | Public-Arabic | 31 | 77.5 | 78.2 |
| | Experimental | 35 | 68.0 | |
| | National Language | 40 | 83.3 | |
| | International | 29 | 82.9 | |
| 3. Including group work strategies | Public-Arabic | 30 | 75.0 | 74.7 |
| | Experimental | 37 | 72.5 | |
| | National Language | 38 | 79.2 | |
| | International | 25 | 71.4 | |
| 4. Implementing lesson plans more effectively | Public-Arabic | 35 | 87.5 | 87.9 |
| | Experimental | 46 | 90.2 | |
| | National Language | 43 | 89.6 | |
| | International | 29 | 82.9 | |
| 5. Addressing learners' different styles | Public-Arabic | 34 | 85.0 | 87.9 |
| | Experimental | 46 | 90.2 | |
| | National Language | 45 | 93.8 | |
| | International | 28 | 80.0 | |
| 6. More efficient use of class time | Public-Arabic | 29 | 72.5 | 85.6 |
| | Experimental | 47 | 92.2 | |
| | National Language | 44 | 91.7 | |
| | International | 29 | 82.9 | |
| 7. Using supplementary materials other than the textbook | Public-Arabic | 31 | 77.5 | 74.7 |
| | Experimental | 34 | 66.7 | |
| | National Language | 39 | 81.3 | |
| | International | 26 | 74.3 | |
| 8. Becoming better able to implement the curriculum guidelines as intended | Public-Arabic | 32 | 80.0 | 86.2 |
| | Experimental | 47 | 92.2 | |
| | National Language | 43 | 89.6 | |
| | International | 28 | 80.0 | |

| Item | School type | Great change | | Total % all school types |
|--|-------------------|--------------|------------|--------------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage | |
| 9. Integrating language elements through content | Public-Arabic | 38 | 95.0 | 79.3 |
| | Experimental | 42 | 82.4 | |
| | National Language | 37 | 77.1 | |
| | International | 26 | 74.3 | |
| 10. Having more personalized or one-to-one interactions with students | Public-Arabic | 38 | 95.0 | 87.4 |
| | Experimental | 48 | 94.1 | |
| | National Language | 44 | 91.7 | |
| | International | 27 | 77.1 | |
| 11. Taking new roles in class such as a guide or a parent | Public-Arabic | 35 | 87.5 | 85.1 |
| | Experimental | 50 | 98.0 | |
| | National Language | 41 | 85.4 | |
| | International | 22 | 62.9 | |
| 12. Feeling more confident in relation to writing tests for students | Public-Arabic | 34 | 85.0 | 83.3 |
| | Experimental | 46 | 90.2 | |
| | National Language | 39 | 81.3 | |
| | International | 26 | 74.3 | |
| 13. Increasing your proficiency in English | Public-Arabic | 38 | 95.0 | 85.6 |
| | Experimental | 48 | 94.1 | |
| | National Language | 39 | 81.3 | |
| | International | 24 | 68.6 | |
| 14. Being more receptive to comments and feedback on your teaching | Public-Arabic | 37 | 92.5 | 86.8 |
| | Experimental | 44 | 86.3 | |
| | National Language | 46 | 95.8 | |
| | International | 24 | 68.6 | |
| 15. Gaining better understanding of your teaching philosophy or the principles that guide your practices | Public-Arabic | 37 | 92.5 | 89.1 |
| | Experimental | 43 | 84.3 | |
| | National Language | 44 | 91.7 | |
| | International | 31 | 88.6 | |
| 16. Being better able to establish constructive dialogue with parents | Public-Arabic | 34 | 85.0 | 88.5 |
| | Experimental | 48 | 94.1 | |
| | National Language | 45 | 93.8 | |
| | International | 27 | 77.1 | |
| 17. Being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching | Public-Arabic | 36 | 90.0 | 90.8 |
| | Experimental | 51 | 100 | |
| | National Language | 45 | 93.8 | |
| | International | 26 | 74.3 | |

Sample Categories of Change

Based on the results of Table 9 and before further analysis of teacher group difference for statistical significance, the difference in teacher group perception is presented in a visual format. From the list of items, I focus on Items 1 (increasing student-talk) and 17 (being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching) – both of which were perceived by the majority of teachers (over 90%) as having changed. Figure 10 illustrates the results for Item 1 (on student-talk) and Figure 11 presents those of Item 17 (confidence about teaching).

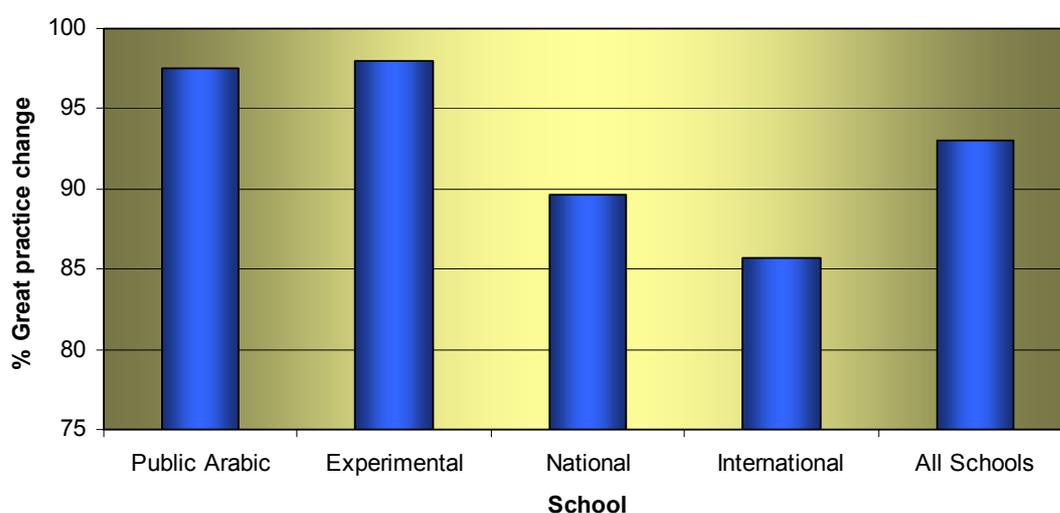


Figure 10. Teacher responses on increasing student-talk in class (Item 1 of Part 2).

Figure 10 shows that over 97% of both government sector teachers (Public Arabic and experimental schools) and more than 85% of the private sector teachers (national and international contexts) reported great increase in their student-talk practices. Within the four school categories, there appears to be some difference between the public and private sector schools with the public sector experiencing more change.

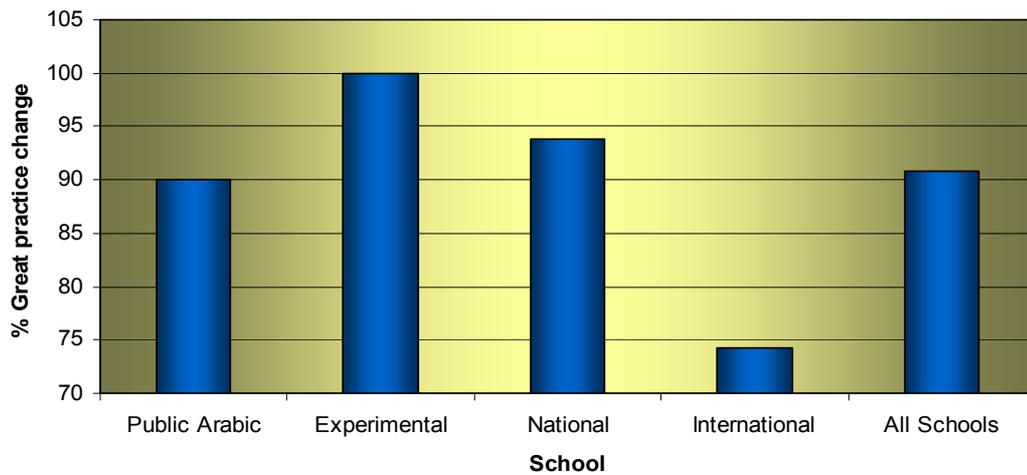


Figure 11. Teacher perceptions on increased confidence and effectiveness in teaching (Item 17 of part 2).

For Item 17 (teachers' increased confidence), Figure 11 shows that the majority of teachers reported a build-up of confidence about their effectiveness in teaching. The positive response rates vary from 100% for the experimental school teachers to a low of 75% for the international school teachers. Comparatively, the international group appears to diverge from the other three groups significantly enough to warrant further investigation.

The descriptive statistics presented (in Table 9 and Figures 10 and 11) confirm that teachers perceived change as having occurred but that there are differences across groups. They do not tell us if the differences between teacher groups are statistically significant or why there are such differences, although the difference between the starting levels in the various education systems is undoubtedly a factor. In order to examine the differences between the four participating teacher groups, a parametric as well as a nonparametric statistical analysis was carried out as shown in the next section.

Significant Group Difference on Confidence

Analysis

In order to account for the possibility that the population distributions may not be normal, despite the reasonable sample size used in this research, nonparametric statistical analysis is

performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test. The test is used to evaluate differences among the four school types in a similar fashion as ANOVA with no assumption on the data distribution.

Results

The Kruskal-Wallis test for the comparison of group responses to each of the 17 items using a level of significance of ($p=0.05$) indicates a statistically significant difference in group responses only in *Item 17 (being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching)*, ($\chi^2(3, N = 174) = 11.99, p = 0.007$). The significant difference in the medians for item 17 of the practices is shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Being More Confident About the Effectiveness of Your Teaching: Kruskal-Wallis Test, ($\chi^2(3, N = 174) = 11.99, p = 0.007$)

| School type | N | Mean rank |
|-------------------|-----|-----------|
| Public-Arabic | 40 | 91.3 |
| Experimental | 51 | 91.5 |
| National Language | 48 | 89.65 |
| International | 35 | 74.39 |
| Total | 174 | |

Test Statistics^{a,b}

| | Diff_score |
|-------------|------------|
| Chi-Square | 11.989 |
| df | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | 0.007 |

a Kruskal Wallis Test

b Grouping Variable: Type of school

Source of Difference: The International Teacher Group

The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to evaluate differences among the four teacher groups involved. With regard to Item 17 of Part 2 (feeling more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching) for which the results of the analysis indicated significant difference among teacher groups, follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate differences among the groups. A Mann-Whitney test was used to test the hypothesis that the distribution of group responses was equal.

The results show that the distribution of responses was significantly different for the international group from those of the other three groups as follows: the Public Arabic, Mann-Whitney $U= 567, p=0.032$; the experimental Mann-Whitney $U= 714, p=0.003$; the national group Mann-Whitney $U= 692.5, p=0.026$. Table 11 shows these results.

Table 11

Being More Confident About the Effectiveness of Your Teaching: Mann-Whitney Test Comparing Contexts

| Test Statistics ^a | | | | | |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------|--------|------------------------|--|
| Type of school | Mann-Whitney U | Wilcoxon W | Z | Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | |
| <i>Public-Arabic</i> | | | | | |
| ▪ Experimental | 1020 | 2346 | 0.000 | 1.000 | |
| ▪ National Language | 941 | 2117 | -0.339 | 0.734 | |
| ▪ International | 567 | 1197 | -2.147 | 0.032 | |
| <i>Experimental</i> | | | | | |
| ▪ National Language | 1198.5 | 2374.5 | -0.601 | 0.548 | |
| ▪ International | 714 | 1344 | -2.958 | 0.003 | |
| <i>National</i> | | | | | |
| ▪ International | 692.5 | 1322.5 | -2.229 | 0.026 | |

Note. ^a Grouping variable: Type of school.

Evaluating the difference among the teacher groups using nonparametric statistical measures show a significant difference only in Item 17 (being more confident on the effectiveness of teaching). The Post-Ad-hoc multiple comparison measures used indicated that the source of

significant difference is the international school teachers as they reported less change occurring in their level of confidence than the other groups. In the next section the qualitative findings for question 1.3 on teacher's conceptions of change will provide insights into why the increase in teachers' level of confidence differed for this group.

How Do Teachers Conceptualize Their Change?

Introduction

In this section I look at the concept of change, drawing on the qualitative data sets obtained. These include teachers' responses to the open-ended questions, verbal comments on survey items, interviews, teacher and school artifacts, and notes from my field observations. I shed light on what signifies change or improvement for teachers and how teachers conceptualize and interpret the aspects of practice change. This provides insights for better understanding of the quantitative results and the phenomenon of change examined in this work.

Cross-sector Conceptions of Change and Improvement: Same Label, Different Product

In the present work I use the terms 'change' and 'development' interchangeably to refer to enhancement or positive change in aspects of teaching practices. The qualitative findings show that the concept of change or enhanced practice means very different things to the teachers in the government and private sectors. What is perceived as 'good practice' or positive change by teachers in one context is not necessarily so in the other. While the quantitative results of Questions 1 and 2 of this chapter show a drift towards perceiving change by means of improvement in their practices), the qualitative results reveal different teacher conceptions of the listed categories. This affects the interpretation of teachers' reported perceptions.

To exemplify the cross-sector conceptions found, in Table 12 I present sample categories of the aspects of practice included in the survey with summaries of teacher related comments. The findings clearly illustrate context variation in the features and interpretation of change. For each sample category, we can see that the government teachers expressed traditional teacher-centered practices whereas the private sector teachers described their practices in light of the more modern trends in teaching. This shows that each group tends to have a context-specific point of reference in terms of what constitutes improvement in practice and thus points to different meanings and

directions of change. Considering the nature of each sector, it can easily be seen that teacher conceptions are grounded in and shaped by the prevailing norms of the context in which they work.

Table 12
Teacher Conceptions and Implementations of Change

| Category of practice | Government teachers | Private sector teachers |
|--|---|--|
| No. 1: Increasing student-talk in class | Employing more frequently the obligatory short question-answer routines during their traditional lessons. | Using a wide range of student-centered and cooperative learning activities (including small-group work and presentations, etc.) |
| No. 4: Implementing lesson plans more effectively | Adjusting classroom activities to the exact format, structure, content and time guidelines prescribed for teachers to follow. | Following the teaching kits precisely; achieving lesson goals through a variety of interactive teaching-learning activities. |
| No. 5: Addressing learners' different styles | Assisting learners to employ appropriate exam-related strategies. | Varying instructional modes through use of written texts, multimedia, verbal and physical activities; and encouraging students' demonstration of learning through role plays, debates, project presentations etc. |
| No. 7: Using supplementary materials other than the textbook | Using teacher-written notes and summaries of the assigned textbooks; and integrating elements from ministry published booklets of sample tests. | Organizing instruction around teacher and student use of varying materials supplementing instructional kits with related books, digital material, 'realia' or authentic materials and technology for online resources. |

| Category of practice | Government teachers | Private sector teachers |
|---|--|---|
| No 12: Being more confident in relation to writing tests for students | Being better able to write and formulate exam questions similar to those of the standardized tests. Teachers spoke of their historical and updated collections of tests and test booklets that they use as sources and guides when teaching and writing exams. | Being capable of finding, and applying a variety of formal and alternative assessment measures (essays, projects, presentations, role plays, portfolios, etc...). Teachers spoke of adapting and using testing tasks found in a variety of teaching materials and online resources. |
| No. 17: Being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching | Being more knowledgeable of and competent in implementing the system rules of teaching exactly as advised and expected by students, parents, school and supervisors. | Being more able to keep the class active and alive, communicating in English and meeting the performance standards of the school. |

Note. The number of each category of practice corresponds to the numbers in the survey.

Student-talk: Qualitative Insights on the Drift Towards Great Change

With the qualitative findings on the cross-sector conceptions of change, I revisit the results of Question 1.1 on teachers' perception of great change in their practices using the student-talk category as an example. The qualitative findings reinforced the responses conveyed by the quantitative results. The qualitative findings reveal that there is a split (within the drift towards perceiving 'great change in practice) due to teachers' different understanding and interpretation of the survey categories. While the majority of teachers reported great change, their responses were based on different points of reference in terms of what constitutes change. For example, for Item 1 (increasing student talk) to which the majority of teachers (97%, n=162) reported experiencing great change, we can see that there is a cross-sector disagreement on the concept of practice itself. Increasing student-talk was not conceived by all teachers as aligning with the 'communicative approach' or 'good practice' as understood in the West. The qualitative findings reveal that although all teachers seem to have promoted student-talk in their classrooms, their approaches vary. Generally speaking, and according to the findings on teachers' practices summarized in Table 12, the government sector teachers (55% of the participants) tend to maintain a traditional, less interactive

approach to engaging their students. Private sector groups (45%) employ more innovative strategies in their teaching. As the study unfolds, the findings reveal why teachers across sectors employ different ways to promote student-talk.

What Does Change of Practice Mean? Insights Into the Process of Change

Government Sector Conceptions: Proceduralizing Existing Routines

The Arabic and experimental school teachers who worked in similar contexts and under the same umbrella system, spoke of their change as influenced by contextual norms. They spoke of their test-oriented system as impacting and directing their change. Within this school sector -- where the rules of practice are tightly set and closely monitored -- teachers described their change in terms of competencies developed in ‘teaching to the test’ strategies, expertise gained in knowledge transmission models of teaching and learning, and as mastery and proceduralization of routine skills and strategies. Along this orientation, Table 13 illustrates -- in the teachers’ own words -- what change and improvement meant in the government sector.

Table 13

Teacher Conceptions of Their Change

| Meaning of change | Teacher accounts |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Test-oriented improvement | |
| Test-focused assistance | <p>“I’m much better in helping my students score higher in their exams”(PA3)</p> <p>“I developed ways to help them tackle every question they may encounter in their exams...” (PA8)</p> <p>“now I’m more confident about directing students to what really helps in addressing their exam needs.”(PE7)</p> |
| Exam-based success | <p>“(speaking loudly and proudly) Of course my teaching has improved over the years....my students’ achievement on the national exam tells all about me.... ...and my success is the whole school success.” (PA3)</p> |

| Meaning of change | Teacher accounts |
|---|--|
| Exam-based evaluations | “I became more competent... my students’ results are the evidence...they are the real indicators of my efforts”. (PA5) |
| Consolidation of traditional teaching | |
| The value of memorization to success Community support | “...even if you don’t believe in memorization you still have to encourage it...it’s the only way they (students) can make it (pass their exams) successfully.” (PA3) |
| | “...because studying science in English is difficult....I give my students word-lists of the main concepts in English to memorize...that makes their task easier.....parents and other teachers too found this very useful...” (PE6) |
| Knowledge transmission model | “I put together all what my students need to know in a booklet..., we go through it ... absorb the content so that it is there when needed.” (PE1) |
| Conforming to system norms | |
| Lack of ownership of teacher’s own practice | “...this is a government school...teaching is strictly regulated...Obviously, you’re not free to change any aspect of instruction Because you may get penalized.....” (PA1) |
| Compliance to rules and mastery of routines | “...we have a set of routines that we all must follow ...your lesson plan... what you write on the board has to be written in a certain way ...teaching routines don’t change...but with time, I mastered these routines.” (PA 8) |
| Fulfillment of demands | “They (the principals and supervisors) trust me... 24 years at this school...doing exactly as expected of me by the Ministry and Advisory Board....” (PA2) |
| Automaticity and proceduralization of norms | “Naturally, you improve as you teach for a long time... you sort of develop the right habits and become able of do things effortlessly... just like driving a car home everyday taking the same route, ...you know your turns and what to expect...” (PE3) |
| | “Lesson planning used to take me hours and hours... because I wanted everything right for the inspector....Now, I can do it blindly...” (PE6) |

Teachers' quotes in Table 13 indicate that their practices are still within the traditional knowledge-transmission paradigm and what appears to have changed is teachers' competencies around these practices. They perceived improvement in their teaching practices as having mastered routines (PA8), developed habits (PE3) or developed the ability to do things "blindly" (PE6). Their voices speak to an interpretation of improvement as the proceduralization and automaticity of their traditional classroom practices resulting from the norms enforced in their professional community. The findings clearly point to a process of professional acculturation characterized by the orthodoxy of conforming to "a set of routines" (PA8), "doing as expected" (PE2) by school, parents and students and having "everything right for the inspector" (PE6). Thus it is this process that seems to reinforce existing practices rather than alter them by engaging teachers in reinventing the wheel within the same traditional paradigm.

The Private Sector: Lack of Balance in Perceptions of Change

In contrast, change in the private sector refers to the adoption of a non-traditional orientation in teaching. It is demonstrated by following modern educational trends in teaching, namely communicative approaches or as called in the Cairo context, 'the new methods'. These are typical of private bilingual programs as these schools often have the resources and supporting factors to encourage and support this approach. Teachers' comments, as noted in Table 12, show that while both the national and international teacher groups tend to conceptualize and interpret the concepts of improved practice similarly, the interview data reflects differences between the two groups in terms of their views on their own development and their stand on further change in this sector. The data themes emerging from each group are so different that the findings are not presented in parallel fashion.

The national system: Experimenting with new ideas

For teachers in private national schools, change and improvement referred to a shift from traditional teacher-centered approaches to employing a variety of modern interactive student centered pedagogical strategies. Unlike public schools, private national schools are business-oriented institutions that function within a highly competitive market. Modern teaching approaches and competent English-speaking teachers are a competitive advantage and underlie their business success. Given the teaching environment characterized by costly language education with less

emphasis on standardized achievement tests, better teaching and learning environment (small class size, luxurious facilities and plentiful resources and materials) and higher teacher expectations, teachers who want to sustain their employment have little recourse but to adapt to the system demands and standards of practice. Teachers strive to keep themselves marketable by learning the craft of ‘modern’ or ‘Western’ approaches to teaching. According to the data, this means being able to teach in non-traditional ways such as using English as a medium of instruction, adopting student-centered approaches, varying instructions and materials, and using technology, etc. Perceiving that these teacher qualities and educational commodities underlie success in their sector, the following quotes illustrate how teachers conceptualize their change and development over time.

Change meant the modernization of teaching

Teachers spoke of change and improvement in teaching as differentiating themselves from teachers employed in the public school system which they feel represents the lower end of educational service. To emphasize this differentiation, teachers pointed to the main characteristics of the private sector services such as student-centredness and fewer government restrictions. The quotes in Table 14 reflect aspects of their shift to the more modern approaches.

Table 14

Teacher Conceptions of Change in the National School System

| Orientation to change | Teacher accounts |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Non-traditional | “ This is not a public school ,...we must keep up with the latest methods...involve students in lots of hands-on to interest them...” (NL7) |
| Student-centered | “In this school you need to modernize the way you teach . This includes the way you and students talk in class, where you stand, the books you use, the activities students do ...” (NL2) |
| Better quality of academic content | “My teaching isn’t limited to the ministry approved topics and materials...we use a variety of good books and resources... and we’re often ready to go beyond curriculum ...this wasn’t easy but I learned to do it.” (NL8) |

Change meant creativity, adjusting and monitoring practice

All teachers spoke of change in terms of becoming better able to step out of the traditional teaching, employ a variety of modern practices which the private system emphasizes to its consumers. In addition to employing communicative more student-centered strategies (as described in section two of this chapter), they also expressed efforts towards continued change in order to sustain their professional and employment status. Teachers spoke of having to demonstrate their teaching competencies and professional growth outside the classroom so as to prove their compatibility and fill in potential gaps perceived through feedback. The sample voices in Table 15 reflect change as resulting from a dialectical relationship between teachers and entities in their work context. It demonstrates that teachers understand the academic and the marketing demands of their professional community and respond accordingly.

Table 15

Monitoring and Adjusting Practice to Contextual Demands

| Aspects of change | Teacher quotes |
|--|---|
| Maintaining innovation and creativity | “ I have become innovative and creative in terms of keeping my class alive... accessing good instructional resources makes this easy and inspirational... I like everybody to see what I can do... not only my supervisor, but teachers, students, parents and staff as well...” (NL2) |
| Building on feedback | “You sort of have to make your work stand out and speak for you. So, I do the best I can...show it... hang my work on the wall, share it... I build on the feedback I get...and emphasize my positive presence in my job.” (NL1) |
| Establishing constructive professional relationships | “In government schools, you have one inspector to satisfy every few months...here principals, supervisors, parents... everyone is an inspector, and everything you do counts..., we learn to deal with each person successfully... ” (NL5) |

Change means becoming resourceful

Teachers also expressed establishing awareness and strategies for learning to enhance their practice. They spoke of change in the way they use, or rather exploit, the resources and opportunities available to them in order to improve their practice. For example, several teachers expressed their ability to stretch beyond the simple use of their school provided instructional materials. The following excerpt of a Grade 4 English and math teacher portrays how many teachers seemed to be using their instructional kits:

Before, I used to follow only what the book said...now, I can adapt tasks...use a suggested activity to generate others....integrate elements from different books and materials I can see much more now in the things I read, observe or tryout... things open doors for others. (NL3)

Similarly, a Grade 10 teacher spoke of his attempts to renew and vary his teaching practices, pointing to a wide range of sources of information on teaching. He said:

As I continually look for new ways to teach I became aware of so much information and resources that I actually have within reach.....I guess I discovered my own tools for teaching ...I follow-up the recent editions and publications of textbooks... access online resources from all over the world, incorporate different elements and activities and see how they work for me.....I can also lean on my own experience and intuition... tryout new activities, apply them differently...and share things with colleagues... (NL10)

While the first quote speaks to teachers' tendency to maximize the use of their basic teaching instruments, i.e., their teaching kit, the second speaks to teachers' awareness and use of various tools and channels. These range from their own experimentation with teaching methods to tools and resources that could be anywhere in the world. These quotes also point to a wider teacher exposure to instructional materials and the flexibility to incorporate these in everyday work. According to the data, these professional tendencies and practices were neither reported by the government nor the international teachers.

Change meant rethinking teaching

Moving from surface level technical changes in practice to a conceptual level, two of the teachers touched on hidden aspects of their development as they attempted to share their definition

of teaching and pointed to the principles that guide their practices. A middle school English teacher explained that:

My understanding of teaching has changed a great deal.... Teaching is much more than leading kids from one activity to another... not that simple enactment of instructional procedures...it is about purpose... understanding what should happen in class and why...then acting upon that. (NL6)

Although these words tell less of what teaching is than what it is not, they reflect a developing vision for teaching going beyond classroom performance and emphasizing the role of understanding and positioning the activity of teaching. Perhaps a more articulate quote on such change was from Teacher NL3 who spoke of her phases of development, pointing to her move from complete dependency on particular external sources of guidance to interdependency on other sources, including her personal beliefs and the students. She shared her development experience as following:

There was definitely a phase where all what I did in class was externally guided, either by my teacher book or my supervisor... evaluating my teaching and analyzing students' feedback was never part of my job. Now, **my teaching is more informed by my own convictions, and reasons from experience.** ...I think of what is behind the various study topics, what they mean to me...to my students and then how best my students and I can address them. (NL3)

Both comments point to teachers' reconstruction of knowledge about teaching and, in turn, a reconceptualization of their practice. The two quotes speak of a newly developed understanding of teaching that seem to change teachers' perceived role in class from being mere performers of teaching tasks to co-constructors of classroom learning tasks. Also illuminated in these quotes is the central role of the teacher in informing and directing practice. Although there is no evidence in the data on whether or how these teachers might have interpreted their new conceptions of teaching into practice, there is clear evidence for involvement in reflection on practice leading to a changing definition of the boundaries of their roles.

The perspectives of the national school teachers reflect notions of professional renewal processes that are genuinely different in nature and direction from those described by the government sector teachers. Clearly, these teachers spoke of their experiences in light of their system norms and expectations. They spoke of stepping out of the traditional teaching paradigm through

incorporation of new methods and activities, getting access to materials and knowledge about teaching, and continually attempting to add to or enhance their practices to keep themselves motivated and to achieve further career success. Hence, all these voices together reflect that change of practice in the national school system seems to be occurring as part of teachers' response to the demands of their context and their adaptation to the norms of their professional community.

The international school system: Keeping the status quo

As I mentioned previously, the international teacher group provide descriptive accounts of positive examples of their practices relating to the survey items. Thus they spoke little of their own change experience during their international school careers. As the issue of continued PD seemed inapplicable in their context, stimulating these teachers to talk and elaborate on their answers (perceptions of their own change) was somewhat challenging. However, when they spoke, they confidently expressed that they had acquired or were endowed with “what it takes to teach” (IN2) and meet their contextual demands as expected. For the majority of my interviewees (8 of 10), the findings reveal a sense of perceived satisfaction towards their performance, career stabilization and low pace of development. They viewed their current level of knowledge and skills -- which they perceived as valued within their professional community -- as adequate with little or no need to change. Only two out of the ten teacher interviewees differed from this neutral stance, pointing to some change in their teaching. The rest justified their position – satisfied with the status quo -- by disputing the need for change. In teachers' words, the following excerpts from the data portray teachers' views on change and enhancement in their contexts:

Change means following the teaching kits

Teacher IN10 is a young American (in her late twenties) holding a full-time teaching position at school. At the time of study she was also completing a graduate degree in sociology and was in her second year of teaching English from Grades 3 to 5. She spoke of her professional growth experience that influenced her teaching as following:

I'm a native speaker of English...but honestly, when I first started here, I didn't know much about teaching children. So, I tried to follow the teaching kits that I was given in almost everything I did.... Gradually, I became more and more familiar with the materials I'm using....now I can plan lessons and organize various activities on my own...and in such way I have changed a great deal.

This voice points to the development of teaching skills through teacher's use of instructional materials. It also confirms the common practice in the private educational sector worldwide by which school administrators often demand teachers use only particular instructional resources perceived by school as level appropriate and teacher friendly (Richards & Rogers, 1998). Given the reality that teachers in the private sector might lack the adequate skills and pedagogical knowledge needed to structure their teaching -- or generate original materials for everyday classes -- the school selected materials serve a number of functions. They support teachers by including step-by-step explicit teaching instructions while at the same time allow school administrators to better manage and monitor aspects of the teaching such as content, level, approaches and strategies. Worth noting here is that the textbooks and or teaching kits used in the private sector are of high quality and often supported by an assortment of supplementary resources such as workbooks, cassettes, CDs, CD ROMs, videos, and others. Perceiving them as sufficient enough tools upon which teachers can rely, one of my principal interviewees described her selection of teaching kits/resources as 'guides for dummies' (PIN 2) and argued that this is 'what teachers need to do their job' in her school.

Change means acquiring cultural knowledge

The Australian teacher IN2, holder of a science degree and BA in education, was teaching social studies to mixed (boys and girls) middle and high school classes. She spoke of her change/development in terms of becoming more aware of and better able to handle cultural and social issues in her mixed classes. She shared her experience as follows:

After a few days in class, I realized that there is a lot more to teaching in a foreign county than the English and degrees I have....I discovered that I lacked the cultural knowledge necessary to communicate with kids in a mixed class.... My comments and management of group work have often caused embarrassment to the boys and girls...but now I'm more considerate of gender issues in my classes...especially when it comes to seating arrangement, cooperative activities and classroom organization....I learned how to address boys in the presence of girls and vice versa....which topics to present or never tap-on....and so the quality of teaching and learning has improved in my classroom.

This quote speaks particularly of the need of non-local teachers to acquire cultural knowledge to enable them to communicate appropriately and effectively with their students. This is an aspect of teacher development that seemed to gain little or no attention from teachers, principals

and teacher educators in the context of this study. As the conversation continued with this teacher, it was evident that she has acquired cultural knowledge through a discovery approach -- trial and error -- or as she put it, “the hard way”. In the next chapter this same teacher speaks of her needs as a non-local teacher not being met by any of the PD programs in Cairo.

Change means march in place with confidence

The other teachers expressed confidence in the competencies that they brought with them to their international schools. They were content with the level of their teaching performance and the efforts that they put toward their professionalism, either prior to or early during their career in the international context. The following quotes, as presented in Table 16, illustrate teachers’ positions and explain why they seemed satisfied with the status quo and thus chose not to change.

Table 16

Teacher Perceptions in the International School Context: Keeping the Status Quo

| Perceptions | Rationale |
|---|--|
| “In fact, I’m over qualified...” | “Coming from Australia..., after so many years (8) staying home and raising my children...I found out that I was qualified to teach here....in fact, I’m over qualified...” (IN2) |
| “I can teach anything.” | “I haven’t done much (PD or work) since graduation but, I was told by the school that since I am a native speaker of English, and have a BA in education ...I can teach anything.” (IN2) |
| “I’m bringing the best there is...what more can be done?” | “At this point there is no real change that I can think of...I’m doing the best I can. I’m bringing in the best there is....what more can be done!” (IN9) |
| “I...passed the learning phase...now is the time when I reap the fruit...” | “Having been working in private schools for over 10 years now, I feel that I’ve passed the learning and changing phase... now is the time to reap the fruit of my accumulated experience.” (IN8) |

| Perceptions | Rationale |
|--|--|
| “...already reached the American standards of teaching performance.” | “Working initially in language schools is challenging ... but it is really the best preparation a teacher can have ...then coming here (<i>to international schools</i>)...you must have already reached the American standards for teaching performance..... it is not so easy but once you’re there, you’re there!” (IN6) |
| “If you have the language, the other extra bits...could come along...” | “Enhancement doesn’t necessarily mean doing something new!... If you have the language, the other extra bit you need could come along...for me, better teaching is often a matter of adjusting instruction in ways that suit your students and school expectations... Basically, this is what I always do ...” (IN4) |
| “Schools are happy with my teaching” | “I have done so much already before in my old school. ...I work in two schools...doing pretty good ...and both schools are happy with my teaching.” (IN8) |
| “...because if students are happy, parents are ...and so is the school”. | “Having the necessary language proficiency and understanding the mentality of kids is key to success in American programs...it is basically what it takes to teach here. I know how to deal with the kids...and what works for them...and I teach accordingly... because if students are happy, parents are happy and so is the school ” (IN4) |
| “I am not told ...to improve my teaching” | “This school in Egypt hasn’t told me that I need to change anything. I am not told in particular what I need to be doing to improve my teaching.” (IN1) |

From the sample of data in Table 16, we can see that teachers spoke less of their efforts to enhance their practice and more of the qualities and the skills that they expressed as already having. Their voices reflect positive perceptions of self-efficacy and a stable career phase. In teachers’ quotes, phrases -- such as being “qualified” or “over qualified” (IN2), having “what it takes to teach” (IN4) and reaching “the American standards of teaching performance” (IN6) and that their “schools are happy” (IN4) with their teaching performance and not pressing for further practice improvement -- reflect confidence and strong beliefs on their professional efficacy. Perceiving their practices as “the best there is” (IN9), this group spoke of employing communicative approaches to teaching,

using modern instructional resources, modeling the language efficiently and achieving the educational goals targeted in their contexts. Perceptions such as having “passed the learning and changing phase” (IN8) and “what more could be done?” (IN9) imply confidence in teachers’ current capabilities and minimal interest or need for further learning and enhancement of teaching practices.

Importantly, we can also see that the teacher position of keeping the status quo -- as voiced above -- tends to be taken with consideration or in response to work place factors. For example, from Teacher IN 2 comments, it is clear that her perception of being “qualified” for teaching “anything” stems from the boundaries of teacher qualification and hiring criteria set by her school. Had she remained in Australia, she may not have been equally qualified to teach any subject. Similarly, the quote of Teacher IN6 reflects an understanding of the international school context as one not demanding change on the part of its teachers. The perception of Teacher IN4 that the linguistic component needed for teaching was the most essential, while the other “extra bits” of pedagogical practices were perhaps less important, was most likely formed through her understanding of the market demands for particular teacher qualities, namely the emphasis on English nativeness. Her second comment (on linking success to language proficiency and understanding the kid’s mentality) also speaks to her awareness of the commercial business-oriented nature of her work in terms of satisfying the demands of the school and the wider community (i.e., parents – the consumer). From these examples, we can see evidence that teachers assess their situation at the workplace and calculate how change may fit into their work and life (Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves, 1994, 1995; Hargreaves et al., 2010; Little, 2001). So, in the international context keeping the status quo is teachers’ dispassionate position towards change and instructional innovation—A position based upon their perception of their skills and practices in relation to the norms and dynamics of their professional community.

Teacher Confidence in the International Context: Qualitative Insights

In this chapter, the qualitative findings on teachers’ conceptions of change provide some interpretation of the quantitative results of Question 1.2, Item 17 (increased confidence about the effectiveness of teaching). Although the data provides no precise explanation for the numerical difference in group results, it highlights that teaching confidence develops in relation to contextual conditions. According to the quantitative data, the significantly lower response rate of the international group (74%) compared to the other groups (ranging between 90% and 100%) is a

reflection of the international teachers' positive sense of self-efficacy and beliefs about their competencies in relation to their workplace demands. As reflected in their quotes, confidence seems to stem from several areas -- their language proficiency as native-speakers or prior PD experience which enabled them to land their current position in an international school. In other words, international school teachers are confident of their abilities and perceive no need for change. Evidence for their confidence is expressed in their description of their classroom practices as 'state-of-the-art' and their competencies as meeting the demands of their contexts. This confidence appears to be strengthened by contextual norms such as the hiring criteria and the prioritization of native English speaking teachers. Hence, in their case and as expressed, teachers felt being in their comfort zone or being at the top of the professional ladder (a professional level often designated for holders of teaching positions in the luxurious international schools in Cairo); both factors demonstrate their feelings of confidence.

For the other groups, confidence seemed to have emerged as well but on significantly different grounds. According to the data, teacher confidence in the government sector is more directly linked to the number of years that they hold their positions. It increases as a result of their acculturation into the system, their complete compliance to its rigorous rules and their learning and application of the norms of practice. As expressed throughout teachers' quotes (Table 13), confidence or perceived effectiveness in teaching develops through teachers' process of building system-related expertise and becoming in better command of their fixed work roles. As teachers spoke of their own improvement, confidence is implied in their mastery of the required skills and strategies so that they become procedural or, as one teacher put it, "automatic...just like driving your car" (PA3). Their perceived effectiveness in teaching was also voiced through their description of their competencies and strategies as successful in achieving context-related goals, such as preparing their students for exams and perceiving community endorsement of such practices.

In the national school context, the increased confidence reported by approximately 95% of the teachers tends to stem teachers' positive learning experiences during their career. Unlike the international group -- who emphasized the adequacy of their developed capabilities in relation to their context --or the government teachers who spoke of their extended competencies and full grasp of system-bound practice -- the national group tended to speak more of their ongoing process of working with or learning the craft of the field rather than being the product of such. As shown throughout the data on teachers' perceptions of their change (Table 14, 15 and other quotes), the

national group teachers spoke of their successful attempts to change and the tools (resources and strategies) with which they seek to change and improve their practices, but with no inference of having reached some sort of a peak in terms of their professionalization as the case with the other two groups. In their comments, confidence is implied in their voiced enthusiasm for change, the perception of their continuous improvement as rewarding and their expressed positive self-efficacy resulting from the outcomes of their learning experiences in the workplace. The findings show that teachers' increased confidence is also linked to their awareness and maximum use of the various teaching support mechanisms maintained in the national school context such as having access to ample instructional resources and extended learning opportunities.

The qualitative findings suggest that confidence about practice develops in a context-specific manner. It develops in ways congruent with the dynamics of the academic and professional culture of that context. Confidence is also influenced by teachers' perception of what constitutes effective teaching and their perceived self-efficacy in relation to the workplace expectations and change sought. It increases as teachers develop more knowledge of what works and what does not in their particular contexts and then acting successfully upon that knowledge.

Conclusion:

The Change Within and Across Paradigms

The findings in this chapter show that the majority teachers in both the public and private sectors perceived great change as having occurred over time in their teaching practices. However, the descriptive accounts of their experiences highlight genuine differences in their conceptions and implementation of change, as well as the direction change is taking in their sectors. The findings reveal that teaching in the public sector remains within its traditional paradigm whereas in the private sector there is an inclination towards adopting student-centered strategies and using English as a medium of instruction. As research on teachers' work, life, and professional growth has always emphasized, the findings reflect change as a process of adjustment occurring in response to their particular contextual demands (e. g., Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Fullan, 1992, 1995, 2010; Hargreaves, 1994, 2010; Johnson, 2009; Tsui, 2003). The findings highlight that teachers' perceptions of what constitutes 'good or improved practice', and the skills they develop to change or

adjust their practices, are closely linked to the norms that prevail in the context within which they work.

Similar to the findings of several research studies on the Egyptian basic education context (El-Tawila et al., 2000; Galal, 2002; Ginsburg, 2010; Salamah, 2004; World Bank, 2007), the findings in this study reveal that teachers in the public system are not adopting new pedagogical approaches which has been promoted through a host of services and reform-based PD initiatives over the past 30 years. Also revealed is that the change occurring within the government school system tends to be taking a different direction from that intended by policy makers. Hearing teachers' descriptions of their practices and rationale for these (such as following routines, addressing institutional pressures and community expectations), we come to see issues of conformity, fixed work roles (Smylie, 1995), and teacher 'deskilling' processes known to impede change and innovation in education (Hargreaves, 1994; Hargreaves et al., 2010). As captured in this study, these issues lead to the scenario of 'no change' of practice, particularly in the public and international school systems. Moreover, focusing on teachers as key agents of change, the findings highlight that what teachers do is not so much an outcome of pedagogic choice as it is a response to the environmental circumstances in which teachers find themselves (Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves, 1994, 1995; Hargreaves et al., 2010; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Richards, 2009; Smyth, 1995). Hence, clearly, the patterns of teaching practices exhibited in the findings tend to match both the boundaries of teachers' work as set by their schools and their socialization processes of everyday work (Hargreaves et al., 2010).

For example, working in a high stakes test context, as exists in the public system, is known to pose challenges for teachers and deprive them of flexibility and creativity in practice (Johnson, 2009; Shohamy, 2004). An exam orientation by nature emphasizes memorization and rote learning, and leaves teachers with few options but to assist their students to 'absorb the content' (PE1) through knowledge transmission approaches. Shahoby argues that in high stakes test contexts, even if not said, there is an implicit order for teachers to 'teach to the test', conveying the 'what' and 'how' of teachers' work. Confirming this argument, the findings portray teachers as taking the role of agents teaching test language and test-taking strategies, or in Shohamy's sense working as -"servants of the system...who carry out the testing policies of those in authority" (p. 106). The tests effectively become an assessment tool, not only for students' achievements, but for their own performance as well.

While the findings show that CLT and interactive approaches are not yet employed in the public sector, it reveals that the private sector tends to be more attentive to bringing change into pedagogy. Despite the lack of studies that evaluate private sector performance, the sector seems to fill the void created by the lack of innovative teaching practices in the public system (NECTR, 2001). In the private school context, change of practice seems to be interpreted and operationalized in light of the field's more modern trends of teaching methodology. The findings provide a picture of a shift from the traditional teacher-centered approaches to the newer paradigm of active-learning, student-centeredness and CLT. It reflects teachers' practices as forms of response to different contextual demands, brought by different educational philosophies put in place that entails different rules of practice, different work conditions, and different societal outcome expectations.

The findings on the private sector also exemplify the emphasis on 'English nativeness' as a linguistic and cultural norm in English language education in the 'Outer Circle' (Kachru, 1986). Despite the fact that this notion has been called into question (Holliday, 1994; Pennycook, 1995; Phillipson, 1992), the preference for nativespeakers persists and directly impacts how teachers are recruited and how teaching is evaluated. This becomes a situation that affects the quality of education in this sector. Importantly for teachers, the findings show that this ideology, which is based on imprecise measures of teacher competencies, leads to conceptions that impede the process of improvement and change (Burns, 2005). This is particularly true in the context of Cairo given that the majority of native English-speaking teachers come from different professions and generally do not have a teaching degree of any kind.

The findings reflect change as a process of adjustment occurring in response to the particular demands and expectations of the context in which it occurs. Moreover, it confirms the necessity of understanding teachers' work and their knowledge development in light of the context in which it takes place. In this chapter, I looked at whether teachers perceived change in their practices, the features of this change, and teachers' conceptualization of their own change. In the next chapter, I focus more on the process of change, i.e., the experiences of teachers that lead to particular patterns of practice and orientations to change.

CHAPTER 7:
TEACHER PERCEPTIONS ON SOURCES OF CHANGE:
A RESPONSE THROUGH RESISTANCE, RESILIENCE
AND MAINTAINING THE STATUS QUO

Introduction

In this chapter, I present the findings for my second research question: *How do EFL and EMS teachers perceive their professional development opportunities and the sources of change available to them?* I address this topic under the following subset of questions:

- 2.1 How do teachers perceive the influence of some change sources on their teaching?
- 2.2 Are there cross-context differences in teachers' perceptions of the sources?
- 2.3 What stance do teachers take from the various change initiatives available to them?
 - a. What are teachers' attitudes towards change and practice improvement?
 - b. What are teachers' perceptions of the efficacy of change initiatives available to them?

The findings related to Questions 2.1 and 2.2 are derived mainly from the survey data while the findings related to Question 2.3 are derived from interviews, documents as well notes from observations. In my presentation of results, for each question, I draw on both quantitative and qualitative sets of data to better interpret and substantiate the findings. In Chapter 6, the findings reveal that teachers' conceptions of change vary considerably across the sectors examined. In this chapter, I explore teachers' perceptions of their various learning and professional development opportunities in relation to their change. The findings provide insights into the process of change in the public and private education sectors and highlight the rationale for the directions change is taking in the examined context, i.e., remaining within or moving across teaching paradigms.

How Do Teachers Perceive the Influence of Change Sources on Their Teaching?

Inclination Towards the Perception of Great Influence

The analysis of teachers' responses to Part 3 of the survey reflects a tendency among teachers to perceive most of the listed sources as greatly influencing their teaching. For better representation of results and with reference to the scattering of responses on the six-level Likert scale of the survey, the scale was merged into four categories: *no influence*, *little influence*, *great influence*, and *not applicable*. Table 17 illustrates the results.

Table 17
Teachers' Perceptions of Source Influence

| Item | Number | Mean | Median | Mode | Frequency (%) | | | | Standard Deviation |
|-----------------------------------|--------|------|--------|------|--------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| | | | | | (1)No influence | (2)Little influence | (3)Great influence | (4)Not applicable | |
| 3.1 Feedback from supervisor | 172 | 2.64 | 3.0 | 3 | 4 (2.3) | 54 (31) | 114 (65.5) | 0 (0) | 0.528 |
| 3.2 Student feedback | 172 | 2.66 | 3.0 | 3 | 0 (0) | 59 (33.9) | 113 (64.5) | 0 (0) | 0.476 |
| 3.3 Keeping a teaching journal | 165 | 3.10 | 3.0 | 2 | 23 (13.2) | 60 (34.5) | 41 (23.6) | 41 (23.6) | 0.706 |
| 3.4 Through trial and error | 165 | 2.69 | 3.0 | 3 | 1 (0.6) | 67 (38.5) | 91 (52.3) | 6 (3.4) | 0.510 |
| 3.5 Collaboration with colleagues | 170 | 2.81 | 3.0 | 3 | 3 (1.7) | 30 (17.2) | 136 (78.2) | 1 (0.6) | 0.452 |
| 3.6 Self-discovery | 170 | 2.71 | 3.0 | 3 | 6 (3.4) | 49 (28.2) | 111 (63.8) | 4 (2.3) | 0.554 |
| 3.7 Attending in-service courses | 165 | 2.56 | 3.0 | 3 | 11 (6.3) | 62 (35.6) | 88 (50.6) | 4 (2.3) | 0.623 |

| Item | Number | Mean | Median | Mode | Frequency (%) | | | | Standard Deviation |
|---|--------|------|--------|------|-----------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| | | | | | (1)No influence | (2)Little influence | (3)Great influence | (4)Not applicable | |
| 3.8 Tired of doing the same thing | 165 | 2.44 | 2.0 | 2 | 21 (12.1) | 75 (43.1) | 61 (35.1) | 8 (4.6) | 0.678 |
| 3.9 Use of new textbooks | 171 | 2.73 | 3.0 | 3 | 11 (6.3) | 55 (31.6) | 95 (54.6) | 10 (5.7) | 0.623 |
| 3.10 Implementing new curriculum | 168 | 2.92 | 3.0 | 3 | 10 (5.7) | 42 (24.1) | 100 (57.5) | 16 (9.2) | 0.613 |
| 3.11 Classroom investigation/research I conducted | 167 | 2.96 | 3.0 | 3 | 6 (3.4) | 66 (37.9) | 71 (40.8) | 24 (13.8) | 0.578 |
| 3.12 Contact with others who triggered a change in me | 168 | 2.66 | 3.0 | 3 | 6 (3.4) | 57 (32.8) | 101 (58) | 4 (2.3) | 0.565 |
| 3.13 Attending seminars/conferences/workshops | 172 | 2.62 | 3.0 | 3 | 14 (8) | 56 (32.2) | 96 (55.2) | 6 (3.4) | 0.649 |
| 3.14 Parents' comments and suggestions | 171 | 2.47 | 2.0 | 2 | 8 (4.6) | 87 (50) | 72 (41.4) | 4 (2.3) | 0.578 |
| 3.15 Class-size | 173 | 2.86 | 3.0 | 3 | 12 (6.9) | 31 (17.8) | 120 (69) | 10 (5.7) | 0.611 |
| 3.16 The department and/or school heads | 173 | 2.58 | 3.0 | 3 | 9 (5.2) | 60 (34.5) | 102 (58.6) | 2 (1.1) | 0.596 |
| 3.17 Externally mandated standardized tests | 168 | 2.71 | 3.0 | 3 | 19 (10.9) | 58 (33.3) | 75 (43.1) | 16 (9.2) | 0.697 |

Sample Categories

As shown in Table 17, the mean, median and mode calculated for each item reflect a pattern of teachers' response whereby the majority of responses fall under the third level of 'great influence'. Except for items, 3 (keeping a teaching journal), 8 (being tired of doing the same thing) and 14 (parents' comments and suggestions) the mode and median scores (a value of 3) and the means (a value between 2.50 and 3.00) point to a general tendency among teachers of perceiving the various sources of PD and change as greatly influential to practice. The percentage of responses calculated for each source which indicate that all sources were perceived by the majority of teachers (more than 50%) as greatly influential

The results for item 5 (collaboration with colleagues) represent the highest response rate whereby 79% (n= 136) of the teachers this source as greatly impacting their practices. This view confirms the wide discussions in the teacher education literature on the impact of collaborative efforts on teachers' process of professional renewal and change (Burns, 1999; Edge, 2002; Johnston, 2009). According to teachers' comments and the cross-tabulation conducted to search for possible links between professional opportunities and particular practices (analysis of survey Part 4) and which was analyzed qualitatively (as the majority of respondents did not complete the final section of the survey), collaboration is found to influence several practices. The ones most mentioned are teachers' efficient use of class time (24%), implementing lesson plans more effectively (14%), the use of supplementary materials (13%) and teachers' understanding of their own teaching philosophies (6%).

Speaking to the floor reality of teachers' everyday work, item 15 (class-size) comes next after collaboration with approximately 70% (n=120) of the teachers agreeing upon its great influence on their classroom practices. This source has also been linked by several teachers to practices such as including group work strategies (6%), addressing learners' styles (16%) and increasing teachers' English language proficiency (17%).

Although teachers within all four school types examined operate under hierarchal systems whereby the supervisor is presumably primary source of input and authority directing and monitoring teachers' practices, the findings for item 1 (feedback from the supervisor) show comparatively fewer teachers (65%) perceiving their supervisors as a source of great influence on their practice. However, the intent here is not to evaluate or rank order the various sources to which

teachers responded but rather to have a holistic sense of teachers' perception of their various sources and avenues of change.

Same Professional Structure, Different Services: Qualitative Insights

The qualitative data reveal aspects important to understanding and interpreting the quantitative results on teachers' perceptions of their sources as greatly influential. First, just as we have seen in Chapter 6 that the concepts of change and instructional enhancement differ across teacher groups, the findings in this chapter show the sources of change function differently across sectors. Consequently, this results in different (context-bound) outcomes of change. Moreover, some of the sources and avenues to PD seem foreign or inapplicable in the context examined. Importantly, these findings take us a step deeper in understanding the phenomenon examined by illuminating what aspects of the sources influence teachers' practices in particular ways. Based on teachers' written and verbal comments pertaining to the survey, Table 18 presents the findings for sample categories showing cross-sector differences, similarities and overlap in the services offered by what may be taken as similar PD structures and change sources.

Table 18***Sample Teacher Description of Source Functions***

| Source of change | Government sector | Private sector |
|---|---|---|
| <p><i>Feedback from supervisor (item 1)</i></p> <p><i>Similar goals:</i> directing and monitoring practice</p> <p><i>Similar focus:</i> technical and administrative</p> <p><i>Different content:</i> structured around different teaching approaches</p> <p><i>Both exhibit links between means and ends.</i></p> | <p>Compulsory one-size-fit-all systematic practice; characterized by a one-way instruction and evaluation based dialogue; often non-verbal during class-time using a check list; focuses on the management of teaching; and conducted with reference to a set of prescribed instructional mandates.</p> | <p>Compulsory and optional; collectively and/or individually customized; addresses immediate needs; takes wide range of in and out of class forms (observation/assessment, conferencing, formal/informal enquiries, etc...); focuses on instructional content and approach; conducted with reference to school policy and particular instructional materials.</p> |
| <p><i>Self-discovery (item 6)</i></p> <p><i>Similar functions:</i> Serves on the level of awareness, professional self-positioning and self-actualization</p> <p><i>Different outcomes:</i> Leads to context-bound orientations and practices</p> | <p>Awareness of teacher's own potentials for creativity that lead to context-related innovations within the boundaries of acceptable norms and practices.</p> | <p>Awareness of self as a reliable source of input on teaching.</p> <p>Discovery of ability to produce/organize/adjust performance to context demands</p> |

| Source of change | Government sector | Private sector |
|--|--|--|
| <i>Attending conferences, seminars and workshops (item 13)</i> | Collective non-customized change initiatives focus on teachers to communicative teaching methods and related resources and materials. The degree of content applicability and teacher-uptake is context-bound. | |
| <i>Cross-context unified content and activities: One-size-fits-all approaches to in-service training focused mainly on learner-centered techniques</i> | Nation-wide and provincial large scale events of training sessions for all teachers (mandatory for government sector teachers). Organized by local national and international organizations. Content delivered by expatriate or local educators. | |
| <i>Different teacher uptake: acted-upon differently depending on contextual affordances and constraints.</i> | Large group sessions conducted through classic lecture mode. | |
| <i>The use of new textbooks (item 9)</i> <i>Functions in two opposite ways: Supports different change orientations</i> | Regardless of the quality, use is restricted to traditional teaching where "...the teaching routines never change... but the Ministry changes the content every few years." (PA10) | Teachers lean on high quality textbooks as a source for guidance and ideas, especially that such are supported with assortment of supplementary resources including step-by-step explicit teaching instructions, workbooks, CDs, CD ROMs, videos and others) |
| <i>Class-size (item 15)</i> <i>Functions in two opposite directions</i> | Poorly furnished and exceedingly oversized classes shape practice; that is doing what feasible not necessarily what should be done; that is whole class teacher centered activities. | The setting provides instructional flexibility in terms of involving students in various activities and paying attention to individual student needs. |
| <i>Keeping a teaching Journal (item 3)</i> <i>Inapplicable: Non-existent concept and no evidence for employing the strategy in both contexts</i> | Understood as a personal draft of lesson plans and/or teacher notes and comments. Formal teaching is not personally guided and is documented only through lesson/unit plans in the recognized mandated formats. | Conceived of as teachers' personal comments associated with particular lessons. |

| Source of change | Government sector | Private sector |
|--|---|----------------|
| <i>Classroom research (item 11)</i> <i>Inapplicable:</i> Non-existent unemployed concept in both contexts | Class room is not a place for research in a formal/systemic sense; nor is research perceived as part of teachers' duties. However, teachers individually or collaboratively often take time to try to analyze (discuss, reflect on or get feedback) particular classroom incidents (such as behavioral problems or /unexpected student achievements) and act upon their findings. | |

This snap shot of similarities differences and overlap in source offerings provides evidence for the co-existence of different academic cultures and professional structures in the educational context examined. It also shows a means-ends relationship between the teacher support services provided by various sources and the features and directions of change reported by teachers in Chapter 6. That is, the services offered in each context are directed toward reinforcing its particular existing practices and norms.

The findings also show that the labeling of professional opportunities is not necessarily indicative of its particular quality, content and approach maintained. It is rather the specifics of such and the context in which they function that provide a true sense of the type and direction for change likely to be adopted by teachers. Moreover, the sample findings in Table 18 show possible absence of some structures from the educational culture examined such as item 3 (keeping a teaching journal) and item 11 (conducting classroom research). This absence -- or perhaps confusion -- over these concepts is reflected in the quantitative results in Table 17 showing these two items as less influential than others (less than 25% of teachers reported great influence for item 3 and 41% for item 11).

The findings on item 13 (Attending seminars, conferences and workshops) reflect the external Western approaches to PD in which teachers participate. According to the data, they represent the imported universally packaged PD structures implemented through large scale training projects as part of the educational reform movement in Egypt (discussed in Chapter 2). The large attendance and diversity of teachers involved often limit the pedagogical activities to less-interactive knowledge-transmission approaches that lack follow-up procedures. Depending on the context of teaching, teachers expressed different views on these PD structures. For example, during their

interviews, teachers' in the public sector emphasized the foreignness of such structure to the Egyptian setting and described them as following:

“International events for international teaching strategies.” (PE1)

“Talks by speakers from different parts of the world.” (PA1)

“Propaganda, not taking us anywhere.” (PA4)

“You just sit and listen to lectures delivered by specialists; the worst scenario is the video conference ...the best is technology training although the hands-on time is limited.” (PA3)

Teachers in the national school context and in a more positive sense perceived the professional conferences and workshops as:

“Valuable... free opportunities out of which we should get the most.” (NL3)

“They show you what to do...give you updates, new ideas for different activities that you can take back to class with you.” (NL1)

“Sometimes the materials and handouts ...are more useful than the lecture itself.” (NL5)

The international teacher group differed from their counter parts in the private sector. Expressing less interest and some concerns about these avenues for PD, the following are representative voices:

Talks and topics are repetitive...not for me any more. (IN3)

Conferences are costly and time consuming....not the best option for me. (IN8)

I haven't taken advantage of much of these opportunities...perhaps I will. (IN1)

These quotes together not only speak to the pedagogical approaches maintained but also to teacher group difference in the perceptions of and interactions with such universally packaged PD structures. As the study unfolds, the impact of context on teachers' practices will further be illuminated.

Is There Cross-context Difference in Teachers' Perceptions on Sources?

Cross-group Difference

Focusing on the 'great influence' level of teachers' response, I examined the data for group difference. Table 19 illustrates the cross-context comparison indicating the response percentage of each of the four groups on all 17 items.

Table 19
Comparing Teacher Group Responses on Great Influence

| Item | School type | Great influence | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage | Total % all school types |
| 3.1 Feedback from supervisor | Public-Arabic | 26 | 65 | 65.5 |
| | Experimental | 34 | 66.7 | |
| | National Language | 35 | 72.9 | |
| | International | 19 | 54.3 | |
| 3.2 Student feedback | Public-Arabic | 23 | 57.5 | 64.9 |
| | Experimental | 30 | 58.8 | |
| | National Language | 35 | 72.9 | |
| | International | 25 | 71.4 | |
| 3.3 Keeping a teaching journal | Public-Arabic | 3 | 7.5 | 23.6 |
| | Experimental | 12 | 23.5 | |
| | National Language | 19 | 39.6 | |
| | International | 20 | 41 | |
| 3.4 Through trial and error | Public-Arabic | 19 | 47.5 | 52.3 |
| | Experimental | 21 | 41.2 | |
| | National Language | 28 | 58.3 | |
| | International | 23 | 65.7 | |
| 3.5 Collaboration with colleagues | Public-Arabic | 36 | 90 | 78.8 |
| | Experimental | 38 | 74.5 | |
| | National Language | 38 | 79.2 | |
| | International | 24 | 68.6 | |
| 3.6 Self-discovery | Public-Arabic | 29 | 72.5 | 63.8 |
| | Experimental | 33 | 64.7 | |
| | National Language | 27 | 56.3 | |
| | International | 22 | 62.9 | |

| Item | School type | Great influence | | Total % all school types |
|--|-------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage | |
| 3.7 Attending in-service courses | Public-Arabic | 24 | 60 | 50.6 |
| | Experimental | 26 | 54.9 | |
| | National Language | 23 | 47.9 | |
| | International | 13 | 37.1 | |
| 3.8 Tired of doing the same thing | Public-Arabic | 19 | 47.5 | 35.1 |
| | Experimental | 18 | 35.3 | |
| | National Language | 14 | 29.2 | |
| | International | 10 | 28.6 | |
| 3.9 Use of new textbooks | Public-Arabic | 26 | 65 | 54.6 |
| | Experimental | 32 | 62.7 | |
| | National Language | 22 | 45.8 | |
| | International | 15 | 42.9 | |
| 3.10 Implementing new curriculum | Public-Arabic | 29 | 72.5 | 57.5 |
| | Experimental | 34 | 66.7 | |
| | National Language | 21 | 43.8 | |
| | International | 16 | 45.7 | |
| 3.11 Classroom investigation/ research I conducted | Public-Arabic | 18 | 45 | 40.8 |
| | Experimental | 18 | 35.3 | |
| | National Language | 22 | 45.8 | |
| | International | 13 | 37.1 | |
| 3.12 Contact with others who triggered a change in me | Public-Arabic | 25 | 62.5 | 58 |
| | Experimental | 29 | 56.9 | |
| | National Language | 31 | 64.6 | |
| | International | 16 | 45.7 | |
| 3.13 Attending seminars/ conferences/workshops | Public-Arabic | 20 | 50 | 55.2 |
| | Experimental | 30 | 58.8 | |
| | National Language | 30 | 62.5 | |
| | International | 16 | 45.7 | |
| 3.14 Parents' comments and suggestions | Public-Arabic | 13 | 32.5 | 41.4 |
| | Experimental | 23 | 45.1 | |
| | National Language | 24 | 50 | |
| | International | 12 | 34.3 | |
| 3.15 Class-size | Public-Arabic | 31 | 77.5 | 69 |
| | Experimental | 38 | 74.5 | |
| | National Language | 32 | 66.7 | |
| | International | 19 | 54.3 | |

| Item | School type | Great influence | | Total % all school types |
|---|-------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage | |
| 3.16 The department and/or school heads | Public-Arabic | 27 | 67.5 | 58.6 |
| | Experimental | 31 | 60.8 | |
| | National Language | 29 | 60.4 | |
| | International | 15 | 42.9 | |
| 3.17 Externally mandated standardized tests | Public-Arabic | 24 | 60 | 43.1 |
| | Experimental | 29 | 56.9 | |
| | National Language | 12 | 25 | |
| | International | 10 | 28.6 | |

The varying percentage rate of group responses shown in Table 19 indicates some differences in teachers' perceptions. To examine these differences for significance, accounting for the possibility that the population distributions may not be normal despite the reasonable sample size used in this research Nonparametric statistical analysis is performed using Kruskal-Wallis test which is used to evaluate differences among the four school types in a similar fashion as ANOVA with no assumption on the data distribution.

Significant Group Difference on Collaboration

Using a level of significance of ($p=0.05$), the results of the analysis indicate a significant difference only in source 5 (collaboration with colleagues). The significant difference for the medians for teachers' responses on collaboration is shown in Table 20.

Table 20

Collaboration with Colleagues; Kruskal-Wallis Test: ($\chi^2(3, N = 170) = 11.40, p = 0.01$)

| School type | N | Mean rank |
|-------------------|-----|-----------|
| Public-Arabic | 39 | 99.00 |
| Experimental | 51 | 80.02 |
| National Language | 45 | 88.59 |
| International | 35 | 74.47 |
| Total | 170 | |

Test Statistics^{a,b}

| | Diff_Score |
|-------------|------------|
| Chi-Square | 11.4 |
| df | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | 0.01 |

a Kruskal Wallis Test

b Grouping Variable: Type of school

The Source of Difference: The Public Arabic Group

Focusing on Item 5 (collaboration with colleagues) for which the Kruskal-Wallis test analysis indicated significant difference among teacher groups, follow-up measures were conducted to evaluate pair-wise difference among the groups. A Mann-Whitney test as depicted in Table 21 was used to examine the hypothesis that teachers' perceptions on collaboration were similar for the four teacher groups.

Table 21***Collaboration with Colleagues: Mann-Whitney Test Comparing Contexts***

| Test Statistics ^a | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|----------|-------------------------------|--|
| Type of school | Mann-Whitney U | Wilcoxon W | Z | Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) | |
| <i>Public-Arabic</i> | | | | | |
| ▪ Experimental | 772 | 2098 | -2.730 | 0.006 | |
| ▪ National Language | 767 | 1802 | -1.765 | 0.077 | |
| ▪ International | 489 | 1119 | -3.076 | 0.002 | |
| <i>Experimental</i> | | | | | |
| ▪ National Language | 1030 | 2356 | -1.225 | 0.221 | |
| ▪ International | 832 | 1462 | -0.680 | 0.496 | |
| <i>National</i> | | | | | |
| ▪ International | 655.5 | 1285.5 | -1.764 | 0.078 | |

Note. ^a Grouping variable: Type of school.

The results indicate that the public Arabic group response rate is significantly higher than the experimental teacher group ($U= 772.000$, $p=0.006$) and the international group ($U= 489.00$, $p= 002$). That is, compared to the other groups, the Arabic public has a significantly larger within-group majority perceiving a great impact of collaboration on their practice. In the next section, I draw on my qualitative data to better understand these results and teachers' views on their 'collaboration with colleagues' as a source of change.

Qualitative Insights: Collaboration with Colleagues

The quantitative findings illustrated in Figure 12 show that the majority of teachers (78% $n=136$) perceived collaboration with colleagues as a source of great influence on their practice. The results for each teacher group indicate that collaboration is taking place within each of the educational settings explored. However, we know from teacher education research (for example, Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Edge, 2002; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Guskey, 2003, 2005; Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 2009; Johnston, 2009; Little, 1990, 2001)

that collaboration among teachers takes various forms and not all are equally effective in leading to professional growth and change. So, while the numerical findings provide some evidence for a relationship between collaboration and teachers' perceived change of practice, they leave us with questions about the forms of collaboration in which teachers are involved and the type of change resulting from such efforts. For these questions, the qualitative findings reveal the features of collaborative efforts in which teachers are involved across the contexts examined.

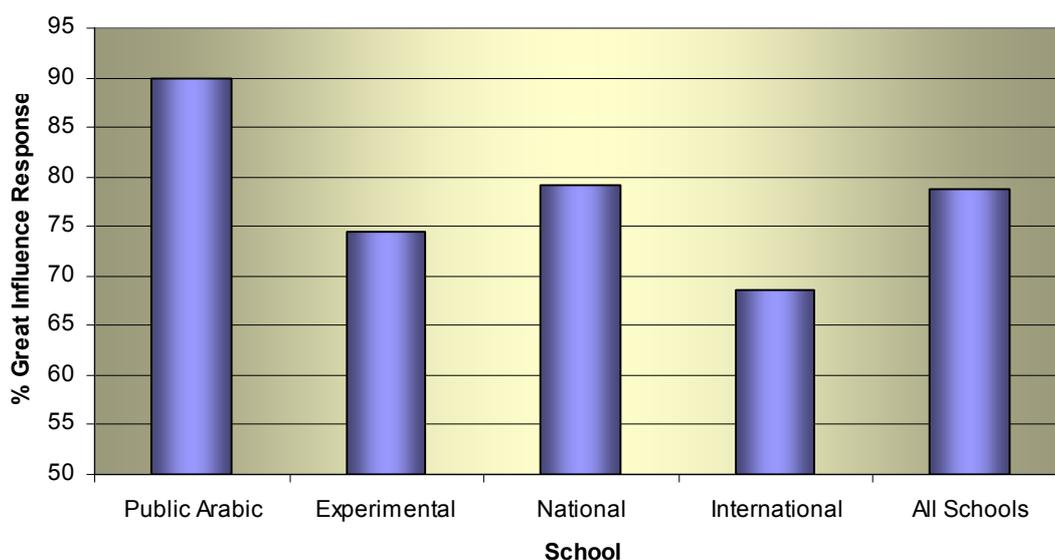


Figure 12. Teacher group responses on Item 5 (collaboration with colleagues).

The Government Sector: Contrived Collaboration and Support Groups

Teachers spoke of participating in collaborative activities where they meet and discuss issues of common concerns to them. Two forms of collaboration emerge in the data: a compulsory mandated one taking place in formal settings in and out of school during the school year according to a pre-set schedule and informal meetings taking place often in the teacher rooms at schools.

Contrived collegiality

With regard to the first form of collaboration, teachers spoke of receiving step-by step instructions from their School District office through their principal and department heads to

participate in collaborative activities. Representative of many other teacher voices, examples of the most common of these activities were shared by PA1 as following:

Depending on the plan (ministry PD agenda), there is something every week and every month... a group of us (teachers) gets selected by the Board office to participate in a professional session.... at school or at the Advisory Board...led by the supervisor or someone else, we either discuss a topic proposed for the meeting that could be related to curriculum innovations, new textbooks or adding or canceling instructional unit... but usually it is the exemplary lesson activity....one of us, the head teacher or the advisor himself demonstrates a lesson delivery....{sarcastically}of course, the rest pretend being the students....., we comment on the performance and so on...at the end it is a show that doesn't always connect to the real classroom work....but we have to do it anyway.

In speaking of this form of collaboration, positive perceptions were also expressed by several teachers pointing to some social and professional benefits that can result from such efforts.

Representative of this view is the following quote of Teacher PE8 who argued for taking advantage of such collaborative activities:

It is a must do routine ...repetitive perhaps but important for promotion purposes...and that is not bad...even during that little role-play part, we comment and laugh sometimes..... in fact it is enjoyable to do that with colleagues. I personally look at it as a social event...we (teachers) get to meet with colleagues, break our daily routine, talk and share concerns... have refreshments. I value this aspect of the event!

Both comments speak to a contrived form of collaboration, or '*a must do routine*' where the how, when, what and where of the effort are decisions made for teachers not by them. According to the data, such approach leaves teachers with no choice but to find coping strategies which can vary from having to submit to the system routines (as reflected in the first comment) or choosing to take advantage of such events by seeking other value or purpose for the activity (as heard teacher PE8). On the role of schools in facilitating teacher collaboration, teachers perceived their schools' position as surface coordinators -- or rather '*mailmen*' who deliver the ministry's mandates in this regard and report back through a school-based PD structure known as 'training units'. This will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter as I introduce the principals' roles and views on their teachers' professional development.

Support groups

Teachers also spoke of participating in informal types of collaboration taking place in their schools and described them as effective in addressing their ‘real issues’. This perception is best captured in the following comment on teachers’ interaction and relationship with each other.

We have been working here for 10 to 25 years , we’re not still learning to teach....we’re old friends....our support to one-another is very important. It is the fuel that keeps us going. We lean on each other in this problematic system where the teacher is always the one at fault... We discuss our real issues... conflicts with students, parents and school administration..... because only those who work here under the same roof, teach the same kids, deal with the same principal and experience the same work conditions...can understand, and provide solutions that can help.
(PE1)

This sample voice emphasizes the legitimacy of informal collegiality as a source of moral, emotional support particularly needed in problematic work conditions for which the public sector is known (such as poor school facilities, large classes, low remuneration, and bureaucratic nature). It highlights the role of colleagues as ‘understanders’ and therefore reliable sources of input on practice as opposed to outsiders who may lack the true picture of the teachers’ work environment and related issues.

So, looking at the data through qualitative lens, the 90% response rate of the public Arabic teachers and 75% of the experimental teachers refers to their participation in two types of collaborative activities in the government setting: the mandatory routines and the informal gatherings of teachers in their workplace. According to the data, the comparatively higher response rate of the public sector teachers seem to relate the frequent enforcement of mandated collaborative efforts, and also to teachers’ positive attitudes towards such activities. Despite their expressed concern over the contrived form of collaboration in relation to their professional needs and work realities, teachers tended to enjoy participating in both activities and perceive such as fulfilling to some of their social and emotional needs.

The National Context: Support Groups, Contrived and Collaborative Culture

The data from the national school context exhibits various forms of collaboration that support teachers on different levels: emotional/moral, technical and professional. At the national schools --

where teachers are perceived by principals and business owners as the ‘pillars’ of business success -- collaboration was among an array of PD activities in which teachers were encouraged to participate. Teachers mentioned collaborating with each other through mandatory activities including peer coaching, regular staff and department meetings, modeling and observing practice and presenting on topics suggested by their supervisors or agreed upon by teachers. Teachers also expressed participating in informal types of collegial collaboration varying from simple ‘aid and assistance’ -- such as asking each other questions to participating in routine sharing and exchanging of materials, methods and ideas relating to their work; and perceived such collegiality as a source of input on practice and thus resorted to one another for help and clarifications. Table 22 shows sample voices representing the types of collaborative activities found in this context and displays various levels of interdependency among colleagues.

Table 22

Collaboration in the National School Context

| Form of collaboration | Descriptive accounts |
|--|--|
| Aid and assistance or scanning for ideas | “We help each other here.... If you’re stuck on something and you need to work out a good solution.....just ask a colleague...” (NL3) |
| Support groups | “...even when you’re having one of those bad days.....we are always there for each other....this is what I like most about the team (teachers)here...we’re like one big family...” (NL1) |
| Aid, assistance and support groups | “We are always there for ach other....you don’t always want to consult with the supervisor on everything, especially if you’re new because that might be taken negatively....so, if I need something I first approach my colleagues. the right advice is often there...” (NL5) |

| Form of collaboration | Descriptive accounts |
|---|---|
| Routine sharing of ideas (contrived and collaborative culture) | <p>“We share opinions...exchange teaching materials and personal resources...we build on each other’s knowledge...” (NL3)</p> <p>“ as well....we also observe each others’ classes and participate in weekly team meetingsschool requires us to do so...at the beginning, I didn’t use to like it, but now I feel comfortable visiting a class or having a colleague come in...I love the discussion after words It is really constructive and focused...in fact it is a great learning opportunity.” (NL1)</p> |
| Sharing of materials and ideas (collaborative culture) | <p>“...when we go to a conference, we work together a plan so that we attend different sessions then later at school we meet to share the content and materials presented and see how we might use it in our classrooms.” (NL2)</p> <p>“...together, my colleagues and I established a mini teaching resource center (a collection of teacher developed and selected instructional materials)...now other teachers are using it and contributing to it too....it is a fabulous experience.. ” (NL5)</p> |

While the voices above provide a picture of the forms of collaboration undertaken in the national context, they also reflect teachers’ sense of value for all these forms including the contrived efforts. Embedded in teachers’ words also is a sense of community, personal engagement and functionality related to their collaborative efforts. The findings confirm the advantages of collaboration reported in the general TE literature (Burns, 1999, 2009; Edge, 2009, 2002; Farrell, 2007; Johnson, 2009), but also reveal some healthy side effects of contrived collaboration which according to Hargreaves (1994) rarely lead to change and development. Such as felt by teachers are the breaking the sense of isolation conveyed by the nature of the profession and having exposure to others and new knowledge. Within the private sector, the higher response rate of the national group (approximately 80%) compared to the international group (less than 70%) is reflective of the nature and workplace conditions of the national school contexts such as the administrative pressures for

continuous professional enhancement, supportive policies, teachers' tendency to exploit their immediate resources, their positive attitudes towards learning and advancing perceiving such as rewarding in their workplace.

The International Context: Contrived Collaboration and Limited Collegiality

The story in the international school context seemed different. Teachers mentioned attending collectively school-organized events including meetings, school-based workshops describing such events as “a refresh on practice” (IN4) and “periodic updates” (IN1) on instructional and managerial issues important to school. However, the *egg box* analogy used in the TE literature to describe the isolated nature of teachers' work best describes teachers' work in the international context. Drawing on various sets of data including my first hand experience in the international context, field notes, teacher and principal interviews (as well as other anecdotal data such as unrecorded informal conversation with participants), I have observed that teachers in the international context worked in isolation from one another. Homeroom teachers tended to either remain in their classrooms all day including their free periods. Most teachers seemed too busy to socialize or collaborate with others because they were working at two schools and operating on the basis of full-time schedules squeezed into 2-3 days in each school. Interestingly, the fancy teacher lounges are usually vacant and, when occupied, the conversation is limited to brief casual topics away from teaching. As a result, minimal professional ties and surface social interactions are easily noticeable among teachers. Underlying such distance in teachers' relationships are factors such as teachers' freelance positions, the heterogeneous nature of the teacher group, other professional commitments, and residency status issues; all of such cause disengagement and job instability. Although these factors were not specifically mentioned by my teacher interviewees, they are easily recognizable and such can explain why collegiality may not be an area of professional investment to these teachers.

Source Influence: Brief

So far, the findings on teachers' perceptions of source influence (question 2.3) reveal that teachers perceived most of the sources listed in the survey as having impacted their teaching practices in some ways. The qualitative data indicates that the characteristics of sources in terms of goals, content and approach are context-bound. That is, depending on the maintained institutional norms, sources of change may function differently and afford particular educational philosophies,

academic cultures and professional communities. Accordingly, they tend to shape practices and direct change. With regard to the differences in teacher group perceptions (question 2), except for item 5 (collaboration with colleagues) there are no significant group differences reported. The findings show that ‘collaboration with colleagues’ is perceived by the majority of teachers as a source of great influence on their practices; though, the forms of collaboration reported fall between contrived collaboration, sharing of ideas and support groups. The findings reported in the next section the stances teachers take from their various sources will take us into a deeper level of understanding the relationship between teachers’ change sources and their change of practice.

What Stance Do Teachers Take From Their Various Change Initiatives?

This question addresses teachers’ beliefs on and involvement with their various sources and avenues of change. The answer speaks to teachers’ response to the call for change in the teaching practices that has long been proposed and promoted in the field of English language education in Cairo through a variety of teacher support services and programs. In language education, the heart of the matter of this call is to shift classroom teaching and learning practices towards communicative language teaching. While this move has been penetrating the Egyptian education system for over three decades, it has been acted upon differently by teachers working in different schooling contexts. In this section, I address the issue of teachers’ position in their change prospects under two main topics that I feel crystallizing to the principles that guide their teaching practices: teachers’ attitudes towards change and instructional improvement and their views on the efficacy of the change sources to which they are exposed.

The Government Sector Teachers: Adaptability Through Resistance

Positive Attitudes: “Enhancement Is Every Educator’s Obligation”

Teachers expressed openness to development and emphasized the necessity for change at all levels of the national educational system. Their views reflect willingness and constructive beliefs towards undertaking professional learning and active roles for bringing about change and improving their fields. The following excerpts in Table 23 present examples of teachers’ commentary in this respect.

Table 23***Teacher Attitudes Towards Educational Change in the Public Context***

| Reasons/beliefs for undertaking change | Teacher voices |
|---|---|
| The love of learning and commitment for improvements | “I love learning. Learning to improve conditions is every educator’s obligation...” (PA5) |
| An innate need | “We are all born with a pre-disposition to continually advance, change and learn more.” (PA5) |
| Professionalism and self-satisfaction | “I want to be a specialist in my field. I like to learn more...for work and self-satisfaction as well.” (PA4) |
| Positive beliefs | “I believe in the value of learning and enhancing my performance...” (PA4) |
| Involvement in self-improvement | “I do a lot of professional development and self-improvement activities...courses, on-line explorations...” (PA5) |
| For better schooling of children | “I’m waiting for change...we can only hope for change to happen... because our children deserve better schooling opportunities” (PE7) |
| Strong motivations but huge hurdles | “We (teachers) like to take part in improving our schools and educating our kids.... but the hurdles are huge...” (PA6) |
| A call for system change | “not only methods and books, it is the whole system from top to bottom that has to be changed” (PE3) |
| | “We are not refusing any proposed enhancement. It is the system... the decision makers who are refusing a real change.” (PA3) |

| Reasons/beliefs for undertaking change | Teacher voices |
|---|--|
| Urge for change with perceived constraints | “...we would love to ...bring in new perspectives, use different materials or just be ourselves, but this kind of change is beyond the teacher control.” (PA2) |

Representative of the majority of voices, the statements of Table 23 reflect strong beliefs on the necessity of bringing about change in education. They also show that teachers are not resistant to change but rather willing to and calling for change to occur. For example, quotes 2-5 speak to teachers’ positive attitudes towards change on the personal and professional level and 6-9 speak resentfully to the hope and need for change on a deeper and wider level of the system. Teachers perceive themselves as being part of their system structure but with limited power in terms of bringing about change. On the bright side of the picture, teachers’ comments carry elements of willingness, hope, reasons and calls for change and sense of responsibility on the part of teachers. All of such may underlie positive potentials and dispositions on the teachers’ part for employing new professional learning and enhancing their practice. Such attitudes are foundational in the success of change prospects (Hargreaves et al., 2010; Guskey, 2003).

From another perspective, implied from teachers comments that change does not occur in a vacuum and can hardly be separated from the system where it is to occur. When speaking of change, teachers’ voices also carry dispiriting notions such as “hurdles” (PA6), “beyond teacher control” (PA2) and “only hope” (PE7), pointing to system limitations and gaps between their potential for practice change and current system realities. As this chapter unfolds, we will see that such attitudes and convictions on change alone do not form strong enough grounds for teachers to change their practices and employ the more modern methods promoted in the field. In the following sections I explore teachers’ perceptions of other aspects of change which reveal the hurdles that seem to be blocking the strong teacher potentials for change and uncover the driving force directing practice in the government sector.

Critical Views on Source Efficacy

Although teachers tended to welcome instructional innovations in their context and were exposed to a wide range of PD opportunities geared at change of practice, the data provides no evidence for employing teaching practices other than those historically typical of their sector. Explaining their position or rather, their decline to demonstrate change of practice in their work, teachers spoke of their sources of change pointing to barriers on their path to instructional innovations. They viewed their various sources in terms of two main channels of input on practice directing their pedagogical activities: School-based programs (such as technical supervisory routines, school-based collaborative efforts and Board advisory and inspection procedures); and external change initiatives (such as participating in conferences, local courses and international training programs).

They emphasized a divide between them in terms content goals and approaches. According to the data, school-based avenues are perceived to represent the realities of the current system and promote the implementation of traditional teacher-centered practices. External programs are seen to embrace Western visions focusing on ‘methodology’ training and computer assisted language learning activities. The traditional orientation is the dominant norm in the public school context and is being reinforced throughout the system administratively (through the management of learning and evaluation procedures) and practically (through adoption of particular instructional materials, curricula, exam-related practices, and the features of classrooms and school facilities). Teachers therefore expressed having no room for employing ‘modern methods’ and choosing to comply with demand of the system for which they are held accountable. So, teachers tended to discard change in their instructional practices. The following scripts from the data portray teachers’ views on their sources of change in relation to their practice.

School-based options: “Not really a source of innovation”

Describing their school-based PD experiences as mismatching with the ‘recent methods’ being proposed in their fields, teachers emphasized that their school sources (supervisors, senior teachers, colleagues, department heads, visiting advisors or inspectors) and PD activities (including classroom observations, micro-teaching, and daily routines) are geared toward the consolidation of the traditional practices. Functioning within a highly centralized educational system with traditional hierarchal structures, teachers spoke of being restricted to the mandated routines of the traditional

paradigm. Explaining how school-based sources serve against change, a secondary English language teacher spoke of the role of his supervisors as following:

Supervisors are not a source of innovation ...they make sure that you're teaching the old way, according to their official check list....to my knowledge their list hasn't changed yet. (PE4)

In another school, teacher PA4 confirmed the adoption of traditional routines at the supervisory and the managerial levels of school saying:

We're required by the department heads, advisors, and inspectors to follow our traditional teaching routines... school doesn't expect practice change...they know the change of traditional teaching is not doable anyway....Everyone here speaks reality. (PA4)

Explaining his position of continuing to maintain traditional teaching practices, teacher PA8 also spoke of receiving no official instructions coming through school channels for implementing change:

Yes, we're involved in a lot of training at school including exemplary lessons and other... but so far, we have not received instructions from our supervisors and head teachers to change anything...so, as of now nothing other than the authorized lesson format can be followed... if you break the rules...you get penalized. (PA8)

These voices speak to school-based sources as serving to afford the traditional system norms rather than to alter them. They also speak to teachers' loss of ownership of their own practice, their submission and compliance to the school regulatory bodies which function within the traditional paradigm. Implied from teachers' voices that government promoted change efforts do not seem to be penetrating the classrooms through schools' official gates. Therefore, schools could be serving as barriers preventing teachers from adopting any change and restricting them to the traditional system norms. More on the role of schools as gate keepers in teachers' change prospects will be revealed in the next chapter (Chapter 7).

External sources: "...another failure"

The majority of teachers criticized the external PD opportunities -- which ranged from a one-day local conferences and workshops to a three-month overseas training -- in terms of both content and approach. Despite a vast amount of training and exposure to modern non-traditional teaching

strategies through these sources, teachers seemed unable to incorporate that new knowledge into their everyday practices. In this respect, teachers expressed different views; however, the findings highlight a general consensus on perceiving the content of such sources as inapplicable to teachers' local contexts. Table 24 presents the main themes emerging from the data including issues of relevance, system distrust and perceived benefits.

Table 24
Teachers' Perspectives on External Change Sources

| | Issues | Rationale |
|----------------------------|--|---|
| Context insensitive | Foreign content | <p>“The content of training is another failure. It comes from a different world..... from Dream Land” (PA1)</p> <p>“International teaching strategies is for international schools, not the public ones...” (PE1).</p> |
| | Propaganda | <p>“This propaganda (PD programs) is not leading us anywhere....it is simply not useful...” (PA4)</p> <p>“Let them (ministry officials and educators) jus talk and talk about teachers and teaching in conferences....it won't change a thing because talking is not like doing.” (PE7)</p> |
| | Wrong product | <p>“I think the ministry is buying the wrong product for the wrong consumer. This whole thing (PD as carried out in Egypt) is not about us, not our schools, not our reality.” (PA8)</p> |
| | Impracticality and lack system support | <p>“Let's be realistic....We don't have the facilities, the materials, nor the system rules that accommodates modern methods. For example, we received technology training, and we would love to apply it in class...but the whole school functions on two computers!...we would love to engage students in exploration tasks, but remember there is no library, no use of unapproved books...no equipments in the lab...and no space in class for group work...” (PE3)</p> |
| | | |

| | Issues | Rationale |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|--|
| | Time issues | <p>“They waist our time, and pull us out of classes.....why? They tell us to do the undoable.” (PA4)</p> <p>“You could be asked to leave your students anytime from 1 day to 3 months to go for some training during the school year...and this is damaging...” (PA4).</p> |
| | The rules | “They want us to change the way we teach but they don’t want to change the rules that direct our teaching. What does this tell you?” (PA5) |
| | Who is benefiting? | “I’m not sure who is benefiting from all this! Definitely, not the teachers, nor the students....” (PA8) |
| Issues of system distrust | Misuse of national funds | <p>“...it is a big loss for everybody... a misuse of and national funds.....non-sense selling and buying of foreign ideas. (PA5)</p> <p>“It is not worth the money and efforts....” (PE1)</p> <p>“...Millions of pounds are dumped every year....” (PE2)</p> <p>“It is a way of putting back foreign aid money into foreign hands....” (PA8)</p> |
| | A huge business deal | “...the PD business is part of national politics...it’s a huge business deal....not necessarily serving teachers though....” (PA5) |
| | “Why should they care?” | The government will never enhance the education system... decision makers don’t work with us...don’t live like us, don’t send their kids to our schools... Why should they care?...in fact, the more we struggle the more they benefit...” (PA3) |

| | Issues | Rationale |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|---|
| Benefits from external sources | “Knowing alone is a benefit” | <p>“...many of the topics presented are good to know... even if inapplicable.” (PE2)</p> <p>“...I definitely benefited, but only on the level of awareness.” (PA6)</p> <p>“At least one gets exposure to new ideas....because knowing alone is a benefit.” (PE4)</p> <p>“...change and improvements are there but cannot be seen....” (PE4)</p> <p>“...it (a seminar participant attended)has brought to my attention the importance of using visuals in instruction.” (PA3)</p> <p>“I don’t recall any sign of practical change resulting from the ministry training.” (PA1)</p> |
| | Source of updates | “...you need to attend conferences...they are sources of field updates... because you need to know your field developments...” (PE8) |
| | A window on the world | “It (his overseas training experience) was really good...a window on the world...I practiced English in a real way...but regretfully the experience dies off after the 3 month period because none of what we did in the states can be done here.” (PA5) |
| | Social benefits | “a chance to breakout of our deadly work routines and meet with other teachers to see what is happening out of school.” (PE2) |
| | | |

Issues of context insensitivity

The findings on this theme speak strongly to teachers’ evaluation of the content of external PD sources as irrelevant to their needs and work conditions. Fifteen (of sixteen) teacher interviewees felt that the teaching skills and strategies introduced through these programs (namely communicative and technology-based approaches) are mismatching to the work realities in the public sector on the pragmatic and administrative level. As shown in Table 24, teachers’ arguments emphasize the

foreignness of those PD structures to the Egyptian host culture. They speak to the rejection of such universally packaged services for offering the “wrong products” to the “wrong consumers” (PA8). The data also highlight teachers’ perception of external sources as serving at the level of mere “talk” (PE7), being of no practical value for failing to address real contextual issues and lacking the necessary system support. Such conceptions -- or perhaps realities – present no opportunities for teachers to uptake the content of these training programs and transform it into classroom practices.

Issues of system distrust

In almost every teacher interview, issues of system distrust were brought to discussion. According to the data, teachers’ perception of external sources as ‘a failure’ in bringing about change turns teachers’ blame towards the policy makers and system authorities. The large gap between the offerings of external PD sources and everyday work led teachers to question the validity and reliability of the mandated government initiatives in terms of their goals and approaches for improving educational practices. They further questioned if at all the on-going initiatives are geared at supporting teachers and students. Such voiced perceptions and critical evaluation of government programs is not uncommon in Egypt, but rather part of people’s everyday conversations. Hence, underlying teacher comments is a wide-spread conviction among the Egyptian citizens that top government officials constitute a source of corruption rather than change and innovation. So, in addition to teachers’ views on the unsuitability of such approaches to their workplace, their distrust in the organizing bodies and disbelief in the value and benefits to be gained tended to underly their discard of the change proposed through much of the state-organized initiatives.

Positive views on external sources

In an apparent conflict between teachers’ work realities and the change proposed in the field, not all teachers’ views were critically negative. Six (of 16) teachers expressed benefits gained from their involvement in external state-wide methods and technology training opportunities, but only on the knowledge and attitude levels. The third group of teacher comments (Table 24) reflect that teachers do not simply reject new learning, but when participating in such mandated PD opportunities, they try to maximize their benefits and search for what might be of value to them. In this case, teachers seemed to perceive these structures as a “window on the world” (PA5), a sources of knowledge (PA6) and “field updates” (PE8) that they valued even though they perceived such

knowledge as “ inapplicable” (PA6) to their particular teaching context. The findings on this theme confirm those reported above on teachers’ positive attitudes towards professional learning for change.

Coping strategies: Surface engagement

Teachers’ participation in external PD programs is mandatory; so, despite their convictions on the value and need for that, those who want to keep their life-long jobs have to conform to their employer’s rules. However, in response, the findings show that teachers tended to employ accommodative strategies in dealing with their training experiences such as resorting to surface engagement, avoidance, goal conversion and distancing. Table 25 illustrates samples of teacher strategies in this regard. Although there are apparent overlap in the concepts and strategies of which teachers spoke, in a general sense they point to teachers’ surface-level involvement in such change initiatives.

Table 25

Teacher Coping Strategies

| Strategies | Sample quotes |
|------------------------|--|
| Avoidance | <p>“I had to workout a medical case for my child in order to decline overseas training...because of my after school tutoring....” (PA6)</p> <p>“If you are selected then you have to go and bring back a proof of attendance, otherwise you get a salary cut...we are often able to get it after the first hour or so ...then we’re free for the day....” (PE7)</p> |
| Goal conversion | <p>“I only attend training for promotion purposes..... not for professional development.”.(PA4)</p> <p>“I consider training times as opportunities to meet with friends and enjoy a little change....” (PA1)</p> |

| Strategies | Sample quotes |
|-------------------|---|
| Distancing | “they (conferences) are huge events in which they(ministry officials) invite people from all over the world to talk about their work... ” (PE8) |
| | “They (presenters) talk about everything, I don’t remember the topics ...but they’re about the same thing...” (PE8) |
| | “This is a government sector ...If you have to be somewhere for training, then you have to.... What we think doesn’t matter , being there (in a conference) matters more...” (PA2) |

Teachers’ comments on avoidance speak to their attempts to escape PD opportunities -- in part or full -- for different reasons. Goal conversion is another strategy whereby teachers allocate their attention towards individual and social goals rather than those intended by the event. Distancing -- as exemplified in the comments implies a disassociation between the external and internal individual activities or goals during these events. In this case, the focus is on the physical attendance of events rather than the mental and cognitive processing of the knowledge presented there. This for example is reflected in the comment by teacher PA2 who spoke of his physical participation (being there) but expresses conscious or unconscious dismissal of the content and activities carried out in his presence. Distancing is also evident in the perception of training events being around “people from all over the world” and “their work” (PE8) as opposed to being a teacher event about teachers’ work. All together, the data indicate surface engagement in external PD opportunities resulting from teachers’ perceptions of such as being disconnected from their real needs and short of fulfilling particular contextual demands.

Teachers’ Perceived Needs and Priorities: “...teachers’ lost dignity”

Questions on teachers’ professional needs (such as language needs, resources, etc....) seemed out of context as none tended to resonate with what teachers had in mind. In fact, they had often ignited a lot of emotions and anger on teachers’ part. During the discussion of needs, teachers’ statements were brief, off topic or unrecorded (based on participants’ requests) particularly that they spoke sarcastically of the system authorities and brought personal episodes from their life to justify

their position. Such moments were difficult for me as a researcher because on the one hand, I felt emotionally touched by teachers' accounts of their experiences. On the other, stepping out of the permitted topics and encouraging such conversations in public arenas could entail legal charges.

Despite their heavy criticism of the content of PD programs, teachers did not suggest alternative activities. Their responses were directed to issues of their social and professional status. They felt their needs were much beyond and more complex than what could be said in few minutes. However, all teachers emphasized the necessity to enhance "teachers' life and their social and professional conditions first" (PA1) before considering any other change. As the comments in Table 26 show, teachers spoke to aspects of their personal, socio-economic status, and workplace conditions as important areas for change. The following are sample excerpts from the data in this regard.

Table 26
Teacher Perceived Needs and Priorities

| Issue | Quotes |
|----------------------|---|
| Social image | "Bring back teachers' lost dignity...." (PA2) |
| | "I want the good old social image teachers used to enjoy....the respect every teacher deserves." (PE2) |
| Socioeconomic | "My morning students are my afternoon employers....they pay me...I can't ask their respect? ...but what options do I have....?" (PA3) |
| | "Enhance my English? Change my practice? No. I would prefer to think more of enhancing my salary... change my shirt 2-3 times a week,..." (PA8) |

| Issue | Quotes |
|-------------------|--|
| Priorities | “...it’s ridiculous to think of professional needs and simply ignore the basic ones...You are asking the wrong questions. This is not Canada.” (PE2) |
| | “Look at the room we’re in (<i>pointing to broken desks and windows</i>)...before teaching changes, schools, books, curricula, examinations...regulations, and every thing must change...” (PA1) |

Context brief

The findings from the government sector provide us with a better understanding of teachers’ position from the change initiatives in the field. They show that teachers are not resistant to change; in fact, they are willing to, but perhaps the underlying factors do not foster the process of change. Change in the field tends to be there for teachers, but all gates including those of school seem to be strictly shut. Not even the teaching guards (supervisors and principals) can open the doors for change in government schools because the keys tend to be lost somewhere at the top of the Egyptian educational pyramid. So, until the right keys are found, teachers feel that their everyday reality is a more effective force than hypothetical plans in directing and shaping their teaching practices. They are actually left with no option but to adapt to their current context norms.

The National School Teachers: Adaptability Through Resilience

Positive Attitudes: A Functional Perception

Like teachers in the public school context, the national school group expressed positive attitudes towards learning and bringing about change in their classrooms. But, for these teachers change was beyond the level of hope; and learning to change was not merely for the love of learning but to fulfill the here and now of their daily work. Representative of the majority of teachers, the comments in Table 27 reflect teachers’ attitudes toward change.

Table 27***Teacher Attitude Towards Change in the National Context***

| Functions of change | Teacher perception |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Better quality of education | “Quality education requires change in the way we think about teaching and learning...if you’re not open to change and enhancement you can’t work in private schools...” (NL4) |
| Consumer needs | “Parents struggle to pay a lot of money so that their kids receive a better form of education...they must get what they pay for...” (NL1) |
| | “private schools now look for teachers who can adopt technology and modern methods in their work...and this is not a low-end job position anymore...” (NL1) |
| School policies | “...teaching differently and using the extracts of research and modern methods in your classroom is the core idea of private schooling...and that is what we are doing.” (NL6) |
| | “At this school, I’m paid 16 times as much as my old school...receive extra money or bonus leave days for any extra effort I put in my work...why not become better and better then?” (NL1) |
| Contemporary issues in education | “We need to abandon the old ways of teaching and move on because we are living in a new era...” (NL8) |
| | “Reality says we must change the way we teachif we are ever to address today’s real needs and prepare functional citizens for the future...” (NL10) |

The findings show that teachers value instructional innovation and emphasize the necessity of adopting change for the functional roles it seems to play in their professional context and wider community. To teachers, instructional innovation is perceived as basis in the educational services offered in that sector. Moreover, as the comments in Table 27 show, teachers perceive embracing change as important for maintaining their positions and meeting the standards of educational

services offered in their contexts. Hence, because instructional innovations is additive to their work and life, teachers tend to have reasons for their positive attitudes toward change.

Teachers' Beliefs on Source Efficacy: Favorable Views

Positive Perceptions A Match Between Content and Context

Unlike the case in the government context, the findings show that the national school teachers were contented with all their sources and avenues of change. They perceived their various PD experiences (both in and out of school) as relevant to their professional needs and career goals. For this group, the data reflect positive perceptions of change initiatives, extended engagement in PD opportunities, commitment to continuous development and resilient stance in learning to enhance practice. Perceiving their work contexts as accommodative to and encouraging to creativity and innovation, teachers tended to build on their knowledge of teaching, polish their skills and incorporate new learning into their everyday practices. Taking full advantage of the various avenues of PD available to them, this group of teachers expressed having experienced professional growth on the knowledge skills and attitude level.

A match between content and context

According to the findings, teachers viewed the content and instructional services to which they are exposed as linked to their everyday work demands and school norms and the expectations. The match between the instructional approaches promoted in the private sector and those of focus in most change initiatives, namely 'communicative methods' seem to serve the change phenomenon in the national school contexts. For these reasons teachers tended to undertake PD opportunities and consider them essential to survival and success in their careers. Teachers also felt that participating PD experiences serve them on the level of classroom performance, awareness to pedagogical issues and in establishing social professional networks that connect them to the wider community of practice. Teachers spoke of the different PD offerings as practically informative, tapping on their direct and indirect needs, including those of which they themselves may not be aware. The following quotes capture teachers' positive perceptions of and gains from their change initiatives:

Practicality and relevance of content

Teacher NL1 of elementary math and English spoke to the practicality of content offered in conferences and workshops pointing to various benefits that she obtains from participating in such opportunities.

Those events tell you a lot about teaching...they give you new ideas for different activities, show new books, up- dates on the field.... At the end of the day there is always something to take back to class with you. (NL1)

Awareness raising

Explaining how conferences and workshops can raise teachers' awareness to important aspects of teaching and assist them in better understanding their practices, teacher NL4 shared her experience being exposed for the first time, after years of teaching to the concept of educational goals and its implications in her classroom. She said:

In my lesson plan forms, I used to copy the goals indicated in the book... I was never made aware of the importance of understanding my teaching goals... until I attended a conference at AUC ...the presenter cleared the road for me... I learned about lesson goals, curricular goals and how this might fit into global educational goals...I learned to teach while considering the world outside the school fence...now my teaching is more meaningful to me and my students. (NL4)

Social networks

Teachers viewed their external PD experiences as opportunities for building professional networks in real and virtual environments. Such they believed opens additional channels for information for them to enhance their practice and career status. Teacher NL1 and NL8 explained the following:

Attending professional events is very beneficialeven when there isn't much to catch..... it associates you with other teachers and the wider community of educators... you meet with new people and build connections....you get access to face-to-face or online interactions... and this itself opens doors for new learning and resources. (NL1)

In a sense, conferences can also work as a job fair...through socializing with other teachers there you can find out about courses, new certificates.... a better position in another school. (NL8)

Context support

The new knowledge (in the form of strategies and skills) most PD programs offer are not completely foreign to teachers in the national school context. In fact, it is to a certain degree, embedded in their program philosophies, instructional materials and everyday work. Teachers perceived their workplace conditions as accommodative and encouraging for them to carry out instructional innovations and change. They spoke of their school facilities, instructional resources, and institutional policies as supportive factors in this respect. For example, mentioned working in small-size classes, using a surplus of modern materials and technology and having access to focused professional support. The data also reveal that schools promoted teacher engagement in PD activities and enactment efforts through institutional policies linking innovative practice and professional growth to incentives and rewards. With such wide-ranging institutional support, teachers expressed that they were encouraged to improve their practices in ways that fit their private academic culture. Teacher NL4 was among the strong voices that spoke to these issues portraying context factors that bear practice enhancement and accommodate the PD content provided to teachers.

I admit that teaching in new ways is not easy....at least at this school, I'm not crippled by constraining conditions....I have all what I need to perform up-to standards. My class is well equipped, I can use the library and the computer lab ...I also have lots of exciting materials...to give life to the learning civilities... books, visuals, manipulatives ... supervisors and staff also care about making things work...you're not left alone. (NL4)

Representative of several other voices on the role of institutional support, teacher NL7 spoke of how her school promotes the adoption of teaching innovations through incentives linked to teachers' enhanced performance. She explained:

We are hired to teach in new ways....we're paid good salaries for that....there are also financial awards for demonstrating good performance...letters and gestures of recognition...our work is valued and we're paid respect... In return, they (school) deserve to get what they pay for...this is fair. (NL7)

Although the data reflect a wide range of contextual and institutional support provided to teachers, worth noting that schools within the national contexts exhibit a range in their capacity for such affording measures. For example, there are large variances across schools in the building facilities, quantity and quality of instructional materials, accommodative policies and teacher support services.

However, it was observed that even at schools where resources were less available, teachers dealt creatively with whatever resources available in order to integrate the new learning they receive from different sources and upgrade their skills. Hence, generally speaking, the findings on this school context point to some practical and administrative grounds upon which change of practice may occur.

Teacher Uptake

Most of the findings reported on teaching in the national school context point to a change of paradigm in that education system. Teachers' described practices and orientations to change (as reported in Chapter 5) reflect an uptake of non-traditional knowledge about teaching from various PD sources and experiences. In this respect, the findings reveal aspects of teachers' professional learning processes that tend to lead to some sort of knowledge uptake and competency development. The data show that teachers' learning processes are characterized by extensive involvement in PD opportunities over time, resilience and resourcefulness in learning to teach.

Extensive PD experience over time

Reflecting on the different phases of their career, teachers spoke of their professional knowledge as capabilities developed through countless professional learning experiences over time. Teacher NL5 shared the following:

Taking advantage of all school facilitated opportunities has helped me a great deal.... I learned a lot.... Became more knowledgeable of teaching...focus more now on my students' learning rather than my teaching.... I would have never become a real teacher without the numerous PD experiences that I had over the past few years.
(NL5)

Teacher NL7 spoke of her professional knowledge as elements accumulated through many PD experiences which together form grounds for her teaching.

Not all experiences are equally influential...but each is effective to a certain degree... all of them together contribute to the level of professionalism I reached today... I feel much more qualified for my job and yet I'm still learning. (NL7)

Teachers in the national school context expressed positive perceptions of their change sources enthusiasm and determination for learning, but as one teacher said, "nothing is free of

challenge” (NL3). The main challenge that teachers reported is the elevated costs of professional services -- particularly the options leading to certifications and considered important for career entry. On this issue, teacher NL1 provided a picture of the cost of some PD programs as following:

Most of the PD programs including the short-term ones ... I thought of doing a Master in TESOL or TEFL in AUC but it is unaffordable ...about 12.000 and you pay in US dollars ...the TESOL certificate is about LE 6000... the ICCI diploma is EL 18000 (\$US 3000) .. that is way too much [speaker closes her eyes and shakes her head]...who can afford this? Most teachers have families and important expenses to cover. (NL1)

On the other hand, because such opportunities are also perceived by teachers as “rewarding” (NL8), “invaluable” (NL1) and “must do” (NL3) to enter or sustain their careers, many teachers tended to undertake PD experiences despite the cost. For example, teacher NL3 of middle school English spoke of her continuous seeking of PD opportunities saying:

I always look for suitable courses and PD opportunities....I search on line and ask friends...this is not easy...but I need it otherwise my teaching will freeze at one level. (NL3)

Four (of 10) teachers expressed their determination to undertake professional experiences by stretching beyond their financial ability. Representative of their voice is the middle school English and social studies teacher who shared the following:

The courses I took at AUC were very expensive but I had to. I borrowed the money.... it paid back quicker than I thought....and whenever I find something appropriate in terms of time and money I try to go for it. It is worth it. (NL8)

Because pursuing PD options on individual basis is exceedingly expensive, teachers tended to take full advantage of all school facilitated and funded (partly or fully) opportunities including: summer courses, workshops, conference seminars, and a variety of school organized collaborative efforts.

Resilience and resourcefulness

Motivated by various school incentives/rewards linked to their improved classroom performance, teachers tended to engage actively in and take full advantage of the variety of PD opportunities available to them. Given the fact that the majority of teachers come from non-educational professional fields and maintain an exploratory approach to learning to teach, a key

quality observed to characterize this group is *resilience* in professional learning. That is their inclination to take work (teaching) and professional learning challenges of which the outcome is uncertain, and to persist with their learning despite temporary difficulties, confusion or frustration.

The other quality found to that characterizes teachers' engagement in their change pursuits is what Wells (2002, p. 30) refer to as 'resourcefulness', i.e., a teachers' tendency to search for any utilities and resources that may support their learning and development. Whether in PD opportunities afforded by school or pursued on personal individual basis, the findings reveal that teachers tended to exploit their different opportunities to the maximum in order to acquire knowledge, link it to their context needs and transmit it into practice. Compared to the other groups, the national group teachers expressed the most access to an extended range of change sources and activities geared at professional learning. The data also show that they tended to resort to their instructional materials, share and consult with supervisors and colleagues, sought and acted upon feedback from those involved in their community, experimented with learning and relied on their own tools and intuition. In that that this group seemed to invest in their resources and exploit learning opportunities in ways not exhibited in the other teaching contexts examined.

For example, teacher NL5 spoke of extending the use of her textbook as following:

Our teaching kits are full of instructional guidance...much more than what any teacher can handle...and that is not all to it...the net is magnificent ...I use the titles of my units and lessons as key words to get related activities, instructional guidance, additional information and ideas for different projects. (NL5)

Teacher NL1 also spoke of her use of a package that she received from a conference as following:

For ideas on teaching...the sky is the limit. In an AUC conference, I got lists of very useful web sites I spend an hour and a half daily searching on line...the websites give tremendous amounts of great ideas ..., associate you with teacher groups.... ideas for everything from writing a final exam to getting songs for marching to and from the playground. (NL1)

Similarly, teacher NL3 explained how she exploits the opportunity of being at a conference for finding resources and input on practice saying:

When I go to a conference, I gather so much handouts and book samples as I can...even from the sessions I don't attend...later, I study them and look for related materials and websites to know more. (NL3)

Teacher NL9 of high school science spoke of her experience in conferences, pointing to her strategies for maximizing her benefits and going beyond the immediate purpose of the training event:

Conferences and workshops open new horizons for me ... if I don't find the missing piece I need, I try to look for one end of a thread that I can hold on to then explore it on my own...this could be anything from a concept a presenter introduces to something of use in a handout... but you have to be vigilant of all the on-goings there. (NL9)

Another example of exploiting learning opportunities is presented earlier (in Table 22) by teacher NL2 who spoke of agreeing with colleagues during conferences to split and attend different sessions then getting back together to share the various topics. Interestingly, 2 of my 10 teacher interviewees mentioned the sharing among teachers the content of their individualized sessions with supervisors. Teacher NL7 perceived that as “learning from each others’ mistakes in a productive way, just as we learn from our success.”

Other Findings: Unspecified Needs

When teachers were asked about their areas of strength and weakness, none of them indicated particular needs. They seemed unaware of, unwilling or unable to articulate their own professional needs. Instead, they expressed readiness to learn and “learn more anything about teaching because ...everything must be useful to know” (NL1). In this respect, and representative of many teachers’ views, teacher NL3 explained that:

It is difficult to say what I need to know....there must be something new to learn in every area. (NL3)

Teachers expressed appreciation and satisfaction with the professional support they receive through their schools; and so, decisions on their needs and PD plans seemed to have been passed on to school administrations for which they voiced their trust as following:

School knows the teachers and their areas of need....So, it is best just to follow...I can only participate in something organized by school...within school time...paid by school and valued by the school for which I work. (NL1)

School understands our needs as teachers and human beings...They have been successful in facilitating many PD activities that are really good. I trust their judgment. (NL6)

Even when asked about their perceptions on possible English language proficiency needs, these did not seem to be part of either the teachers' or the schools' agendas for PD. Numerous teachers provided arguments against the need to increase their language proficiency. Representative of many such responses is the following:

I don't need more knowledge of English ...I have already developed that during my study of architecture....I think I'm fluent enough. I had a lot of English speaking friends when I was young. I can speak, read and write in English and teach the books I am teaching. (NL1)

Finally, it seemed common among teachers the belief that teaching requires more talent than knowledge-base. Among the voices that argued for this philosophy was that of teacher NL5 who said:

I love teaching...and I think I'm talented...it started long time ago since I was a student...I used to teach my classmates. Teaching is about talent not a particular set of knowledge to be acquired...if you are really talented you'll have good control of your class, grasp kid's attention and make them enjoy learning. (NL5)

Might such perception underlie teachers' unawareness of their particular professional needs? The answer remains to be an issue for investigation perhaps in future studies.

Context Brief

The findings point to teacher positive attitudes toward professional learning and readiness to stay abreast with the latest developments in their fields. Teachers valued their various sources and avenues of change and perceived them as relevant to their context and needs. Encouraged by institutional, social, and personal factors affording their attempts to bring about change into their classrooms, teachers tended to be rigorous consumers of PD services and resilient in learning new

techniques as a way of responding to their context demands. However, the absence of clear needs, goals, and precise measurements for teaching competencies in this context means that addressing the real needs of these teachers, the outcomes of their professional learning and change efforts is often left to chance.

The International Teacher Group: Maintaining the Status Quo

The international school teachers perceived their competencies as sufficient enough for their workplace demands and therefore spoke of no need for change, but rather of keeping the status quo. Perceiving themselves as perfect language and cultural models and with an understanding of the value of their competencies to their schools, teachers argued against the need for further improvement of their teaching knowledge and skills. The data show that holding a teaching position in international schools which is the cutting edge education system in Cairo, tends to mark a decline in teachers' tendency to engaging actively in professional renewal activities. Apart from few PD opportunities, provided fully or partially by their schools, teachers expressed limited interest and engaging in PD and change prospects. Hence teachers in this context dealt with the issue of teaching improvement by sustaining their status quo and continuing to do what they know.

Attitudes Toward Change of Practice: Satisfaction with the Status Quo

Teachers' stance of keeping the status quo has to a great extent been revealed through their conceptions of change reported in Chapter 6. This group spoke less of change and improvement pursuits in their current careers -- and often disputed the necessity for such in the first place -- because they perceived their practices as already updated and satisfying to their context demands. They spoke of no-change by means of sustaining their normal daily practices. The findings revealed several issues underlying teachers' collective stance of discarding change including the lack of institutional pressures, lack of personal interest, time and cost constraints and perceived content irrelevance. Table 28 illustrates sample teacher voices in this respect.

Table 28***Teacher Rationale for Keeping the Status Quo***

| Reasons/issues | Teacher quotes |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Lack of institutional pressures | <p>“PD is not part of my contract ...” (IN2)</p> <p>“This school in Egypt hasn’t told me in particular ...to improve my teaching.” (IN1)</p> |
| Lack of interest | <p>“At this time, I am improving my teaching through teaching at school. I don’t have to go out of my way for external PD activities...I don’t see why I should!” (IN4)</p> <p>“I didn’t do any kind of professional development activity since my graduation (10 years ago)...but I would be glad to if necessary.” (IN2)</p> <p>“....in Egypt, I haven’t had any opportunities, at least not ones that I have taken advantage of. There were several seminars and conferences that I attended even in my first year of teaching within Virginia. Here, I am not sure if I want to do that now.” (IN1)</p> |
| Time and cost constraints | <p>“I don’t have time for extra commitments.... when necessary, I might just use of resources available here at school....The supervisors are always there as well in case of any need ...” (IN6)</p> <p>“Registration fees are high.... unless school pays and does all necessary arrangements it is not worth the efforts....” (IN10)</p> <p>“...conferences and workshops are time consuming....and time off work for me means money.... So they are not really cost efficient unless school decides to pay a good portion....and that rarely happens...” (IN5)</p> |

| Reasons/issues | Teacher quotes |
|--------------------|--|
| Quality of content | <p>“I don’t benefit much from the PD programs being offered here (in Cairo)... the content is too basic... primitive in nature.... new teachers might get something out of that...but not everybody.” (IN2)</p> <p>“Whatever you may find in seminars and workshops is there in teachers’ books and on-line...” (IN4)</p> <p>“... talks on student activities and classroom management are becoming boring...repetitive....nothing is new for me.....conferences are nothing but a job fair...” (IN3)</p> <p>“... I don’t need to go and listen to a 2-3 hour book review event....I don’t want to be part of school’s book sale package...” (IN9)</p> <p>“... they don’t target my needs as a foreign teacher.... For example, I wanted to learn about the Egyptian mentality and the school culture here to address the major differencesin terms of teaching and learning.” (IN2)</p> <p>“I’m young and don’t have children....I wanted to learn about dealing with parents in this culture...” (IN1)</p> |
| Others: | <p>“Some seminars have been offered here....I haven’t looked into them yet. I’ve just been trying to adjust to the culture myself, and have decided that this year I’m not planning on doing any professional development.” (IN2)</p> |

Lack of Institutional Pressures

The findings as exemplified by the first two quotes in Table 28 reveal the absence of institutional factors that support the continuous PD of teachers and instructional advancement. Such, seems to discourage teachers from engaging in professional activities and change pursuits. While the omission of support in school implies a degradation of the value and need for instructional enhancement, the teachers’ views towards change may well be a response in line with their school’s position in this respect. We have already seen in Chapter 6 that these teachers emphasized their

capabilities in light of the norms of their professional community of which they are part. They spoke of their cultural and linguistic background experiences, their employment of modern approaches, and their previous PD experiences as approved and valued grounds for professionalism in their context. With these conceptions which develop in relation to their workplace norms, they come to see that their continuous development is not considered an essential part of their work commitments. In the next chapter, the findings on principals' perspectives and the role of school should further reveal institutional factors contributing to teachers' choice of discarding change initiatives.

Lack of Interest

The second group of comments reflects a loss of intrinsic and extrinsic motives for teachers to get involved in PD activities. They speak of perceiving no valid reasons on teachers' part for undertaking enhancement pursuits, as if these are not rewarding on the personal or professional level. This perception implies a gap between teachers' daily work and their career needs and investment plans. The comments also portray schools as falling short of providing teachers a sense of purpose or encouragement to professionally advance. A question posed by these findings is: Would teachers' views have been different if the demonstration of continuous improvement was emphasized in teachers' contracts and school policies? We know from the TE literature and the data of this study that institutional factors can play essential roles in motivating and supporting teachers in their change endeavors (Hargreaves et al., 2010). However, in the next chapter we will discover the reasons for which several international schools are dismissing contextual affordances in this regard.

Time and Cost Constraints

According to the findings, participation in PD activities seemed neither time nor cost efficient for teachers in the international school context. This may also be a factor contributing to their expressed lack of enthusiasm to pursue professional development. As reflected in teachers' comments in Table 28 and as I mentioned previously in my discussion of collaborative efforts in this context, in addition to their employment at school, teachers are often committed to other out-of-school work and ties. Therefore, they may not have extra time to devote for PD pursuits particularly that they do not perceive them as rewarding in their work and life.

The exceedingly high cost of PD services in Cairo is another factor that seemed to hold teachers back from participating in professional learning programs. Although teacher remuneration in this context is excessively high compared to that in the national private context, the majority of teachers expressed unwillingness to assume PD costs. Only one interviewee (of 10) reported paying conference registration fees during his career in the international context. These findings are in contrast with the views of teachers in the national school context whose income may have been 50% to 75% less but still spoke of assuming PD costs and finding ways for paying.

Irrelevance of Content

Teachers' comments on the sources of change reflect an argument that several teachers put forth against the relevance of content in relation to their needs and level of performance. Teachers perceived the content as "primitive" (IN2), focused mainly on "basic" (IN1) classroom practices and ignorant of the needs of expatriate teachers who may constitute the majority of the teaching force in the international context. The comments of teachers IN1 and IN2 (Table 28) speak to the absence of the cultural and social knowledge teachers need to communicate effectively with students and parents. They also speak to the culturally insensitive "one-size fits all" imported PD structures intended for Western audiences in Western contexts and not for teachers in other educational settings. The last comment of teacher IN2 refers to teachers' perception of the wide-spread phenomenon of seminars and workshops which book publishers launch as commercial campaigns. These campaigns primarily serve business rather than educational needs.

According to the data and teachers' participation in professional learning opportunities seemed limited to two options which they felt important to their situation: Attending mandatory school-based seminars and workshops, and participating in short certificate programs offered by recognized North American school accrediting commissions in Cairo. The first is an obligatory practice for those wanting to keep their job positions, whereas the second option seems to be a choice made in relation to the demands of international schooling market. Several teachers mentioned having participated in CITA (Commission of International Transitional Accreditation) conferences and others expressed their willingness to participate explaining the value of such as following:

I only participate in CITA sessions because CITA is the major program creditor in Cairo....on certain occasions school has asked some of us to take part in CITA

programs provided that we pay 50% of the fees. I think such opportunities are useful...it is something that would look good on my CV too...Schools acknowledge all CITA stuff. (IN6)

CITA events are always useful in terms of identifying the general expectations of our work especially at American programs...Participating in CITA sessions is something I always consider...We are a CITA certified school and therefore we follow their approaches and recommendations. (IN3)

Despite the fact that CITA programs are not necessarily different from other sources in terms of the content offered, teachers' tone tended to differ as they spoke of this particular source. These quotes reflect teachers' awareness of accreditors' requirement of engaging teachers in in-service activities and the fact that CITA training certificates are valued in the hiring of teachers in the private sector. Thus, these voices tell us that teachers may value and be willing to involve in PD activities only if they perceive value and fit for such in their work and life.

Other Findings: The School Culture

Several other issues emerged during my formal and informal discussions with teachers in the international context. Such relate to teachers' residential status in Egypt and underlie their position of being satisfied with the status quo. For example, several expatriate teachers at the time of the study were in Cairo for different purposes other than teaching, such as escorting their spouses or undertaking study programs. Some are newcomers who were at the time of the study struggling to adjust to the new culture or part-time employees elsewhere and have much to attend to in their life. Several teachers are returning expatriates who come from non-educational professions, and despite their awareness of their new professional needs and available PD opportunities they had family and other issues which took priority. Moreover, other teachers expressed uncertainty about embracing teaching as a long term career. So, teachers have much on their agendas and little time to devote to other activities. While such issues are often unspoken -- officially anyway -- their influence on teachers' professional commitments are often underestimated in the international context.

Context Brief

The findings from the international school context speak to the rationale for teachers' minimal involvement in change initiatives and their stance of keeping the status quo. The data reflect

no intrinsic or extrinsic motivation on teachers' parts for engaging in professional learning for change of practice. Encouraged by their native-speaker prestigious status, their confidences about their teaching skills -- which are valued in the workplace they see no need to change but instead, maintain the status quo. Change in this context refers to preserving and sustaining the existing norms/knowledge as long as this fulfills everyday work needs. So, for teachers, keeping the status quo is a maintained strategy or a response of adaptability to their workplace demands that seem to prove effective in that context.

Conclusion

In Chapter 6, I reported teachers' conceptions of change and observable features of their practice revealing aspects on the phenomenon of change explored in this work. Since teachers' growth and change processes cannot be understood without understanding the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence what teachers do (Borg, 2006, 2009), in this chapter I focused on such unobservable aspects of teachers' work, namely, their beliefs on the sources and avenues of change available in their contexts. Several themes emerged in the findings. First, teaching is influenced by various change sources, work, and professional learning opportunities, particularly collaborative effort. Second, PD structures differ in their goals and philosophies across contexts. Finally, teachers tend to interact with and evaluate their sources of change in light of their personal and professional goals and workplace norms. Teachers' views on their change of practice and their pursuits for change are determined by the impact of change on their life and work (Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves et al., 2010; Hargreaves; 1994, 1995; Johnson, 2009; Little, 2001).

As common in the TE literature (for example, Borg, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Hargreaves, 1994; Hawkins, 2004; Johnson, 2009; Johnson & Freeman, 1998; Richards, 2008, 2009), the findings show that what teachers do in their classes is influenced by who they are, where they work, and their experiences with each and all sources of input on practice. So, with reference to the sources listed in the survey -- from supervisors and students to system mandates, classroom size, and instructional materials -- it is these aspects collectively that tend to draw the boundaries and patterns of practice that teachers employ.

According to the findings, several of Sparks' and Loucks-Horsley's (2003) five PD models are found in the Egyptian examined context. Such as 'individually guided';

‘assessment/observation’; and ‘training models’. Others like ‘involvement in a development/improvement projects’ and ‘inquiry models’ tend to be absent. Within this scenario, most of the existing models tend to be employed in a narrow technical sense that emphasizes the mastery of skills rather than the generation of knowledge and the creation of opportunities for cognitive development processes that lead to transformation of self and activity (Johnson; 2009; Wertsch, 2007; 1991). This reflects a technical or instrumental conception of teachers (Bottery & Wright, 2000; Richards, 1998; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) whereby teachers are regarded only as curriculum implementers rather than planners or evaluators of teaching (Burton, 2009).

Among the various sources of change, teachers spoke embracing forms of collaborative efforts as common activities in their professional communities. Such vary from storytelling, sharing, and joint work (Little, 1990) to support groups (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). However, much of the collaborative efforts described reflect features of ‘contrived collegiality’ as opposed to ‘collaborative culture’ (Hargreaves, 1992, 1994). It is not the type of collaborative teacher development that would encourage teachers, individually or as a community, to change their views about teaching or become producers rather than consumers of knowledge (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009; Johnston, 2009). This constrains teachers’ creativity, ignores their needs and goals, and holds them accountable for others’ decisions. It is what (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 187) describes as “a ‘received’ culture where teachers are told what to be professional about, how, where and with whom to collaborate, and what blueprint of professional conduct to follow”. This tends to serve teachers more on the social rather than the intellectually critical level (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Despite such nature of collaboration, teachers generally expressed positive attitudes towards their activities. However, particularly in the public school context, teachers seemed to enjoy collaborative efforts but felt that such activities are unlikely to lead to change in their practices. Similar findings on collaboration are reported in Egypt by Megahed (2002) who looked into teachers’ views on their school-based collaborative efforts initiated as part of reform projects. Megahed’s participants from Cairo and other governorates expressed enjoying team work and perceived collaboration as an effective means for engaging in and raising awareness about school improvement issues. However, they questioned the potential of such efforts to bring about genuine change, and criticized it for overlooking their personal goals, needs, and perceived priorities.

Just as teacher conceptions of change and improvement differed across the sectors examined, PD approaches and structures are found to vary in their services and impact on practice depending

on the context in which they function. These findings speak to the situatedness of knowledge development and professional learning (Johnson, 2009; Tsui, 2003, 2009). They speak specifically to teachers' professional development opportunities and the sources of change available. Typically, the range of local and non-local PD providers and programs available to teachers vary in their theoretical views on language teaching and learning as well as the skills and pedagogical goals targeted (Richards, 1998). For example, the input on practice that teachers receive from a classic source of PD such as their advisors, differs tremendously between public and private schools in terms of content, approach, and goals. In each sector, the input matches the system philosophy and orientation to practice. Even when teachers across sectors are exposed to similar PD structures and content, they tend to act upon their experiences in ways congruent with the particulars of their teaching contexts, needs, and goals. The knowledge and skills that teachers develop are closely linked to the norms that prevail in the context within which they work, and in this dialectical relationship between knowledge and context, the teaching context is also shaped by teachers' knowledge (Tsui, 2003).

The findings of this chapter confirm Little's (2001) argument that regardless of how worthy the change, teachers' calculate its feasibility, focusing on its symbolic and material aspects within their personal and professional contexts. It is such calculations that determine the extent to which teachers may carry out change. She further contends that teachers become visible enthusiasts and uptake change only when they perceive a happy fit between change initiatives and the multiple aspects of their teaching and personal life. In the public sector, the present work reveals that teachers do not perceive a happy fit between change and their work and life. Their evaluation of the situation resulted in a form of adaptability of their practices to the realities of their contexts and community expectations (including school administrators, supervisors, students, and parents). In effect, they do not embrace change. Adaptability in this sense is not out of mere resistance on the part of teachers, but rather a product of the ecological, psychological, and sociopolitical conditions in which they find themselves (Hargreaves, 1994,1995, 2010; Richards, 2008). Even though this appears to be a form of resistance to change, such teacher adaptability should be understood in light of the circumstances in which it occurs. Several of the studies reviewed in this work on the Egyptian educational context reported similar teacher stances and aspects of the education system which act as barriers to change, such as classroom conditions, policies, high stake tests, and the lack of teacher incentives for

engaging actively in change initiatives (for example, Galal, 2002; Ginsburg, 2010; Ginsburg & Megahed, 2008; Megahed, 2002; Salamah, 2004).

In the national school context, the absence of such constraining factors and the presence of contextual and symbolic system affordances for the desired change of practice tend to lead teachers to a different response. In this case, teachers' response was adaptability to change through resilience. They perceived a happy fit between change pursuits and the different aspects of their work and life, so they tended to embrace change and address related challenges through a resilient stance (Wells & Glaxon, 2002) towards learning to change. In the international school system, teachers also calculated their position with regards to change. In that context, the contracted expatriate teachers seemed less excited to change their teaching. Variables such as short-period employment and the 'native speaker fallacy' embraced in the context seemed to have factored into their calculations leading to a position of keeping the status quo. This position, too, was one of adaptability to context in the sense that teachers did not see employing change as additive to their work and life. Therefore, their choice was to discard it because it does not fit with their situation.

To the teachers of this study, change of practice and the influence of sources on the actual classroom teaching tend to be a question of applicability and adaptability to their life and the prevailing norms of the workplace. Finally, the findings as such extend the literature that emphasizes that change in teaching methods takes much more than presenting teachers with new sets of strategies through various sources (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 2009; Little; 2001). Having presented the findings on teachers' views on change and their PD avenues and pursuits, in the next chapter I contextualize these finding by presenting the perspectives of key players in teachers' change prospects, school principals and PD providers.

CHAPTER 8:

THE ROLES AND PERSPECTIVES OF PRINCIPALS AND PD PROVIDERS

Introduction

In this chapter I present the findings for the third research question addressed in this study: *How do school principals and PD providers perceive their role in relation to the professional development of teachers and what are their perspectives on the process of change?* The answer to this question provides an additional layer of findings necessary to contextualize the picture of teachers' orientations towards change of practice. In this chapter, I focus on the perspectives of the school principals and PD providers on the prospect of instructional change. The discussion is organized in two main parts: the first is allocated to the principals' perspectives and the second to the PD providers.

With regard to principals' perspectives, starting first with the public and then followed by the private national and the international contexts, I report the findings under three main topics: the school-teacher relationship, the value and need for change in relation to school success, and the role of school in teachers' change prospects. With regard to the PD providers, I present their perspectives on teachers' change initiatives under the following themes: the role of PD providers in relation to change, the substance of change, and the provider-teacher relationship. Since teachers are the main focus of the present study, I refer to and reintroduce their voices when necessary alongside those of the principals and PD providers. Based on the data from all sources of this study, I conclude with a brief discussion on the position of teachers in the professional development industry.

The Position of School Principals

The Public School Sector

School-teacher Relationship

From the very first minutes of most principal interviews, the distance between teachers and the school leadership was clearly recognizable. Despite the fact that principals and teachers have worked together for years in the same schools, principals expressed a limited sense of community

and commented on the detachment between themselves as school administrators and their teachers. They perceived themselves as co-workers sharing the physical work space with teachers, but with limited roles and responsibilities with respect to teacher change initiatives. Table 29 illustrates a sample of the findings on aspects of the school-teacher relationship as expressed by both principals and teachers in the government sector.

Table 29
Teacher-school Relationship in the Public Context

| Features | Principals' perceptions | Teachers' perceptions |
|--|---|--|
| Distance and limited sense of responsibility | <p>“Teachers don’t work for me....they don’t work for school....they are government employees”. (PP1)</p> | <p>“I don’t work for school...She (the principal) is like the mailman between us and the directorate...” (PA 8)</p> |
| | <p>“(addressing the researcher)...your questions (on TPD) should really be addressed to the right people (upper system authority)...not me...this is not an area of responsibility to me” (PP2)</p> | <p>“School has no say with regards to our participation in PDs...” (PA 1)</p> |
| | <p>“I don’t hire teachers here...I don’t look at their qualifications...this is not my job....” (PP6)</p> | |
| | <p>“...yes my teachers and I work under one shelter...but this doesn’t mean much” (PP3)</p> | <p>“...like us, principals are government employers who will follow the ministry instructions”. (PA3)</p> |
| | <p>“...their (teachers) duties are specified at the ministry level....not by me... my role is to monitor practice as the ministry wants...”. (PP1)</p> | <p>“...all what they look for is handing (to school board office) our documents completed and on time...”. (PE8)</p> |

| Features | Principals' perceptions | Teachers' perceptions |
|-----------------------|--|-----------------------|
| Positive relationship | <p>“...I support my teachers in anyway I can....I inform them of the of all Board inspection visits ahead of time so they get prepared...” (PP4)</p> <p>“..I try to make my routine reports (curricular documents, teacher evaluations, absence) as clean as possible.” (PP6)</p> <p>“...when teachers achieve success, pass promotion programs or...I write them letters of recognition ... give symbolic gifts.” (PP1)</p> | |

According to the findings, the voices of the public sector principals reflect lack of engagement in and ownership of teacher change. Also evident is the congruency of views between the principals and their teachers on the role of principals in relation to teachers' PD and change of practice. Principals' comments also show that their stance is not solely a matter of choice on their part but rather a result of the distribution of authority and power in the larger centrally controlled system in which they work. In this case principals are marginalized by their system and relegated to surface technical administrative roles. So, assuming that change of practice takes place in a context of leadership (Stoller, 1997), these findings reveal aspects of workplace conditions and policies that tend to contribute to the lack of change found in the public school context. In the next section, principals' perceptions on teachers' change prospects will further speak to this gap.

Perceived Needs and Value of PD and Change of Practice

In the government sector, the political background of the teaching environment was evident with principals who were reluctant to speak their minds and others who softened their voice as they spoke of system mandates. Principals' views reflected a divide between the teaching enhancement efforts taking place in the wider field and their school (and implicitly personal) success. Table 30

presents some results on principals' perceived value and need for change in relation to their school success.

Table 30

Principals' Perceptions on the Value and Need for Change in the Public Context

| Position | Rationale |
|---|--|
| Declining to share opinion | <p>"I trust that people know what they are doing at the ministry level..." (PP7)</p> <p>"...regardless of what I think, teachers must do what they are supposed to do..." (PP1)</p> <p>"I'm in no position to evaluate the on-going training administered by the ministry." (PP7)</p> <p>"This (the professional development of teachers) is not a school level issue!" (PP2)</p> <p>"Teachers don't work for me....I cannot speak about their needs....I only do what is instructed by the ministry..." (PP1)</p> |
| Redirecting the issue | <p>"It is really in teacher's hand to improve his/her performance." (PP4)</p> |
| Lack of practicality and irrelevance of content | <p>"Currently, applying western methodologies wouldn't support our school success...but who knows? May be one day they will!" (PP1)</p> <p>"...after all the classroom reality is very different from the exemplary lessons..." (PP5)</p> <p>"I definitely encourage any form of teacher learning, however, I question the practicality of most of the content provided in some programs..." (PP2)</p> |
| Time mismanagement | <p>"I value the idea (of PD), but teachers are taken off their regular schedules... even if classes are left with substitutes,... it is not an ideal situation..." (PP7)</p> <p>"My only concern is the damage caused by scheduling programs during the course of the school year" (PP5)</p> |

| Position | Rationale |
|--|--|
| Contradiction with current exam approaches | “At the end of the year, all what counts as improvement and school success is students’ achievements on their exams.” (PP6) |
| Separation between personal and professional development | “Certificates and Diplomas that teachers earn have nothing to do with work here. It would not mean anything to school if a teacher has a Masters or even a PHD ... teachers do that for themselves, not for their work.” (PP2) |

Generally, the issue of school-teacher separation tends to be a reoccurring theme in the data. It is embedded in all quotes and obviously reflective of the school system and policies maintained in the Egyptian education system. The findings, particularly the first few quotes in Table 30, show the cautiousness with which principals spoke at the time of the study (before the collapse of the former oppressive Egyptian regime). The political considerations of their work and potential repercussions were an obvious concern. Had they been interviewed recently, I believe that their input would have been significantly different. Most of the principals perceived no value in the in-service as carried out within the system in relation to school; instead, they expressed concerns associated with its relevance to everyday work realities. Principals’ comments in general confirm what teachers reported about their schools not being a zone for change. They also speak to principals’ conformity with their system norms which limit their participation in educational change endeavors to managerial procedures.

The Role of School in Teachers’ Change Prospects

Examining the data on this topic, the following statement of the elementary-middle school principal (PP3) summarizes precisely the role of principals in this respect. Explaining her marginal position in the issue of teacher development, she said:

We basically function as a channel of communication between teachers and the various levels of ministry offices.

This perception matches teachers' description of the principal's role using the notion of 'the mailman' (PA8). It reflects a mutual understanding of the principals' roles and the submission of both parties to their system assigned roles.

Principals spoke of their roles referring to the two main avenues of change in the public sector, the internal school-based activities and external ministry organized training. They expressed having strictly assigned managerial duties in terms of supporting the professional development of teachers throughout each of these avenues. With respect to teachers' involvement in external avenues -- which could be anything from a one-day conference to a three-month local or overseas training -- all principals described their roles similarly. Representative of the various voices, principal P1 of the public Arabic secondary school explained the following:

Teachers get selected for training at the school district level ... Every now and then, we receive an order from the Directorate to release several teachers on certain days for training... we officially notify them, release them, find substitutes, and so on.....they are not even allowed at school on those days.. If they don't go, I report to the directorate and there are salary cuts and penalties for those who decline to respond.

With regards to school-based activities, principals spoke of having established the so called 'school training unit'. According to the data, this is a mandatory structure consisting of a number of 5 to 10 senior teachers led by the principal to implement a time scheduled, prescribed step-by-step plan geared at particular practices. Supporting the discussion by sharing ministry and school correspondence to illustrate the procedures taken by the school, principal PP2 from one of the largest secondary schools in Cairo explained:

We receive monthly agenda of various weekly activities that we should run... by the end of each week we send back a written report to the ministry informing them that everything went according to their instructions....Usually, as soon as we receive training instructions we meet with the first teachers to discuss the new orders and topics,.... It is their responsibility to transmit the content to the rest of the teachers...usually through exemplary lesson sessions...The first teachers then write a report on what they did ... and I, the principal signs it.

Although all principals assured me that they had established a "training unit" at their schools, there is evidence that such structures seem to exist only on official documents. For example, in most

cases principals expressed extreme flexibility in their implementation of the mandate through comments such as the following:

Teachers are very busy...there is really no need to hold formal sessions....I just ask my senior teachers to check on their teams and write their report.... This could also be done informally perhaps through short class visits or chatting in the teacher room.”
(PP3)

In confirmation of this trend, my PD provider interviewee (5) working in the training unit with principal P2 of the secondary school described this PD structure similarly (to the principal) by adding the following comment:

The most important thing in the process is the weekly report. We try to have them (reports) always completed and sent on time even if teachers don't meet”. He further explained clarified that, “...there is no physical place or a room for that unit....it is not a committee that meets regularly.... it is more or less paper work. (PD5)

On another occasion during a teacher interview that took place in a staff room which was busy with teachers walking in and out, my interviewee mentioned having a training unit at his school. He was sarcastically interrupted by a colleague (who happened to be his senior teacher) who repeatedly asked him, “Do we really have a training unit?... I have been your supervisor for the past eight years but never heard of it!”

These findings speak to the gap between schools (principals and teachers) and their leadership (the Egyptian Ministry of Education). The ministry tends to manage the teaching and monitor change initiatives remotely. These findings illustrate the gap between the policy maker visions and plans on the one hand and the actual implementation of such on the other. There is compliance – but little success in actual change or PD. Principals become managers of procedures rather than proponents of change. In addition, the findings point to the failure of schools even to act as a proper “channel of communication” between teachers and the upper layers of the authoritarian hierarchy.

The National Private Context

School-teacher Relationship

Unlike the case in the government school sector, the principals of the national private system perceived their relationship with teachers as one of mutual respect. They spoke positively of their teachers, expressing a strong sense of community among teachers and staff in their schools. They perceived their teachers as the actual business operators and school representatives and thus expressed commitment towards supporting them in maintaining their teaching and professional practice. According to the findings, principals' positive perceptions of their teaching staff coincided with those of the teachers who also expressed acknowledgement and appreciation of their administrators' support, exemplified in their trust in and loyalty to their workplace. Aspects of these positive school-teacher relationships in the national context are reflected in the sample quotes in Table 31.

Table 31

The School-teacher Relationship

| Principals' perceptions of teachers | Teachers' perceptions of school |
|---|---|
| “Teachers are the pillars of this academy....” (PN2) | “Working here, I have become a stronger person, more knowledgeable, more confident....” (NL2) |
| “They (teachers) makeup our school image...they are the real managers of the business...” (PN2) | “...teachers, supervisors, the principal, and even the owner...we're one big team relying on one another” (NL4) |
| “...better educators is what our institution is about.... So, we don't only grow students here...but teachers as well so they can better serve us and the whole community...” (PN4) | “I'm indebted to my supervisor and the principal for making a good teacher out of me”. (NL1) |
| “We invest in our teachers in all possible ways...The more you put there the more you get” (PN1) | “..If you have the reasons and means to become creative, then you will ” (NL3) |

| Principals' perceptions of teachers | Teachers' perceptions of school |
|---|---|
| “My policy is to be very appreciative of everything, even the smallest thing teachers do” (PN3) | “ ...we're paid respect...good salaries, bonuses and much more.. (NL1)” |
| “I believe in being close to teachers....being for them...and having my doors open.... (PN2) | “...in case of challenges ...you're never alone...” (NL7) |

According to principals' comments, teachers make up 'the pillars' and 'image' of school. They are a base upon which the business rests; therefore they are valued and PD is viewed as an investment. These views tend to be acknowledged by teachers who, in turn, expressed trust in and loyalty to their school leadership. The quotes of both parties together reflect positive human relations and a supportive work environment.

What these comments hide though is the authoritarian, rule-governed, hierarchical nature of the work context which is interestingly perceived by both teachers and principals as part of school supportive measures. Principals spoke of making the rules of practice explicit and enforcing them through close monitoring. They viewed them as supportive proactive measures that assist teachers and “allow everyone to be on track ...and no one falls behind” (PN2). For teachers, conforming to their institutional norms seemed instrumentally valuable. They perceived their received prescriptions of practices and procedures as a “guiding structure”, “step-by-step support” (PN3) and the “clear reference” (PN1) that they need for feedback and assessment of their own performance. Although such measures could in some ways be counterproductive to teacher learning and creativity in the work roles (Guskey & Huberman; Smylie; Johnson, 2009), such perceptions are somewhat understandable if teachers lack the right professional base that allows them to take ownership of and manage their own practice.

Perceived Needs and Value of PD

To the principals of the national school system, the on-going professional development of teachers is perceived as foundational to school success for the purpose of current field demands, marketing and parent satisfaction. In addition to the principals' comments of Table 31, which also

speak to their perceived value of investing in their teaching staff, the quotes in Table 32 illustrate the rationale underling principals' perceptions. The quotes make clear the instrumental role that PD and practice enhancement play in the national school context. It is worth noting that teachers' perspectives (Chapters 6 and 7) reflect similar views and rationale for pursuing change initiatives.

Table 32

Principals' Views on Teachers' Involvement in PD and Change Efforts

| Value and need for PD | Principals' perceptions |
|--|--|
| Commercial | <p>“We work on building the teaching capacities for which parents pay, English speaking teachers and modern ways of teaching...” (PN2)</p> <p>“If we want to be competent in the market then we have to do something for our teachers to catch up with the so many new methodologies out there...” (PN4)</p> |
| Academic and professional reasons | <p>“...continuous PD is a must because in education, it s not the fancy facility that counts, not the colourful textbook, but rather the teacher...he (the teacher) is a base.” (PN1)</p> <p>“These opportunities (PDs) help teachers perform at their best.” (PN1)</p> |
| Part of school success | <p>“...they've (teachers) got to be good enough otherwise everything falls...” (PN2)</p> <p>“teacher enhancement and school development are one thing ...” (PN2)</p> |
| Makes us different from public schools | <p>“...our policy encourages teacher development in many ways,...and it works...it pays back....and that is what makes us different from public schools...” (PN3)</p> |

School Role: “Endless Opportunities so That Teachers Perform at Their Best” (PN2)

Facilitating professional learning

With the perception of teaching enhancement as an asset to this school context, the PD of teachers seemed to be on the priority list of the school administrations. Principals spoke of having established policies that link teachers’ improvement efforts to financial rewards and other forms of recognition. The majority of the principals emphasized making their visions and expectations clear to teachers while, at the same time, supporting their teaching staff in various ways to achieve the institutional goals. According to the data, all principals spoke of facilitating a wide range of in-and-out of school teacher PD opportunities including courses, workshops, various collaborative efforts, appointing supervisors and mentors for close systematic support, making available considerable amounts of teaching recourses, and giving direct access to PD services offered by book publishers. Principals also spoke of having close extensive contacts with different PD providers so as to keep abreast with the field updates as well as to facilitate teachers’ participation in external PD opportunities (conferences, courses, workshops, or others). To further encourage teachers’ participation in change/enhancement pursuits, they spoke of assuming full and/or partial costs of courses, conferences and seminars and loaning teachers money for enrolling in courses, certificate and non-certificate programs.

Challenges of cost and teacher attrition

Perceiving teacher involvement in various PD programs as important, principals expressed their willingness to maximize PD opportunities for teachers. However, PD cost and teacher attrition represent the main challenges for schools in this regard. To their credit, these issues did not deter principals from investing in the teaching force. Concerns were voiced by the majority of my interviewees (7 of 10). Principal PN2 explained her school position as following:

We pay a lot...and obviously everything counts towards their CVs ...but unfortunately, some teachers approach international schools right after. It is an issue that we cannot help. We try to set certain rules but on the whole, we cannot prevent that. (PN2)

Sharing her attempts to prolong teachers’ employment period at school as a way of maximizing her institutional benefits from teachers’ PD/learning experiences, she said:

When we reach certain agreements with PD providers and end up paying a lot of money for teachers get certificates...I don't give teachers their certificates immediately. I keep them...only if the teacher proves to be real good.... or if she or he proves to deserve it, then I give it. I sometimes also give it at the end of the year or when I actually agree to approve their departure notice ... This is motivation for them to make use of what they learned. (PN2)

Representative of other commonly observed and voiced strategies taken to make this area cost efficient, principal NL4 said, "because teacher training is costly and not all teachers can actually turn their learning into classroom practices....sometimes we don't train all our staff....we choose certain people only...pay their training and ask them to train others in school."

Many of the principals also spoke of taking other measures in this regard, such as encouraging/forcing teachers to commit to long term contracts (2 to 3 years) or to repay their training costs if they were to leave their positions before their contract completion. However, the consensus among all principals was that such measures were ineffective because "no legal actions could be taken on the school's part no matter what teachers do" (PN1). Based on my knowledge of this school context, this can be attributed to the fact that schools may not be in good legal position with regards to their employment practices and/or that expenditures on legal costs for suing an employee may exceed the cost of PD itself. On the other hand, the issue of training for improvement is viewed as essential for school success and therefore not likely to be abandoned or left to chance. From another perspective, several principals pointed to the fact that they were hiring teachers who had received training through other schools and so, as one principal put it, "things even up" (PN3).

All of the compensating strategies that principals tended to take -- regardless of their effectiveness, ethics or legality -- reflect school determination towards improving the teaching competencies rather than leaving things (classroom performance and professional learning) in the hands of teachers or simply to chance.

Other findings: Perceived strengths and unspecified needs

Perceived teacher strength

According to the data, the principals within this context spoke much of their teachers' competencies and strength but little of their needs. They perceived them as competent linguistically and capable of addressing the social and professional demands of the profession. The quotes in Table

33 reflect the confidence with which principals spoke as they described aspects of their teachers' professionalism.

Table 33

Principals' Perceptions on Teacher Strengths

| Competence | Perception |
|---|---|
| English language fluency and communication strategies | <p>“In this institution, English is the first language...and of course, all teachers model it perfectly....” (PN2)</p> <p>“I hire my teachers after seeing their demo lessons where they prove their ability to communicate clearly and effectively in English.” (PN4)</p> <p>“English is not a concern...they're (teachers) all good...” (PN4)</p> |
| Knowledgeable/skilful | <p>“...it is the quality of teachers and teaching here that makes our school different from the public schools” (PN2)</p> <p>“Our teachers are well experienced...they are academics...university graduates with additional qualifications...” (PN1)</p> <p>“The long waiting-list of children wanting to enter our school speaks of how competent our teachers are...” (PN3)</p> |
| Compassionate | <p>Our teachers are experts in caring for their students, engaging them in different learning activities and making learning enjoyable so that kids can learn...” (PN2)</p> <p>“...most important of all, they love teaching...yet they still have to participate in various PD programs because there are so many methodologies out there and we have to be on the right track.” (PN2)</p> |

It must be noted though, that such teacher competencies -- as seen through the lens of their principals -- may not always reflect the true image of teachers and teaching. Moreover, the school facilitation of a vast number of PD opportunities does not seem to ensure the most suitable classroom practices in this context.

Other findings: Unspecified needs

The data from field observation point to pitfalls in some aspects of teachers' competencies and performance. During the data collection, it was observed that several teachers exhibited a lack of sufficient language proficiency, content and pedagogical knowledge to enable them to teach effectively. For example, several English language teachers didn't seem to understand basic field-specific concepts and terminology used in their own instructional resources. They need to have a good grasp of these concepts in order to assist their students appropriately. Examples of terms not comprehended include subordinate cause, phonemes, phonemic awareness, semantic and semantic connotation. It was also observed that some middle and high school teachers who taught writing from Grades 9 to 12 even though they themselves did not demonstrate adequate skills and knowledge about this subject. There were also others -- math and science teachers -- who were specialists in their academic areas with postgraduate degrees, exhibiting full command of subject knowledge, but only limited classroom management skills and/or the strategies to communicate effectively with their students. Moreover, the concept of 'adequate' or 'native-like' English language proficiency -- which constitutes a base in the hiring procedures -- seemed undefined in the national school context. Distinctions between the different aspects of teachers' linguistic proficiency also seemed vague. For example, fluency and western accent -- even on the expense of accuracy -- could in some schools be acceptable or recognized as native or native-like proficiency. Demonstrating proficiency on the level of the basic interpersonal communication skills (Cummins, 2001) -- or in one content area only -- could easily be taken as adequate linguistic competency for teaching and communicating effectively with students.

Hence, despite some apparent discrepancies in the knowledge and skills of teachers in the national context, their needs were least articulated by both teachers and principals. According to the findings, neither party seemed to be fully aware of some of gaps in teachers' knowledge that need to be filled in order to insure more effective instructional practices. In the previous chapter, we saw that teachers expressed openness to learn and willingness to implement/experiment with almost anything that they came across in their various PD experiences. We also saw that they seemed to uncritically value the PD content that they received from their sources of change as being relevant to their technical needs and applicable in their contexts. This position could result from the fact that the majority of teachers came from different professional fields and thus lacked grounds in educational theory and pedagogy. However, whether teachers were unaware of their particular needs or perhaps

chose to conceal them, they clearly voiced that they passed over their PD agendas to the school administration who they trusted for making better decisions in this respect.

Decisions on needs and professional agendas

The findings indicate that decisions on teachers' needs and PD plans were mostly taken by the principals. Principals decided on who would participate, the topics to be covered and negotiate means and opportunities with various providers. These may or may not reflect teacher needs as highlighted by the supervisors who worked closely with the teachers. Table 34 includes excerpts from the data displaying the management of teacher professional needs in that context.

Table 34

The Management of Teacher Professional Needs

| Decisions on aspects | Principal accounts |
|------------------------------|--|
| Needs and plans | <p>“As I’m always approached by providers directly, I see what they have to offer and decide if it is suitable for us... if so, I arrange for courses or invite them over... whatever the situation demands...” (PN2)</p> <p>“the school is on many providers’ lists, and whenever they have something they tell us... whenever I receive something that I feel beneficial, I contact them... and we take it from there... if the offer is really intriguing, I discuss it with the supervisors...” (PN3)</p> <p>“The head mistresses and department heads determine some of their teachers’ needs, then bring them up to me and I decide then.” (PN2)</p> |
| Teacher participation | <p>“If we (the administration) decided to do training for the whole school, then all teachers will have to participate. If I choose only a certain group, then of course it is only that group... the nature of the seminar and the particular departments to be involved influence my decisions...” (PN3)</p> |

| Decisions on aspects | Principal accounts |
|--|---|
| Content/topic selection | <p>“It depends. One time we (school and BC) tailored courses according to our teachers needs in the English department. Sometimes we don’t have this option, and courses are set and you either join or you don’t join. So it depends”. (PN3)</p> <p>“...usually it is methodology...because all teachers need to work on how to portray the information so that the children can understand the lesson.” (PN3)</p> <p>“...we usually arrange general programs to include most teachers....usually about classroom management, how to detect differences in class between students, how to care for the clever ones and not-so clever ones, general topics which are very beneficial. (PN4)</p> |
| Evaluation of learning: Supervisors | <p>“We don’t wait until something goes wrong...supervisors work hand-in-hand with teachers to prevent slips on teachers’ part...” (PN1)</p> |
| Parents | <p>“Parents...are the real and most critical evaluators of the teacher performance...they will tell you everything before you know it”. (PN4)</p> |
| Data analysis | <p>“We conduct parent surveys for feedback on the teaching...we have hired people to analyze the data we receive ...if the teacher is not doing well...we terminate the contract...” (PN4)</p> |
| Providers | <p>“...after completing (the CDC) PD program... we asked them to send us 2 or 3 of their instructors to see if our teachers have benefited from them and if they have applied the knowledge. Those instructors also gave us recommendations and a complete report about the experience. (PN3)</p> |

While these comments display different aspects of the school facilitated PD experiences, when considered together, they point to the process as organized completely at the administrative level. Whether teachers are willingly passing their PD agenda to their schools or schools have taken away that responsibility, the comments above confirm that teachers have no say in much of their experiences. The findings on needs and topic selection reflect that principals’ decisions are mostly

based upon provider factors. The agenda for teacher PD was determined by the PD offers available in the market. Thus, it is the PD providers – not the principals, or importantly, the teachers themselves – who are defining the courses and activities needed to upgrade teachers' skills and knowledge.

The comments on content also reflected the field inclination toward focusing on method training; the substance that was perceived as fashionable tended to sell more in the field of language education in Cairo. On the evaluative measures taken to assess success by means of the implementation of learning, the findings emphasize the role of principals as business managers and speak strongly of schools' requirement for parents' feedback on teaching. Dismissed completely from the data are voices speaking to consideration of teachers' self-assessment or feedback on practice. The last comment represents an extreme case whereby school staff was unable to assess the performance of their own teachers in relation to their institutionally organized efforts. Had they been clear on their needs and goals, as well as having standards to which they refer, they would not have needed the same product providers to evaluate their own mission after the fact.

Summary

We can see from the findings of this section that the teacher-principal relationship is generally positive and mutually beneficial, although characterized by an authoritarian approach on the principals' part. The findings also indicate that these principals solely -- or sometimes in collaboration with other academic administrators (supervisors) -- seem to undertake full responsibility for involving teachers in change initiatives and facilitating the means and conditions of these activities. The findings also point to a lack of shared vision between principals, teachers and PD providers with regards to the needs, goals and means of PD in the schools. In conclusion, the findings reveal several factors promoting the quality of education and change of practice -- vast efforts and money put forth for teaching enhancement, teachers' commitment to and appreciation of professional learning opportunities. However, little attention is paid to research to enhance the efficacy of the change efforts and ensure the better quality education parents are promised. In the next chapter, I revisit these findings for an in-depth analysis of the influence of some aspects of this workplace environment in relation to teacher learning and change.

The International System

Introduction

Maintaining an American/Western image for their institutions was the first priority on the principals' agendas. This translated into having a foreign English native speaking staff, American state of the art instructional materials and luxurious school facilities. These school characteristics went a long way in term of meeting consumer expectations. In this section, I report the findings from the principals' interview data following the same structure maintained above, school-teacher relationship, principals' perceptions on the need and value of PD in relation to their context and the role of school in teacher change.

Teacher-school Relationship: Limited Sense of Community

It has been clear throughout the data that principals believed in the capabilities of their teaching force and expressed appreciation of their qualities and, in particular, their English-“nativeness”. Regardless of the nature of their professional preparation, principals recognized teachers as fully qualified for teaching, emphasizing their ability to model the language appropriately and maintain the image of the American academic culture sought in this sector. According to all principals, teachers' freelance work status is a major factor which impacts the teacher-school relationship. It results in job instability and, in turn, has the effect of limiting investment in the teaching force. Principals pointed to teachers' lack of loyalty and commitment to school despite various administrative measures taken in this regard. , Principals expressed frustration in having to deal with the shortage of native English-speaking teachers in Cairo in the From the perspective of principals, the quotes in Table 35 illustrate some aspects of school-teacher relationship.

Table 35***Features of School-teacher Relationship in the International Context***

| Features | Principals' accounts |
|--|---|
| Positive recognition of teacher competencies | <p>“We hire competent certified teachers to maintain our good reputation... they are a major area of strength to this program.... (PI3)</p> <p>“Most of our teachers come from America and Canada with English as their first language.” (PI2)</p> |
| Perceived significance | <p>“...our contracts reflect the standards of teachers we hire... high salaries, annual travel expense, free accommodation, transportation ...however, all that doesn't always ensure much...” (PI1)</p> |
| Teacher attrition | <p>“...teachers are always on the move from one school to another,...you never know, one day they are here the next they are gone...” (PI4)</p> <p>“There is nothing you can do to make them (teachers) stick to the terms of the contract....if they decide to leave, they leave...some give notice, others don't.” (PI4)</p> |
| Lack of commitment/loyalty | <p>“...many of our teachers are freelancers and often committed to work or study at other places...” (PI3)</p> <p>“...once we hire a teacher, we try to make sure that he or she gets all the right support needed, but this is not as easy as it sounds....they (teachers) are not always receptive to recommendations of extra plans....they're busy and you can't really force them to do much.” (PI2)</p> |
| Challenges of teacher instability | <p>“Sometimes a teacher comes for two years or so and does all sorts of wonderful thing and then goes...But there is nothing permanent. That is why you need a fixed foundation and a really good system and be very careful to who has access for materials and modifications of documents...” (PI2)</p> |

These voices clearly speak to the nature of relationships between teachers and their institutions. Through the lens of principals, these statements speak to teachers' limited sense of agency and disconnectedness from the goals of the school community and thus may help to explain the static nature of teacher development in this context.

The Need and Value of Teacher Professional Development

Believing in their teachers' capabilities, principals argued against teachers' need to engage heavily in anything other than school-based activities. They explained that teachers had already mastered the linguistic and methodological components of teaching and thus argued for school-support services as more contextually customized for their needs. For example, principal PI2 of one of largest schools in Cairo said:

When you have highly qualified and experienced American and Canadian teachers, a lot of things that are offered here (in Cairo), are not for teachers of that caliber, they really aren't....we have a system of our own ...established by us(administrative)and some teachers and it works well for our specific needs. (PI2)

From another perspective, for most principals the value of PD is tied to two important aspects of the school business: marketing and accreditation purposes. For the purpose of publicity and marketing, schools often display their efforts in the area of teacher/staff development. On display at school entrances, in newsletters and on school pamphlets, there would always be a post on teacher/school participation in professional events (pictures, certificates earned, etc...). At times, some teacher credentials were also made public in open-house or some parent night events. Schools were also obligated to engage their teachers and staff in some development effort in order to sustain their legal accreditation status. The extent and nature of involvement is usually regulated by the international treaties under which schools are established and negotiated with, or monitored by, particular accreditation bodies in the region. So, school involvement in PDs reflects compliance with the legal international standards/measures which, in turn, invites institutional assurance/trust on the part of clientele. The sample quotes in Table 36 exemplify these voiced purposes.

Table 36***The Value of Sustaining PD in the International School Context***

| Reasons | Rationale |
|--|--|
| Marketing and parent issues | <p>“All the PD programs out there are there for a package...although not necessarily for us, we still have to participate to tell parents that we are doing well.”(P11)</p> <p>“it’s important that parents know that we’re keeping track of our teachers’ professional learning which in turn impacts their children’s education” (PI4)</p> |
| Emphasizing presence and accreditation | <p>“We do send out our teachers and staff to various professional programs We have to show the public that we’re not just in our ivory tower but part of the on-goings of the global educational society”. (PI2)</p> <p>“Only few of us participate in major conferences once or twice annually so as to represent school... But everyone must take part of our in-school PD activities” (PI1)</p> |

The Role of School: Restricted Support

Confirming teachers’ reported views on the role of school, no serious efforts seemed to be taken on schools’ part to engage teachers in change and development. Common among all my principal interviewees is the belief that involvement of teachers in external PD programs is not cost effective given the fact that the majority of teachers refuse to commit to long-term contracts. There are many reasons for this, such as the nature of their residency in some cases, but the net effect is clear. Given the instability of teachers, principals tended to restrict access to school-funded external PD programs, and instead provide school-based alternatives such as mini-workshops, staff-support, and self-guiding instructional materials. Representative of many school attempts to cut down expenditures in this area -- while at the same time meeting their accreditation requirements -- principal PI1 explained how she minimizes teacher participation in external PD programs while at the same time contributes to the development of her staff. She does this by disseminating useful knowledge to the teachers. She said:

I went to a number of conferences on ‘brain research’ ...I was able to put the information in to our school for once a week... it helped us with how we access children. (PI1)

Another school principal (PI4) shared how he, his athletic director and a science teacher took a similar approach:

In a... conference in downtown Cairo...we deployed ourselves to cover many areas that have an interest for our school ...and get as much information as we could...then we brought back to school everything for PD sharing...this is really important.(PI4)

As evident in the above quotes, participation in PD conferences is minimized for teachers in many schools. The findings also reflect a top-down approach to learning and development where the needs, topics and means are decided upon by the administration and where teachers are mere recipients of knowledge about teaching that may or may not fit into his/her daily work rapport. It is the knowledge delivered through the school workshops to which teachers expressed disengagement.

Several principals spoke of circulating the information that they regularly receive from PD providers as well as being open to assume full or partial costs of teacher PD if teachers have shown interest and/or dedication to work. However, according to the data collected from both teachers and principals, neither party expressed enthusiasm towards engaging in external PD activities, but instead relied on school sources.

Principals emphasized that their teachers were closely supported by the one-on-one guidance that they receive from their supervisors as well as their explicit state-of-the-art teaching kits used at school. Based on observations which confirmed the statements of the principals, the number of sole supervisor positions and/or the small teacher-supervisor ratio (approximately 1 to5) speaks to the fact that teachers are not left on their own in their classes. Rather, they are closely monitored and supported when needed. Supervisors in that context may conference with their assigned teachers from one to three times weekly depending on teachers’ length of experience in school and familiarity with the context. The content of these conferences are often directed towards the implementation of the teaching kits. In addition, supervisors regularly receive samples of all students and teacher’s work for monitoring and evaluation.

Summary and Concluding Remarks

The views of school principals reported in this chapter add to the picture teachers provide on their prospects of change. To a large extent, the voices of principals have validated the issues brought up by their teachers in all contexts such as those on: conceptions of change, the nature and influence of change sources and context support or lack thereof. The findings revealed a shared vision between principals and teachers over the value of change to their context, its pragmatics and the role of school institutional role in this respect.

In the public sector, the findings reveal a divide between teachers and their administrators whereby principals are excluded from the prospects of teacher professional development and educational change. Similarly emphasized by principals is the dominance of the culture of the traditional exam system and knowledge transmission approaches which convey the rules of practice (Shahoby, 2004). Working in a bureaucratic environment the requirement whereby compliance is required for completion of everyday tasks, both teachers and principals are disempowered and relegated to technical superficial roles. We know that teachers do not work in a vacuum and that they cannot effect change on their own. Innovation most often takes place when there is strong leadership (Stoller, 1997) and schools form the boundaries of practice for teachers (Hargreaves et al. 2010); therefore teachers' practices cannot be separated from the school leadership. Change in the teaching task necessitates a reworking of the set boundaries and principals are the ones who must reconfigure these boundaries so as to accommodate changes. Principals have facilitative roles central to the successful implementation of change initiatives. The literature on educational and school reform (Blandford, 2000; Blase & Bjork, 2010; Hargreaves et al., 2010; Little, 2001) highlights several initiatives that have led to successful change including the empowerment of teachers, team building, managing internal conflicts, maintaining balance and connections between school and the different district-level initiatives. This research emphasizes that reducing the role of principals, in the case of this study, to that of a "mailmen" impedes innovation and makes schools a place where change does not occur. Similar to their teachers, principals are controlled by system pressures and are deprived the ownership of potential innovation in their schools. They were 'deskilled' and 'disempowered' (Hargreaves, 1994, 1995), and relegated to the role of "technical implementationalists" (Bottery & Write, 2000). Without leadership, change does not happen.

The marginalization of principals in teacher training and change initiatives has been a concern reported in Megahed's (2008) study in Egypt on the efforts of standards support and school quality teams. In her assessment of the impact of the reform initiative, she finds that the exclusion of principals from teacher training programs limits the effectiveness of change initiatives. Her participants reported lack of cooperation on the part of school leadership and the absence of transparency and exchange of information across system levels. They called for training programs to be expanded to include principals, supervisors and school administrators. In another study examining the impact of teacher training programs in five countries including Egypt, Ginsburg (2010) emphasized that school principals and administrators must be involved in training programs and have vital roles in the process of pedagogical change, otherwise they impede teachers' attempts to experiment with new practices.

In the private sector, the findings reflect the other extreme in terms of principal control. The principals are usually the sole decision makers with respect to school policies, teachers' practices and improvement efforts. In the non-traditional, ostensibly Western school culture and where school-organized training efforts are regularly implemented, the findings reflect an authoritarian orientation – even though this is known to constrain teachers' creativity, proactivity and the intellectual flexibility (Smylie, 1995) which underlay the process of change. The findings also reflect that private schools in the Egyptian context are commercial institutions, businesses run by principals who may make decisions based on profit rather than quality education. Decisions on teachers' roles and PD plans are based on generating profit, attracting more clientele, satisfying parents and keeping the school image marketable. This type of management of teaching subsequently limits teachers' development.

Principals' views also reflect trust in the adequacy of their teachers' competencies in relation to the work. Their role in respect to the professionalization of teachers is structured around routine school-based support, mainly in the form of supervisor support or workshops organized or delivered by the school administration. Given several factors -- the residential status of most of the teaching force, the prevailing '*native speaker fallacy*' (Phillipson, 1992) in the international school market and the absence of internationally recognized criteria for teaching qualifications (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009; Leung, 2009) and teachers' stance of keeping the status quo -- it is no surprise but rather a natural response to their contextual demands. In conclusion, the findings on principals' perceptions of their teachers in the private sector leaves me with several questions: Assuming that

teachers possess the competencies spoken of by principals, why are they does the support provided limit their roles to being English speaking performers? Why are teachers not encouraged to be creative and autonomy in their learning and practice? Why do principals rely on perceived fail-proof systems such as restricting teachers to the teacher friendly ‘step-by-step’ instructional materials?

The Roles and Perceptions of PD Providers

Introduction

Addressing my third research question (*How do school principals and PD providers perceive their role in the prospects of change?*), in this part of the chapter I focus on the roles and perspectives of the PD providers involved in the present study. I report the findings under three main themes: the role of providers in teachers’ change prospects, the substance of change and the provider-teacher relationship. Next, I conclude by discussing the position of teachers in the PD industry. Generally the findings on these themes supplement and confirm many of the issues voiced by the teacher and principal participants.

The Role of PD Providers

All interviewees perceived themselves and their organizations as genuine sources of development and change in Egyptian society. They described their missions as ways of responding to Egypt’s call for change and advancement in education, both in general and in the area of English language teaching in particular. The majority of providers generally expressed positive beliefs towards their goals and missions, reaffirming their stance by citing the increasing national demands for their services in the field of education.

In this respect, Provider 2, the representative of the teacher training unit of an international institute based in Cairo shared the following:

This organization has been active in Cairo for the last fifty years....and I believe that our presence in Cairo has been extremely beneficial to the county...especially in the field of education. (PD2)

On a similar note, Provider 1 from another international teacher training organization expressed their beliefs about being agents of change in the field of language education. They said:

“Our work with teachers and others seeking career development...has and will make a difference in advancing individuals and institutions... We’re well trusted by our clients... expanding...and continuing with several projects...”

Through the lens of the foreign PD Provider 2, the following statement best describes the industry in terms of goals, missions and demands for PD services:

There is a huge demand (for PD programs). The system is keen from primary through till end of tertiary. There is a lot of government sponsorship and a lot of foreign sponsorship from Europe or the United Nations. There is a lot of funding stream plus local money plus private corporate money as well. Everyone is working towards the professionalization of Egypt. One of the key areas of professionalization is teaching in general and English teaching in particular. (PD2)

Consistent with the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 on the reform movement and PD industry in Egypt (e.g., Kozma, 2005; Ginsburg, 2010; Ginsburg & Megahed, 2008, 2011; Warschauer, 2004; World Bank, 2007) these findings confirm that the PD industry is fully active in Cairo. However, because the PD providers in this study tend to act as agents of change in the Egyptian context, it is important to understand their vision on change is operationalized in terms of teachers’ work and instructional enhancement.

The Perceived Substance of Change: Methods and Strategy Training

Bringing change through teaching methods is the philosophy generally adopted among providers. According to the data, much of the substance of change focuses on communicative teaching methods and related skills at the expense of other aspects such as language and curriculum development, theory and philosophy. The majority of providers perceived their role as assisting teachers in shifting away from the teacher-centered knowledge transmission model of teaching and adopting newer, student-centered approaches in their classrooms. Hence, methods and strategy training constituted the core of most of the in-service programs provided. To hear some voices in this respect, Provider 1, the head of the teacher-training program of a North American cultural/educational institute, explained their emphasis on methods as follows:

We focus on communicative approaches and interactive strategies in the classroom... We see these as basic tools teachers must have for any innovation in the system.

Although his institution is well known for providing a wide range of English language courses and language proficiency related programs, Provider 1 strongly negated his consideration of offering language programs for teachers. Emphasizing the focus on method training, he shared his institution's vision on teacher-training as following:

Our definition of teacher training is more of methodology courses not language courses... We provide language training for different groups of professionals in the fields of communication technology and foreign trade and others as well; not for teachers, no.

The findings show agreement between local and non-local providers in terms of their visions on *methods* or *strategy training* being the focus of in-service training in Egypt. Local Provider 3 provided an example of such shared vision. He spoke of his seminars and workshops on the concept of active learning and orienting teachers to student-centered teaching strategies. He explained:

Mastering the skills of effective communication is the most important aspect of effective teaching...that is giving the student a role in his own learning... engaging students in stimulating activities...Unfortunately, teachers lack the right skills and strategies.....and that is where we come in....unless teachers pick-up these skills, teaching can never be enhanced.

Providers from textbook publishing companies seemed to be working along this same line (focusing on method training). Provider 6 from the textbook industry links the focus on methods and strategies directly to teachers' needs. She sees her role as following:

Teachers need to learn and incorporate modern strategies in their daily work...this is what we focus on most... the what and how to teach ... part of our mission is to show teachers new ideas and ways of adopting modern materials in their classrooms.

Even the training-unit coordinators (PD5) of the public school system spoke of receiving mandates for school-based PD, most of which is focused on communicative methods and techniques. When asked about their opinions on the content or approaches to change, Provider 5 cautiously replied:

This is a government decision, not open to scrutiny. We recognize the problems of our current exam system, and that has to change gradually through introductions to alternative philosophies of education.

Among the six PD programs investigated in this study, only was directed at supporting individual teacher development with English language courses, teacher knowledge test preparation, curriculum development programs and theoretical components in addition to their general offerings which, for the most part, was comprised of a focus on aspects of communicative language teaching. The general features of their program were described as following:

In teacher training, we would cover the standard things – classroom practice, classroom management, theories of learning and theories about learners’ theories about language learning. (PD2).

We know from the literature on educational change and teacher education (e.g., Hargreaves, 1994, 1995; Hargreaves et al., 2010; Little, 2001, 2007; Johnson, 2009) that to change a teaching method takes much more than presenting teachers with new sets of strategies. These comments together reflect a vision on the process of instructional change as being simply a matter of skill replacement. These views also speak to the inclination of the PD industry in Cairo to focus on method training at the expense of other education contexts that are also of need to teachers. For example, although the Egyptian non-native English speaking teachers may have language proficiency needs as emphasized in several studies and official reports, (e.g., El-Tawila et al., 2000; Galal; 2002; Gihan & Myhill; 2002; NSPPER, 2006; Salamah, 2004; Snow et al., 2004) the comment of Provider 1 on the language courses offered discards this aspect of teacher needs and professionalism. Similarly, there was no mention in the data from providers on addressing the needs of other groups of teachers -- such as those working in the private sector -- who may have acquired CLT skills but still be in need of context-specific cultural knowledge (Coleman, 1996; Holliday; 1994; Kumaravadivelu; 2006, 2001) without which effective classroom and work-related communications could breakdown. The data from all the sources used in this study (teachers, principals, documents and notes from field observations) reflect the PD industry’s saturation of methods. In this respect, apart from providers’ beliefs related to the content and approaches to instructional change, the findings reveal other reasons for the focus on method training. The majority of providers considered their stance as a response to the particular demands set by various sponsors, educational institutions, donors and fund recipients. Table 37 provides the rationale expressed by providers for this focus on method training.

Table 37***Rationale for Focusing on Method Training***

| Reasons | Rationale |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| State-level demands | “The way we come in, especially in large-scale training is part of a larger package... of multiple related projects... So, depending on the given project, whether it is IT, classroom practices or training the trainer... we work on that area to fit in....” (PD2) |
| School-level demands | “We’re usually approached for the standard teaching topics ...our generic teaching programs which allows them (teachers) to use any book using a communicative approach...other organizations work on CALL ...but that too in a sense is technology in teaching methods...” (PD1) |
| School and individual teacher level | “From our side, we’re open to offer teachers and schools anything they may want. But schools look for programs of immediate recognizable influence on teachers’ behavior... the most demanded ones are the short intensive... directly focused on classroom strategies” (PD4) |

These quotes show that the inclination toward method training in the PD industry is not solely the choice of providers, but rather the consumers who are schools, ministries and organizations (and not teachers). These findings are consistent with the MOE reports (NSPPER, 2006; NCTER, 2001; 1996) with respect to the professional development of teachers which emphasize the training of teachers in communicative teaching approaches as a priority target for improving teachers’ skills. Consequently, and as indicated in this study, a great deal of effort is allocated towards this objective.

The comments in Table 37 also reflect that PD providers tend to adjust their supply of products and services to the demands of their consumers in the private sector. These comments confirm the voices of the private sector school principals who expressed their preference for method training perceiving that such would “make a difference in the classroom” (PN2). According to the data, the principals also demanded strategy or method training to be generic in nature and thus economic as all subject teachers can benefit from it. So, generally speaking, and like any business industry, the findings reveal that the products and services provided throughout the PD industry in

Cairo are directly related to supply and demand. Hence, in this case the domination of ‘method training’, seemed to be a decision co-constructed by all the parties involved in the process of change – except the teachers who actually receive the training. Having established an understanding of the rationale for the content of most of the change initiatives in Cairo, in the remaining section I focus on teachers’ position within the PD industry. From the perspective of PD providers, I turn to looking at the nature of the provider-teacher relationship.

Provider-teacher Relationship: Barriers and Bridges

A large portion of the findings from all sectors speaks directly and indirectly to the exclusion of teacher participation in decision making with respect to the offerings and services provided in the field. The findings in this section reveal a gap between teachers as consumers of the PD products and their providers. The majority of providers described their relationship with teachers as one of “barriers” (PD2). My synthesis of data points to a web of institutional, financial and psychological barriers that create a gap between the two parties.

Institutional Barriers

The data reveal that teacher-provider relationships are often mediated by others -- namely schools, principals or policy makers -- reflecting typical top-down approaches to PD characterized by hierarchical distance between providers and organizers at the top end and teachers at the bottom. Although the particular roles these mediators play (funding, decision making, etc...) are vital to the effect of the in service PD, in the case of the present study they tended to get in the way of direct communication between teachers and providers, making it difficult for teachers to have a say in their own PD. For example, we have seen in both the public and private sectors that decisions on teacher needs and PD opportunities are fully negotiated with providers and decided upon at higher authority levels. Through this approach, mediators become the ‘customers’ and the teachers’ role becomes marginalized to that of a passive recipient, left on their own to find meaning and motivation to engage in the learning opportunities organized for them.

Financial Barriers

Another barrier discussed by all providers -- except those of the government school training-unit -- relates to the cost of PD programs. These programs are far beyond what most individual

teachers can afford. This issue has been voiced by teachers in the private sector and has led them to one of two strategies: abandoning attempts at self-funded PD and/or resorting to institutionally mediated options. Providers affirmed their awareness of this barrier, not only on the level of individual teachers, but at the institutional level as well. For example, in a discussion of how affordable their services are to teachers, Provider 2 argued that:

Courses here are not cheap. To do a CELTA ...it is \$8000 for one month intensive course...this is a huge investment for many teachers....so, in dealing with individuals as oppose to institutions... we're accessible through a financial barrier.

Another international provider spoke of PD costs as excessive even by the standards of some international schools. He shared his experience with one school saying:

We got approached once by a school to deliver training so that they can benchmark their general level of English. Once they've realized the cost of the course they sort of backed out. (PD1)

Even the local private Provider 4 confirmed that their fees were excessively high for teachers and schools, pointing to the consequence of this on her own business. She said:

It is because of what we charge.... teachers can only come to us through their schools....but for schools it is often a one-time-event...they're not likely to come to us twice.

Justifying such elevated costs but providing no solutions for interested teachers these providers explained their position through statements such as:

That is the cost for our kind of service. (PD2)

Well, obviously, an internationally accredited qualification is expensive. (PD1)

This is how much things cost compared with others in the market....if you lower your fees your product becomes questionable. (PD4)

So, it is clear that cost is a barrier for teachers in the pursuit of professional development especially without institutional financial support.

Psychological Barriers

Providers also spoke of communication barriers and the loss of motivation among teachers leading to tension in their relationship with teachers. Several spoke of having teachers enrolled in their courses without being given the right information on the programs. This led to false expectations and disengagement on the teachers' part. The following quotes exemplify providers' views in this respect.

Many individuals are signed-up by the ministry ...or someone else ...and teachers don't necessarily have the right information or motivation to participate in our programs...we observed that this is difficult and emotionally challenging...it is not right. There is a lot of confusion in this respect. (PD1)

We don't have access directly to our candidates before the program starts...and it's a huge problem...you have to rely on those who communicated your message probably by e-mail...but you can't rely on someone reading an-email or from a website...because you can't assume what they've read, they've taken in. (PD2)

In most cases teachers' are introduced to the particulars of the program during the program time....they might speculate though because the topics are often announced ahead of time...but they can ask their directorate for information if they want. (PD3)

The Position of Teachers in the PD Industry

In this section, I conclude by providing a holistic picture of teachers' position in their change prospects. The findings from both principals and providers show that the range of PD services available for teachers across all contexts is maintained through top-down approaches to PD and educational change that often minimizes teacher agency in the process of their own learning.

In the government sector, although teachers are the subject of nation-wide PD initiatives and are given access to a wide range of both in-school and out-of-school PD services at no cost, the data show passive teacher positions and huge gaps between them and their PD providers. The decades of vast effort and monetary resources put towards the professionalization of teachers does not seem to result in the changes sought, with more challenges than promises remaining on the horizon (Ginsburg, 2010; Megahed, 2002, 2008; Salama, 2004). The findings show that teachers are not 'visible enthusiasts' (Little, 2001) in the change prospects nor are they implementing change in their practices. Except for local graduate programs in which several teachers participated, teachers

reported no immediate connection to providers and perceived themselves as neither customers nor consumers in the PD industry.

For the private national school teachers, the findings show that teachers are actively demanding and consuming a variety of services through individual and institutional support. Teachers and schools tended to value the content and substance offered by the PD industry, deeming it to be suitable for their perceived needs and applicable in their contexts, a fact that seemed to narrow or helped bridge the gap between PDs and teachers. They reported active involvement in various change opportunities on both the individual teacher and schools levels. So, for this group of teachers, attitudes towards the PD industry is somewhat positive and the gap often reported between teachers and providers seems to be less important in this sector.

In the international school system, the data reveal that teachers' presence in the teacher development industry tends to be controlled by the schools in which they work. While there was no perceived impetus on the part of teachers and principals to alter the classroom practices, teachers limited their PD prospects to opportunities that are mandatory and fully supported by their schools. In order for schools to sustain their certified status, their international accrediting bodies require them to engage teachers and staff in continuous development and improvement activities. Therefore, these schools do involve teachers in several of the PD opportunities offered in the field. However, they tend to lean more on school-based approaches as these are more cost effective. Like their counterparts in the other settings, international school teachers are controlled by their institutions.

Apparently, as the field of SL2 and TE in the West has moved beyond the positivist epistemological stance which dominated the content of teacher education for decades, this move is not reflected in the products and services of the Western PD industry offers in Egypt. Although research has questioned the universality of these methods (Holliday, 1994, 1996; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; 2006; Phillipson, 1992), this product in the form of CLT and active-learning strategies is being exported to other places in the world such as Korea (Kim, 2008, in Johnson 2009), China (Cheng; 1997; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Hu; 2005), Japan (LoCastro, 1996; Savignon, 2004), Taiwan (Wang, 2004, in Van Esch & St. John, 2004) and Egypt. In Egypt, 'scientific methods' constitute a commodity with a potentially longer shelf life and the effects are not likely to fade in the foreseeable future, regardless of whether this method is suitable to teachers across the various educational sectors.

CHAPTER 9
DISCUSSION:
CONTEXT AS A SPHERE OF
COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

Introduction

In this chapter, I revisit my findings on the three questions raised using an analytic framework based on Wallace's (1991) Reflective Model and key constructs of SCT, namely Vygotsky's (1978) concepts of 'ZPD' and 'mediation'. Figure 13 presents my integrated framework for competency development and change which I find useful for explaining the phenomenon of change explored in this study. I begin with an overview of my theoretical framework. Next, following the order of the three-phase model, I organize my discussion in three sections each representing part of the process of competency development. For each phase, I explain the theoretical underpinnings of the model then use them in a cross-context analysis of the findings synthesized from all sources.

In my cross-context analysis of each phase, I begin with the public sector, followed by the private national, then the international context. I delineate the major principles underlying teachers' professional renewal pursuits that led to a change of practice (or lack thereof). The analysis of phase 1 reveals who teachers are and how that might impact their conceptions and change of practice. Phase 2 takes us into teachers' professional learning and work experiences to examine the mediational means employed in their settings and the contextual factors which may lead to affordances or constraints in the change process. Finally, in Phase 3 we will see the extent to which teachers' experiences might result in transformation of self and activity of teaching. In this way, I believe I can capture a picture of the multifaceted process of change as experienced by teachers.

Competency Development and Change of Practice: Analytical Framework

The model in Figure 13 presents a way of looking at change in teaching practices as occurring through phases of a versatile conceptual development process that involves teachers in dialectical relationships with the entities of their environment (Johnson, 2009; Lantolf, 2008; Wertsch, 1998; 2007). In line with the SCT views on teacher learning and building on Wallace's (1991, 1995) work, the framework represents a three-phase professional renewal process through which practice is shaped. This process begins with a pre-change stage, followed by a reflective competence development phase, and then reaching a point of outcomes which characterize new learning – this is often demonstrated by change or transformation at a conceptual or behavioral level or both. The outcomes can then become the basis for a new phase of the same cycle where the learning is consolidated or 'unlearned'. According to the model, the three-phase cyclic process is influenced by the contextual and sociocultural factors that exist within teachers' learning and work environment.

The significance of the model to the present study lies in its emphasis on professional learning processes as being neither unidirectional or uniform (Lantolf, 2000). It also lies in its emphasis on reflection on practice and experience as being critical for determining the movement from one stage of development to another. It suggests that reflection can occur at any time during the process leading to decisions that impact teachers' course of action. Moreover, the three phases -- as embedded in the wider sociocultural view of human learning -- highlight the interconnectedness between the social and psychological aspects of teacher learning. Hence, the model captures the centrality of teacher agency and the notion of competency development as a situated, mediated process involving connections between contextual, social, and psychological factors – all of which impact the course and quality of teachers' change of practice. The use of this model allows us to trace and understand the process of change in its own terms and conditions, and help us account for who teachers are, how they come to know and do what they do, how their perceptions of practice develop, and how their understanding of themselves as teachers, and of their classroom practices may be transformed. In the following section, I explain the elements of each phase of the conceptual model represented in Figure 13 and then examine my findings in this light.

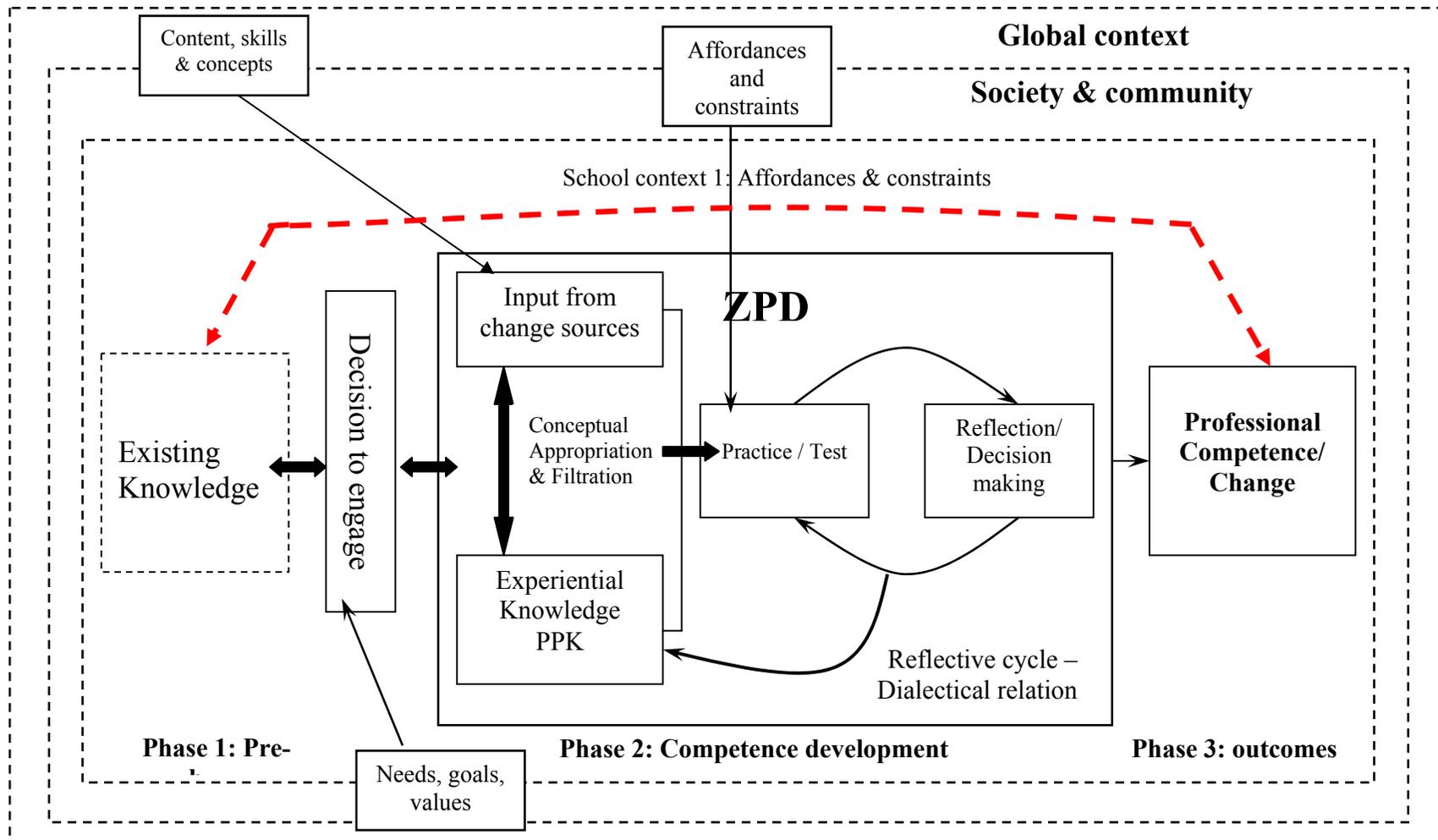


Figure 13. Competence Development and Change of Practice.

Phase 1: Pre-change Phase

Existing knowledge

This phase of pre-exposure to change represents the pre-entry point to a professional renewal experience. Following Wallace (1991, 1995), this stage is characterized by teachers' *existing knowledge* which refers to teachers' general state of knowledge at a given moment prior to approaching a new professional learning experience. It could also be understood as teachers' *personal practical knowledge* (Golombek, 2004, 2009), teachers' *every day concepts* (Vygotsky, 1978) or "theories-in-use" (Argyris & Schon, as cited in Burton, 2009, p. 299) which may have developed consciously or unconsciously through teachers' participation as teachers and learners in different academic and professional communities (Borg, 2003, 2009; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009; Lortie, 1975; Woods, 1998). This knowledge consists of conceptions of the immediate and wider context in terms of teaching practices, expectations, and the PD services and activities available. The importance of this knowledge to the model lies in its instrumental role as a tool for understanding new knowledge and thus constitutes a base for learning and conceptual development. Research has shown that individuals understand new information (correctly or incorrectly) in light of their previous experiences and current state of knowledge; they will often fail to apply ideas and knowledge that have no connection to their experience or context for acquiring meaning (Hammerness et al., 2005).

Decisions on engagement

This sub-stage involves teachers' evaluations and decisions on their position in relation to the change or learning outcomes sought (Little, 2001). It speaks to teachers' internal and external motivations to pursue change, as well as their perceived needs and attitudes towards changing their existing knowledge and practices. It also involves teacher's perceived *outcome expectations* and *self-efficacy* (Bandura, 1986) in relation to the new learning experience. These aspects are important factors that underlie teachers' decisions to engage in learning opportunities or to develop readiness to do so. We know from the TE literature that "teachers cannot be made to develop" (Bailey, 2001, p. 13). They need to be willing to make that choice. Research (Bailey, 2006; Bailey et al., 2001; Blandford, 2000; Hargreaves, 1994, 2010; Little, 2001) also shows that to a great extent, teachers' choice and readiness to engage in professional learning define their level of engagement and outcomes. Unless teachers perceive their new learning experiences as relevant to their goals and

needs, and unless their evaluation of their situations results in seeing positive outcome expectations or a happy fit (Little, 2001) between the learning opportunities and their life, teachers are unlikely to engage actively in professional learning. With these perspectives on the role of teachers' existing knowledge and decisions in undertaking professional learning, I present a cross-context analysis of the educational settings examined in this study.

Phase 1: Cross-context Analysis

Based on teachers' accounts on their backgrounds, attitudes toward change and their conceptions of practice and sources of improvement, Table 38 provides a cross-context summary of findings in this respect.

Table 38

Summary of Cross-context Analysis of Phase 1

| Phase | Public school context | National school context | International school context |
|---------------------|--|---|---|
| Phase 1: Pre-change | Existing knowledge Traditional knowledge; Transmission conceptions; technical views of teaching and learning; local EFL learners and teachers of English | Non-traditional; Interactionist views; locals and returning expatriates; L1 and L2 learners and teachers of English | English native-speaker linguistic and cultural knowledge; non-traditional conceptions of teaching and learning |
| | Decisions on engagement in PD No decision making; Unfavorable; unmotivated surface engagement; and negative outcome expectations | Partial decision making; Favorable; motivated active participation; positive outcome expectations | Decline involvement; Unmotivated; satisfied with the status quo; minimal participation in PD |

The Public Sector

Existing Knowledge: A Traditional Orientation

According to the data, the teachers in this sector hold traditional conceptions of teaching as knowledge transmission. As the literature on teacher learning (for example, Borg, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009) indicates, such conceptions may have been established throughout their histories and experiences as learners and teachers in their professional communities. These conceptions tend to be rooted in teachers' knowledge and practices which teachers described as having become procedural over time.

The demographic data shows that all teachers are Egyptian citizens who have received their formal education at local institutions and hold educational degrees based on 4-year university programs (or more). They have learned English as a foreign language (a core school subject) predominantly via grammar and translation methods in their teens -- an age argued in SLA research (Krashen, 1983, 1985) as being critical in attaining adequate second language proficiency needed to model and teach the language. These teachers have developed expertise in exam-oriented strategies as a result of their immense experience as learners and teachers in their educational contexts where standardized testing plays a dominant role and has a tremendous impact on instruction (Shahoby, 2004). From another perspective, the government sector teachers tended to adopt a technical or instrumental (Burton, 2009; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) conception of teaching and perceived themselves as curriculum implementers who lack ownership of their own practices. Finally, while these aspects of teachers' background experiences portray teachers as products and operators of their own system, they point to existing knowledge that could have serious implications on teachers' linguistic and pedagogical competencies. Such a foundation makes it challenging for PD providers to assist teachers in adopting ways of teaching that are different from what they have experienced and compatible with the current knowledge about how people learn.

Decisions on Professional Learning: Not a Good Match for Teachers

Teachers in the public sector are not part of the decision-making process. That is the what, when, and how of their obligatory in-service education. This condition allows teachers to choose only their level of engagement in PD activities. For this group, the choice of surface engagement was based on teachers' reflection *on-action* (Burton, 2009; Schon, 1987), on their previous experiences,

and the feasibility and plausibility of the expected outcomes of their PD experiences (Little, 2001, 2007) in relation to their work and life. According to the findings, teachers' perceived lack of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to engage in PD activities and their critical views on the content and approaches to PD maintained in their settings are the main reasons for taking such a stance. Teachers' awareness of the pitfalls of their current practices, their perception of the importance of moving away from the traditional paradigm, and their positive attitudes toward change, all seemed far from being solid enough grounds for engaging actively in change initiatives or employing new approaches to teaching. So, forcing teachers to engage in professional learning opportunities does not guarantee success (Bailey, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Guskey, 2003; Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Hargreaves, 1994, 1995; Johnson, 2009; Little, 2001). Of critical importance to teachers' unfavorable decisions at this stage is the potential violation of the principle of "collaborative construction of opportunities" (Lantolf, 2000, p. 16) that underlies the process of learning conceptual development. Yet, with this stance, teachers proceed to the next phase of the professional learning process.

The National School Context

Existing Knowledge: A Non-traditional Orientation

Assuming that teachers' existing knowledge is shaped by who they are, teachers in the national school context are locals and expatriates, graduates from educational and non-educational disciplines, the majority of whom have joined the teaching profession following some experience in other professional fields. Some have learned English formally as a second language, whereas others have acquired it informally through their social, academic, and professional acculturation. With no previous teaching experience in the government sector, their experience in the national school context ranges between 3 and 13 years. All teachers have participated in rigorous methodology training prior to or during their careers in the national sector and are recognized in their workplace communities as proficient, native, or native-like speakers of English (despite a wide range of proficiency levels that they may exhibit in this context).

The heterogeneity of this group in terms of cultural and professional backgrounds makes it quite difficult to describe their conceptions of teaching and existing knowledge. Although it seemed challenging for teachers to clearly articulate their philosophies and conceptions of teaching, their

accounts of their experiences reflect a move from didactic methods and views of language teaching towards more functional and interactive approaches. So, generally speaking, teachers hold non-traditional *interactionist* (Richards, 1998) conceptions of teaching and learning.

Decisions for Professional Learning: Open to PD

The majority of the national school teachers expressed their willingness to engage in as many professional learning opportunities as they could. They tended to have personal as well as professional reasons and goals for engaging in PD activities. Although they seemed unaware of their particular needs and unable to articulate their specific learning goals, they expressed positive outcome expectations and a sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) in connection to their pursuits of change.

Although most of teachers' PD opportunities are obligatory with no teacher control over aspects such as topics, time schedules or approaches to PD, teachers expressed willingness to pass their right of decision making in this regard to their institutional authorities (principals). They perceived their schools as better managers of their professional learning plans/pursuits. So, in this context, teachers' favorable decisions and attitudes towards engaging in professional learning tend to lay better grounds for the adoption of change in their classroom practices.

International Context

Existing Knowledge: Being an English Native Speaker

As I mentioned in my description of this context (in Chapter 2), and as is the case in many similar teaching contexts around the world (Barduhn & Johnson, 2009; Leung, 2009), the international schools examined accept a wide range of teacher qualifications, of which the most valued is being a native speaker of English. Like their counterparts in the national school context, international school teachers come from different backgrounds with a blend of conceptions and views about teaching and learning. According to the data most teachers hold university degrees in different disciplines and/or teaching certificates. Their knowledge of teaching and learning is bound to their backgrounds and is mostly developed during their membership as teachers in the international schooling context in Egypt or in other countries.

Decisions on Professional Learning: Declined Opportunities

The international teacher group tended to decline getting involved in professional learning opportunities. Perceiving the prestige of their positions, they saw no reason to pursue further PD. These teachers felt confident about the effectiveness of the teaching they brought with them, especially given that they perceived no institutional pressures to change or improve their current level of performance. From another perspective, coming from Western cultures, they perceived many of the PD options offered in Cairo as irrelevant to their needs and that they would not learn anything of value. So, unless participation was obligatory or perceived to be of value to them, they tended to discard professional learning opportunities. Therefore, by taking this position, teachers rarely engaged in structured professional learning opportunities and even when they did such stance de-activate the role of their agency in the process of learning.

Phase 2: Competence Development

Employing SCT perspectives on teacher learning, what teachers can do, and the extent to which they benefit from different PD opportunities is largely determined by the circumstances in which the experience takes place, the contributions of people involved, as well as the tools and artifacts available and used in the process. The second phase of the model represents the professional renewal process as socially negotiated, carried out by teachers with others, “situated in physical and social contexts, and distributed across persons, tools and activities” (Johnson, 2009, p. 5) as well as connected to teacher’s knowledge of self, students, school, and the wider community. It represents the context in which teachers learn and work which serves as a sphere of potentiality for competence development. This model implies the central role of the teacher in the process of development. The characteristics of the teacher’s world create possibilities for mediational means and space that influence the level of conceptual and skill development. The school environment therefore can impact on the change process for teachers. The major constructs of this phase include: *expert knowledge* (Kennedy, 1999) to which teachers are exposed, their *experiential knowledge* (Golombek, 2009), *practice* as a field for the appropriation of new knowledge, and *reflection* which can take place at any sub-stage of the phase. The process of looking at this phase through the constructs of the ZPD and mediation illuminates the type of dialogic relationship that exists between teachers and the various entities within their spheres. Ideally, teachers enter this phase following their favorable

decisions to engage in a learning activity through a degree of established awareness of need or interest in altering their current state of knowledge or skills, and a consideration for taking such action. This phase involves the processes of co-constructing learning opportunities (Lantolf, 2000) where teachers are exposed individually or collaboratively to new theories, methods, and skills which they are expected to learn and act upon their learning by demonstrating a change in knowledge and practice.

Expert-experiential Knowledge Integration

Ideally, at this initial sub-stage, teachers get exposed to new concepts that they attempt to make sense of or integrate into their rapport by relying on their everyday concepts as tools in the process. Depending on the nature of the opportunities to which they are exposed as well as the activities involved, ZPDs may develop allowing teachers to build upon their existing knowledge and stretch beyond their current level. In the context of in-service education, expert knowledge is often provided in the form of new theories of teaching and learning with sets of related techniques (Kozulin, 2003; Rogoff, 1995). In order for teachers to make use of new knowledge and integrate it effectively at both the conceptual and practical level, PD providers should assist teachers in establishing connections between the new concepts or theories and their current knowledge (Johnson, 2009). This entails two major tasks on the part of providers in presenting new knowledge. First, this is achieved by selecting and introducing content compatible with teachers' existing knowledge, needs and goals, and making the content relevant to the context in which teachers work. This is important because the narrower the gaps between the new content presented and what teachers already know, the more ground teachers find for understanding and appropriating the new content effectively. Second, the provider must create opportunities for dialogic mediation in which teachers engage with others (peers, colleagues, professionals, experts) in meaningful activities (related to both, school and work). This allows teachers to draw on tools and artifacts such as, instructional materials, student work, and school documents -- considering the new content in relation to which they are already familiar with. Hence, it is through this process that new concepts are integrated into teachers' everyday knowledge. According to the model, this phase involves teachers' reflection upon and their testing of the new concepts. Their personal practical knowledge, contextual factors, feelings of self-efficacy, goals, and other personal attributes impact on whether and to what degree teachers may adopt or adapt new knowledge.

Practice and Reflection

In line with the view that teacher knowledge is “situated” (Lave, 1988; Lave & Wenger, 1991) and develops as teacher practitioners respond to their local needs (Johnson, 2009; Tsui, 2003), teacher exposure to new input is only one level of the process of competency development. The next level involves putting newly acquired knowledge into practice. In Dewey’s sense (as discussed in Burton, 2009), teachers analyze conflicting issues occurring within the two sets of knowledge through observations or experimentation that lead to the reframing of their understanding. The nature and quality of new knowledge, tools, and activities maintained in the process of knowledge integration influence the level of analysis and experimentation with new concepts. This process helps teachers to make decisions on particular issues with respect to adopting new knowledge.

The sub-stage of practice and reflection represents teachers’ classroom experimentations with new concepts while relying on their existing knowledge, and the tools and artifacts available in their context to mediate (or regulate) their attempts. In this stage teachers are involved in addressing related contextual affordances and constraints (such as the characteristics of students, classroom instructional materials, and the institutional norms of practice) which influence their attempts to implement new concepts. In that, knowledge and competence develop through dialectical relationships between teachers and the contextual variables of their teaching settings.

This phase emphasizes the role of reflection while in the process of knowledge reframing and skill renewal. Since teachers are not mere *implementers* (doers) but rather *thinkers* – and in line with the view that reflection “is something that all people do to a greater or lesser extent and more or less effectively than others” (Burton, 2009, p. 299) – the model implies that whether teachers are in the role of curriculum implementers, theorists, planners, or evaluators, they involve themselves in some level of reflection *in-action* and *on-action* (Schon, 1987; Wallace, 1991; 1998). The effectiveness of their involvement depends on their personal feelings and responsibilities toward the practice at hand as well as institutional factors. As practice and theory (new concepts) are merged through real, meaningful activities of teaching and learning, teachers are involved again in the experience of “analysis”, “decisions on acting” (Dewey, as cited in Burton, 2009, p. 298), and “feedback loops” (Argyris & Schon, as cited in Burton, 2009, p. 299). It is through this process of comparing and testing new experiences against previous experiences, that new knowledge becomes a conceptually

and contextually appropriated -- part of teachers' *theories-in-use* and established conceptual tools that function as a basis for further learning.

Favorable results pertaining to competence development or change of practice are not always the case. Practice and reflection may also involve negative thinking regarding the practicality or legitimacy of new concepts, leading to decisions ranging from trying the new concept one more time, adapting it to better suit the context, using different tools and artifacts, or discarding the new knowledge. According to Eraut (1995), the verification of concepts during practice and reflection may nurture new competencies by *reframing* new concepts or *freezing* current competencies through the consolidation of existing knowledge. Critical to the process of competence development is the influence of the negative output of reflection on practice in problematic situations (for example, when a teacher experiences difficulties in applying a new concept or strategy effectively) as it can lead to the consolidation of teachers' existing knowledge. In the following section, I report my findings on the processes of this phase as experienced by teachers in the school contexts explored.

Phase 2: Cross-context Analysis

Using Phase 2 of my conceptual framework in examining the data shows the extent to which teachers' work and PD experiences may have created learning opportunities which would allow teachers to get involved in relevant activities that provide them with direct experience in the use of new concepts and tools. Table 39 summarizes the findings.

Table 39

Summary of Cross-context Analysis of Phase 2

| Phase | Public school context | National school context | International school context | |
|--|--|---|---|---|
| Phase 2: Competency development process | Expert-experiential knowledge integration | Non-learning experiences No new knowledge integration; lack of conceptual, physical, and cultural tools, and activities that can strategically mediate integration. | Evidence of uptake Some new knowledge integration; lack of strategic mediation that affords conceptual development. | No evidence of uptake Non-consideration of situations as learning opportunities. Limited exposure to and integration of new knowledge. |
| | Practice and reflection | Not reached. Opportunities are constrained and devalued in the workplace | Non-reflective learning. Extended opportunities characterized by technical assistance, enactive learning and work with like others. | Restricted Limited opportunities characterized by personal experiences, enactive learning and technical assistance. |

Note. Enactive learning (Bandura, 1986) involves learning from doing and the consequences of one's actions. The type of resultant knowledge (intuitive, tacit or explicitly based on theory and experience) depends on the level of reflection accompanying the process.

Government Sector: Non-learning Experiences**Lack of Expert-experiential Knowledge Integration**

The expert knowledge in this context is generally derived from school-based sources (e.g., supervisors, heads, and colleagues) and external sources (e.g., conferences, courses, and workshops). School-based sources feature two types of expert knowledge provided through approaches of *guided participation* and *technical assistance* (Rogoff, 1995). The first is the routine input on practice that teachers receive from their department heads, supervisors and advisors, often in the form of straightforward directions. This knowledge presents no new concepts or skills to be appropriated; it constitutes no new learning opportunities, nor is it likely to lead to changes in teachers' knowledge.

Rather, it focuses on the technical application of teaching with the aim of reinforcing the system norms (traditional practices) and thus leads to conformity to system norms (Smylie, 1995) and the consolidation of existing knowledge (Eraut, 1995). The other type of knowledge consists of scientific concepts in the form of student-centered teaching strategies presented through mandated school-based programs (e.g., exemplary-lesson sessions). Teachers tend to reject this knowledge and perceive it as irrelevant to their teaching context.

The expert knowledge of *external sources* is that which is provided through the one-size-fits-all training events (e.g., conferences and workshops), away from school and without follow-up procedures. These structures seem to fail in providing teachers with carefully selected scientific concepts, relevant mediational means and activities that assist them in appropriating new concepts. They focus on transmitting a body of decontextualized, packaged knowledge and skills while ignoring the situated, interactive, interpretive, and dynamic nature of teacher knowledge and pedagogical reasoning (Borg, 2003, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). According to the findings, a wide gap exists between the two sets of knowledge -- the expert (scientific concepts) and teachers' experiential knowledge (everyday concepts) causing little or no integration of new concepts. This gap is created by the incompatibility of the new concepts with teachers' experiential knowledge and workplace demands and the lack of dialogic pedagogical approaches to PD that can assist teachers in integrating new knowledge into their everyday teaching practices. At this phase, and while being exposed to new concepts, teachers engage in reflection by comparing and evaluating the new knowledge presented to them in light of their PPK and work conditions – and accordingly act upon their judgments. For teachers in the public sector, this process leads to negative decisions on the adoption or further appropriation of new concepts.

Practice and Reflection: Not Reached

For teachers in the government school contexts, the practice and reflection phase is never reached. Perceiving the new concepts and skills as irrelevant to their needs and workplace demands, and without proper assistance for integrating new knowledge into practice, teachers do not attempt to experiment with new concepts in their classrooms.

The National School Context: Non-reflective Learning

Potential Expert-experiential Knowledge Integration

In the national school context, the findings provide evidence of some knowledge integration and teacher uptake of new concepts. Like their counterparts in the public system, teachers receive expert knowledge through school and external sources (e.g., conferences, workshops and training programs). Several factors seem to support the integration of expert and experiential knowledge in this context. For example, teachers' motivation and readiness for engaging in PD activities -- seem to strengthen their agency in the process professional learning. Both, school and external sources deliver the same type of expert knowledge, namely, strategies and skills pertaining to communicative language teaching. Moreover, the knowledge received is not completely alien to the teachers, but rather relates to their everyday work and includes reference to contextual artifacts (instructional kits used by some teachers). However, several concerns emerge from the findings about the level of knowledge integration and learning outcomes that may result from teachers' reported professional learning experiences.

From SCT perspectives, the goal of professional development programs is to expose teachers to new (scientific) concepts, while assisting them in making their everyday concepts explicit and thereby using them as means for internalizing new concepts. This means that the structure of PD programs must provide teachers with opportunities to externalize their conceptions and knowledge so that they can become open to examination and reframing. In the case of the national school context, the sources of expert knowledge deny teachers such opportunities and instead involve them in knowledge transmission models. Most of the PD structures and activities mentioned in the data lack dialogic teaching, assign teachers a passive role, and provide no room for teachers' to articulate their existing knowledge.

Another concern about the knowledge integration process is that most programs tend to focus on skill demonstration at the expense of clarifying the conceptual and theoretical underpinnings of the skills presented. For example, the information conveyed in PD programs such as conferences workshops is usually delivered using professional discourse and consists of content, concepts and skills (Kozulin, 2003). Teachers – who in most cases may lack a solid background in educational theory and pedagogy – often take new concepts as content which never becomes understood or internalized. Typically, teachers are not given assistance in learning the new concepts deliberately

and systematically until they become generalizable across activities (Johnson, 2009). So, concepts may remain vague and never become well-formed. In this case, they become problematic (a source of confusion) when used as tools for further learning.

According to the data, the school-based PD activities as mentioned by teachers and principals (such as supervisory support, classroom observations, collaborative efforts, and classroom experiences) did not seem to provide mediational space for teachers to engage in on-going, in-depth systemic and reflective experimentations with their learning. For example, the teacher-supervisor conferencing seemed to involve teachers in fixed 'guided-participation' (Rogoff, 1995) where they receive technical assistance in terms of direct, routinized instructions on *how to do* discrete activities in the instructional materials. The same level of assistance is maintained as teachers appropriate concepts on their own using their step-by-step instructional guides. This type of assistance is far from being strategic (Wertsch, 1985, 1997) and is not likely to lead to conceptual development or transformation.

The benefits reportedly derived from teachers' learning through apprenticeship -- as in their classroom peer observations -- are also questionable. An unstructured approach without the use of observational instruments means the observation has no particular aim or focus to capture. It decreases the potential of the experience to generate useful data for detailed exploration in post-observation conferences (Richards, 1998; Wajnryb, 1992). Even the collaborative efforts maintained in that context are not the collaborative culture of 'critical colleagues' or 'critical friends' (Dunne, Nave, & Lewis, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001) which would evoke the type of critical reflection or group 'intellectual play' (Marsick & Watkins, as cited in Smylie, 1995, p. 101) that leads to conceptual development and transformation of self and activity.

Despite these circumstances, the findings show that teachers were coping with their training opportunities and tended to find ways to appropriate and use the new knowledge in building their *repertoire* (Schon, 1987). By perceiving the new concepts and skills (however formed) as doable in their context and with positive outcome expectations, teachers tend to take their new learning to the practice domain for further appropriation with hope that practice makes perfect.

Practice and Reflection: Does Practice Make Perfect?

Because seminar rooms do not provide teachers with the space for appropriating new concepts, teachers resort to their classrooms to experiment with their new learning. According to the model, putting new concepts into such practice-test gets teachers involved in cycles of practice-reflection and leads to several possibilities: a level of uptake, adaptation of existing practice, reiteration or abandonment of experience and reinforcement or consolidation of existing knowledge. Although the significance of teacher learning in the classroom is emphasized in the literature, it is contended that practice alone does not make perfect (Darling-Hammond, Hammerness, Grossman, & Shulman, 2005). Experimenting with teaching in the classroom is a form of ‘enactive learning’ (Bandura, 1986; Eraut, 1995) (learning by doing) and unless accompanied by reflection through the means of thoughtful analysis of the experience (Butron, 2008; Lockhart & Richards, 1994; Schon, 1987), deep-level learning and change are not likely to occur. According to Eraut (1995), enactive learning has two drawbacks as it depends on saliency, recency, and prior expectations; and on interpretation where preexisting constructs, perspectives, and frames of reference are likely to strongly affect the outcome. The value of practice in learning to teach comes only when practice is complemented with opportunities for reflection which are not always present in the classroom where the flow of experience and the need for simultaneous actions are so rapid that little attention can be further devoted to reflection in the moment (Burns, 2008; Eraut, 1995; Johnson, 1999; Schon, 1987; Wallace, 1991, 1998; Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

While classroom experimentation seems to constitute an ultimate learning experience for teachers, the usefulness of this learning approach can be limited. First, the experience takes place in closed classrooms where the interpretation of concepts is bound to teachers’ understanding and the assessment of actions is mostly done by teachers. Moreover, even when such experiences are shared with like-minded colleagues for inspection and reframing, the lack of variant models among teachers as referents and the lack of clear criteria or standards against which to assess their performance make the feedback vague and unspecific.

Finally, although the learning opportunities reported in this context feature different types of social relations, tools, and activities, it is clear that much of teachers’ learning processes are not strategically mediated. The implication of this is directly related to the level of knowledge and skill development that may emerge as a result. In the case of the national school context, teachers’

learning experiences tend to nurture the technical or skill level of teachers' performance. Whether or not this change in behavior is coupled with deeper understanding of the concepts enacted remains questionable. Finally, the findings relating to this context reflect an adoption of a technical view of teaching and teacher learning. This explains why teachers in the national school context are not "critical consumers" (Zeichner, as cited in Johnson, 2009, p. 22) of their PD content but instead tend to lean towards an orientation of "just show me how to do it", assuming that practice makes perfect.

The International Context: No Consideration of Learning Opportunities

Limited Expert-experiential Knowledge Integration

The sources of expert knowledge in the international school context are not different from those in the national school settings. They feature similar structures, goals, and approaches and so, they involve teachers in comparable experiences. The difference is that the international school context is characterized by limited teacher exposure to expert knowledge. According to the findings, teachers expressed limited participation, disengagement, and even avoidance of PD opportunities including external programs (conferences or courses) as well as school-based activities (collaborative efforts). They felt confident about their teaching knowledge and skills in relation to their workplace demands and were therefore less interested in participating in professional learning activities. Such conceptions in the international school context are also adopted by school administrators and reinforced by the prevailing 'native speaker fallacy' (Phillipson, 1992) – and the "pedagogical fiction" (Burns, 2005, p. 4) of Western methods.

As in the case with their counterparts in the national school context, the PD activities in which teachers engage lack the potential to create strategic mediation through which teachers can be assisted in examining and altering their current skills and knowledge. The step-by-step directions from supervisors tend to assist teachers' performance rather than scaffold the teacher's conceptual reconstruction. The widespread norm of implementing particular teaching kits decreases the likelihood of creating dilemmas and questions to be addressed during daily work, thus limiting the opportunities for critical reflections, experimentation, and innovation. This relegates teacher's instructional role to that of a 'technical implementationalist' (Bottery & Wright, 2000) and limits possible challenges and feedback mechanisms that promote and enhance learning (Bandura, 1986). Moreover, the isolated nature of teachers' classroom enactive learning is also problematic, given the

limited opportunities private institutions provide for exposure to varying sources of knowledge (models and referents) and for effective collaborative effort as mechanisms for examining and assessing their performance.

Practice and Reflection: Restricted

Enjoying their prestigious native-speaker status and coming from abroad, international school teachers tended to approach their practice with the conviction that they had already learned what they needed to in order to be effective. The use of teacher-friendly guides and instructional materials seemed to have made their jobs even easier. According to the findings, teachers operationalized their acquired conceptions of teaching and learning (however formed) in their isolated practice zones (the classroom). There, they mostly learned through experimenting with their textbooks and by reflecting and evaluating their experiences in terms of the moment-by-moment flow of actions and other contextual demands. Such classroom experiences are likely to result in impressions rather than in-depth understanding (Eraut, 1995) and be interpreted in light of teacher's pre-existing constructs and frames of reference. According to Eraut, in the absence of referents and sources of evidence to counteract teachers' evaluation of their own work, knowledge consolidation, and concept *refreezing* are likely to occur. However, the limited critical feedback on practice, coupled with the effect of the native-speaker fallacy, seemed to leave teachers with a positive sense of self-efficacy towards their actions and satisfaction with the status quo. As a result, they continued teaching in the same ways and did change their practices. According to teachers and principals, this approach to PD is commonly employed in international schools because not only is it easy to manage, it is also teacher-proof, and cost-effective.

Outcomes of Teacher Experiences

This phase summarizes the culmination of all the activities in the previous phases. It is not necessarily a final destination in the professional renewal process, but may represent a starting point, or a state of reflection and analysis leading to the reframing or consolidation of knowledge. In other words, the outcomes can become an initial base for further conceptual development. The outcomes are derived from the professional renewal processes experienced by teachers and are influenced by numerous contextual factors. Here, by looking at each context as a sphere of learning, I attempt to explain the change of practice, or lack thereof, in relation to the contextual nature of learning that

characterizes teachers' processes of professional renewal. Table 40 summarizes the findings for each context.

Cross-context Findings

Table 40

Summary of Cross-context Analysis of Phase 3

| Phase | Public school context | National school context | International school context | |
|--------------------------|--|--|--|---|
| Phase 3: Outcomes | <i>Experience-change relationship</i> | No change Custodial responses and conformity to existing norms. | Behavioral change Limited evidence for conceptual development | No change Maintaining the status quo |
| | <i>Teachers' spheres of learning</i> | Controlled learning opportunities enforcing mastery of existing norms of practice. | Controlled learning opportunities encouraging skill development; lack of clear visions on needs and goals. | Controlled learning opportunities serving to maintain the status quo; limited efforts to create effective learning opportunities. |

The Government Context: Custodial Responses and Conformity

In the government sector, the outcome of teachers' experience is a change within the paradigm or no "real" change in practice. Teachers' practices and change process reflect no new learning but what Van Maanen and Schein (as cited in Smylie, 1995, p. 103) describe as "custodial responses" of conformity to existing norms. According to Smylie, these are non-learning outcomes that are habitual responses leading to the consolidation of existing norms.

While teacher learning is promoted "through joint productive activities among leaders and participants" (Rueda, as cited in Bailey, 2009, p. 274), it is evident from the findings that teachers have no agency in their learning process. They are not taking ownership of their professional learning activities. They are not active participants in their learning processes where all aspects of

their work and learning experiences are generally determined for them and not by them. This absence of teacher input can create divisions between teachers and others within the professional community, and prevent the development of social relations and the exchange of expertise among those involved (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Hargreaves, 1994, 2001, 2010; Smylie, 1995).

According to the findings teachers' spheres of learning in the public sector are activated by powerful forms of social relationships, enforcing the mastery of context-bound knowledge and norms through human mediation. These mediators are the superiors who control evaluation criteria, distribution of rewards, and work requirement as well as colleagues with similar roles, knowledge, experience, and status. The superiors in the system groom the teachers to assume existing roles by limiting teachers' activities to predetermined system-bound routines, segregating possible new ideas from their daily work, and discouraging individual initiatives. This allows no room for change, productivity, critical reflection, and creativity in teachers' work and explains why teachers in the government sector seem to be caught in the same traditional paradigm.

The National Context: Behavioral Change

In the national school context, the data provide evidence of behavioral change; namely, a shift from the traditional philosophy of teaching and learning towards the more 'modern' communicative approaches. These outcomes are shaped by the norms of the work environment which called for student-centered approaches to teaching and emphasized teachers' related skill development. I describe the orientation to change in this context as *behavioral change* to capture teachers' adoption of communicative teaching strategies as it was difficult to determine the extent to which teachers had experienced a deeper shift in their understanding of pedagogy.

Enthusiasm for professional learning and change coupled with supportive institutional measures are major features that characterize teachers' spheres in the national context. Although these are key to success in teacher development, we know from the literature that "effective learning opportunities need to begin with a clear idea of what we want people to know and be able to do" (Guskey & Huberman, 1995, p. 360). In the national context, and in the absence of a clear vision of the needs, goals and standards of performance, the focus of what is being learned and the attributes (i.e. how, when, and why) which give meaning and direction to the process seems to be lost, thus making the outcomes of teachers' experiences noticeable but arbitrary and immeasurable.

The International Context: No Change

Teachers did not consider their PD experiences as learning situations. Their attitudes toward professional learning and their limited exposure to new input on practice led to little or no change in practice. Keeping the status quo is the position taken in the international school community. By justifying this position, both teachers and principals perceived no pressing need for change of practice in their schools. In this context teachers are ‘status symbols’ and considered as linguistic and cultural models (Avra & Medgyes, 2000). Whether qualified or under-qualified, their mere presence helps to sell the school and meet the demands of consumers.

Stoller (1997) helps us to make sense of the situation in the international school context when he writes: “The most frequent impetus for innovation is dissatisfaction with the status quo” (p. 35). Change starts with the recognition that current practices need to be improved, renewed, or replaced. As international school teachers were generally happy by maintaining the status quo, no efforts were made to create genuine professional learning opportunities. Moreover, as many teachers were unwilling to pursue professional learning and did not consider various professional experiences as learning opportunities, there was little chance for change to occur.

Conclusion

Despite the difference in the contextual variables, the common factor among the three contexts is that institutional features tend to determine how much teachers will actually change as well as the nature of the change that might occur. The present study shows that in all contexts, teachers were subjected to a top-down change process. PD was organized for teachers and not by them. In many cases, PD activities were not necessarily tailored specifically for them but designed to maintain the system norms. The core focus of PD -- to encourage innovation, reflection, and creativity -- was stifled by the system monolithic central control in all contexts. This appeared to have a powerful effect on shaping teachers’ work roles, choices, and orientations to change. Collaboration across contexts was often contrived and rarely critically oriented. All teachers, qualified or unqualified, were ‘deskilled’ (Hargreaves, 1995), excluded from decision making with respect to their instructional practices, and relegated to the role of “technical implementationist” (Bottery & Wright, 2000). Finally, all contexts exhibited a lack of clear institutional goals, visions,

and criteria for professionalism and improved performance against which change and success can be measured.

This discussion provided a snapshot of the realities of teaching English and teacher learning for change in the EFL context of Cairo. In the next chapter, I suggest several implications of this study to be considered by teachers, school principals, policy makers, and PD providers.

CHAPTER 10:

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Implications

Introduction

This study examined the phenomenon of change in teaching practices in the Cairo public and private school sectors. It focused on the perspectives of teachers while also including voices of other parties involved in the process of change, namely school principals and PD providers. The findings from the multiple sources of data served to contextualize the study topics, contributing to our understanding of the complexities involved in the process of improving instruction in the teaching of English as a foreign language and when using English as the medium of instruction in schools.

Both the quantitative and qualitative data sets show that teachers have experienced and perceived changes in their teaching practices occurring over time. However, the nature and process of change reported seemed to vary across the teaching contexts examined. The qualitative findings supplemented the quantitative findings, by providing insights into the numerical results -- especially where the survey failed to capture the variation that exists in teachers' perceptions. The qualitative data took us beyond looking at whether or not change has occurred and which professional development opportunities may have led to change, to exploring the nature of the process of change as experienced by teachers. The findings showed what teachers tend to consider as change or enhancement of practice, and how and why they might change their instructional approaches and highlighted the tremendous impact of contextual factors and institutional norms on the nature and direction of the process of change. Briefly, it reveals that change results from teachers' tendency to respond and adapt to their contextual demands and illuminates three approaches that the teachers in this study maintained in addressing issues of professional growth and practice enhancement: (a) adaptability to contextual demands through resistance to change; (b) adaptability through resilience in learning to change; and (c) adaptability to contextual demands by keeping the status quo.

The overarching theme that emerged throughout the findings is that improvement and change in the teaching practices (or lack thereof) is a system-bound process. It is a process mediated by contextual norms and these norms could either encourage or restrain the development and change in

the teaching practices. Teacher development and change of practice result from processes of adaptability that involve teachers in modifying their performance (knowledge and skills) to the valued and accepted norms and practices in their work contexts (Richards, 2008, 2009; Tsui, 2003). So, the school system tends to institute teachers' professional renewal opportunities and determine the type of change to expect. It is this cast that moulds teachers' attitudes toward development and change, their engagement in and gains from PD opportunities. Hence, being part of a system or a community, teachers seem to look for what might inspire them to change or not to change. In either case, it involves teachers in making informed decisions about whether or not and how they might change their teaching practices. Based on the various findings, the study suggests implications for teachers, school principals, policy makers and professional development providers.

Implications for Teachers and Schools: Establishing Collaborative Cultures

Collaboration as Self-directed Professional Learning Communities

This study revealed that 'collaboration with colleagues' constituted an influential source of change for teachers and that teachers generally held positive beliefs towards engaging in collaborative efforts. With such perceptions, it is then imperative that teachers be given the opportunity to collaborate with each other. Research in the field of L2 teacher education (e.g., Bailey et al., 2001; Burns & Richards, 2009; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Edge, 2002, 2009; Johnson, 2009; Johnson & Golombeck, 2004) and the work of leading scholars in educational change (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Hargreaves, 1994, 1995; Hargreaves, Liberman, Fullan, & Hopkins, 2010; Little, 2001; Wells & Glaxton 2002) strongly suggest that teachers find ways to establish collaborative cultures and opportunities to converse. Collaboration should be initiated by teachers -- not for them -- while being supported and encouraged by principals. Collaboration amongst teachers can take place in or beyond the classrooms. For example, an informal discussion between teachers might take place in one teacher's classroom, in a teachers' lounge, a coffee shop or in virtual space (Johnson, 2009).

Becoming Critically Reflective

In spite the power held by school principals and other key administrators, teachers can still initiate collegial collaborative efforts. Hargreaves asserts that "Teacher collaboration and shared leadership are not gifts that should be awaited from administrators. They are some things that

teachers can and should actively create themselves in ways that connect to and communicate with their colleagues” (1995, p. 19). When teachers involve themselves in collegial collaboration rather than contrived collaboration, they can create zones free of system pressures that may limit reflection to surface, technical or practical levels (Burton, 2009). Such flexible zones enable them to take their ‘talk’ and activities beyond the exchange of moral and emotional support or technical sharing of ideas. They can take their talk to deeper levels where they can become ‘critically reflective’ (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Hargreaves, 1994; Zeichner, 1993) about their work, social conditions, context and consequences of their teaching, as well as their effectiveness when performing a new skill or their emotional disposition when teaching. In politically charged work environments -- such as the case of the public school context -- Korthagen and Vasalos’ (2003) suggest adopting what they called the ‘Onion Model’. In this model, teachers can be given opportunities to reflect on their issues, starting first with outer-layer issues (such as their environment) and gradually proceeding to core issues such as their identities and beliefs.

Expanding Knowledge Through Self-selected PD Activities

Additionally, teachers in both the public and private sectors may benefit from resorting to various forms of ‘self-selected PD activities’ (Sparks & Loucks-Horsley, 2003). This allows teachers to expand their knowledge and refine their skills through (individually or collectively) reading professional writings, enrolling in language or subject area courses and/or experimenting with new ideas and reflecting on their learning. Considering “the self as a source of professional development” (Bailey et al., 2001), teachers can develop their knowledge, pursue their interests and become aware of and attend to their needs. Importantly, their knowledge will vary, and so when collaborating together, they become a community with variety of referents (Bandura, 1986).

Such self-directed professional learning activities enhance teachers’ knowledge, skills, morale and satisfaction. They provide a medium for support, reflection and mentoring of practice that impacts on teaching methods and practices while encouraging teachers to be committed to continuous growth (Burns, 2009; Clark, 2001; Hargreaves, 1994; Johnson, 2009).

Implications for Principals and Policy Makers: Considering System Restructuring

In the context of this study, public sector schools are fully regulated by ministry-level policies. As a result principals do not have the responsibility to provide on-going in-service activities

for their teachers. On the contrary, principals in the private sector are the managers and policy makers for their schools. For this reason I merge the implications for schools and policy makers.

Establishing Flexible Institutional Structures

Over the past two decades, research has established that the “process and success of teacher development depends very much on the context in which it takes place. The nature of this context can make or break teacher development efforts” (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992, p. 13). In education, we have learned that change in classroom teaching practices result from a dynamic social institutional process -- impacted by several ecological, social and political factors -- and that the system structures in which teachers work form the boundaries of teacher practices. Hence, for practices to be altered, the system must adjust its norms in ways that accommodate and support the changes sought (Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves, Lieberman, Fullan, & Hopkins, 2010).

The process of teacher development in each sector was constrained in some way, either through the ‘deskilling of teachers’ (Hargreaves, 1994), fixed instructional routines, disregard for their needs, goals and visions or limiting their involvement in to “approved” PD linked to particular mandates. Success in teacher development and educational improvement – as established by research -- requires that principals and policy makers involve teachers in the process of their learning to change, assist them in developing a sense of ownership for the changes sought, give them opportunities for leadership and establish professional culture of collaboration and continuous learning (Blase & Bajork, 2010; Guskey, 2003; Hargreaves, 1994, 2001; Little, 2001; Smylie, 1995). We have also come to know that “monolithic central controls stifle innovation, reflection and creativity” (Stoller, 1997, p. 37). In addition, workplace environments that feature hierarchal power and authority relationships impede new learning, diversity and promote conformity of thought and practice (Jarvis, 1987).

Encouraging Teacher Involvement and Fostering Creativity

Across all sectors, schools are unilaterally controlled. Steps must be taken to involve teachers in making decisions about their PD. In addition, school-based models of PD that involve teachers in all aspects of the process could be very effective in supporting teacher change. To cultivate creativity in teachers’ work, policy makers also need to reconsider the nature of their work environments in terms of the distribution of power and authority and shift towards a shared power structure in schools

giving consideration to expertise. This would help create autonomy and choice in teachers' work roles, encourage critical thinking, risk taking, increase prospects of dilemmas for teachers to address and open opportunities for development and change.

Establishing a Sense of Community and Empowering Teachers

Fostering collaborative efforts -- among teachers and between teachers and administrators -- would serve in developing unified goals and visions. It would encourage interpersonal and intellectual exchange among the members of the school community, leading to a stronger sense of community and loyalty to workplace. In government schools, such actions would perhaps help to mend the disassociation between teachers and their school administrations.

In the private sector, establishing a collaborative culture is a powerful way through which school principals can nurture stability, professional working conditions, as well a sense of belonging and permanence. Through involvement in collaborative efforts and professionally constructive, reciprocal relationships, teachers become empowered active members of the school community and thus are likely to develop loyalty and be more committed to their work. In this way they can contribute to the development of their school as a "learning organization" (Blandford, 2000) whose members are constantly searching for ways to improve their practice, benefiting themselves, the organization and ultimately their students. In addition to the widely reported benefits of school-based collaborative forms of PD (Edge, 2009, 2002; Farrell, 2007), schools also benefit from this approach as it is typically a low-cost approach to PD. To encourage and support these objectives, schools/principals should establish supportive policies for this approach. Teachers who demonstrate, creativity, initiative, commitment professionalism and willingness to contribute to school initiatives should be recognized and rewarded. When hiring new teachers, administrators need to make sure that candidates are aware that such behaviours and attitudes are valued and rewarded (Stoller, 1997).

Prioritizing Quality Education over Business Profits

The commercialization of English language education in the private sector -- the emphasis on doing what sells and keeping a non-traditional Western school image -- often comes at the expense of the quality of education offered in this sector. The hiring of teachers, their credentialing and further qualification in this sector should be overseen by policy makers and regulatory bodies. These bodies should not only play a gate-keeping role, but also set short and long term plans for enhancing

the quality of education in this context especially that the private sector is rapidly growing in the Egyptian society.

Implications for PD Providers: Shifting from Focus on Method to Focus on Teacher

It Is Time to Change

The findings have pointed to a gap between the PD provided and the needs of teachers. The prevalent approach to teacher learning and development remains anchored in traditional knowledge transmission models which fall between the historical '*Crafts model*' and that of the '*Applied science*'.

While this work revealed that traditional approaches to teacher development do not lead to much change, either in teaching practice or teachers' conceptual and competence development, it is therefore time to change directions.

From Focus on Method to Focus on Teacher

To adopt an SCT to the process of teacher professional development, providers should recognize that teacher learning and change are dynamic processes that involve re-constructing and transforming teaching practices and re-fashioning existing resources in ways that are responsive to both individual and local needs (Burns, 1999, 2009; Hawkins, 2004; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Johnson, 2009; Tsui, 2009, 2003). The focus of TE programs should shift from 'method training', i.e., getting teachers to master sets of prescribed knowledge and skills, to assisting them in acquiring an awareness, dispositions, qualities and strategies that can form solid ground for sustainable PD (Johnson, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2005, 2006; Nyozov, 2001; Richards, 2008). The technical conception must be replaced by an ecological orientation and the recognition of the complexity of learning to teach, the interplay of multiple factors in teachers' work, the context-dependent nature of professional knowledge and the value of teachers' practical experience and knowledge.

Minding the Gap

The gap between teachers and providers can be narrowed if providers address teachers' intuitive and personal practical knowledge, perspectives and context-specific needs when designing

programs. Providers should develop a thorough understanding of their audience and vary the services offered accordingly. With this understanding, providers can better address the diverse needs of the different teacher groups in the work force. These might include cultural knowledge for the English speaking teachers and linguistic awareness/knowledge for locals, or the need for both to learn the discourse of the field so that they are better able to articulate their knowledge and conceptions. Another way for providers to narrow the gap is by employing pedagogical approaches involving relevant mediational tools and activities. These provide teachers with opportunities to externalize their current conceptions and then re-contextualize them in light of new knowledge allowing them to adapt their new learning and use it in their every day work.

For Researchers: Researching a Different Culture

In the methodology chapter, I described the design and procedures of the study. Here I discuss the implications for researchers who conduct research in a different culture. Planning and designing a research study to be conducted in the developing world while following guidelines developed for conducting research in the West may lead to complex practical and ethical issues. Researchers desiring to conduct research somewhere in the global south must plan for the following:

Obtaining official approvals: It is important to understand the requirements for the conduct of research at both the researcher's home institution as well as in the site(s) to be studied because they may not be the same.

The concept of research: It should never be taken for granted that the concept of research is understood the same way in different contexts. Away from academia, many people may be unfamiliar with the work of researchers as well as the research process. Research in a politically charged environment has implications that may affect the quality of data collected and jeopardize the research. There can be serious consequences for the researcher(s). They can be perceived by the authorities as a potential threat – or even as spies – trying to get data to embarrass or even overthrow the current system. Access to data sources can be blocked or, in the worse case scenario, researchers can be subject to detention and criminal charges.

Researchers can also be perceived by the participants as being part of the authority in power. If this is the case, it is unlikely that participants would be willing to contribute freely and thus the data collection would be compromised. To maintain the quality of data and smoothness of

procedures, researchers should clearly explain their role in relation to the work at hand, participants and the context of research. The establishment of trust may require time and effort but is necessary with both the authorities and the participants.

Time issues: It is also important to consider that the concept of time is understood differently across cultures and that the amount of time it takes to accomplish various activities can differ significantly across contexts. For example, institutions and individuals may function on different time frames. When dealing with the authorities, completing the necessary procedures for official approvals to access sites and participants can easily take months beyond expectations. At the individual level, actions that we take for granted – such as setting appointments with people – can prove difficult since loose time commitments may be the norm. Unlike the case in North America, people often do not note down their scheduled appointments. Researchers have to be prepared for the fact that participants might arrive late for a research activity or even show up a day later without notice. In addition, participants may not feel obligated to conform to the time limit agreed upon for the task (meeting or interview, etc.). So, although scheduling back-to-back meetings or research related work is very time efficient for the researcher, it is not advisable to do so when conducting research in certain cultural contexts.

Communicating effectively: Embedded in every culture are rules for communication among individuals. As researchers need to recruit participants, encourage them to participate and carry out some tasks with them, they must understand the context-appropriate rules and tools for effective communication. For example, as was the case in this study, e-mail and telephone communication proved ineffective while face-to-face encounters were taken more seriously. Researchers should also account for other socio-cultural rules, such as those related to gender, space and the degree of formality or privacy to be maintained when meeting with others. These aspects of culture can have a profound effect on the interaction between the researcher and his/her participants which, in turn, can impact the research process and quality of data.

Being politically correct: In some cultures, particularly those in politically charged environments, a ‘neutral stance’ is not acceptable and is taken as an opposing position. In such environments, researchers should be prepared to adopt a particular position to show awareness and correctness.

Keeping safe: Finally, researchers need to plan for safe travel, particularly if their journeys take them to remote sites and destinations which have no street names or numbered addresses, road services or accessible security measures.

Research Contribution and Future Directions

This research responds to the global demand to enhance English language teaching and teacher education, particularly in the ‘Outer Circle’ countries. It contributes to the understanding of the complexities involved in assisting teachers in their professional development so that they can successfully meet the ever changing educational demands and societal expectations. Extending the research work that focuses on language teacher education, the bulk of which is conducted in English speaking countries, the findings of present study can be useful in other southern contexts as Cairo shares many characteristics with other mega cities in the global south. Moreover, tapping into teacher voices from various educational settings contributes to the understanding of context-specific issues. It opens doors for ideas for differentiating PD in order to support teachers becoming ‘adaptive experts’ in their context.

This work gives teachers voice and through their eyes, provides a picture of various instructional settings and orientations to change. It adds to the growing body of research conducted in Egypt on tracing the impact of educational reform movements on pedagogy and teacher education in the Egyptian public education system. The private sector -- despite its rapid growth – is generally overlooked. I believe that few researchers have penetrated the walls of the luxurious private schools in Cairo. Hence, this study explores the provision of PD in the private school sector and contributes to the demystification of what these schools are like.

While the present work makes contributions to the research on second language teacher education and change, there remains much to explore. One way to further research the professional development of language teachers working in EFL settings would be to conduct a longitudinal ethnographic study through which a deeper understanding of the process of teacher conceptual development could be obtained. Such information would be helpful in developing context-specific professional development strategies to assist teachers in their work and change prospects. Another way to further our understanding in this area would be to conduct similar research in other countries and EFL settings to gain comparative perspectives on the on-going professional development of

teachers in different societies. Given the growing demand around the world for effective English language education, this research should be considered a beginning – there is still much to be done in this area of research.

EPILOGUE
THE EGYPTIAN REVOLUTION:
SIGNS OF CHANGE

Having walked through the Egyptian desert, I am nearing the end of my journey. I stop and look back. I can see some change in the horizon but the change is subtle. It is as if the land is a little less tranquil than it used to be over the past decades. However, it is not easy to see exactly what is happening in Egypt's early foggy morning. I envision some sort of pressure beneath the golden banks causing minor sand quakes and land cracks that barely reflect the magnitude of the pressure below. I wonder how this pressure and its effects will influence the work of those excavating for truth.

As I contemplate the situation, I consider the wisdom of Watson and Glaser (cited in Shamim, 1996, p. 105):

A natural impulse of many people is to meet with force; that is, to overcome the opposing forces by exhorting, appealing, arguing, urging, inducing and scolding. Increasing pressures against the opposing forces usually will increase the resistance pressure, and as a result, tension will be heightened. Frequently (but not always), the wisest and most effective course of action is to focus on ways of understanding and reducing resistance rather than trying to overwhelm it.

In this research, my small excavation in the Egyptian field of education is an attempt to understand and reduce the pressures that are building. By focusing on teacher change and growth, I hope to provide a path of lesser resistance that will benefit teachers, students and the country as a whole. It is all I can do. All I can hope for is that others follow and together we are successful.

With both sadness and joy, I resume my journey.

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Appendix A
Teacher Development Survey

1. Background Information

1. Sex: male female

2. Academic qualifications:

- A teacher's certificate in.....
- A diploma in.....
- A bachelor's degree in.....
- A master's degree in.....
- A doctorate in.....
- Other; please specify.....

3. Number of years of teaching experience

Years of experience at particular types of schools:

Public-Arabic.....Experimental.....National.....International.....Other....

4. Type of school you are teaching in now:

Public-Arabic Experimental National International Other

5. Level at which you are teaching

primary preparatory secondary other

6. The subject(s) you are teaching

English language other subject(s) through English

2. Teacher development and change

Reflecting upon your past and current teaching experiences, rate the changes you have made in each of the following categories of teaching practice by ticking the box which best describe your situation.

| Categories of teaching practice | | No change | Little change | Some change | Quite a lot of change | A great deal of change | Not applicable |
|---------------------------------|--|-----------|---------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------|
| 1 | Increasing student-talk in class | | | | | | |
| 2 | Using more task-based and student-generated projects than pattern drilling | | | | | | |
| 3 | Including group work strategies | | | | | | |
| 4 | Implementing lesson plans more effectively | | | | | | |
| 5 | Addressing learners' different styles | | | | | | |
| 6 | More efficient use of class time | | | | | | |
| 7 | Using supplementary materials other than the textbook | | | | | | |
| 8 | Becoming better able to implement the curriculum guidelines as intended | | | | | | |
| 9 | Integrating language elements through content | | | | | | |
| 10 | Having more personalized or one-to-one interactions with students | | | | | | |
| 11 | Taking new roles in class such as a guide or a parent | | | | | | |
| 12 | Feeling more confident in relation to writing tests for students | | | | | | |
| 13 | Increasing your proficiency in English | | | | | | |
| 14 | Being more receptive to comments and feedback on your teaching | | | | | | |
| 15 | Gaining better understanding of your teaching philosophy or the principles that guide your practices | | | | | | |
| 16 | Being better able to establish constructive dialogue with parents | | | | | | |
| 17 | Being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching | | | | | | |

Comments:

3. Sources of change/development

Please specify the extent to which the following sources of change have influenced your practices. You may provide comments or explanations in the space provided below.

| Sources of change | | No influence | Little influence | Some influence | Much influence | A great deal of influence | Not applicable |
|-------------------|--|--------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|----------------|
| 1 | Feedback from supervisor | | | | | | |
| 2 | Student feedback | | | | | | |
| 3 | Keeping a teaching journal | | | | | | |
| 4 | Through trial and error | | | | | | |
| 5 | Collaboration with colleagues | | | | | | |
| 6 | Self-discovery | | | | | | |
| 7 | Attending in-service courses | | | | | | |
| 8 | Tired of doing the same thing | | | | | | |
| 9 | Use of new textbooks | | | | | | |
| 10 | Implementing new curriculum | | | | | | |
| 11 | Classroom investigation/research I conducted | | | | | | |
| 12 | Contact with others who triggered a change in me | | | | | | |
| 13 | Attending seminars/conferences/workshops | | | | | | |
| 14 | Parents' comments and suggestions | | | | | | |
| 15 | Class-size | | | | | | |
| 16 | The department and/or school heads | | | | | | |
| 17 | Externally mandated standardized tests | | | | | | |

Comments:

4. Change-source connections

Based upon your own experience, show the link between the sources of change and the teaching practices that are applicable to you by writing the number of source(s) in the space provided next to the practice. You may associate a practice to more than one source.

| No | Sources of change |
|----|--|
| 1 | Feedback from supervisor |
| 2 | Student feedback |
| 3 | Keeping a teaching journal |
| 4 | Through trial and error |
| 5 | Collaboration with colleagues |
| 6 | Self-discovery |
| 7 | Attending in-service courses |
| 8 | Tired of doing the same thing |
| 9 | Use of new textbooks |
| 10 | Implementing new curriculum |
| 11 | Classroom investigation/research I conducted |
| 12 | Contact with others who triggered a change in me |
| 13 | Attending seminars/conferences/workshops |
| 14 | Parents' comments and suggestions |
| 15 | Class-size |
| 16 | The department and/or school heads |
| 17 | Externally mandated standardized tests |

| Changes in practice | Source(s) number |
|--|------------------|
| Increasing student-talk in class | |
| Using more tasks-based and student –generated projects than pattern drilling | |
| Including group work strategies | |
| Implementing lesson plans more effectively | |
| Addressing learners' different styles | |
| More efficient use of class time | |
| Using supplementary materials other than the textbook | |
| Becoming better able to implement the curriculum guide lines as intended | |
| Integrating language elements through content | |
| Having more personalized or one-to-one interactions with students | |
| Taking new roles in class such as guide, coach or parent | |
| Feeling more competent in relation to writing student tests | |
| Increasing your proficiency in English | |
| Being more receptive to comments and feedback on your teaching | |
| Gaining a better understanding of your teaching philosophy or the principles that guide your practices | |
| Being better able to establish constructive dialogue with parents | |
| Being more confident about the effectiveness of your teaching | |

استبيان عن طرق تغيير وتطوير أداء المدرسين

1- معلومات عامة عن خلفية المدرس

1. الجنس: ذكر أنثي

2. المؤهلات العلمية:

- () شهادة تدريب تربوي في
- () دبلوم في
- () ليسانس / بكالوريوس في
- () ماجستير في
- () دكتوراة في
- () مؤهلات أخرى

3. عدد سنوات الخبرة في مجال التدريس

حدد عدد سنوات الخبرة في المجالات التعليمية التالية:

مدارس عربية..... مدارس تجريبية..... لغات..... دولية..... أخرى.....

4. نوع المدرسة التي تعمل بها حالياً:

مدارس عربية..... مدارس تجريبية..... لغات..... دولية..... أخرى.....

5. المرحلة التعليمية التي تعمل بها الآن:

الابتدائية..... الإعدادية..... ثانوية..... أخرى.....

6. مادة (أو مواد) التدريس الحالي:

لغة إنجليزية..... مواد أخرى باللغة الإنجليزية (يرجى التحديد).....

2- التطور في أداء المدرس

انظر في خبراتك العملية والنظرية في مجال عملك بالتدريس ثم قيم مستوي التغيير الذي طرأ عليك في الجوانب التربوية المدرجة أدناه، بوضع علامة (√) تحت العبارة الأنسب لوصف وضعك.

| م | عناصر تربوية / تعليمية | لا تغيير | قليلاً من التغيير | تغيير إلى حد ما | كثيراً من التغيير | تغيير كثير جداً | غير قابل للتقييم |
|----|--|-------------|----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | حث الطلبة علي المناقشة والحوار أكثر داخل الصف؟ | | | | | | |
| 2 | الميول الي استخدام المشروعات والأنشطة التعليمية التي يعدها الطلاب؟ | | | | | | |
| 3 | حث الطلبة علي العمل في مجموعات؟ | | | | | | |
| 4 | تنفيذ التحضير اليومي بشكل أكثر فاعلية؟ | | | | | | |
| 5 | التعامل مع طرق التعلم المختلفة بشكل أفضل؟ | | | | | | |
| 6 | إدارة وقت الحصة بشكل أحسن؟ | | | | | | |
| 7 | زيادة في استخدام الكتب الخارجية والأدوات التكميلية إلي جانب الكتاب المقرر؟ | | | | | | |
| 8 | قدرة اكبر علي تحقيق أهداف المنهج حسب الخطة؟ | | | | | | |
| 9 | تدريس عناصر لغوية من خلال المادة التعليمية؟ | | | | | | |
| 10 | خلق علاقات بناءة أكثر مع الطلبة؟ | | | | | | |
| 11 | القيام بادوار إضافية داخل الفصل غير دورك كمدرس كدور ولي الأمر/ المرشد؟ | | | | | | |
| 12 | زيادة في الشعور بالثقة في وضع الامتحانات؟ | | | | | | |
| 13 | زيادة في مهارتك في اللغة الإنجليزية؟ | | | | | | |
| 14 | زيادة في تقبلك لملاحظات وتعليقات الآخرين علي عملك؟ | | | | | | |
| 15 | تعمق أكثر في فهمك لفلسفاتك ومبادئك التي توجه أدائك في التدريس؟ | | | | | | |
| 16 | زيادة في القدرة علي التفاهم والحوار البناء مع أولياء الأمور؟ | | | | | | |
| 17 | زيادة في ثقتك في فاعليتك في الشرح والتدريس؟ | | | | | | |

ملاحظات

3- مصادر التطوير والتغيير

مدرج أدناه مصادر تغيير عدة تؤثر في الأداء التربوي للمعلم. من فضلك حدد إلي أي مدى يتأثر أدائك بكل من هذه المصادر . يمكن إضافة تعليق أو شرح لإجابتك أدنى الصفحة.

| م | مصادر تغيير الأداء | لا تأثير | تأثير قليل | بعض التأثير | تأثير كبير | تأثير كبير جداً | لا ينطبق للتقييم |
|----|----------------------------------|----------|------------|-------------|------------|-----------------|------------------|
| 1 | ملاحظات الموجه | | | | | | |
| 2 | ملاحظات وردود فعل الطلاب | | | | | | |
| 3 | كتابة مذكرات شخصية | | | | | | |
| 4 | عن طريق المحاولة والخطأ | | | | | | |
| 5 | التعاون مع الزملاء | | | | | | |
| 6 | عن طريق اكتشاف الذات | | | | | | |
| 7 | حضور دورات تدريبية | | | | | | |
| 8 | الملل من التكرار في العمل | | | | | | |
| 9 | استعمال كتب دراسية جديدة | | | | | | |
| 10 | تطبيق مناهج جديدة | | | | | | |
| 11 | إجراء دراسة داخل الصف | | | | | | |
| 12 | احتكاك بأخرين أثروا في أدائي | | | | | | |
| 13 | حضور مؤتمرات وورش عمل | | | | | | |
| 14 | ملاحظات واقتراحات أولياء الأمور | | | | | | |
| 15 | حجم الفصل الدراسي (العدد) | | | | | | |
| 16 | القسم الأكاديمي أو إدارة المدرسة | | | | | | |
| 17 | اختبارات الشهادات العامة | | | | | | |

ملاحظات

4- العلاقة ما بين التطور ومصدره

بين العلاقة ما بين التغيير الذي طرأ على أدائك في التدريس ومصدر هذا التغيير. يرجى كتابة رقم المصدر في الخانة المقابلة لكل أداء ويمكن كتابة أكثر من مصدر للأداء الواحد

| الرقم | مصدر التغيير / التطور |
|-------|----------------------------------|
| 1 | ملاحظات الموجه |
| 2 | ملاحظات وردود فعل الطلاب |
| 3 | كتابة مذكرات شخصية |
| 4 | عن طريق المحاولة والخطأ |
| 5 | التعاون مع الزملاء |
| 6 | عن طريق اكتشاف الذات |
| 7 | حضور دورات تدريبية |
| 8 | الملل من التكرار في العمل |
| 9 | استعمال كتب دراسية جديدة |
| 10 | تطبيق مناهج جديدة |
| 11 | إجراء دراسة داخل الصف |
| 12 | احتكاك بأخرين أثروا في أدائي |
| 13 | حضور مؤتمرات وورش عمل |
| 14 | ملاحظات واقتراحات أولياء الأمور |
| 15 | حجم الفصل الدراسي (العدد) |
| 16 | القسم الأكاديمي أو إدارة المدرسة |
| 17 | اختبارات الشهادات العامة |

| الرقم | عناصر الأداء التربوي |
|-------|--|
| 1 | حث الطلبة علي المناقشة والحوار أكثر داخل الصف؟ |
| 2 | الميول إلي استخدام المشروعات والأنشطة التعليمية التي يعدها الطلاب؟ |
| 3 | حث الطلبة علي العمل في مجموعات؟ |
| 4 | تنفيذ التحضير اليومي بشكل أكثر فاعلية؟ |
| 5 | التعامل مع طرق التعلم المختلفة بشكل أفضل؟ |
| 6 | إدارة وقت الحصة بشكل أحسن؟ |
| 7 | زيادة في استخدام الكتب الخارجية والأدوات التكميلية إلي جانب الكتاب المقرر؟ |
| 8 | قدرة اكبر علي تحقيق أهداف المنهج حسب الخطة؟ |
| 9 | تدريس عناصر لغوية من خلال المادة التعليمية؟ |
| 10 | خلق علاقات بناءة أكثر مع الطلبة؟ |
| 11 | القيام بادوار إضافية داخل الفصل غير دورك كمدرس كدور ولي الأمر/ المرشد؟ |
| 12 | زيادة في الشعور بالثقة في وضع الامتحانات؟ |
| 13 | زيادة في مهاراتك في اللغة الإنجليزية؟ |
| 14 | زيادة في تقبلك لملاحظات وتعليقات الآخرين علي عملك؟ |
| 15 | تعمق أكثر في فهمك لفلسفاتك ومبادئك التي توجه أدائك في التدريس؟ |
| 16 | زيادة في القدرة علي التفاهم والحوار البناء مع أولياء الأمور؟ |
| 17 | زيادة في ثقتك في فاعليتك في الشرح والتدريس؟ |

Appendix B

Teacher Interview Questions

Category 1: Professional development experiences

I am interested in exploring your experiences and views on teachers' involvement in professional development (PD) activities as a way for extending their field-related knowledge and improving their teaching practices.

Teachers' willingness to pursue PD, and the extent to which PD activities are perceived as rewarding differ among teachers and teaching contexts. Some teachers might have no official obligation to participate in any PD opportunity but they do so merely for personal reasons (e.g., the love of knowledge, enjoyment or personal satisfaction). Others might not perceive a need for involvement in some PD work and so, they don't bother with it. Another group of teachers may be willing to take part in PD activities for professional and economic purposes. In some contexts, upgrading skills and extending field-related knowledge is a survival issue for teachers if they are to maintain their status or to climb a professional ladder within their work community. However, teacher perceptions and attitudes towards this issue can change over time and contexts and be influenced by internal and external factors and needs.

1. Reflecting on your own teaching experience, I would like to know first, if there has ever been a place for PD opportunities during your years of teaching.
2. If yes, could you describe/name the PD activities in which you were involved? (For negative responses go to question 16 in this category) The following list of questions will be repeated for each PD experience mentioned by the participant.
3. Could you describe the type of teaching position you had at the time of this particular professional development experience?

4. I wonder how these PD opportunities became available to you. Was it something organized by your school, the ministry or other? Through self-initiated efforts? Advice/help from a colleague?
5. Having participated in (the PD options described; e.g., a courses at the American University or a TESOL workshop at Career Development Center, Cairo), I would like to know your impression about them. How effective, useful and/or practical was the experience?
6. What was the area or focus of the program?
7. How effective was the experience? For example, was the content interesting or new to you?
8. Were you able to incorporate the knowledge presented into your everyday teaching practices?
9. Can you describe some of the activities incorporated into the PD itself that characterize this experience?
10. Did it lead to a change or improvement in your teaching?
11. What type of change might have resulted from that PD experience?
12. Could you comment on the cost of this particular professional development opportunity (to be named). How much did it cost? Who paid for it?
13. Do you think that experience of (X) was cost-effective, i.e. the knowledge and experience gained, are worth the money and efforts put for it?
14. And would you be willing to assume the cost for the same or similar opportunities?

15. There are many ways through which teachers can broaden their knowledge, enhance their skills and develop greater expertise in teaching. Based on your experience and familiarity with the field of English language teaching in Cairo, what PD opportunities are available for you (through your school or the wider professional community) if you wanted to improve some aspect of your teaching?

For negative “no” answers obtained to Q. 1:

16. There are many ways through which teachers can broaden their knowledge, enhance their skills and develop greater expertise in teaching. Based on your experience and familiarity with the field of English language or English-medium teaching in Cairo, what PD options other than the one(s) you pursued might be available for you (through your school or the wider professional community if you wanted to improve some aspect of your teaching?)

Category 2: Preference of PD options and areas of needs

After having worked for several years, at a point of time, teachers become aware of their own strengths and weaknesses in their teaching. Sometimes they may also see a necessity to change in order to keep up with changes in their environment.

1. In your situation, if you had the opportunity to upgrade your skills or improve your performance in a particular area, would you be willing to do so?
2. If yes, in what area(s) might that be? And why? (Participant here will be presented with a list of topics on language teaching)
3. In your situation, what type of PD option(s) might you choose for that area?
4. Could you comment on why (I will name the type of options the participant specified) might work best in your case? In other words what factors might you consider when

deciding on pursuing a particular PD option? (For example, personal needs, market demands, cost, accessibility, time, distance...etc.)?

A number of schools in Cairo provide/make available some sort of staff development opportunities for their teachers. For example they organize workshops on particular topics, arrange for regular visits of PD consultants and teacher trainers, facilitate teacher group activities, make resources available and accessible to teachers, pay the full or partial costs of a PD course, or somehow award teachers in recognition of efforts along this path.

5. I would like to know if you have worked in schools that foster or encourage teachers to participate in any sort of PD practice.
6. Think of the times when you were applying for positions at your school or others. Were you ever asked to provide evidence of participation in any sort of PD activity?
7. And could you comment on how flexible/strict your employers were in this regard?

أسئلة مقابلة المدرسين

* تحية وتعارف

1. هل أتاحت لك فرصة التدريب خلال السنوات الماضية لغرض التحسين في الأداء ؟
2. (في حالة الإجابة بنعم) هل يمكنك وصف الأنشطة التدريبية التي اشتركت بها (في حالة بالنفي يتم التوجه إلي السؤال 16) ؟
3. هل يمكنك التعقيب علي وضعك الوظيفي آنذاك ؟
4. كيف تمكنت من الحصول علي تلك الفرص ؟
5. ما هو انطباعك عن هذه الفرص ؟
6. ماذا كان الموضوع في تلك الدورات أو الفرص التدريبية ؟
7. ما مدي فعاليتها ؟
8. هل استخدمت أو طبقت المعلومات التي قدمت لك في تلك الدورات ؟
9. ما هي بعض الأنشطة التي قام بها المدربون أو المدرسون أثناء حضور تلك الدورات ؟
10. هل أدت الفرصة التدريبية إلي تحسين أو تغيير في أدائك في الفصل ؟
11. ما التغيير الذي نتج عن هذه الخبرة ؟
12. هل يمكنك التعليق علي تكاليف هذه الدورات ؟
13. هل كانت التكاليف في محلها ؟
14. هل لديك استعداد لتحمل هذه التكاليف في حالة وجود فرص تدريبية أخرى ؟
15. هناك طبعاً طرق عديدة يستطيع المدرس من خلالها تحسين أداءه. من خلال خبرتك ، إن أردت أن تحسن أحد جوانب أدائك التربوي.. هل هناك فرص متاحة أخرى غير التي اشتركت بها سواء داخل المدرسة أو خارجها ؟
16. (سؤال خاص لمن يجيب بالنفي في السؤال الأول) هناك طرق عدة يستطيع المدرس من خلالها تحسين أداءه... بناء علي خبرتك كمدرس... ما هي الفرص التدريبية المتاحة لك سواء داخل المدرسة أو خارجها إن أردت تحسين جانب ما فيما يخص عملك؟
17. إذا أتاحت لك فرصة تدريب لتحسين أدائك في العمل ... هل تقبلها؟
18. إن أردت تحسين جانب معين من أدائك في العمل... فأني جانب... ولماذا؟
19. ما هي انسب أنواع التدريب في وضعك الحالي وفيما يخص الجوانب التي ذكرتها؟
20. ولماذا تعتبر (نوع التدريب الذي ذكرت) الأنسب أو الأفضل ؟
21. هل عملت في مدرسة تشجع بطريقة عملية واضحة مشاركة المدرس في أنشطة تهدف إلي رفع مستوي معرفته وأدائه في العمل؟
22. عند تقدمك للحصول علي وظيفة مدرس... هل طلب منك قط ما يفيد اشتراكك أو اجتيازك أي نشاط تدريبي مهني بعد المؤهل الجامعي؟
23. في رأيك ... ما هي نظرة الإدارة المدرسية الي ضرورة التدريب والتطوير المهني لمدرسيهم؟

Appendix C

School Administrator Interview Questions

Researcher introduction: Well-prepared, experienced teachers are perceived as assets to their schools. I am exploring the extent to which teachers and their schools are interested in investing in teachers' competencies through various avenues of professional development (PD) as a way of improving the educational conditions and instructional effectiveness of their institutions. There are numerous ways, in and out of school, through which teachers can capitalize on their experiences and expand their knowledge about teaching their subjects. For example, (show list of activities). However, due to many circumstances (such as, cost, time, resources, etc.) pursuing PD is weighed differently within various school settings. You might find in some schools that the idea of PD is of a marginal concern, where as in others it is a central issue. In some situations, schools require teachers' to have further PD experiences as a condition for recruitment. A number of schools in Cairo provide/make available some sort of staff development opportunities for their teachers. For example they organize workshops on particular topics, arrange for regular visits of PD consultants and teacher trainers, facilitate teacher group activities, make resources available and accessible to teachers, pay the full or partial costs of a PD course, or somehow reward teachers who take part in PD activities.

Now, I would like to know about the significance and place given to teachers' professional development in your school.

1. Based on your experience and familiarity with the field of English language teaching and English-medium teaching in Cairo, what type of PD opportunities are available for your school teachers for improving aspects of their teaching competencies and/or upgrading their field-related knowledge?

From your perspective as a school principal, I am interested in your comments on the PD options available.

2. First, could you explain how you find out about the different PD opportunities provided in the wider educational community? For example, do you search yourself for particular programs as needed? Are you occasionally contacted by the Ministry or a supervisory firm in this regard? Or do PD providers publicize their offers and make themselves accessible to those interested?
3. How useful/practical do you find them (each one) to your school?
4. How accessible are these options to you for school purposes? Could you comment on the possible constraints and/or flexibility in involvement?
5. Is your school or are you as a school (principal, owner, or administrator) under any pressure or obligation to involve your staff in any type of PD activity?
6. Is the ongoing involvement of teachers in various PD activities a consideration in the hiring process?
7. Are your teachers obligated in any way (by your school policy, educational tradition or other) to participate in teacher PD activity?
8. Are your school teachers involved in any type of PD activity while working here?
9. If yes, what type of activities are they?
10. And how often might they engage in (the type of activity specified)?
11. Is your teachers' involvement arranged through school in any way?

12. In your school, who makes decisions about pursuing PD activities? Is it an individual teacher choice or an administrative-school issue that you address through a collective approach?
13. What procedures do you follow in the process of teacher evaluation? For example observation/assessment or completion of PD program.
14. What are the school expectations for teachers' improvement plans? Or
15. Some people would say that teachers who fall behind in their PD are directly responsible for this. What would you say to them?
16. Does your school play a role in encouraging teachers to participate in PD activities? If yes, what might that role be?
17. If you were to organize or arrange for a PD activity for teachers in your school, what option might you choose?
18. What would you focus this PD on?
19. From your experience as a (principle, administrator...) what do you recommend should be done at the school level towards the issue teacher PD?

أسئلة مقابلة الإداريين بالمدرسة

* تحية وتعارف

1. من خلال خبرتك في المجال التربوي ... أود أن أعرف ماذا يفعل المدرس إن أراد تحسين جانب من جوانب أداءه في العمل؟ وما هو المتاح له؟
2. في مجال تدريب مدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية ... كإدارة للمدرسة كيف تتاح لكم فرصة العلم. بوجود برامج تدريبية معينة؟ مثلاً ... هل يتصل بكم أحد من الإدارة التعليمية أو جهة أخرى بهذا الخصوص؟ هل يتصل بكم المدربون أنفسهم لعرض خدماتهم؟ أم هل يتم ذلك عن طريق المدرس نفسه...؟
3. إلي أي مدى ترى فرص التدريب المتاحة حالياً عملية ومفيدة للمدرسة؟
4. إلي أي مدى ترى فرص التدريب متاحة للمدرسة؟ هل يمكنك التعليق علي مدى سهولة / صعوبة اشتراك المدرسة في بعض فرص التدريب؟
5. هل توفر إدارة المدرسة بأي شكل من الأشكال برامج تدريبية للتحسين في أداء المدرسين؟
6. عند تعيينكم لمدرسين، هل تنظر أو تشترط الإدارة اجتياز المدرس أنشطة تدريبية معينة في السابق؟
7. هل المدرسون ملزمون بالإشتراك في دورات أو أنشطة تدريبية بعد التعيين بالمدرسة؟
8. هل لديكم حالياً مدرسين مشتركين في دورات تدريبية؟
9. وما هي طبيعة هذه الدورات؟
10. وماذا عن استمرارية أو تكرار انضمام المدرسين إلي أنشطة تدريبية؟
11. هل تسعى إدارة المدرسة في توفير أو تنظيم دورات تدريبية للمدرسين؟
12. كيف يتم اتخاذ القرارات بشأن تدريب المدرسين أو الرفع من مستوى أدائهم؟ وهل هذا شيء متروك للمدرس أم علي مستوى المدرسة ككل، أو الإدارة؟
13. كيف تقيمون أداء مدرسيكم في المدرسة ... مثلاً عن طريق الملاحظة والتقييم... أو إتمام برنامج دراسي تدريبي معين..؟
14. أديكم توقعات أو خطط فيما يخص تحسين أداء المدرسين؟
15. البعض يقول أن المدرس وحده هو المسؤول عن حسن أداءه من عدمه ... ما رأيك؟
16. هل تعتقد أن للمدرسة دور في تشجيع المدرس علي الإشتراك في أنشطة تدريبية تحسن من أداءه... ما هو هذا الدور؟
17. لو رتبنا دورة تدريبية لمدرسيك بالمدرسة ... أي نوع من التدريب تختار (ورشة عمل، برنامج دراسي في أحد المعاهد... إلخ)؟
18. وما يكون موضوع هذا العمل التدريبي؟
19. كمدير مدرسة ... ما هي نصيحتك للمدارس والمدرسين فيما يخص رفع مستوى التدريس وجودة التعليم؟

Appendix D
Professional Development Provider Interview Questions

Category 1: Program characteristics (type, topic, length and frequency)

Researcher introduction: Over the past several years, the demand for improved English language proficiency, more effective language teaching approaches and content-based instruction has escalated in Egypt. In response to this, the education and further training of English language teachers and English-medium teachers became a component in various teacher training and professional development (PD) centers. I understand that you provide a wide range of services that address various types of needs in educational and workplace communities. I am investigating aspects of English language teachers and English-medium teacher learning; in particular, I would like to know about the training and PD opportunities offered/available to in-service teachers who teach English or through the medium of English to Grades 1- 12.

1. As a program provider/administrative, could you tell me about the role(s) or services this institution provides? (Questions A&B will be asked if information is not provided)
 - A. What are the goals of your institution?
 - B. What type of training or programs do you offer?
2. When was this program established?
3. Are there special topics or areas of focus in your programs? Or do you customize your topics according to clients?
4. Could you also comment on the length/duration of your offering? For example, short intensive courses, one-time (2-3 hour) workshop, consultations and follow-ups, etc.
5. How frequently are your (courses, workshops, etc.) offered?

Category 2: Client issues

6. Who are your clients? And how are you usually approached? Individuals, organizations, schools?
7. How do they get to know about you and your services?
8. How satisfied do you perceive your clients (teachers) to be?
9. What advice might you give your clients or teachers to maximize their benefit from your program?

Category 3: Future plans, what have you learned

10. From your experience as a provider, what do you think the ideal training program would be like?
11. Based on your experience and feedback, what changes over time might you consider in your program?

اسئلة مقدمي برامج تدريب المدرسين

* تحية وتعارف

1. بصفتك مقدم لبرنامج تدريب لمعلمين مواد اللغة الإنجليزية ... ما هي الخدمات التي تقدمونها في هذا المجال؟
* ما هي أهداف الجهة التي تعملون بها ... وما نوع التدريب الذي تقدمونه؟
2. ما هي عدد سنوات الخبرة للجهة التدريبية التي تعملون بها؟
3. هل تركزون في عملكم علي مواضيع معينة؟ ... أم تقدمون ما يوافق طلب وحاجة المتقدمين؟
4. ما هو متوسط المدة الزمنية التي يستغرقها كل برنامج تدريبي (ورشة عمل يوم كامل، دورة تدريبية في أسبوع ... إلخ)
5. ما مدي تكرار عروضكم وخدماتكم؟
6. من أهم عملائكم... والمتقدمين للتدريب؟
7. وكيف يتقدمون لكم ... بشكل شخصي أو عن طريق جهة العمل؟
8. كيف يتم التعرف عليكم وعلي خدماتكم؟
9. إلي أي مدي تجدون عملائكم راضين عما تقدمونه من برامج تدريبية؟
10. بما تتصح عملائكم لتعظيم الفائدة من برامجكم؟
11. في رأيك ... كيف يكون البرنامج الأمثل لتدريب المدرسين؟
12. بناء علي خبرتكم في مجال التدريب ... هل هناك خطط حالية لتطوير برامجكم التدريبية؟ وما هي أهم العلامات المميزة لعملية التطوير؟

Appendix E

Letter of Information and Administrative Consent (School District, Cairo Office)

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

To: Director of School District Office
The Ministry of Education, Cairo

Dear Mr.

I am a graduate student in the department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT). I am planning to conduct a research study under the supervision of Professor Antoinette Gagné, in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at OISE/UT. The research is entitled: *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-Medium school teachers in Egypt*. In order to begin this study, I request your approval and written consent.

The study examines the role and impact of various field related experiences on the professional development and growth of English language (EL) teachers and English-medium subject (EMS) teachers working in various elementary and secondary schools within the public and the private sector. It focuses on the perspectives of teachers, teacher educators and school principals and addresses the following issues: how teachers' practices change over time; the type of professional development experiences that lead to positive change in English language teaching; the type of professional development opportunities currently available to English language teachers in Cairo; and teachers' perceived needs for development. The design of the study involves 80 teachers to complete a 10-15 minute survey on these topics; and at least two teachers from each school to attend two one-hour interviews on separate occasions, in which they will be requested to expand on the examined issues. It also requires 8-12 school principals/heads to participate in a 40-60 minute interview on their perspectives and roles in the ongoing training and professional development of EL/EMS teachers in their schools. The data collection will take from August 2006 to January 2007. The findings of this study will provide field recommendations for the improvement of English language teachers and professionals in the field, and lead to avenues for strengthening collaboration between teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and school principals/administrators which could serve in raising the effectiveness of English language teaching and teacher education in Cairo.

I plan to contact some school principals in Cairo to invite their participation, obtain their administrative consent to approach teachers for the purpose of this study. I will also need to provide school principals and teachers with letters and consent forms informing them about the study, the roles they are expected to perform, and the risks and benefits involved. Participation in this study is completely voluntary; teachers and principals are under no obligation to participate. They may withdraw at any time, for any reason, and they may refuse to answer any of the questions included in the survey and interview. I will keep all information about individuals fully confidential. No individual information will be conveyed to other teachers, principals or administrators. Participants will at no time be judged or evaluated, and will at no time be at risk of harm. I will replace

participants' names with false names to conceal their identity, and in the write up I will delete any information that might identify individuals. I will store the data from the surveys and interviews in a locked filing cabinet in my home then destroy them five years after the study is completed.

Taking part in the study will benefit participants as it will engage them in reflecting on their professional experiences and learning opportunities, which may help them better understand aspects of their field related practices and will encourage them to explore alternative approaches to improving their professional productivity and effectiveness. As a reward for participation, I plan to provide participants, upon request, with a summary of the complete study, which they may find informative. Furthermore, I will, at no cost, offer teacher participants the opportunity to consult with me, receive input, and feedback on classroom, teaching and professional development issues of need/interest to them. I will offer school principals/administrators free consultations as well as one workshop or a session on a topic of interest to their school, the details of such (time, place topic, etc) will be agreed upon by myself and the participating party. These benefits would take place after the data collection procedure.

Should you have further inquiries about the study, you may contact me or my advisor at the following addresses:

Student Investigator
 Hana El-Fiki
 xxx-xxx-xxxxHel-Fiki@xxx
 Thesis Supervisor
 Professor Antoinette Gagné
 xxx-xxx-xxxx
 agagne@xxx

If you approve my conducting this research, please sign and date below.



I have read Hana El-fiki's letter requesting approval to conduct her study: *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-Medium school teachers in Egypt* and I approve recruiting teachers and principals from the public school sector in Cairo.

Name: Signature

Title: Date

Teaching Approaches and sources of change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt.

.OISE/UT Antoinette Gagné

.2008 2007

Antoinette Gagné :

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Appendix F

Letter of Information and Administrative Consent for School Administration

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

To:
Principal/Head ofschool

I am a graduate student in the department of Curriculum, Teaching and Learning at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT). I have the School District's permission to conduct a research in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at OISE/UT. The research is entitled: *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt* and I will be working under the supervision of Professor Antoinette Gagné of OISE/UT. I am hereby requesting your administrative consent enabling me to seek teachers and administrators to participate in my study.

The study examines the role and impact of various field related experiences on the professional development and growth of English language (EL) teachers and English-medium subject (EMS) teachers working in various elementary and secondary schools within the public and the private sector. The study focuses on the perspectives of teachers, teacher educators and school principals and addresses the following issues: how teachers' practices change over time; the type of professional development experiences that lead to positive change in English language teaching; the type of professional development opportunities currently available to English language teachers in Cairo; and the extent to which teachers are aware of existing resources and means for development and growth in their professional communities. The design of the study involves 80 teachers to complete a 10-15 minute survey on these topics; and at least two teachers from each school type to attend two separate one-hour interviews in which they will be requested to expand on the examined issues. It also involves 8 to 12 school principals/heads to participate in a 40-60 minute interview on their perspectives and roles in the ongoing training and professional development of EL/EMS teachers in their schools. Findings of this study may provide field recommendations for the improvement of English language teachers and professionals in the field, and lead to avenues for strengthening collaboration between teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and school principals/administrators which could serve in raising the effectiveness of English language teaching and teacher education in Cairo.

I will provide school principals/heads and teachers with letters and consent forms informing them about the study, the roles they are expected to perform, and the risks and benefits involved. In the letters I will provide my contact numbers and address for questions and arranging meetings with those willing to participate. I will also be asking that the consent form be completed, signed and returned to me in case of participants' agreement to take part of the in the study. Participation is completely voluntary; teachers, heads and principals are under no obligation to participate. They may withdraw at any time, for any reason, and they may refuse to answer any of the questions included in the survey and interview. I will keep all information about individuals fully confidential.

Teaching Approaches and sources of change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt.

.OISE/UT Antoinette Gagné

.2008 2007

Antoinette Gagné :

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Appendix G
Telephone Script for Principals

“May I please speak to..... Good morning/afternoon. My name is Hana El-fiki. I am a doctoral student at OISE/UT and currently conducting a research towards my thesis. I have permission from the Cairo School district Office to conduct this research and wonder if you would be interested to participate? My research is about the professional development of English language school teachers. I will be asking school heads and teachers questions about the ongoing training of teachers and asking teachers to complete a 15 minute survey. My intention is to come to your school for a brief visit, at a time convenient for you to provide you with written details about the study and my contact numbers if you would be willing participate. Would you be interested in that?.....[answer any questions]. What is a convenient time for you?.....[arrange meeting time]. Thank you very much and I look forward to meeting with you then.”

/ /

Appendix H
Telephone Script for Initial Contact with Providers

“May I please speak with..... Good morning/afternoon. My name is Hana El-fiki. I am a doctoral student at OISE/UT. I’m currently conducting a research study towards my thesis. My research is about the needs and options of professional development for English language school teachers. It explores these issues from the perspectives of teachers, school principals and teacher educators or professional development providers. I am calling to invite your participation. Would you be willing to take part in the study? I will be asking you questions about your perception of, and role in the ongoing training of teachers in Cairo. My intention is to come to meet you briefly, at a convenient time for you to provide you with written details about the study and my contact numbers for arranging a 40-60 minute meeting if you would be willing participate. Would you be interested in that?.....[answer any questions]. What is a convenient time for you?.....[arrange meeting time]. Thank you very much and I look forward to meeting with you then.”

Appendix I

Letter of Information to School Principals / Heads

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a graduate student at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT). I am currently conducting a research in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at OISE/UT, entitled: *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt*, and will be working under the supervision of Professor Antoinette Gagné of OISE/UT. I am hereby inviting your participation in my study which focuses on the professional development and needs of English language teachers as well as English-medium school teachers.

The research aims to explore the impact of various professional development opportunities and field-related experiences on teachers' change and professional growth. The findings of this study will provide field recommendations for the improvement of English language teachers and professionals in the field, and lead to avenues for strengthening collaboration between teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and school principals/administrators which could serve in raising the effectiveness of English language teaching and teacher education in Cairo. Teachers of English, school principals and teacher educators are the main sources of data for this investigation. The data will be collected by means of completing surveys and/or participating in interviews.

As a school principal/head, agreeing to take part in this study will involve you in a 40-60 minute audio-taped interview in which I will ask you about your views and the school role(s) in the ongoing training and professional development of English language teachers. This interview will be scheduled in time and place that are most convenient to you between August 2006 and January 2007.

All the information you provide will be fully confidential and will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in my home; only I will have access to the data. I will protect your privacy by asking you to choose a false name for your self which will be used throughout the study procedures including data collection, analysis process as well as in all written summaries and reports. Interviews will be conducted individually; no information about individuals taking part in this study will be conveyed to others either in or out of the work community. In writing up of the study I will also obscure all identifying characteristics of individual-participants, schools and communities contained in the data that would potentially identify you or any participant. I will destroy the audio-tapes immediately after I transcribe them and will destroy the transcriptions five years after the research is completed.

There are no anticipated risks associated with this study. You will be at no time judged or evaluated. Participation is completely voluntary; and you are under no obligation to take part in this research. Please be advised that you may withdraw at any time for any reason, if you wish, and you may refrain from answering any interview questions.

Participating in this study will engage you in reflecting on your field related experiences as a principle and will encourage you to explore alternative approaches to improving the capacities and skills of the teachers working at your school. As a reward for your participation, I will provide you, upon request, with a summary of the study at its completion, which you may find informative. I will also make available to you, and at no cost, my services including professional consultations and a workshop or a session on a topic of need/interest to your school; such would take place after the interview procedure.

I would appreciate your assistance by agreeing to take part in this study. Should you have any questions about the research, or you wish to participate please contact me at the address provided below. I will answer all your questions and/or arrange to meet with you for the interview purpose. If you agree to participate, please complete and sign the attached informed consent form which I will obtain from you during our meeting, and a copy of which you may keep for your future reference.

Student Investigator: Hana El-fiki

xxx-xxx-xxxx

Hel-fiki@xxxx

Thesis Supervisor

Professor Antoinette Gagné

xxx-xxx-xxxx

agagne@xxxxx

Teaching Approaches and sources of change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt.

.OISE/UT Antoinette Gagné

.2008 2007

Antoinette Gagné :

Appendix J

Informed Consent Form for School Principals

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for responding to my letter requesting your voluntary participation in the study entitled *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt*. Following are the terms of agreement to participate in this research. If you wish to take part, please read carefully then sign and date below.

- This study is conducted by Hana El-fiki in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT).
- The study explores the impact of various professional experiences and field related practices on the development and change of English language teachers and English-medium subject teachers.
- You are under no obligation to participate in this study; participation is completely voluntary.
- Your role in the study is to take part in a 40-60 minute tape-recorded interview with the investigator where you will be asked about your views and your school's role in the ongoing training and professional development of the language teacher working there. The interview will be scheduled in a time and place convenient to you between August 2006 and January 2007.
- You will at no time be judged or evaluated, and will at no time be at risk of harm.
- You may withdraw at any time, or refuse to answer any questions that are part of the study procedure.
- I will protect your privacy and confidentiality by replacing your name with a false one to be used throughout the processing and analysis of data. Your name will not appear on any documents or study summaries, and no information about you will be conveyed to other individuals neither in nor out of your work community. I will conceal your identity by deleting data that might identify you, your school, or community. I will transcribe the audio-tapes and then destroy them. I will keep the transcribed data in a locked cabinet in my home; only I will have access to it. I will destroy the transcriptions by shredding five years after the research is completed.
- As a reward for your participation, I will provide you, upon request, with a summary of the study at its completion, which you may find informative. I will also make available to you, and at no cost, my services including professional consultations, and a workshop or a session on a topic of need/interest to your school; such would take place after the interview procedure.

I am fully aware of the conditions above and hereby consent to participate in the study.

Name.....School.....

Signature.....Date.....

/

Teaching Approaches and sources of change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt.

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Appendix K
Letter of Information to Teachers

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a graduate student at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT). I am currently conducting a research in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at OISE/UT, entitled: *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt*, and will be working under the supervision of Professor Antoinette Gagné of OISE/UT. I am hereby inviting your participation in my study which focuses on the professional development and needs of English language teachers as well as English-medium school teachers. I am looking for teachers who have one or more years of experience in teaching English language or other school subjects in English.

The research aims to explore the impact of various professional development opportunities and field-related experiences on teachers' change and professional growth. The findings of this study will provide field recommendations for the improvement of English language teachers and professionals in the field, and lead to avenues for strengthening collaboration between teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and school principals/administrators which could serve in raising the effectiveness of English language teaching and teacher education in Cairo. Teachers of English, school principals and teacher educators are the main sources of data for this investigation. The data will be collected by means of completing surveys and/or participating in interviews.

For you as a teacher of English or English-medium subject, agreeing to participate in this study will involve you in one or two, which ever you choose, of the following procedures: 1) Completing the attached 15 minute survey where you will be asked to respond to items on your perception of change over time in your teaching practices and the source of that change. 2) Participating in two one-hour audio-taped interviews taking place over two separate occasions. In the first session, I will discuss with you your responses to the survey items and ask you to elaborate on them. In the second, I will ask you questions about your professional development experiences, their impact on your practices and your perceived areas of need for change and development. This interview will be scheduled in time and place that are most convenient to you between August 2006 and January 2007. If you agree to participate you will be requested to sign the attached consent form specifying the nature of your involvement. Should you agree to participate in the survey procedure only, you may complete the survey and contact me on the address provided below for a brief meeting to obtain it along with the signed consent form.

All the information you provide will be fully confidential and will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in my home; only I will have access to the data. The surveys to be completed will have no identifying information and will be assigned numbers for processing their data. I will protect your privacy by asking you to choose a different name for your self which will be used throughout the study procedures including data collection, analysis process as well as in all written summaries and reports. Interviews will be conducted individually; no information about individuals taking part in

this study will be conveyed to others either in or out of the work community. In writing up of the study I will also obscure all identifying characteristics of individual-participants, schools and communities contained in the data that would potentially identify you or any other participant. I will destroy the audio-tapes immediately after I transcribe them and will destroy the completed surveys and transcriptions five years after the research is completed.

There are no anticipated risks associated with this study. You will be at no time judged or evaluated. Participation is completely voluntary; and you are under no obligation to take part in this research. Please be advised that you may withdraw at any time for any reason, if you wish, and you may refrain from answering any survey items or interview questions.

Participating in this study will engage you in reflecting on your field related experiences and will encourage you to explore alternative approaches to improving your teaching competencies and expanding your field related knowledge. As a reward for your participation, I will provide you, upon request, with a summary of the study at its completion, which you may find informative. I will provide you, at no cost, the opportunity to consult with me, receive input, and feedback on classroom, teaching and professional development issues of concern to you. I will also make available to your school, free professional services such as consultations and a workshop or a session on a topic of need/interest to your school; such would take place after the survey and/or interview procedures.

I would appreciate your assistance by agreeing to take part in this study. Should you have any questions about the research, or you wish to participate please contact me at the address provided below. I will answer all your questions and/or arrange to meet with you for the further procedures. If you agree to participate, please complete and sign the attached informed consent form which I will obtain from you during our meeting, a copy of which you may keep for your future reference.

Student Investigator: Hana El-fiki

xxx-xxx-xxxx

hel-fiki@xxx

Thesis Supervisor

Professor Antoinette Gagné

xxx-xxx-xxxx

agagne@xxxx

Teaching Approaches and sources of change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt.

.OISE/UT Antoinette Gagné

.2008 2007

Antoinette Gagné :

Appendix L
Informed Consent Form for Teachers

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for responding to my letter requesting your voluntary participation in the study entitled *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt*. Following are the terms of agreement to participate in this research. If you wish to take part, please read carefully then sign and date below.

- This study is conducted by Hana El-fiki in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT).
- The study explores the impact of various professional experiences and field related practices on the development and change of English language teachers and English-medium subject teachers.
- You are under no obligation to participate in this study; participation is completely voluntary.
- Your role(s) in the study is to complete the attached survey; and if you wish to participate in a tape-recorded interview of two sessions, one-hour each. The first session will involve you in elaborating on your responses to the survey items; and the second will focus on your professional development experiences, their impact on your practices and your perceived areas of need for change and development.
- Meetings for data collection will be scheduled in a time and place convenient to you between August 2006 and January 2007.
- You will at no time be judged or evaluated, and will at no time be at risk of harm.
- You may withdraw at any time, or refuse to answer any questions that are part of the study procedure.
- I will protect your privacy and confidentiality by replacing your name with a different one which will be used throughout the processing and analysis of data. Your name shall not appear in any document or study summaries, and no information about you will be conveyed to other individuals neither in nor out of your work community. I will also deleting data that might identify you, your school, or community. I will transcribe the audio-tapes and then destroy them. I will keep the surveys and transcribed data in a locked cabinet in my home; I will destroy them by shredding five years after the research in completed.
- As a reward for your participation, I will provide you, upon request, with a summary of the study at its completion, which you may find informative. I will also make available to you, and at no cost, the opportunity to consult with me, receive input, and feedback on classroom, teaching and professional development issues of need/interest to you; such would take place after the survey and interview procedure.

I am fully aware of the conditions above and hereby consent to participate in the study.

Nature of participation (survey only or survey and interview):

Name.....School.....

Signature.....Date.....

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Teaching Approaches and sources of change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt.

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Appendix M

Letter of Information to Professional Development Providers

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a graduate student at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT). I am currently conducting a research in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at OISE/UT, entitled: *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt*, and will be working under the supervision of Professor Antoinette Gagné of OISE/UT. I am hereby inviting your participation in my study which focuses on the professional development and needs of English language teachers as well as English-medium school teachers.

The research aims to explore the impact of various professional development opportunities and field-related experiences on teachers' change and professional growth. The findings of this study will provide field recommendations for the improvement of English language teachers and professionals in the field, and lead to avenues for strengthening collaboration between teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and school principals/administrators which could serve in raising the effectiveness of English language teaching and teacher education in Cairo. Teachers of English, school principals and professional development providers are the main sources of data for this investigation. The data will be collected by means of completing surveys and/or participating in interviews.

As a professional development provider, your participation will involve taking part in a 40-60 minute audio-taped interview in which I will ask you about the services your program provides and the role it plays in fulfilling the needs of English language teachers and English-medium subject teachers of elementary and secondary schools in Cairo. This interview, if you agree to participate, will be scheduled in time and place that are most convenient to you, between August 2006 and January 2007.

All the information you provide will be fully confidential and will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in my home; only I will have access to the data. I will protect your privacy by asking you to choose a false name for your self which will be used throughout the study procedures including data collection, analysis process as well as in all written summaries and reports. Interviews will be conducted individually; no information about individuals taking part in this study will be conveyed to others either in or out of the work community. In writing up of the study I will also obscure all identifying characteristics of individual-participants, schools and communities contained in the data that would potentially identify you or any participant. I will destroy the audio-tapes immediately after I transcribe them and will destroy the transcriptions five years after the research is completed.

There are no anticipated risks associated with this study. You will be at no time judged or evaluated. Participation is completely voluntary; and you are under no obligation to take part in this research.

Please be advised that you may withdraw at any time for any reason, if you wish, and you may refrain from answering any interview questions.

As a reward for your participation, I will provide you, upon request, with a summary of the study at its completion, which you may find informative. I will also make available to you, and at no cost, my services including assistance in, or delivering a workshop or a session on a topic of interest to you as well as others (such as taking part in a PD activity that you provide) which may be agreed upon during the course of data collection and would take place after the interview procedure.

I would appreciate your assistance by agreeing to participate in this study. Should you have any questions about the research, or you wish to participate please contact me at the address provided below. I will answer all your questions and/or arrange to meet with you for the interview purpose. If you agree to participate, please complete and sign the attached informed consent form which I will obtain from you during our meeting, and a copy of which you may keep for your future reference.

Student Investigator: Hana El-fiki

xxx-xxx-xxxx

hel-fiki@xxxxxx

Thesis Supervisor

Professor Antoinette Gagné

xxx-xxx-xxxx

agagne@xxxxxx

Teaching Approaches and sources of change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-medium school teachers in Egypt.

.OISEUT Antoinette Gagné

.2008

2007

Antoinette Gagné :

Appendix N

Informed Consent Form for Professional Development Providers

(Printed on departmental letterhead)

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for your positive response and willingness to take part in the study entitled *Teaching Approaches and sources of Change: Perceptions of English as a foreign language and English-Medium school teachers in Egypt*. Following are the terms of agreement to participate in this research. If you wish to take part, please read carefully then sign and date below.

- This study is conducted by Hana El-fiki in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the Ontario Institute for studies in Education of the University of Toronto (OISE/UT).
- The study explores the impact of various professional experiences and field related practices on the development and change of English language teachers and English-medium subject teachers.
- You are under no obligation to participate in this study; participation is completely voluntary.
- Your role in the study is to take part in a 40-60 minute tape-recorded interview with the investigator where you will be asked about the services of your program provides and the roles you play in fulfilling the needs of English language teachers and English-medium subject teachers of elementary and secondary schools in Cairo. If you agree to participate, the interview will be scheduled in a time and place convenient to you between August 2006 and January 2007.
- You will at no time be judged or evaluated, and will at no time be at risk of harm.
- You may withdraw at any time, or refuse to answer any questions that are part of the study procedure.
- I will protect your privacy and confidentiality by replacing your name with a different one to be used throughout the processing and analysis of data. Your name will not appear on any documents or study summaries, and no information about you will be conveyed to other individuals neither in nor out of your work community. I will conceal your identity by deleting data that might identify you, your school, or community. I will transcribe the audio-tapes and then destroy them. I will keep the transcribed data in a locked cabinet in my home; only I will have access to it. I will destroy the transcriptions by shredding five years after the research in completed.
- As a reward for your participation, I will provide you, upon request, with a summary of the study at its completion, which you may find informative. I will also make available to you, and at no cost, my services including assistance in, or delivering a workshop or a session on a topic of interest to you as well as others (such as taking part in a PD activity that you provide) which may be agreed upon during the course of data collection and would take place after the interview procedure.

I am fully aware of the conditions above and hereby consent to participate in the study.

Name.....School.....Signature.....

Date.....

