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The professional development of English language teachers

Investigating the design and impact of a national
in-service EFL teacher education course

PhD Dissertation in Teaching and Teacher Education

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Abstract

This mixed-methods article-based study examines the professional development of a group of experienced primary school teachers who had taught English without any EFL teacher education. The teachers then took a one-year blended-mode in-service EFL teacher education course while working three days a week. The study compares course design and course impact on the teachers. The research was based at Hedmark University College in Hamar, with field work in different areas of Norway.

Article 1 compares the design of the focus course with another course's design within the same national programme and with the design of a locally-organised course. The methods included document analysis, interviews with course designers and field work. Article 2 used statistical analysis to assess significance of changes in teachers' responses to identical pre-course and post-course questionnaires concerning their beliefs and self-reported practices. The teachers' own reflections on changes in their responses formed the qualitative material supporting the statistical data. Article 3 consisted of case studies of four teachers, each with three school visits, classroom observations, recordings of teachers' classroom language and interviews. The visits were early-course, late-course and post-course. Recordings and interviews were transcribed and analysed together with teachers' written reflections, resulting in qualitative and quantitative data.

Findings indicate that teachers experienced increased competence as EFL teachers, used significantly more English in class, became less dependent on textbooks, and encouraged more pupil activity. Confidence in oral English proficiency generally increased but some hesitancy remained concerning grammatical errors. Teachers became more aware of deeper meanings of curriculum goals, leading to losses and increases in confidence. 5th–7th grade teachers face challenges with curriculum goals for teaching language-learning strategies, and for literature, culture and society. Teachers still find difficulty in teaching pronunciation goals.

After the course, many teachers face challenges because many English-teaching colleagues have no EFL teacher education and are not familiar with communicative language teaching methods. Weaknesses in course design include lack of follow-up and connection with teachers' schools, and lack of opportunity for oral English practice and teacher collaboration

between seminars. Implications include the need to better accommodate the online blended nature of the course and need for post-course follow-up.

Sammendrag

Denne artikkelbaserte studien undersøker med en triangulering av metoder profesjonsutviklingen til en gruppe erfarne norske grunnskolelærere som har undervist i engelsk uten formell utdanning som engelsklærere. Lærerne tok et ettårig videreutdanningskurs i engelsk samtidig som de var i vanlig undervisningsjobb (tre dager i uke), og studien sammenligner kursopplegget og den innvirkning som kurset hadde på lærerne. Forskningsprosjektet ble gjennomført ved Høgskolen i Hedmarks avdeling på Hamar, med feltarbeid på forskjellige steder i Norge.

Den første artikkelen sammenligner opplegget for kurset som er fokus for studien, med opplegget for et annet kurs innenfor det samme nasjonale utdanningsprogrammet og med opplegget for et lokalt organisert kurs. Den metodiske tilnærmingen omfattet dokumentanalyse, intervjuer med de kursansvarlige og feltobservasjoner. Den andre artikkelen bruker statistisk analyse for å undersøke endringer i lærernes svar på et identisk spørreskjema før og etter kurset, med spørsmål om lærernes oppfatninger og egenrapporterte praksis. Lærerne egne refleksjoner over endringer i svarene de hadde gitt, utgjorde det kvalitative materialet som underbygget de statistiske dataene. Den tredje artikkelen består av kasusstudier av fire lærere, hver basert på skolebesøk, klasseromsobservasjoner, opptak av lærernes klasseromsspråk og intervjuer. Besøkene fant sted tidlig i kurset, underveis i kurset og etter kurset. Opptak og intervjuer ble transkribert og analysert sammen med lærernes skriftlige refleksjoner, og dette gav både kvalitative og kvantitative data.

Funnene tyder på at lærerne fikk økt kompetanse som engelsklærere, at de brukte vesentlig mer engelsk i klasserommet, at de ble mindre avhengige av lærebøker, og at de la opp til at elevene skulle være mer aktive. Generelt ble tilliten til egne muntlige ferdigheter i engelsk større, men en viss usikkerhet og engstelse for å gjøre grammatiske feil hang igjen. Lærerne fikk en dypere forståelse for målene i læreplanen, og dette førte dels til større, dels til mindre selvtillit. Lærerne på 5. til 7. trinn står overfor utfordringer med læringsmål for læringsstrategier og for litteratur, kultur og samfunn. Og lærerne har fremdeles vanskeligheter med å håndtere læringsmål som gjelder uttale.

Etter kurset møter mange lærere utfordringer fordi kolleger som underviser i engelsk, ikke har utdanning som engelsklærere og ikke er fortrolige med kommunikative metoder i språkundervisningen.

En av svakhetene ved kursopplegget er at det ikke er noen tilknytning til skolene der lærerne arbeider, og heller ingen oppfølging av lærerne etter kurset. Dessuten er det ikke lagt opp til at lærerne kan få praktisert muntlig engelsk og samarbeide med hverandre mellom seminarene.

Funnene i studien impliserer blant annet at det er behov for bedre å tilpasse blandingen av nett- og samlingsbasert kursopplegg og for å ha en oppfølging av lærerne etter kurset.

Preface

One chapter in my life comes to a close and another one opens. This has been a demanding but also very interesting and stimulating project. As I now prepare to start working again as an educator of English teachers, I feel that there is a vast gap between the theoretical knowledge in which I have immersed myself, and the practical day-to-day needs of the teachers who I will be meeting. Will I now be a better teacher educator than before I started the Ph.d? It seems like a strange question to be asking. Hopefully, in time I will become better. I also hope that this study will prove useful to others.

There are a number of people who have helped me since I started in the dark and cold in January 2013. First and foremost I would like to thank my wife Thalia for her unfailing support throughout the last three and half years. I want to thank the teacher educators on the course which is the focus of this study for giving me the chance to do this research. I also want to thank Anne-Line Graedler for supporting me as my supervisor during the first period. Thank you to Juliet Munden for the mid-way opposition and to Tale Guldal for the 90% opposition. Both were very helpful. Thanks also to Petter Dyndahl, Karianne Hagen and Ragnhild Narum.

I am indebted to Lars Anders Kulbranstad for taking over as main supervisor and guiding me safely through to the end. I have been extremely fortunate to have had Glenn Ole Hellekjær and Simon Borg as co-supervisors, especially in the period when I was without a main supervisor. All in all I can't imagine I could have had a stronger team. Finally, I want to thank Donna Stevens for proof-reading and for fixing all the small things I was too tired to fix during the final month. That was critical.

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List of Articles

Article 1:

Title: Coburn, J. (2014) Comparing varieties of in-service English language training for primary school teachers in Norway. *Acta Didactica*, 8(2), Art. 16.

Article 2:

Title: Changes in primary school teachers' cognitions and practices after a one-year in-service EFL education programme. To be submitted to: *Teaching and Teacher Education* OR *Second Language research*.

Article 3:

Title: Assessing the impact of an in-service EFL teacher education course on four Norwegian primary school teachers. To be submitted to: *Journal of Teacher Education* OR *Language teaching research*.

Table of Abbreviations

BES	Best Evidence Synthesis
CA	Cronbach Alpha
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Language: Learning, Teaching, Assessment
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CQ	Competence for Quality
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ElliE	Early Language Learning in Europe
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FL	Foreign Language
IRF	Initiation-Response-Feedback
LTE	Language Teacher Education
NDET	Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training
NNEST	Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers
NSSRC	Norwegian Social Science Research Council
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PD	Professional Development
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TEYL	Teaching English to Young Learners
TLA	Teachers' Language Awareness

1. Introduction

1.1 Theme, Relevance and Rationale for the Research Project

“Teachers dread having to teach English.”

This quote is from an interview in the early stages of my research, where a primary school teacher expressed the situation for English in his school and local area. On hearing this teacher’s assessment, a colleague who is a very experienced teacher educator observed that the pupils themselves might also be dreading English! Indeed, the children’s drawings in the pictures below, taken from a relatively recent investigation of young children’s perceptions of English teaching in primary schools in neighbouring Sweden (Lundberg, 2012, June), illustrate how some children can experience English teaching as painfully boring and monotonous.

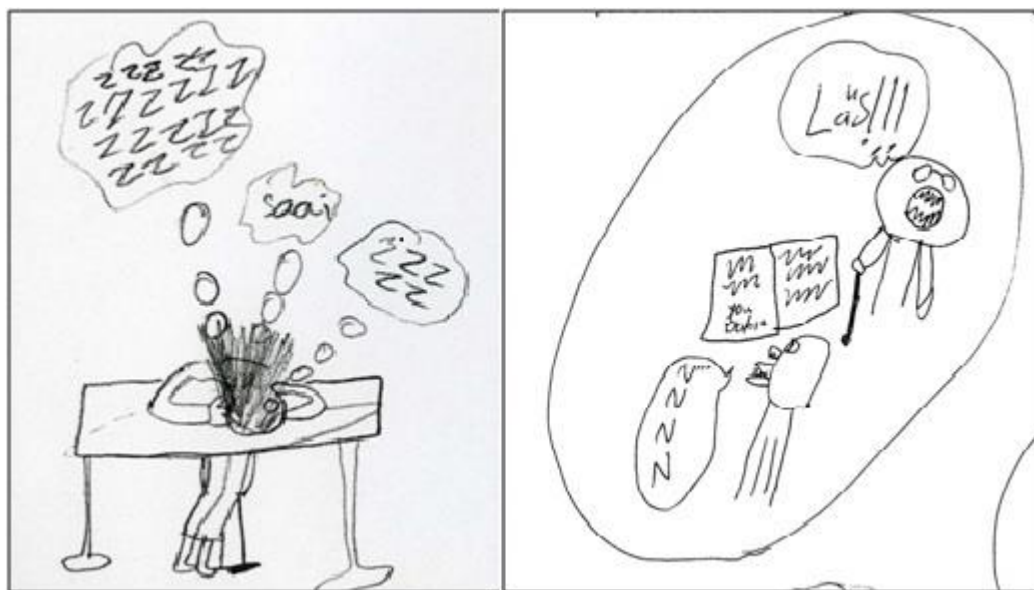


Figure 1: Young children’s drawings of their perceptions of English teaching in Swedish primary schools (Lundberg, 2012, p. 6).

Lundberg (2012, p. 6) reflects:

It is rather sad to see that a number of students seem to be very bored in the language classroom and in some of the drawings the teacher and/or the subject of English appear in the student’s dreams in a nightmarish way. The classroom drawings picture a surprisingly high amount of language methodology based on older curricula, such as language drills and translation from the target language to the

mother tongue and vice-versa. The students are often pictured sitting at a desk with a book in front of them.

I would contend that this state of affairs reflects a lack of EFL teacher education amongst many of the teachers involved in Lundberg's study. In Sweden, however, learning to teach English has been made an obligatory part of the teacher education for all future primary school teachers in that country. Even so, there is no sign that the Norwegian Ministry for Education intends to follow the Swedish example, despite the tremendous shortage of teachers with EFL education in primary schools in Norway. Instead, the Norwegian authorities are trying to increase the formal competence of those teaching English in primary schools through an in-service teacher education programme called "Competence for Quality" (henceforth: CQ).

The CQ programme started up in 2009. Teachers who are accepted for the CQ courses normally continue working three days a week in their own schools while taking the programme; they are given paid study leave two days a week. The teachers usually have their own English classes during the year so that they are able to try out new methods and ideas and reflect on the results during the year. The courses are taught through a blended-learning delivery that is principally online. There are 5 two-day, face-to-face seminar gatherings during the year where participants travel to the university or college that administers the course. In addition, a week at the Norwegian Study Centre in York is usually also offered. The national guidelines for CQ course design issued by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (NDET) from 2015 are included in Appendix A.

In order to meet the demand, the number of CQ in-service EFL courses have been expanded since the start of this research project (2013), currently providing courses for almost 300 primary school teachers a year (2015–2016). Even at this rate, the increase will only produce 3000 newly qualified English teachers over the coming decade, while more than 10,000 currently lack EFL teacher education. This is worrisome since a new law was recently passed in Norway mandating that, from 2024 onwards, Norwegian primary schools will no longer be allowed to use English teachers without a minimum of 30 ECTS (European credit transfer system) points in English. This means that a new expansion of the number of CQ courses may be needed during the coming years.

Given the expense and dimensions that this form of in-service EFL teacher education is now assuming in Norway, it is important to try to determine what impact the courses have on teachers. This is also the purpose of the present study: to investigate the effectiveness of one

of these national in-service EFL teacher education courses. More specifically, the purpose is to assess the teachers' professional development, as indicated by changes in teachers' cognitions (beliefs, knowledge, thoughts and emotions), confidence, classroom language use, as well as the changes in the methodological approaches they employ in their classrooms.

The study aims to contribute to the knowledge base of EFL teacher education and the delivery of in-service language teacher training. (Possible differences in meaning between the terms "education" and "training" are discussed in Chapter 2). Hopefully, it can assist EFL teacher educators and designers of future in-service courses to gain a better understanding of the processes underlying the professional development of English language teachers who have previously taught English without any EFL education. This is particularly relevant in a historical epoch when children are starting to learn English at an increasingly early age in primary schools around the world. There is at present a lack of research on the implications of this trend towards Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL). If this research project can make a significant contribution in this new and growing field, it will have served its purpose. Hopefully, the results will be of interest in Norway and also relevant and transferable to other countries in Europe and the rest of the world.

1.2 Project Overview, Research Question and Sub-Questions

The project investigates the professional development (PD) of EFL teachers and how such development can best be promoted through an in-service EFL course. Different conceptions of course design and content, as well as different ways of viewing teachers' PD are discussed in depth in Chapter 2. In short, PD for English teachers implies both that professional standards exist, and also that there is a need for teachers' understanding of English teaching and of themselves as English teachers, to grow (Farrell & Richards 2005, p. 4). EFL Course design depends on the particular context and the criteria which the course has to meet. Globally, this varies enormously. However, the designs of the CQ courses are delimited by the programme guidelines from NDET (Appendix A). When research on other in-service EFL courses is discussed later in the dissertation, indications of the context and criteria are given to assist with comparisons.

The research starts with an investigation of the designing of in-service EFL teacher education courses for experienced primary school EFL teachers who have been teaching

English without formal EFL qualifications beyond their own secondary school English education.

In this first phase, I compared three in-service EFL teacher education courses. Two of these courses belonged to the nationally administered CQ programme. One was the focus course, which was the subject of study for the second and third phases of this research, while the other CQ course was aimed at the same target group (primary school EFL teachers who lacked formal qualifications), but took place in another part of the country. The third course to be examined was a local initiative, fully independent of the CQ programme.

The purpose of Phase 1 was to compare the designs of the three courses in relation to what research findings and theory consider to be the optimal design for in-service EFL courses and PD for teachers.

Phase 2 of the study examined changes in the cognitions, confidence, self-reported language use and self-reported teaching practices of the primary school teachers who took the one-year CQ focus course. The analysis was based on (a) a comparison of teachers' responses to an identical pre-course and late-course questionnaire and (b) their written reflections on the changes they made in their responses. The use of statistical analysis (SPSS) of this data gave solid indications of the areas in which the course had stronger or weaker impact; these changes were clarified and illustrated through teachers' qualitative written reflections on their changes.

The third and final phase of the study consisted of case studies of four of the teachers on the same focus course. The case studies included three visits to each of the four teachers' schools, with semi-structured interviews, pre-lesson briefings, classroom observations and recordings, and post-lesson debriefings. The third round of visits took place 16 months after the course had finished. These more personalised studies gave the overall investigation added depth and a longer-term perspective that was lacking in the findings from the first and second articles. The overall research question was:

How does the impact of a Competence for Quality in-service EFL teacher education course on teachers' professional development compare with an analysis of the design of the course?

The research question was broken down into three parts with corresponding sub-questions. Each of these three parts formed the basis for an article. The sub-questions formed the research questions for each article as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Articles and research questions for each article

Article 1	What characterises the differences in the organisation, pedagogical design, evaluation and perceived outcomes of two different Competence for Quality course models vis-à-vis an independent local-regional course model?
Article 2	To what extent does participation on the English language in-service training lead to changes in: 1. teachers' beliefs about their competence as teachers in relation to curriculum goals? 2. teachers' confidence in their own English language proficiency? 3. teachers' self-reported use of Norwegian in the EFL classroom? 4. teachers' self-reported approaches to the teaching of oral proficiency?
Article 3	1. How did the course impact the four teachers' (a) classroom language (b) English teaching practices (c) confidence and (d) cognitions (knowledge and beliefs) about English teaching? 2. What was the longer-term impact of the course on the four teachers within their respective school contexts?

The findings from the three articles and their overall implications are brought together in the summary and discussion in Chapter 5.

1.3 Research Context

1.3.1 Norwegian context

In Norway, English was traditionally treated as a foreign language. However, from the 1990s onwards, its status has become more of a second language (as in other Scandinavian countries). Today, English is increasingly important in Norway through its use in business, science, and the media, including dominance on the Internet (Crystal, 2001). Competence in English is considered important in relation to humanistic values and intercultural competence, which are part of the competence goals in EFL education in Norway (Rasmussen & Lund, 2015). The teaching of English in Norway (and Scandinavia in general) has furthermore been described as a “success story” (Simensen, 2010); in international comparisons of English competence, Norwegians score very well, though in more specialised academic discourses, development is less impressive (Hellekjær, 2012).

While the expectations for English language competence in Norwegian society have grown, developments in EFL teacher education at primary school level have lagged behind. A recent survey by Statistics Norway (Lagerstrøm, Moafi, & Revold, 2014), shows that approximately 66% of those teaching English at the 1st–4th grade level and 49% of those

teaching at the 5th–7th grade level have not been educated as EFL teachers. Therefore, a total of more than 10,000 EFL teachers lack the requisite education. Indeed, the situation may deteriorate further, since only 25% of teachers between the ages of 25–40 who are presently teaching English in primary school in Norway have any EFL teacher education. In fact, older teachers who are due to retire are better qualified as EFL teachers than the younger teachers, which will further exacerbate these shortages in the near future.

Following concerns about the scale of the problem, a number of teacher educators (with responsibility for English at certain Norwegian colleges) organised themselves and wrote to the Norwegian Ministry for Education urgently requesting that in-service EFL teacher courses be made available for EFL primary school teachers without any EFL teacher education. In response, between 2000 and 2006, the Government provided some funding for these EFL teacher educators, who then designed an online in-service EFL education course and developed a variety of course materials, including videos of best practice. However, before one of the newly-designed courses could be started, a new national EFL curriculum was introduced in Norway in 2006 and the funding for the EFL teacher education in-service courses was stopped.

The new curriculum was based on communicative competence goals with clear parallels to those in the Common European Reference Framework for Language: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). According to this new curriculum, the total number of EFL teaching hours during the whole primary school period was raised from 178 to 328. These extra 150 hours were moved down from the lower secondary school EFL curriculum. An average of one lesson a week is now taught from 1st–4th grade (there is some flexibility as to how much in each year), followed by 2–3 lessons a week from 5th–7th grade. Following the introduction of the new curriculum, EFL teachers at lower secondary school level were obliged by law to have a minimum of one year of EFL teacher education, while primary school EFL teachers were still not required to have any formal EFL teacher education at all. The shift in teaching hours is being contested by some EFL teachers in lower secondary school who argue that the rise in standards, which their pupils are expected to attain, stands in contrast to the reduction in the number of teaching hours (Corneliussen & Corrigan, 2015).

In Norway, EFL teaching in primary school is done almost exclusively by generalists in the 1st–4th grades, with more semi-specialists in the 5th–7th grades. As indicated, a high

proportion of those who teach English to children in Norway have no specific EFL teacher education. Anecdotal evidence from CQ course participant teachers suggests that there are some primary school EFL teachers in Norway who are so insecure about their level of English that they do not dare to apply to take a CQ course because they do not wish to expose their lack of mastery of the subject.

Teachers' lack of oral proficiency in the foreign language being taught is associated with pupils' over-reliance on textbook use (Tsui, 2003). In Norway, research shows that both primary school EFL teachers (Drew, 2004; Charboneau, 2012) and lower secondary school EFL teachers (Drew, 2006) rely very heavily on the textbook. Other Norwegian research (Hellekjær, 2008) indicates that older pupils' poor results on English reading tests arises as a result of "too many us[ing] a counterproductive strategy of careful reading for detail which is typical of textbook reading in [L2] instruction" (p. 13).

The fact that a new law has been passed in Norway mandating formal EFL qualifications for future primary school teachers of English indicates an intention to take the problem seriously. This study investigates the extent to which the response represented by the CQ programme is adequate, by comparing the design of one CQ course and the way it impacts the PD of participant teachers.

1.3.2 Global context

A range of studies (Enever, Moon & Raman, 2009; Nikolov, 2009; Pinter, 2006; Garton, Copland, & Burns, 2011) show that steadily increasing numbers of children are being introduced to English at younger ages and that EFL instruction is often compulsory in today's primary education.

However, in a global study of primary EFL teachers' qualifications, training and career development, Emery (2012, p. 18) observes that "[m]any teachers have not been specifically trained to teach English, or to teach the level that they currently teach. This will impact on children's learning and may also lead to teachers feeling stressed in their jobs". Emery concludes that these teachers "need specific training to teach this age group".

Garton et al.'s (2011) worldwide survey concurs with Emery's observations and presents the following recommendations for future action to support teaching English to young learners:

1. The pre-service and in-service training of teachers to teach young learners needs to be considerably strengthened. The needs of in-service teachers are particularly acute, given that many did not start their careers as teachers of English or as teachers of young learners.
2. There is a need for greater opportunities for sharing ideas and experiences amongst primary school EFL teachers, both nationally and internationally.
3. The English language proficiency and skills of teachers is highly varied. There is clearly a need amongst many teachers for English language development.

(Garton et al., 2011, p. 16)

This report also suggests that Teachers of English for Young Learners (TEYL) may be as much in need of confidence as of proficiency due to the demands of new communicative curricula. These conclusions are relevant to the Norwegian situation. Even though the level of English among the Norwegian population is relatively high (Simensen, 2010), the teaching of English requires specific skills and preparation: those lacking in their English ability (particularly in their speaking and listening skills) are likely to struggle. Norwegians may be relatively good at understanding clearly spoken English, but it is primarily speaking and interactive skills that are required as a primary school EFL teacher.

1.3.3 European context

In Europe, the Early Language Learning in Europe (ElliE) research project (Enever, 2011) is the largest recent survey of the current state of affairs: it examines how policy varies across countries, the importance of individual differences between learners, the significance of the teacher's role in early language learning, the achievements of early language learners, and the influence of the school on early language learning. It finds that almost all of the current European Union countries have lowered their start-age policies for learning a foreign language since the start of the 1990s, with 13 countries starting from age seven or even earlier.

In most countries, English is the first foreign language. Just as in the global surveys, the ELLiE study (Enever, 2011) concludes that “greater investment in pre-service and in-service early primary FL teacher education is needed in many contexts if policies are to be effectively implemented” (p. 5). Furthermore, Enever (2014, p. 231) points out that “[w]hile substantial attention has been given to the introduction of English from the very start of schooling in many European countries today, there remains an insufficient supply of motivated, well-prepared teachers available and willing to meet this demand”. Enever concludes that “urgent attention should be given to more relevant guidance in the area of

primary teacher education at European level, together with a substantial increase in the provision of continuing professional development in this field” (p. 231).

Using data provided by Eurydice Network (2008), the ELLiE research notes that there are three main categories of teachers of foreign language teachers in Europe: generalist teachers, specialist teachers and semi-specialist teachers. For younger children, the teacher is typically a generalist, while semi-specialists or specialists typically teach older learners. The rationale for using a generalist for the youngest children is that “In the early phases of schooling the teacher occupies the central role of introducing the child to school-based learning and helping children to feel confident and relaxed in this new social milieu” (Enever, 2011, p. 25). At this stage, a high level of skill is needed “in planning short, engaging activities that will help children in taking those first steps towards extending their own personal sense of identity through the acquisition of an additional language” (p. 25).

The ELLiE report (Enever, 2011) concludes that “early primary FL teachers need a high level of fluency (...) together with age-appropriate methodology skills” (p. 5), and the authors express concerns about teachers’ language competency. They indicate that the level of B2 as defined by CEFR descriptors (Council of Europe, 2001), which is most commonly accepted as a minimum standard, is not being met in many places, with levels dropping as low as A2 while:

Lesson observation throughout the four years of the ELLiE study confirmed the research team’s view that a high level of fluency is particularly necessary for teaching this age group. A final recommendation (...) was that a C1 level should be the language target for all teachers, with a lower entry point of B1–B2. (Enever, 2012, p. 21)

Although no research has been conducted in Norway to investigate primary school EFL teachers’ level of fluency in relation to the CEFR descriptors, anecdotal evidence from teacher educators interviewed on this research project suggests that at the start of the CQ courses, only a small minority of teachers are at the higher C1 level, while a number of teachers are below the B2 minimum level.

1.4 Dissertation Structure

The next chapter presents a range of theoretical perspectives relevant to the study: it also gives an overview of research findings in the area of in-service EFL teacher education and continuing professional development (CPD) for teachers. The term professional development

(PD) is also used. Chapter 3 explains the mixed-methods research approach, presents the methods used at each stage of the study and discusses the validity, reliability and credibility of these methods. Chapter 4 presents summaries of the individual articles. Chapter 5 starts by presenting the overall findings and answering the research question. This is followed by a discussion of the project findings as a whole.

2. Theoretical Perspectives and Review of Research Findings

2.1 Introduction

The goal of the present study was to investigate (a) the CQ course design, and (b) the impact of the course on participant teachers' PD in terms of changes in their cognitions, confidence, classroom language use and teaching practices. The impact of the course is also related to how the teachers' PD affected and was affected by the teachers' home school contexts. In other words, the purpose was to look into change not only at the individual level, but also within the school and educational contexts. In order to achieve such a broad understanding, it was necessary to use a number of different theories, since no one theory could adequately account for the wide range of phenomena under consideration. Therefore, in the three articles, a pragmatic holistic approach was adopted, using a variety of different perspectives on teachers' PD and in-service EFL teacher education. This chapter explains some of the main sources of theoretical inspiration as well as outlines central research findings, comparing these with the design of the CQ course within the CQ programme framework.

At the most fundamental level, the teachers taking the CQ EFL courses are developing their capacity as professional EFL teachers. The main theoretical perspective should therefore be on the PD of EFL teachers. However, most of the theoretical work and research on teachers' PD has been done on teachers in general (i.e. covering all subjects), while relatively little research has specifically focused on in-service EFL teacher education. This more general theory and the international research findings on teacher development are nonetheless relevant and applicable to the narrower research field of in-service EFL teacher education. Therefore, Section 2.2 starts with a clarification of certain general terms that are commonly used in the literature relating to teachers' learning and PD. This is followed by a brief overview of central theories of how teachers' knowledge, beliefs and practices change, including reference to the influence of school and educational contexts on teacher change. Section 2.3 focuses more specifically on the PD of EFL teachers, providing a theoretical review of the course content and knowledge base for EFL teacher development. This is followed by an overview (Section 2.4) of the international research findings from the broad field of continuing professional development for teachers, and the more limited empirical

research findings in the field of in-service EFL teacher education. The chapter concludes with a summary (Section 2.5), bringing together the factors which theory and research findings from the fields of general teacher PD and EFL teacher development, indicating which factors are most important to take into consideration in relation to course design.

2.2 Teacher Development

2.2.1 Clarifying terms associated with teacher learning and development

There are a number of similar sounding terms used in the theoretical and research literature that must first be clarified and differentiated. These terms include: *teacher learning*, *professional learning*, *teacher development*, *professional development*, *continuing professional development*, *teaching training*, *in-service training* and *in-service education for teachers*.

Teachers can learn in both formal and informal settings, at work and outside work. A simple way to differentiate between *teacher learning* and *professional learning* is therefore to specify that *teacher learning* can include learning outside work, whereas *professional learning* only refers to learning at work. For example, Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) distinguish five different ways in which teachers can learn (of which the fourth and fifth points are not considered to be a part of *professional learning*):

1. Teachers learn from their own practice.
2. Teachers learn through their interactions with other teachers.
3. Teachers learn from teacher educators in their schools, and in specific teacher enhancement projects.
4. Teachers enroll independently in graduate programmes.
5. Teachers learn about teaching outside their formal professional work.

(Adapted from Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000, pp. 191–192)

The focus course might be considered as a “specific teacher enhancement project” (Point 3), but Points 1 and 2 will, to a greater or lesser extent, also be part of the teacher learning that takes place during a one-year part-time CQ course.

In the research literature, the terms *teacher development* and *professional development* are used in a somewhat different way than the term *teacher learning*. For example, Farrell and Richards (2005) describe *teacher development* as a process of growth and assert that: “Teacher-education processes derive their rationale from assumptions about the nature of teacher development and how it takes place. This field is called teacher learning.” (Farrell & Richards, 2005, pp. 5–6). This suggests that the concept of *teacher development* is broader than that of *teacher learning* and is open to different interpretations. For example, in a review of publications on *professional development* (Avalos, 2011) finds that this subject is studied and presented in many different ways, yet “always at the core of such endeavors is the understanding that professional development is about teachers learning, learning how to learn and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students’ growth” (Avalos, 2011, p. 10).

When the term *professional development* is used instead of *teacher development*, it may be to underline the fact that teaching is a profession, and that the profession has standards (See *Continuing Professional Development (CPD) frameworks for English language teachers*, 2016). The term professional development is also used in the title of this dissertation (The Professional Development of English Teachers), because the term is best-suited to cover all of the aspects of development which the study focuses on.

In addition, the term *teacher development* is generally contrasted with that of *teacher training*: this is probably the most important distinction in this section, in relation to the present research project and the design of the CQ course. For example, one authority on the development of EFL teachers, suggests that

the learning needs for *teacher training* are typically defined by a recognizable deficit in the participating teachers’ knowledge or skills. The learning aims lead to (...) a predetermined outcome (...) specified by the institution which is funding the training. Training is in this sense sometimes referred to as “top-down”. (James, 2001, pp. 151–152)

Other recognized writers in the field also note that “The content of training is usually determined by experts and is often available through standard training formats or through prescriptions in methodology books” (Farrell & Richards, 2005, p. 3).

In contrast, Farrell and Richards (2005) assert that *teacher development*

serves a longer-term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers’ understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It often involves examining different

dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review and can hence be seen as 'bottom-up'. (p. 4)

James (2001) also distinguishes between the two concepts:

In contrast to 'teacher training', *teacher development* often focuses on the extension or development of teachers' existing knowledge or skills. It may be partly or wholly initiated by teachers, and is more individualized and flexible than teacher training respect to the participating teachers. For example, learning aims and outcomes (...) are not predetermined. Teacher development in this sense is sometimes referred to as "bottom-up". (James, 2001, p. 152)

These ways of contrasting *teacher development* and *teacher training* in terms of bottom-up versus top-down and of a positive focus versus a deficit focus have parallels in the comparison of the terms *continuing professional development* (henceforth CPD) and *in-service training*.

Borg (2015) suggests that CPD should be commensurate with a "development-constructivist" ("process-product") model of teacher education, rather than a "training-transmission" ("input-output") model. For Borg, the main thrust of CPD should be to ensure that teachers "own" their professional learning, although the need for the availability of expert support is acknowledged. This could be in the form of "courses led by external trainers who provide teachers with knowledge and ideas" (Borg, 2015, p. 542). It is worth noting the positive inclusion of the term "trainers" here.

The comparisons and contrasts between the different terms described above are highly relevant to this research project, since the Norwegian educational authorities have identified a clear formal competence deficit in the primary school teachers who have been teaching English without any EFL teacher education. This implies the need for a form of training. However, the course participants are also experienced professional teachers, many of whom are likely to have well-developed general pedagogical knowledge and skills. This implies that any course should be designed in a way consistent with constructivist principles, where teachers are active participants, involved in decisions as to course content and delivery. This is a potential paradox or dilemma for teacher educators working on the Norwegian CQ course, since they are both required to train teachers to overcome a perceived knowledge and skills deficit and at the same time, avoid a top-down approach, allowing teachers to "own" their own development.

The final clarification of terms in this section concerns *in-service education for teachers* (henceforth INSET) and CPD. In most of the relatively sparse research literature on in-service training within EFL teaching, the term INSET has been used (e.g. Wedell, 2005;

Waters, 2006; Waters & Vilches, 2010; Uysal, 2012; Dawes & Iavarone, 2013), though some more recent studies focus on CPD for EFL teachers as opposed to INSET (Borg, 2015). Hayes and Chang (2012) suggest that the two terms CPD and INSET do share some common features, but also note that “where the terms are defined, in-service teacher education and training is generally held to be a subset of CPD centered on more formal, structured professional learning” (p. 111). Again, it may be helpful to consider the term training as a useful alternative within CPD, referring to guided practice under expert instruction, rather than considering training as a part of a “transmission” model of learning.

To summarize, CPD is the broadest of the terms considered in this section and is understood to refer to a wide variety of activities for teachers, with its main focus on *teacher learning*. CPD activities generally prioritize “exploration and reflection rather than methodological prescriptivism” (Borg, 2015, p. 244), thereby recognizing the relevance and value of teachers’ knowledge and experience.

2.2.2 Reflection, metacognition, collaboration and self-regulation

Common to different approaches to the subject of teacher development is the belief in the usefulness of reflective practice with its implication that “teachers can improve their own teaching by consciously and systematically reflecting on their teaching experiences” (Farrell, 2008, p. 1). However, while “many things can be learned about teaching through self-observation, many cannot, such as subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical expertise, and understanding of curriculum and materials. Professional development should therefore go beyond personal and individual reflection” (Farrell & Richards, 2005, p. 4).

Thus, while subject-matter knowledge, pedagogical expertise and an understanding of the curriculum and materials are needed to further PD (see Section 2.3), collaborative and co-operative processes are needed to help sustain individual reflection and development. In this respect, professional learning has been conceptualized as “adaptive expertise” (Hammerness et al., 2005), understood as the ability of teachers to learn from others on an ongoing basis. This implies that teachers’ self-reflections on practice can benefit both the individual teacher as well as other teachers, since “a teacher’s sense of plausibility is developed through ongoing engagement with the experience of teaching and also through interaction with other teachers’ versions of plausibility” (Mann, 2005, p. 110).

In CPD, teachers are encouraged to modify their existing beliefs and develop their practices by gradually incorporating new ideas and ways of working. There are different routes to teacher development such as classroom inquiry, action research, peer observation, lesson study, Critical Friends Groups, collaborative planning, reading groups and teacher study groups (Borg, 2015). All hold in common the view that teachers develop by studying their own practice and by using reflective processes (including metacognition, i.e. thoughts about thoughts), as the basis for evaluation and change. However, such processes require time to allow teachers to explore and develop their own classroom practices by trying out new communicative activities in EFL teaching, etc.

While reflection and metacognition are necessary to facilitate teacher change processes (Postholm, 2012), they are insufficient in themselves to guarantee teacher change because context-dependent motivational issues also influence teachers' emotional lives, their will to change and their ability to determine their own path of future development (self-regulation) (Papaleontiou-Louca, 2008; Muijs et al., 2014). These context-dependent factors include the influence of local class and school environments, such as the presence or lack of presence of other well-qualified EFL teachers. Developments within national educational systems also influence teachers, such as the decision to make formal competence in EFL teaching mandatory for all primary school EFL teachers in Norway from 2024. The following brief overview of theoretical models shows some of the main contemporary perspectives on how such change processes occur.

2.2.3 Theories of teacher change and the impact of CPD

The impact of the CQ EFL teacher education course will depend greatly on how receptive participant teachers are to the ideas and processes they encounter on the course. In other words, if they do not believe that the presented ideas are relevant to them, or if they do not think they have the capacity to put some of the new ideas into practice, their teaching is unlikely to change significantly. It is therefore important for the CQ course designers to have an understanding of the role of teacher cognitions in teacher change. Indeed, the role of teachers' cognitions in mediating teacher change is a growing field of research (Fives & Gil, 2014), though there is no agreed definition of what exactly is meant by cognitions. For example, a relatively simple definition that refers only to beliefs and knowledge has been criticized due to the implied separation of thoughts and emotions "despite the growing amount of research showing that emotions are a central factor in cognitive processes".

(Bartels, 2007, p. 3). Although understanding emotions is recognized as a critical factor in relation to understanding other persons' intentions (Vygotsky, 2000) and motivations (Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry, 2015), the term cognitions is still typically connected to thoughts and thought processes.

In the present study, cognitions are generally defined as referring to beliefs, knowledge, thoughts and emotions, though in Article 3 it was limited to knowledge and beliefs. Borg (2006a) uses an even broader definition of cognition in his model of change in language teacher cognition. He includes "beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, decision-making about teaching, learners, subject matter, materials, activities, colleagues, assessment, context" (p. 283). This representation of "elements and processes in language teacher cognition" emphasizes the "pivotal" role that cognitions play in influencing change in teachers' practices (or the lack thereof). Borg (2006a) assumes that there is a two-way (rather than unilinear) linkage between language teacher cognition and classroom and contextual factors, indicating an ongoing dynamic interchange. Borg's (2006a) model also takes into account the effect of the teacher's own schooling, including classroom experiences early in life and the teacher's broader personal educational history, in forming his or her preconceptions about teachers and teaching.

In relation to the potential impact of the CQ courses, Borg (2006a) suggests that professional coursework may influence existing cognitions (and therefore EFL teaching practices); but if these cognitions, in the form of previous knowledge and experience, are not awakened or acknowledged, the course work is likely to have less effect in changing the teacher's beliefs about teaching and his or her teaching practices. In a further development of this model, Borg (2011) suggests that teacher trainers on in-service language teacher development courses should "deliberately create opportunities for teachers to doubt their beliefs" (p. 379), by exposing them to "powerful alternative conceptions" (Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006, p. 728). If teachers also get the opportunity to try out these new conceptions in their own teaching practices, then they are more likely to become deeply internalised as the teachers' cognitions change.

Gregoire's (2003) dual-process cognition-affective model of teachers' conceptual change shares some of the same characteristics as Borg's model, and is designed to show why "teachers' beliefs about instruction are resistant to reforms that challenge their existing beliefs". It "provides a conceptual framework within which to devise a better means of advancing teachers' beliefs and support them in the process of integration" (p. 147).

Gregoire (2003) suggests that school reformers should acknowledge that teachers' identities may be at stake during CPD activities, which in turn might create resistance to change.

Consideration of how putting expected changes into practice will impact teachers' beliefs and self-images is a mediator of the extent to which teachers will decide to change or not. Teachers' decisions are also closely related to whether they consider that changing their practices will help their students learn. Subsequently, Gregoire (2003) suggests that attempts to help teachers to experience mastery experiences are "more likely to increase efficacy beliefs than are attempts at verbal persuasion" (p. 170).

Opfer and Pedder (2011) propose an approach to teacher change that attempts to integrate both the traditions of psychological research, as well as taking into account the social, cultural and political contexts of school organization. In this more complex theoretical model, the effects of PD activity are understood to depend on "the individual and school orientations to learning systems that mediate teacher learning and teacher change", where "the myriad of elements within and between these systems poses significant challenges for conducting causal studies of teacher professional learning" (Opfer & Pedder, 2011, p. 393). Borg (2015) sums up Opfer and Pedder's approach by noting that the complex ways in which teachers' "existing cognitions and experiences interact with their school systems to shape professional learning, will differ across contexts" (p. 547).

Despite this emphasis on the importance of taking into account individual contexts, Borg (2015) identifies a research consensus indicating that when certain conditions are met, PD activities can be effective across a range of contexts: On a macro-level, one condition is that teachers' PD should be understood as a "collective enterprise supported by schools and educational systems" (p. 547).

To sum up so far, this section presented central ideas and theories of CPD, suggesting that in order for a CQ course for EFL teachers to have a strong impact, it would need to place emphasis on awakening and developing participant teachers' cognitions by helping teachers to reflect both individually and collectively. Teacher educators need to assist teachers to explore new ideas and methods, while bearing in mind that teachers are less likely to accept such ideas or suggestions and use them in practice, if they find them too threatening. In the next section, specific challenges connected to in-service EFL teacher education for primary school teachers are considered.

2.3 Professional Development of Primary School EFL Teachers

2.3.1 Challenges for primary school EFL teachers

Perhaps the main challenge facing the experienced Norwegian primary school EFL teachers who take the CQ courses is that after the introduction of the national communicative curriculum in 2006, they are expected to teach English in a different way than most of these teachers were themselves taught in the 1970s or 1980s. Many of the teachers on the focus CQ course had themselves experienced EFL teachers who avoided oral activity and had very limited methodological repertoires (see Article 2). In addition, the use of English is now far more widespread, while the ability to adjust language use to various contexts and situations has become a cornerstone of communicative competence. In the new curriculum, there are no fixed texts and there was originally no clear methodological guidance so that much is left to the teachers to decide.

There is no precise agreement as to how communicative language teaching (CLT) should be defined. However, there is a consensus that a communicative approach indicates an emphasis on the development of oral skills and fluency, especially through learner-centered activities (often pair-work), and through a general emphasis on the use of English in the classroom (Butler, 2005; Orafi & Borg, 2009). It is important to emphasize that the communicative approach also applies to the teaching of writing. For example, the 2006 Norwegian national EFL curriculum included separate sections for competence goals for oral communication and written communication.

In a wide-ranging review of research into the introduction of CLT in primary and secondary school contexts generally involving non-native EFL teachers, Littlewood (2013, pp. 7–8) identified a number of challenges for teachers. Relative to the Norwegian primary school context, these can be summarized under two main headings: First, “excessive demands on teachers’ own language skills”, and second, challenges related to the need to adapt traditional teacher-fronted approaches amid “common conceptions that formal learning must involve item-by-item progression through a syllabus rather than the less observable holistic learning that occurs in communication” (Littlewood, 2013, p. 7). Other contextual influences such as resistance from parents or even other teachers may also hinder the successful implementation of a communicative approach (see Orafi & Borg, 2009).

A number of studies also show that a lack of teacher confidence and oral language proficiency is an obstacle to effective foreign language teaching (Chamberless, 2012). Others also suggest that teachers who limit instruction mainly to the textbook, relying heavily on translation and cramming, and neglecting the development of oral communicative competence, usually do so because their own lack of fluency prevents them from “orchestrating mastery experiences that foster real life communication” (Chacon, 2005, p. 13). Lack of fluency is also connected with challenges to traditional teaching approaches associated with traditional teacher-fronted grammar instruction (Li, 1998; Sato, 2002; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Research in Norway (Eikrem, 2006) has shown that primary school EFL teachers’ approaches often include a tendency towards the decontextualized cramming of vocabulary and grammar, as suggested by a teacher’s remark included in the title of Eikrem’s dissertation: “filling up hard discs”.

Murdoch argues that for non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs), “language proficiency will always represent the bedrock of their professional confidence” (Murdoch, 1994, p. 254). Foreign Language (FL) teachers who are confident in their own oral proficiency are also more likely to open up their teaching and stimulate more extensive teacher-pupil dialogue, as well as to encourage pupils to engage in oral activities together. In contrast, FL teachers who have a low level of proficiency are more likely to try to maintain control through an over-reliance on textbooks.

However, Medgyes (1992) maintains that “a deficient command of English may even have hidden advantages” and that while “natives and non-natives have an equal chance to become successful teachers” (...) “the routes used by the two groups are not the same” (Medgyes, 1992, p. 340). These “hidden advantages” include the fact the NNEST has had to learn English herself and is therefore an “imitable model” who, due to her own experience may be “more empathetic to learners’ needs and problems”, may be better able to “anticipate language difficulties”, may teach “learning strategies more effectively” and may provide “more information about the English language” (Medgyes, 1992, p. 347). Although Medgyes (1992, 2006) has helped to demystify the myth of the superiority of the native speaker as FL teacher, his comparisons concern NNESTs who are educated as EFL teachers, unlike the Norwegian primary school teachers on the CQ courses.

He argues that one advantage of the NNEST is that he or she is likely to share the same mother tongue (or main classroom language) as most learners and can therefore use this language to ease communication when necessary. However, this “advantage” can easily

become a disadvantage when over-used. Lundberg (2012) documents that for primary school EFL teachers, the English (L2) input they produce is important for the development of learners' oral production. She also notes how the teachers' code-switching (between L1 and L2) seems to negatively affect learners' oral production, and how the teachers' lack of language confidence may "rub off" on learners.

However, finding the proper balance between L1 and L2 use remains a somewhat controversial issue. The pedagogic functions of own-language (L1) use have been documented and discussed by different researchers (e.g. Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Hall & Cook, 2012), and useful delineations have been made according to the different purposes of L1 use. For example, Kim and Elder (2008) distinguish between the use of the L1 for "core goals" (teaching the target language), "framework goals" (managing the classroom situation) and "social goals" (expressing personal concern and sympathy) to explore ways in which teachers "strategically employ learners' own languages in class" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 285). The consensus seems to be that the moderate use of the L1 can be useful for "oiling the wheels" of the FL classroom by facilitating classroom management and, on occasion, for nurturing relationships between teacher and students.

Empirical research shows wide variation in NNESTs' actual use of the L1 (Chambless, 2012, p. 141). One of the causes of variation in the research is likely to be "the tendency for teachers to underestimate the extent to which they use the learners' own language" (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 283). Therefore, research on L1 use that is not based on careful observation needs to be interpreted with caution. This is one reason why I chose to observe and record teachers in their classrooms in this study, in addition to gathering their self-reports on changes in their language use.

2.3.2 Subject-matter content base and in-service EFL teacher education

Research findings and theory show that subject-matter content knowledge is a vital part of CPD (see Section 2.4.1). For example, the evidence "points to the link between activities that focus on subject-matter content and how students learn that content with increases in teacher knowledge and skills, improvements in practice, and, to a more limited extent, increases in student achievement" (Desimone, 2009, p. 184). It is therefore important to consider what theory suggests may be the optimal kind of subject-matter content needed to help the PD of primary school TEYL teachers.

Traditionally, the knowledge base of EFL teaching has been separated between “language on the one hand, and teaching on the other” (Graves, 2009, p. 117). This separation has generally been for language teaching specialists. However, in the light of the increasingly early start for EFL teaching and the subsequent worldwide increase in non-native English-speaking primary school teachers, this situation has changed. Primary teachers who are now being required to teach English are not necessarily trained as EFL teachers, nor are they normally native speakers of English (Garton et al., 2011). As previously noted, research shows that these primary school teachers typically lack self-confidence in relation to their level of language knowledge and teaching competence, especially their English language classroom skills (Butler, 2004; Llurda & Huguet, 2003; Kourieos, 2014).

Any theoretical consideration of appropriate subject-matter content therefore needs to take into account the EFL teachers’ previous backgrounds and training. In this context, Borg (2015, p. 548) points out that while EFL teacher education “has typically focused on the development of teachers’ methodological skills, it is increasingly the case (...) that improving teachers’ language proficiency is the predominant focus of INSET”.

Recently, Freeman, Katz, Gomez and Burns (2015) have rethought the notion of subject-matter knowledge for EFL teachers, with particular reference to the needs of the increasing numbers of non-native speaking generalist EFL teachers who are being required to teach the subject. They call their proposal “English-for-Teaching: rethinking teacher proficiency in the classroom”, a new genre of English for Special Purposes. These researchers and practitioners argue for “a reconceptualization of teacher language proficiency, not as general English proficiency but as a specialized subset of language skills required to prepare and teach lessons. This concept (...) builds on what teachers know about teaching, while introducing and confirming specific classroom language” (Freeman, Katz, Gomez, & Burns, 2015, p. 1). While still a work-in-progress, the timing and development of this proposal by well-respected researchers and language teacher educators suggests that this may be an idea whose time has come. Such a focus on improving teachers’ classroom language, combined with developing their methodological skills, may be the most effective solution which can improve generalist teachers’ language proficiency, while at the same time exposing them to a wide range of activities and methods for teaching a foreign language.

Beyond teaching oral proficiency, which includes helping teachers to develop both fluency and accuracy as an important part of their subject-matter skills, the Norwegian CQ course designers need to decide which other area of subject-matter content is most appropriate.

There are two main possibilities: (a) additional knowledge about the language beyond what is learned when developing oral proficiency, and (b) methodological knowledge and skills. The traditional subject-matter knowledge for foreign language teacher specialists has consisted of theoretical linguistics courses (grammar and phonetics or phonology) divorced from the language teaching context. It is doubtful whether generalist teachers need this kind of knowledge to teach at primary school level. For example, Johnson (2009) argues that “the disciplinary knowledge that defines what language is, how it works, and how it is acquired that has emerged out of the fields of theoretical linguistics and SLA is not the same knowledge that teachers need to teach” (Johnson, 2009, p. 42–43).

Therefore, instead of spending time on theoretical linguistics, it may be more productive for generalist primary school teachers to concentrate on developing a deeper awareness of critical aspects of EFL teaching methodology (e.g. Harmer, 2015). This involves developing an understanding of some of the differences between teaching foreign languages and other subjects. Borg (2006b) for example identified the following differences:

1. Language is more dynamic than other subjects and has more relationship to real life.
2. Teaching a language includes a wide range of issues beyond language itself such as culture, communication skills and learning skills.
3. Language teaching methodology is more diverse and aims to create contexts for communication to maximise student involvement.
4. In language teaching, there is more scope for communicative relationships between teachers and learners which can also encompass themes of personal importance.
5. Teachers and learners operate principally in a language other than their mother tongue and compare themselves with native speakers.
6. For language teachers, characteristics such as creativity, flexibility and enthusiasm are essential.
7. Errors committed by language learners are more acceptable than in other subjects.

(Adapted from Borg, 2006b, p. 24)

In terms of teaching English to children, these differences also imply that teachers need to understand that, for children, learning a foreign language is very different from learning their

mother tongue (or the language normally used for other subjects). The points identified by Borg (2006b) indicate the need to use different approaches when teaching EFL, compared to teaching other subjects. Research suggests that primary school teachers with limited or no EFL teacher education and limited language proficiency are unlikely to be aware of the possibilities (Llurda & Huguet, 2003; Butler, 2005; Kourieos, 2014).

In addition to integrating differences identified by Borg (2006b) as a part of the subject-matter content of a CQ course, teacher educators also need to consider how to incorporate the concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to represent the subject-matter content. PCK was originally suggested as a third major component of teaching expertise (Shulman, 1986), adding to the other two components (subject-matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge). PCK is the integration or synthesis of teachers' pedagogical knowledge and subject-matter knowledge, a merging of the two traditional forms of content. Thus, according to Shulman (1986), pedagogical content knowledge

embodies (...) the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others [and] also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific concepts easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning (p. 9).

Cullen (2001) proposes that PCK can be taught through the analysis of lesson transcripts. Sanchez and Borg (2014) suggest that insights into L2 teachers' PCK (gained through examination of qualitative accounts of teachers' classroom practices) can “constitute material which can be productively used in language teacher development contexts” (Sanchez & Borg, 2014, p. 45).

2.3.3 Teacher educators, subject matter and online course implementation

The guidance given for the design of the Norwegian CQ courses (see Appendix A) clearly specifies the need to include subject knowledge and teaching methodology. However, there is no mention of how to integrate the two. Many teacher educators on the CQ courses are likely to be more accustomed to teaching traditional, theoretical, linguistics modules to pre-service student teachers, who are going to become specialist language teachers working with youth or young adults as opposed to children. For teacher educators working with in-service education for experienced primary school teachers, the demands are likely to be different from those for teaching pre-service teachers. For example, one CPD research finding (see Section 2.4.1) is that to be credible, teacher educators need to be able to model new

methodological approaches through model lessons or activities; if they themselves do not have experience from the appropriate school level, this may be difficult to do. In this context, Gregoire's (2003) dual-core model (see Section 2.2.3) may also be applicable for teacher educators who are faced with a challenge that threatens their self-efficacy. In order to maintain their feelings of professional integrity, they may feel obliged to teach material with which they feel secure, such as theoretical linguistics, even though this subject matter may not be particularly relevant for the teachers.

Furthermore, the fact that the CQ courses are mostly delivered online means that there will be challenges for teacher educators who are unfamiliar with that format. For example, a recent study of teacher educators in Norway who use an online delivery form (Tømte, Enochsson, Buskqvist, & Kårstein, 2015), showed that their course design "supported a teacher-centered rather than a student-centered approach" (p. 34). Tømte et al. conclude that "there is still some way to go to innovative solutions and to develop the potential of (...) online teacher education programmes" (p. 26). This suggests that in relation to the design of the predominantly online CQ courses, there is a need for systematic PD for teacher educators (see Smith, 2003).

Research into INSET for EFL teachers also shows that the background and experience of teacher educators is an important factor influencing the design and impact of courses (Hayes & Chang 2012). Even so, as the next section shows, the limited research in the field has concentrated more on other dimensions, such as the balance between course work and classroom practice. The penultimate part of this chapter presents an overview of the research findings for both CPD and INSET for EFL teachers.

2.4. Research Findings for Teachers' CPD and for In-Service EFL Teacher Education

2.4.1 Review of research findings for teachers' CPD

In a wide-ranging review of international literature on PD content and delivery modes, Broad and Evans (2006) note that effective PD must take account of both the needs of the individual and of the collective. It should be "responsive to the complex and unique needs and context of the learner" through an emphasis on "collaboration, shared inquiry and learning from and with peers". Furthermore, "effective professional development needs to be

sustained, ongoing and in-depth, requiring active engagement by the professional” and should connect “individual learning with larger initiatives and change processes” (2006, p. 3).

These requirements are similar to three of five core features identified by Desimone (2009) in her research into impact studies of PD: First, she finds that teachers need to be actively involved in learning processes; second, there is a need for learning activities to be spread out over a sufficiently long time period; and third, there is a need for collective participation, such as through the attendance of teachers from the same school, grade or department. Desimone identifies two other core features: A focus on subject-matter content, and an emphasis on the need for coherence between what is being learned and teachers’ existing knowledge and beliefs. Broad and Evans (2006) also make reference to the need for teachers to develop their subject-matter content knowledge, while taking account of the possibility that introducing new knowledge or teaching approaches is likely to lead to a need for “constructively managing the conflict that inevitably arises when participants discuss their fundamental beliefs about teaching and learning” (2006, p. 77).

Timperley, Wilson, Barrar and Fung’s report (2008) *Best evidence synthesis iteration*, made on behalf of the New Zealand Ministry of Education, is a report on teacher professional learning and development that attempts to synthesize a wide body of international research (mainly studies from New Zealand, the UK and the US, but also from Israel, Canada, Australia and the Netherlands). It aims to establish links between teacher PD and student learning. In other words, this research synthesis aims specifically to try to establish which forms of teachers’ PD may lead to increased student learning. The report summary is framed with reference to the context and content of learning, the learning activities and processes, and the responses of participating teachers.

As with the previous research overviews, there is concern that sufficient time should be devoted to PD in order to provide opportunities for teachers to interact together in “communities of professionals”. Timperley et al. (2008) suggest that assistance from external expertise may well be needed in order to promote PD, and that the integration of subject-matter knowledge as a part of pedagogic content knowledge may lead to increased student learning. This synthesis of research also suggests that a wide variety of learning activities are needed to stimulate PD and that these should be aligned with subject-matter content. In general, the integration of theory and practice is seen as a “key feature” allowing teacher learning to be sustained as teachers acquire in-depth understanding of theory “as a

tool to assist instructional decision-making” (Timperley et al. 2008, p. xxxi). Further, this meta-study emphasizes that opportunities should be created for teachers to discuss and “negotiate” their understandings of theoretical concepts taught by those with outside expertise, thus engaging teachers’ existing theories of practice. This may involve “challenging” and “problematic” discourses, requiring careful management of conflicts that may arise during developmental processes, as noted by Broad and Evans (2006).

While these different surveys of international research (Broad & Evans, 2006; Desimone, 2009; Timperley et al. 2008) concur on the need to engage teachers’ existing knowledge and introduce new theory in order to open the possibility of changes in teaching practices, Timperley et al. report that understanding the processes involved in changing teaching practices is a “neglected area” in the research, even though theories of behavioral change in education do exist (e.g. Blanchard, Southerland, & Granger, 2008). However, the problem is, as Timperley et al. (2008) admit, that most recommendations in this area are theoretical and few are based on empirical findings. In other words, little is known about the relationship between change processes in teachers’ cognitions about teaching, and possible increases in student learning resulting from such processes of PD.

2.4.2 Review of research findings for in-service EFL teacher education

Since INSET for EFL teachers can be understood as a sub-set of CPD (see Section 2.2), a number of the research findings are similar. Just as Timperley et al. (2008) find the integration of theory and practice to be a “key feature” of teacher learning, Waters (2006) suggests that INSET should encourage theory-practice interplay by providing opportunities for participants’ to try out newly-gained theoretical knowledge in their current teaching practices. The integration of “course-based components” and “school-based follow-up components” is thus understood to be the best way to achieve a “meaningful type of teacher learning” (Waters, 2006, p. 39).

Building on a wide range of research experience from Asia and South-East Asia, where there has been a massive increase in EFL teaching in recent decades, Hayes and Chang’s (2012) findings suggest that the CPD that has most impact on teachers is a “day-release” model whereby teachers are involved in training for one day each week, while spending the rest of the week in their schools practicing the teaching methods, activities or techniques with which they have just become familiar. During the following training sessions “they are then able to provide direct feedback on what trainers have recommended” (Hayes & Chang, 2012,

p. 113). This combination gives teachers regular opportunities to reflect on and analyze their practice and attempt to integrate new learning directly into their teaching practices “within the framework of a supportive learning environment with peers. Most importantly they are not left to fend for themselves with no feedback on their attempts to innovate” (Hayes & Chang, 2012, p. 113).

A British Council report, *Perceptions of best practice in English language teaching INSET*, (Waters & Vilches, 2010) makes the following recommendations for best practice:

- The training approach should be ‘participant-centered’, i.e. actively involve the trainees in understanding, discussing and working with the teaching ideas in collaboration with the trainers and themselves.
- Demonstration lessons of both main kinds (“peer” and “trainer”) are an important means of increasing practical understanding of teaching ideas.
- Active and extensive educational and school system support is needed in order to ensure that teaching ideas introduced in seminars are implemented.
- Systematic observation of and feedback on teacher’s attempts to implement the training ideas is vital; this follow-up should take into account situational realities but also attempt to maximise the potential for teacher learning.

(Adapted from Waters & Vilches, 2010, p. 22)

The first two of these recommendations are similar to Timperley et al’s (2008) proposals that opportunities should be created for teachers to discuss their understandings of theoretical concepts taught by those with outside expertise, and that peer demonstrations should be used as in other CPD strategies previously mentioned. Waters and Vilches’ third recommendation that “educational and school system support is needed” (p. 22) harmonises with Opfer and Pedder’s (2011) ideas, as well as with Broad and Evans’s (2006) finding that individual teacher learning needs to be connected up “with larger initiatives and change processes” (p. 3).

Given the importance that all of these researchers and theoreticians attach to integrating PD, whole school development and more broadly-based educational support, it is interesting though disappointing to note the main conclusion of a study of a series of six-month action research in-service EFL teacher development initiatives in Sweden (Lundberg, 2007): Despite positive results with many individual teachers, Lundberg found that since traditional teaching practices were so deeply rooted in a school’s culture, change processes and changes

in teaching practices were resisted. This can largely be explained by the fact that in this initiative, even though the English teachers were supported by university-based teacher educators, the schools and educational authorities where these teachers worked were not otherwise engaged in the initiative, nor were the other teachers in these schools.

Waters and Vilches' (2010) fourth recommendation concerning the "vital" need for "systematic follow-up and feedback on teachers' attempts to implement the training ideas" (p. 22) appears to be a kind of compromise between the two models of teacher education summarized by Borg (2015) in the previous section ("development-constructivist" and "training-transmission"). The drive to ensure that teaching and training ideas are "implemented" might be interpreted as an attempt to impose change from outside (top-down), and a tacit admission of the belief that teachers will not have sufficiently internalized the new ideas which have been presented to them, partly due to "situational realities". These "realities" are likely to include obstacles inherent in the deep-rooted conservatism of school teaching cultures (Dewey, 1904/1965), but may also reflect a lack of time for teachers to integrate new ideas and ways of working.

For example, shorter INSET courses that depend on outside expertise to transfer knowledge and skills, without sufficiently "addressing fundamental issues of change" (Hayes, 2009, p. 113), are unlikely to lead to more than superficial change. In other words, the INSET training will not work on a deep enough level to "assist teachers to manage change processes within themselves" (Hayes, 2009, p. 113). Such internal change processes represent the relationship between teachers' cognitions and behavioural change as manifested through their teaching practices. However, the relationship between teachers' cognitions and their language teaching practices is not straightforward. As previously noted, this relationship is not likely to be "unilinear", and is "mediated by contextual factors" since "teachers' cognitions themselves are shaped by what happens in the classroom" (Borg, 2006b, p. 275). Nonetheless, through in-service training, "teachers can learn how to put their beliefs into practice and also develop links between their beliefs and theory" (Borg, 2011, p. 378). The impact of in-service language teacher education can thus be interpreted as a "range of developmental processes" which may become "the source of new beliefs for teachers" (Borg, 2011, p. 378).

It is important to emphasize that the process of introducing such ideas may involve the kind of "challenging" and "problematic" discourses which Timperley et al. (2008) suggest are necessary for teacher development to be sustained. In this context, it is relevant to note

Hayes and Chang’s (2012) finding that many teacher educators will not be well equipped to enter into or deal with such discourses. Their academic backgrounds or lack of appropriate school teaching experience may mean that they lack the ability to demonstrate teaching ideas in a convincing enough way to back up theoretical ideas (see Section 2.3.3).

2.5 Key factors for CPD or INSET for EFL teacher development

Key common factors from the theories and empirical findings that are likely to be important for the design of CQ courses are summarized under three headings in Table 2:

Table 2: Summary of critical factors to be considered in CQ course design

1. CONTEXTUAL and SYSTEMIC PARAMETERS		Examples of studies
a.	Coherence with broader educational initiatives and change processes	Broad & Evans, 2006; Opfer & Pedder, 2011; Waters & Vilches. 2010
b.	Time frame and number of hours must be sufficient to support teacher change	Desimone, 2009; Hayes, 2009; Timperley et al., 2008
c.	Motivation among teachers. Through voluntarism or developmental incentives	Gregoire, 2003; Opfer & Pedder, 2011; Muijs et al., 2014
d.	Appropriately qualified and experienced teacher educators, also relative to online delivery forms	Hayes & Chang, 2012; Smith, 2003; Tømte et al., 2015
2. DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESSES, WAYS of WORKING		
a.	Coherent and credible ways of working with new ideas, beliefs and practices	Borg, 2006b; 2011; Gregoire 2003; Postholm, 2012
b.	Working both collectively (through teacher collaboration) and at individual level	Desimone, 2009; Broad & Evans, 2006; Mann, 2005
c.	Ensuring classroom opportunities, feedback and an ongoing practical-theoretical dialectic	Hayes & Chang, 2012; Waters, 2006
d.	Active learning, a wide variety of learning activities, modeling of activities by teacher educators or peers	Timperley et al. 2008; Waters & Vilches, 2010
3. SUBJECT-MATTER CONTENT		
a.	Development of teachers’ overall English language proficiency (skills and knowledge)	Graves, 2009; Johnson, 2009; Freeman et al., 2015
b.	Development of teachers’ methodological repertoire and teachers’ PCK	Cullen, 2001; Sanchez & Borg, 2014; Timperley et al., 2008

The first group of factors in Table 2 (contextual and systematic parameters, Factor Group 1), refer to influences which are generally beyond the control of the course designers at the individual institutions responsible for the Norwegian CQ courses. These relate to the broader framework and conditions for the CQ program. The second and third groups of factors are more directly under the influence of the course designers. They are concerned with developmental processes and the ways that courses are delivered or implemented (Factor Group 2), and with the subject-matter content for the courses (Factor Group 3).

The schematic overview in Table 2 represents a summary of the different factors with examples of studies where the particular factor is discussed. In the presentation and discussion of the overall findings in chapter 5, either direct or indirect reference is made to all of these factors.

3. Methodology

This chapter explains the mixed-methods approach and provides an overview of the research design as a whole. This is followed by detailed descriptions of the three phases of the research, describing the design of each phase, the research tools, procedures, samples, analysis and ethical considerations. In the second half of the chapter, the reliability and validity of the research methods are discussed in detail and the transferability of the results considered.

3.1 Mixed-Methods Research Approach

Research into teaching and teacher education has to take account of the high level of complexity found in different classrooms and school contexts (Florio-Ruane, 2008). The use of multiple methods has been theoretically justified as one way to open up different perspectives on this complexity (Smith, 2006). However, the question of what kind of overall research design is most appropriate to best fit the research questions will often depend largely on the practical availability of resources. As a single researcher, I had to take such limitations into account.

This study used a mixed-methods approach, defined as the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods. Advocates of the use of mixed methods emphasize the need to exploit the complementary strengths (Johnson & Turner, 2003) that the different approaches offer. Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989) suggest additional justifications for pursuing mixed-methods research. These include seeking corroboration from quantitative and qualitative data through “elaboration, enhancement, illustration, clarification of the results from one method with the results from the other” (Greene et al., 1989, p. 239). All of these justifications are highly relevant to the research approach in this study.

The design was a mixture of parallel (concurrent) and sequential phases (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell, 2003), over a period of two and a half years, with Phase 1 finishing while the two other phases were still in progress, and Phase 2 finishing while Phase 3 continued. The accumulation of knowledge during the progression of the research contributed to a gradual expansion and development of perspectives (Greene et al., 1989; Creswell, 2013).

The usefulness of applying mixed methods is increasingly recognised (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Burke Johnson, 2012), especially when the overall findings from different phases of mixed-methods research can credibly be integrated (Bryman, 2006), a process that involves recognizing and countering threats to validity (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). The triangulation of methods can help to counter such threats as is discussed in the final part of the chapter.

3.2 Overview of Research Design

All three articles are based on the same theme, that is, an overall and central concern with the design and impact of one CQ course. Article 1 was qualitative; Article 2 was predominantly quantitative but was supported by complementary qualitative material. Article 3 was pre-dominantly qualitative, but was supported by quantitative data in the form of descriptive statistics.

Overall, there was a fairly even balance between the quantitative and qualitative elements. The three articles correspond to the three phases of the research process. Phase 1 started in the spring of 2013, while the planning for Phase 2 was still in progress and the volunteers for the case studies (Phase 3) were still unknown. It comprised a comparison of course designs for the focus course and two other in-service EFL teacher courses.

Phase 2 consisted of teachers filling out identical pre- and post-course Likert-scale questionnaires (with open questions also included at the end of the pre-course questionnaire), and then reflecting on changes in their responses to the Likert-scale items and on their original answers to the open questions. The main purpose was to try to gain a holistic overview of the impact of the course on the participant teachers' PD as reflected through changes in their cognitions, confidence, self-reported classroom language and teaching practices.

It was important in Phase 3, to try to take the research one stage further, i.e. into the classroom itself, in order to study actual teaching practices and teachers' language. This was accomplished through case studies of four teachers which delved into more depth. This was done by using sequenced interviews during two separate early-course and late-course visits to the teachers' schools, as well as classroom observation and recordings, and a final set of late post-course interviews. The teachers' responses to the questionnaires in Phase 2 were

also utilized as baseline data. An overview of the three research phases is provided in Table 3, followed by an introductory overview and then sections providing more detail of the progressions of the three different phases.

Table 3: Overview of phases and articles, types of methods, research questions, participants, individual methods, analytical foundations, and mixed methods credibility

	Phase 1	Phase 2	Phase 3
Article theme	Comparison of designs of different courses	Evaluation of course impact on all teachers	Four case studies for in-depth assessment of impact
Article title	Comparing varieties of in-service English subject teacher training for primary school teachers in Norway	Changes in primary school teachers' beliefs and practices after a one-year in-service education course	Assessing the impact of an in-service EFL teacher education course on primary school teachers
Type of method	Qualitative	Quantitative and Qualitative	Qualitative and Quantitative
Main research questions	What characterises the differences in organisation, pedagogical design, evaluation and perceived outcomes of two different Competence for Quality course models vis-à-vis an independent local-regional course model?	To what extent does the in-service training have impact on the beliefs and knowledge, confidence, self-reported classroom language and practices of the teachers?	1. How did the course impact four teachers' classroom language, teaching practices, beliefs and confidence? 2. What was the longer-term impact on the teachers within their school contexts?
Sample and participants	Teacher educators, school and course administrators, teachers	33 participant teachers on a CQ course	Four volunteers from the sample of 33 course participants
Methods (Section 3.3)	1. Document analysis: of course designs, evaluation reports 2. Semi-structured interviews with course designers 3. Field study of local-regional course: interviews with teacher educators, administrators, teachers	1. Identical pre and post-course Likert-scale questionnaires, with four open questions only in the pre-course questionnaire 2. Teachers' written reflections on changes in their answers to the questionnaire items	1. Early and late course classroom observations and recordings 2. Sequence of interviews during three school visits 3. Analysis of teachers' questionnaire reflections and written course tasks
Analysis (Section 3.3)	1. Analysis of course design documents and CQ evaluation reports, and of the interviews with teacher educators. 2. Theoretical frameworks for course design	1. SPSS analysis of changes in teachers' answers to Likert-scale items 2. Qualitative analysis and content analysis of teachers' reflections on their changes	1. Analysis of transcriptions of classroom language 2. Analysis of transcriptions of interviews, debriefings 3. Analysis of teachers' reflections and other data
Credibility of methods, methodology (Section 3.4)	Triangulation of data sources, member checking, open narrative clarifies researcher's bias	Validity of quantitative data measured through SPSS. Credibility strengthened through qualitative data in the teachers' reflections	Prolonged engagement, triangulation of different data sources, member checking, rich description

3.3 Individual Phases: Design, Research Tools, Procedures, Sample, Analysis, Ethics

3.3.1 Phase 1

Design

The first phase consisted principally of the comparison of course designs for three different in-service EFL teacher education courses.

Research tools

Document analysis, semi-structured interviews with individual teacher educators (course designers) and with small focus groups of teacher educators. Two identical questions from a pilot questionnaire for teachers were also utilized on two of the courses.

Procedure

Phase 1 started with analysis of the publically available course designs for CQ English courses in Norway, analysis of the guidelines for these CQ courses issued by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (see Appendix A), and analysis of the evaluation reports for the National CQ programme. This was followed by semi-structured interviews with Teacher educators at two of the three CQ institutions offering courses specifically for primary school teachers of English in 2013–2014. At both these CQ institutions, in addition to three separate interviews, I also conducted focus group interviews with the teacher educators. The purpose of the focus group interviews was to see if new ideas for analysis developed from the different and sometimes conflicting viewpoints which the different teacher educators held on the topics in focus (Kvale, 2007).

Field work was then carried out in the area where an independent local in-service course was taught, including interviews with the teacher educators and educational administrators responsible for this course, and with teachers participating on this course. In addition, a small pilot questionnaire was given to the teachers on the local course. Two identical written questions from this questionnaire concerning the development of language skills were later given to teachers on the focus course. (The results of this comparison are presented in Article 1).

Sample

The purpose of the comparison of the design of the CQ focus course with another CQ course was to show another possible alternative design to the focus course within the same national programme framework. The selection of the local course was made in order to illustrate an alternative to the CQ model within the Norwegian context (see Article 1 for further explanation as to the rationale for choosing the local course).

Analysis

In this study, document analysis is defined as the “comparison of documents focusing the content or structure of a series of examples” (Flick, 2012, p. 105). In this case, the document analysis focused on the evaluation reports of the national CQ courses (Klewe & Nettet, 2012; Gjerustad & Kårstein, 2013) commissioned by the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (NDET). This preliminary investigation produced useful background knowledge and preparation for the interviews with the teacher educators at the three institutions whose course designs were finally compared. The semi-structured interviews with the different teacher educators (who were also the course designers) were organised using a template (see Appendix B) as a point of departure (Cresswell, 2013).

Ethics

The project was accepted by the Norwegian Social Science Research Council (NSSRC) with all the associated implications for the guarding of confidentiality and anonymity of sources (see Appendix C for NSSRC approval documentation).

3.3.2 Phase 2

Design

The second part of the research investigated changes in the cognitions, confidence, self-reported language and teaching practices of the group of primary school teachers taking the focus CQ course. These were measured quantitatively through changes in their responses to identical Likert-scale items in pre-course and post-course questionnaires, and qualitatively through the teachers’ written reflections on the changes in their responses to the same questionnaire items, and also through their reflections on their answers to open questions, which were also included in the pre-course questionnaire.

Research tools

The questionnaire was the research tool for the second phase. Normally, when a research questionnaire is to be used, an “integral part of field testing” is the initial construction of a pilot questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 63). This pilot is then tried out with a sample group. Ideally, the results are then analysed so that the questions which are poorly constructed can be removed. This includes questions that are ambiguous, too complicated or asking more than one question, or are not measuring the construct which each section seeks to measure. However, since there was not time to run a pilot before the course started, I chose to make the first two sections of the questionnaire using statements and sections from two sources which had already been thoroughly tested in different ways: the Norwegian EFL curriculum and a global British Council survey of English language use in the classroom by EFL teachers (Hall & Cook, 2013). The remaining sections of the questionnaire were more exploratory, meaning that most of the constructs for each section as a whole had weaker validity (see Section 3.4) than for the first two sections, so that only single item comparisons were made.

The pre-course and post-course questionnaires were identical except that the pre-course questionnaire included four open questions after the 81 Likert-scale items on 5-point scales. The questionnaire was divided into different sections (see Appendix D). The different sections corresponded to items relating to curriculum goals, the use of Norwegian in class, use of the text book and other materials, to correction and grammar, to teachers’ confidence in their oral proficiency and to the methods they employed to teach oral proficiency. For the first section only, the questionnaire was divided into two, according to the different curriculum goals for the two different age groups: grades 1–4 and 5–7. (For more detail, see Article 2 and the questionnaire in Appendix D).

Procedure

According to an agreement with the teacher educators responsible for the focus course, the questionnaires were an obligatory, non-graded, PD task administered to all course participants under supervision at the first and last course seminars. The teachers were given approximately an hour to complete the questionnaire the first time (including the open questions) and 45 minutes the second time. After completing the second time, the teachers were given a copy of their questionnaire which they had filled in at the beginning of the course, and were required to go through all their answers for both questionnaires, noting the differences in their answers and writing reflections on changes (or the lack of change). The

questionnaires given to the teachers were written in Norwegian to make sure everything was understood correctly. (In Appendix D, an English translation has been added.)

Sample

The sample used for Phase 2 originally consisted of the 36 teachers on the selected focus course, but this was later reduced to 33 as one teacher dropped out and two teachers did not have any English classes in their schools that year.

This course was best suited for the research purpose (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) since it was the largest of the three CQ courses that were run that year specifically for primary school teachers, with the 33 participants representing almost half of the total of only 69 primary school teachers who took those three CQ courses. Data was collected from these 33 teachers showing the grade level they taught, the number of classes they taught EFL to, their number of years teaching experience, and the number of years of experience they had as EFL teachers. The teachers' ages, gender and the geographical spread of their schools were also registered. Unfortunately, it transpired that this form of data for primary school teachers of English in Norway was not available on a national basis, so that direct comparisons were not possible on the basis of this data. When filling in the questionnaires, teachers occasionally missed or left out items. In these cases, the total answers for some items only added up to 32.

Analysis

The statistical material comprising the changes in the teachers' responses to the 81 Likert-scale questions in the different sections was analysed using SPSS (Christoffersen, 2013; Pallant, 2013). A significance level of 95% was set. The qualitative material provided by the teachers through their answers to open questions in the first questionnaire and in their reflections on the changes in their responses to individual questionnaire items was partially analysed through content analysis (Dörnyei, 2007).

When coding qualitative data, it is important to be rigorous (i.e. to code consistently), so that the reliability of the analysis is enhanced. The content analysis was therefore done by grouping together teachers' comments or reflections, this according to different categories such as "the teaching of grammar through oral activity". The results for the quantitative analysis were cross-referenced with the teachers' reflections on the changes in their responses. In Article 2, selected quotations were used to illustrate, explain, enhance and deepen understanding of the SPSS results.

Ethics

During the first course seminar, all the teachers on the focus course agreed to the use of all of the course data for research purposes. All of the qualitative material was anonymised. The teachers reacted positively and with interest to filling out the questionnaires and doing the reflection as a PD task.

3.3.3 Phase 3

Design

The third part of the study consists of case studies of four of the focus course teachers, who had also participated in the questionnaires and reflections in Phase 2.

Research Tools

The case studies included early-course and late-course classroom observations and recordings, as well as recordings of pre-lesson briefings, post-lesson debriefings, and semi-structured interviews. There were three sets of interviews, early-course, late-course, and post-course. The teachers' questionnaire responses (from Phase 2) were also included as baseline data. I also talked informally to the four teachers at the course seminars during the year.

Procedure

Three visits were made to each of the teacher's schools, one early on in the course, one late in the course, with a final visit 16 months after the course. During the early-course and late-course visits, I observed different lessons, some of which were recorded through a microphone discretely placed on the teachers' clothing, designed primarily to record all of the teachers' language and their interaction with the class as well as individual pupils. For the 1st–4th grade teachers, recordings of one early course lesson and one late course lesson were used for analysis; for the 5th–7th grade teachers, two early course and two late-course lesson recordings were used. I recorded conversations with the teachers before and after lessons, as well as recording semi-structured interviews when the teachers had more time on each visit.

Ideally, the four chosen teachers would have been observed before the course started. However, this was impossible since none of the case study teachers volunteered before the first course seminar. This meant that the first classroom observations took place

approximately one month after the course had started, while the second observations and recordings took place approximately seven months later, i.e. approximately two months before the course finished. It was necessary to complete the second observation before the end of the school year, so that the observations were with the same classes. This was because it was necessary to gain acceptance from these specific children's parents before the observations and because a meaningful comparison of the teachers' classroom language and teaching methods between the two observations depended to a large extent on the recordings being with the same classes.

Sample

The participants for the case studies in Phase 3 consisted of four teachers who volunteered to be observed and recorded in their classrooms. Initially, three other teachers also volunteered, but as explained in the third article, the four selected were considered to be more representative, especially because amongst these four teachers there were two teachers from each grade level (grades 1–4 and 5–7). There are important differences between these class ranges, not least because the 5th–7th grade teachers have 2–3 teaching hours a week per class, whereas the 1st–4th grade teachers have only a total of one lesson a week, according to the Norwegian curriculum.

Though none of the four selected teachers could be considered extreme or deviant cases as recommended by some researchers (Caracelli & Greene, 1993), there was nonetheless a certain polarity between the case teachers that makes a comparison of results interesting. For example, while one of the two 1st–4th grade teachers had over 30 years of teaching experience and a very broad methodological repertoire, the other was relatively inexperienced and struggled to move away from teacher-fronted lessons. The two 5th–7th grade teachers were also very different in terms of their attitudes towards teaching, one “burning” for continually developing new creative ideas, the other being satisfied to use the textbook with only limited variation.

Analysis

When observing classes, I took notes using semi-structured observation forms with categories of activities on one axis and 5-minute time units on the other (see Appendix E). The quantitative data resulting from analysis of the language in the transcriptions of the recordings was supported by qualitative analysis of the teachers' language in the context of the specific lessons. The analytical framework is described in more detail in Article 3 with

reference to the teaching approach and methods used in different lessons, focusing particularly on effects of different kinds of class interaction.

The quantitative data is in the form of comparative analysis of the classroom language used by the teachers in different lessons, early on and late on in the course. The methods used to analyze this language consisted of counting and comparing the number of English and Norwegian words in each lesson, comparing lexical variation by a given measure, comparing the average word speed of spoken English per minute, and comparing the number of errors teachers made as agreed by two independent expert raters.

The resulting quantitative material was used to complement analysis of the qualitative observations and recordings showing how teaching practices and patterns of interaction changed. Together, this combined data was used as background material for the final interviews with the case study teachers. Information about quantitative and qualitative patterns in the data was also used more directly in these interviews in the form of questions. The inclusion of quantitative data from a relatively small number of lessons, analysed using descriptive statistics, confirmed that such material can also be valuable in case study research (Richards, 2003, p. 20).

For the interviews during the late-course visit, I based some questions on my analysis of the early-course interviews, interviews and observations. On the post-course visit, I based questions on my analysis of all the materials I had gathered and analysed for each teacher. This included the transcriptions of the lessons, which were also sent to the teachers before the final interviews.

The pre-lesson briefings were normally quite short with the teachers describing the lesson plan and noting any special circumstances in the class or school on that day. The timing of post-lesson briefings varied according to whether the teachers were free to talk or had more lessons to teach. In these conversations, particular events from the lesson were usually discussed, such as the teacher's reasons for doing things in particular ways.

The semi-structured interviews were always scheduled when the teachers had more time and tended to be more broadly reflective than the immediate reflections after a lesson. Often, specific incidents from recorded lessons or other examples stimulated the teacher to talk more generally about teaching processes. I sometimes attempted to introduce theoretical ideas in order to further stimulate such discussions, thereby attempting to delve below "the

manifest meanings” of what was said “to deeper and more critical interpretations” (Brinkman & Kvale, 2009, p. 207).

All of the recordings of the interviews, briefings and debriefings were transcribed and analysed using content analysis (Dörnvei, 2007). They were cross-referenced with the quantitative and qualitative data from the classroom, with analysis of the changes in teachers’ answers to pre- and post-course questionnaires, and with the teachers’ written reflections on these changes as well as analysis of some of the case study teachers’ other written course tasks. All of this data was synthesized and compared before the final material for the case studies in Article 3 was selected.

Ethics

It was extremely important to cultivate good relations with these four teachers who had so kindly allowed me to enter their classrooms and make recordings where they were potentially in a vulnerable position. I did my best to follow Brinkman and Kvale’s advice for qualitative interviewing, which is to approach people “not as objects, mechanically controlled by causal laws, but rather as persons” (Brinkman & Kvale, 2009, p. 3).

I tried to adopt a low profile during classroom observations, closer to the “outsider” than the “insider” perspective, hoping that the lessons would proceed as “normally” as possible. However, from time to time during some of the classroom observation, teachers or pupils understandably wanted me to become a little more involved in the lessons. This meant that I occasionally helped the teacher to translate a word or talked briefly to a pupil. During one lesson I felt obliged to become the assistant for a pupil with special needs because the usual assistant was not available and the teacher needed help. I thus tried to remain unobtrusive but not humanly detached.

In general, the classroom observation functioned quite well, even if the teachers sometimes naturally became a little more nervous than usual, according to their own accounts. I tried to take this into account in the analysis of the lessons, hoping that the “effect” evened itself out between the observation of the early and late course lessons. Judging by the behaviour of the pupils, none of the lessons appeared to have been out of the ordinary, but ultimately I still have to acknowledge that I do not know how exactly how typical these few observed lessons really were.

3.4 Research Credibility

In the following section, I discuss the reliability, validity, and transferability of the research.

3.4.1 Reliability

Reliability is “a synonym for dependability, consistency and replicability of measures over time” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 199). This kind of reliability is needed for each phase of the project. A more specific kind of reliability is needed specifically for the questionnaire in Phase 2, i.e. measurement (psychometric) reliability. This refers to “the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions” (Silverman, 2013, p. 302). In Phase 3, another specific type of reliability is described, i.e. inter-rater reliability (consistent coding), which was needed to differentiate teachers’ grammatical errors in the case studies. The following section describes the consideration given to these different aspects of reliability during the different stages of the project.

Phase 1: Reliability of results

In Phase 1, a variety of qualitative methods were used through the analysis of course designs, of national curriculum documents, of reports evaluating the Competence for Quality courses, and of documents kept by teacher educators showing the historical progress of in-service EFL teacher education in Norway. All of these documents are publicly available so that a repeated analysis of the same documents research categories would be expected to lead to similar results. The transcriptions and notes from the range of interviews which were carried out with teacher educators, teachers and educational administrators in the different parts of Norway where the three courses being compared are also transparent. For example, they could be made available for analysis by other researchers though the material is not particularly controversial. Nevertheless, different researchers might draw different conclusions, depending on their social or political stance (Greene, 1995, November). In Article 1, I therefore made my own research position clear, as an advocate for primary school teachers who currently teach English without formal EFL teacher education. My interpretation of the results in the article, and my own bias and stance as the researcher were also clarified through an “open and honest narrative” (Cresswell, 2003, p. 196).

Phase 2: Measurement reliability for the questionnaire (psychometric)

In Phase 2, the main aspect of reliability that can be assessed concerns the questionnaire's internal consistency. This is the degree to which the items in particular sections “hang together”, measuring the same underlying attribute. As noted, the first two sections were based on previously tried and tested material and their internal measures on the Cronbach's coefficient alpha were generally considerably higher than the 0.7 recommended as a minimum by Nunnally (1978) and Pallant (2013). Section 3.1 concerning teachers' use of the textbook and other materials also scored above 0.7, while Section 6.1 on oral confidence scored above 0.7 only when items relating to hesitation were removed, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Sections of questionnaire with Cronbach Alpha scores above 0.7

Section	Content of questionnaire section	Pre-course	Post-course
1	Curriculum goals for 1st–4th grade teachers	0.706	0.918
1	Curriculum goals for 5th–7th grade teachers	0.906	0.907
2	Teachers use of Norwegian/English	0.801	0.878
3.1	Teachers use of textbook/materials	0.719	0.781
6.1 (Note)	Teachers confidence in their oral proficiency	0.717	0.780

(Note: The results for section 6.1 are after the removal of the two items 6.1.4 and 6.1.5)

The questions in Section 6.1 were thus found to be measuring more than one attribute of the teachers' confidence in their oral English confidence (the second attribute being that of hesitation in the removed items). All of the statements in section 6.1 are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Questionnaire items representing teachers' confidence in their oral proficiency

<i>6.1</i>	<i>Your own oral English proficiency</i>	Fully agree	Mostly agree	Partly agree	Mostly disagree	Fully disagree
6.1.1	I have sufficient self-confidence as my pupils' English-speaking role model.					
6.1.2	I have sufficient self-confidence in relation to my English accent and intonation.					
6.1.3	I don't need to sound like a native English speaker.					
6.1.4	I hesitate to speak a lot of English because I'm afraid of making grammatical errors.					
6.1.5	I hesitate to speak a lot of English because I'm afraid of making pronunciation mistakes.					
6.1.6	I have a sufficient command of English words and expressions to be able to talk about feelings and opinions.					
6.1.7	I have a sufficient command of English words and expressions needed for use in social situations.					

When item 6.1.3 (“I don’t need to sound like a native English speaker”) was also removed in addition to 6.1.4 and 6.1.5, leaving only four items (the minimum number of items considered adequate to represent a construct), the Cronbach Alpha score rose to 0.839 and 0.906, indicating even greater internal consistency. These results are interesting in relation to the findings for Phase 2, where the unusually wide spread in standard deviations for this section are highlighted in the article. They illustrate the complexity of the construct of oral confidence in non-native English or FL teachers (Sim, 2011; Llorca & Huguet, 2003).

Phase 2: Reliability of the results from the questionnaire

In addition to the question of internal consistency, there are three other aspects of the reliability of using questionnaires with Likert-scale items that need to be addressed (Cohen et al., 2011). First, there is a danger that participants will provide answers which they think will please those administering the questionnaire. To counter this tendency, the teachers were told in very clear terms that the questionnaires constituted a PD task and that they would be repeating the questionnaire at the end of the course, after which they would be asked to reflect on changes in their responses. They were informed that they would not receive a grade or feedback on the content of their responses, but that the task was obligatory. In this way, the teachers can be expected to have understood that by giving dishonest answers, they would only have been deceiving themselves. Nonetheless, it is interesting to note that in their post-questionnaire reflections at least two teachers questioned how they could have given some of their answers to the pre-course questionnaire. They essentially blamed lack of concentration.

The second factor that can interfere with the reliability of teachers’ questionnaire responses is the tendency for participants to sometimes rush through questionnaires without concentrating, simply ticking off the responses at the same point of the Likert scale (e.g. on the second of a 5-point Likert scale, the respondent might tick off the same response: “partly true”). One way to try to avoid this tendency is to ensure that some questions are phrased negatively (in an inverted fashion), so that if the respondent reads the question and wishes to continue responding in the same manner, he or she will have to tick off the fourth point on a 5-point Likert scale (“partly untrue”). This use of inversion in the formulation of questions was done in the latter part of the questionnaire, especially the final section.

The third factor to be considered for securing the most reliable responses is to try to ensure that there is sufficient time for the participants to respond, and that the questionnaire is not

too long. Participants were given up to an hour to answer the pre-course questionnaire (which also included the four open questions) and 45 minutes to answer the late-course questionnaire. This appeared to be an appropriate time frame.

An additional threat to reliability is the danger that the categories that are created during content analysis may “reflect the researcher’s agenda and imposition of meaning” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 573). Another example of bias would be through the deliberate exclusion of comments or reflections in the analysis. While it is undoubtedly true that the focus of the questionnaire as a whole was more towards the development of teachers’ oral competence and the ways that they taught oral competence, than the development of teachers’ and pupils’ written competence, this focus was not deliberately concealed or hidden from the reader.

Phase 3: inter-rater reliability and case study results.

In the assessment of teachers’ mistakes in the transcriptions of the lesson recordings, two expert raters decided what constituted a grammar mistake. A level of between 80–90% agreement was reached, which is regarded as more than adequate (James, 1977). (For more details, see Article 3.)

The case studies were written up in accordance with the holistic approach which characterizes the study as a whole, i.e. with a “recognition of the complex and dynamic interactions that may exist among factors; as well as the need for the credibility or trustworthiness of observations and interpretations” (Duff, 2006, p. 77). Here, the balance between an etic (outsider) and emic (insider) perspective was also important, as explained more fully in the following section.

3.4.2 The validity of the study

In traditional quantitative research, internal validity is defined (e.g. Kirk & Miller, 1986) as the truth value of the data, i.e. if it measures what it claims to measure. Validity can also mean the extent to which inferences drawn from the data are truthful and trustworthy. Within the mixed methods design adopted in this study, sequential validity depended upon the degree to which interpretation of the results from the different phases strengthened and built on one another. The use of a variety of measures to safeguard validity (Johnson & Christensen, 2013), as illustrated in Figure 2, can contribute to the trustworthiness of research to the extent that the researcher becomes aware of the various possible threats to validity and consciously takes them into account through appropriate measures.

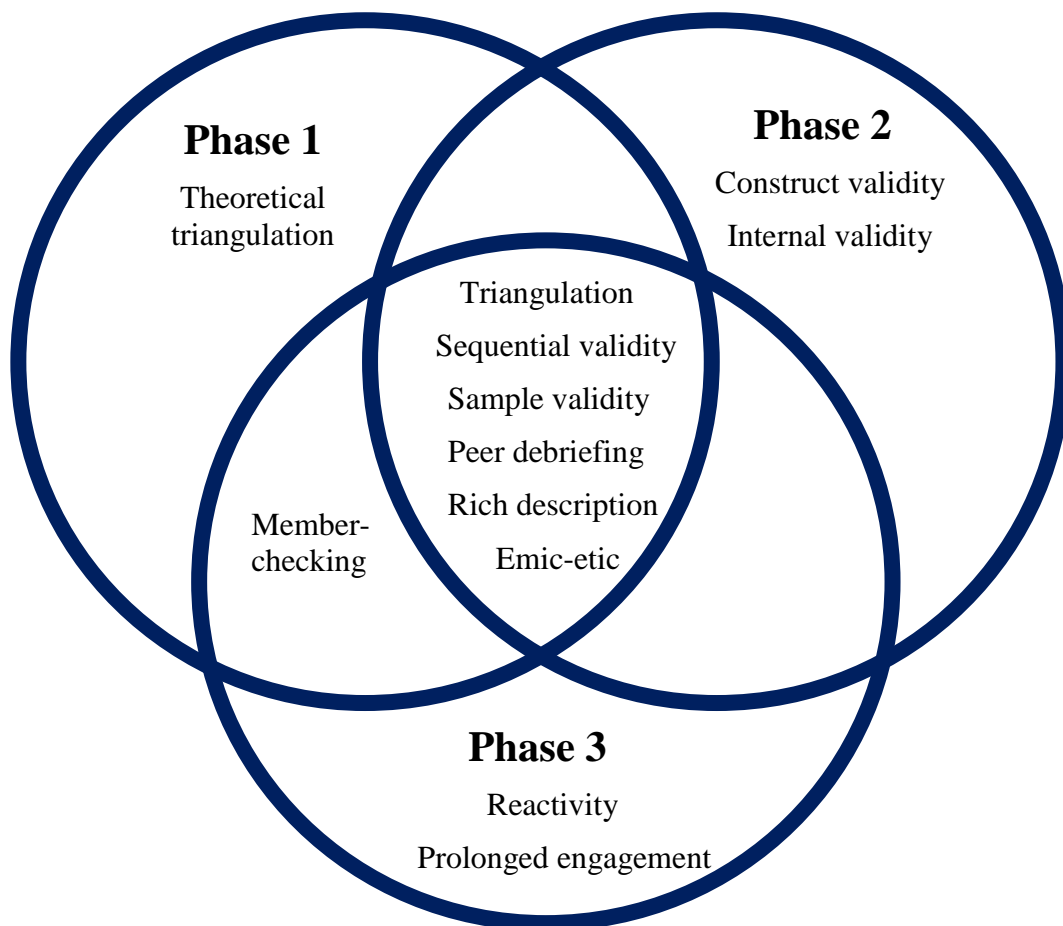


Figure 2: Multiple checks on validity integrated in and across the three phases

Figure 2 illustrates the types of measures used to safeguard the integrity of the data against threats to validity in the three phases: This was principally done by the comparison of multiple data sources throughout the different phases (*triangulation*). In addition to sequential validation and triangulation, the central overlapping area in Figure 1 shows other kinds of validity procedures (*sample integration validity, peer debriefing, thick description and emic-etic validity*), which were all used in the three phases.

Theoretical triangulation (explained below) was used in Phase 1. *Construct validity* and *internal validity* were used in relation to the quantitative research in Phase 2, while *reactivity* and *prolonged engagement* were measures used to strengthen validity in the case studies in Phase 3. These procedures are described in more detail below, while the concepts of *rich description* and *methodological triangulation* are discussed in the next section (Section 3.4.3) in relation to the question of the transferability of the overall project findings.

Sample validity concerns the relationship between samples, especially between qualitative and quantitative ones (Johnson & Christensen, 2013, p. 311). As explained in Section 3.3.1, the design of the focus course, which was compared to two other courses in Article 1, was

one of only three CQ courses for primary school teachers in 2013–14. Changes in the 33 participant teachers on this course were analysed in Phase 2, while four of these teachers were the subject of the case studies in Phase 3. The samples were thus all related to the same course, through analysis of its design and impact. This sample integration shows the consistency and coherence of the design of the project as a whole.

Etic-etic validity concerns the degree to which the researcher adopts appropriate research standpoints on the continuum between outsider (etic) and insider (emic), and the extent to which these perspectives are balanced and transparent. During Phase 1, a more distanced etic analysis of documents and reports was used followed by a more emic perspective through the range of interviews with teacher educators and educational administrators.

During the design, administration and analysis of the results of the questionnaire in Phase 2, I returned to an etic approach, before moving to the final emic phase where close personal contact with the research volunteers was essential during the case studies. Since the different phases of the project were overlapping, I consciously attempted to balance the emic-etic researcher roles. In a sense, this balance corresponded to the balance in the quantitative and qualitative methods throughout the project, with neither approach dominating.

I used *member checking* (Creswell, 2013; Johnson & Christensen, 2013), or member validation (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2014), after the interviews in Phase 1, and during and after the case studies in Phase 3. My representations of the nine different teacher educators' views and the case study teachers were sent to them so that these research participants could check that what I had written were "accurate representations of their experiences" (Creswell, 2016; Plano Clark, 2007, p. 135). In some cases, there was also follow-up communication to confirm the acceptability of changes.

Peer debriefing is a validation approach which involves "exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner akin to cross-examination, in order to test honesty, working hypothesis and to identify the next steps in the research" (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 185). I employed this procedure in varying degrees when presenting the research at different seminars and conferences during the research period (at York, Umeå, Hong Kong, Hamar, Kristiansand), where the data and interpretations were discussed. During the first year of the study, I also participated in discussions on the research design as a member of NAFOL, the national PhD program for research into teacher education. At these various meetings, I received feedback and suggestions that contributed further to the progress and development of the research.

Construct validity is the term that denotes the extent to which the research instrument (such as the questionnaire in Phase 2) adequately measures a theoretical construct. This kind of validity concerns representing “a theoretically existing (but unobservable) variable whose existence can be inferred from a variety of sources” (Slavin, 1992, p. 244).

For example, in the questionnaire, a number of questions or statements on similar themes were assembled in the different sections. The groups of statements or questions were designed to represent a construct, e.g the construct of the curriculum goals for oral communication (see Appendix D for questionnaire). In the first two sections of the questionnaire, the statements representing curriculum goals and teachers’ use of Norwegian might be expected to represent their respective constructs quite well since they were based on previously tested statements, whereas the other sections were more exploratory and the *construct validity* in these other sections are unlikely to have been very high. In these sections, only changes in the answers to individual items were considered, rather than changes in whole constructs, apart from the construct for the text book and use of other materials, and section on the teachers’ oral proficiency (see Section 3.4.1). Ideally, the sets of questions in the different sections would have been subject to evaluation by experts and improvement before piloting, but time constraints prevented this. However, these ideals could be applied to further development of the current questionnaire before future use.

Cohen et al. (2011) suggest that the concept of *theoretical triangulation* is “akin to *construct validity*” (p. 181), discussed in the previous section. *Theoretical triangulation* can be defined as “the theoretical constructions the researcher brings to the research (including those of the researched)”. Theory here is regarded as explanation. Theoretical validity is “the extent to which research explains phenomena” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 181). For example, in Article 1, the basis for the template for the thematic interviews was derived from the understanding I had at that time of different theories and research results from CPD and INSET for EFL teacher education. The teacher educators’ justifications for their designs were compared with these theoretical recommendations, producing a form of theoretical triangulation which is further discussed in the next section.

Internal validity means “the degree to which alternative explanations for the results can be ruled out” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 198), i.e. how far explanations can be sustained by the data. Internal validity can be tested for by seeking alternative explanations for research findings. For example, Kubanyiova (2012) warns of the danger that when

participants on EFL teacher training courses are asked to fill in pre- and post-course questionnaires and the answers are compared (as in Phase 2), the results may simply end up reflecting what the teachers think are the teacher educator's expectations. The responses may therefore be interpreted as the teachers' "increased awareness of the key SLA (Second Language Acquisition) principles rather than their actual personal identification with them" (Kubanyiova, 2012, p. 17). In this case, their deeper beliefs may not have changed even though they have written or said the "right" things. However, in defence of the results of this research project, the teachers were made aware that the pre- and post-course questionnaires were a personal development task that would not be graded or used to assess them, unlike Busch's study (2010) where 5% of teachers' grades were awarded on the basis of their justifications for their responses to a post-course questionnaire, identical to a pre-course questionnaire.

Internal validity is also dependent on the accuracy of the causal relationships which are found. In this study, the main assumed causal relationship would be between the impact of the course and the course outcomes as operationalized in Phase 2. If causality cannot be proven or is in doubt due to, for example, uncertainty about the accuracy of a measuring instrument, then the researcher must consider whether there could be other reasons for the results than the causal relationship which has been assumed (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002, p. 58). This point is touched on in Article 2. Although there is no evidence that circumstances over the course year (other than the course) have affected participants (e.g. changes in the teachers' schools, or their personal lives), the issue of causality remains problematic; other causes of changes in teachers' behaviour and cognitions apart from the impact of the course cannot be ruled out (i.e. it is not possible to prove that changes in teachers' questionnaire responses were only caused by the course). One quite likely threat to *internal validity* is due to the maturation (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 183) of pupils during the course year, leading to teachers and pupils speaking more English towards the end of the course. Therefore, the question of the study's degree of *internal validity* remains somewhat open to doubt.

In Phase 3, the *prolonged engagement* (almost three years) during the case studies contributed to the credibility of the research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). This started with the teachers volunteering at the first course seminar, continued through my communication with the case study teachers at the course seminars during the course year as well as during the three visits to their schools. During the classroom observations, the teachers and pupils

were obviously aware of my presence, though this attention seemed to be reduced over time. Nonetheless, I talked with the teachers about this *reactivity* to try to find out to what extent the teachers or pupils had behaved differently from normal. I also tried to take account of such changes in my analysis as discussed in Article 3.

To sum up, the conscious use of multiple checks on validity as described in this section, served to support and increase the overall credibility of the research.

3.4.3 Transferability of the overall findings

The purpose of the study was to produce knowledge which might be useful in so far as it could be transferred or generalised to other contexts. Normally the term generalisability is used in relation to quantitative methods, while transferability is applied to qualitative research (Guba, 1981). In this study, both kinds of methods were used: therefore, both terms are considered in this section, before moving on to transferability in relation to the findings as a whole.

Within quantitative research, three kinds of generalisation can be identified (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). The first concerns the potential for drawing inferences from one study to wider populations. For example, in relation to the present study, wider populations could refer to all primary school teachers in the world who teach English without formal EFL teacher education. Clearly, this kind of broad inferential generalisation cannot be applied to this study, because the sample is too small and there are far too many variables which are not controlled for, so that causality cannot be proven (Shadish et al., 2002).

The second kind of generalisation is more limited and concerns whether research findings can be generalised to the “parent” population from which the sample has been drawn. In this case, this population would be all of the primary school teachers in Norway who took a CQ EFL course in 2013–2014. Even though the teachers taking the focus course in this study were not deliberately selected as a sample of all the teachers taking such courses that year (the parent sample), it is very likely that the 33 teachers on the course were representative for the total of 69 teachers who took the three CQ courses for primary school teachers in Norway in 2013–14 (i.e in terms of age, gender, teaching experience and EFL teaching experience). In this sense, the quantitative findings from Article 2 could be said to be generalizable for other teachers in the parent sample. However, even though the course sample may have been typical, there are still differences between the design of the focus

course and the design of the other CQ courses (as illustrated in Article 1), so that there may well be differences in the impact of the focus course as compared with the other courses. This means that this second kind of generalisation can only be used with reservation.

A third kind of generalisation is “theoretical generalisation”, which should be clearly delineated from empirical generalisation (Hammersley, 1992). Theoretical generalisation draws on “propositions, principles or statements from the findings for more general application” (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003, p. 264). In other words, inferences that draw on features from a local study may be used to help develop theory with potentially wider applications. The validity of this kind of generalisation depends on “the robustness of the research evidence (...), the way the evidence is interpreted and the researcher’s perspective on the meaning to attach to the research generated (display of analytic routes and interpretation)” (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003, p. 282). The latter authors suggest that if there is a clear and full description of the research methods and analysis process, such generalisation is “a legitimate hypothesis but equally open to challenge by other researchers and commentators” (p. 282). Some of these kinds of theoretical propositions are introduced into the discussions of the findings in the three articles and are also used in the discussion in the final chapter. I have tried to make the “analytic routes and interpretation” in the articles clear so that the linkages to the theoretical ideas in the discussions are logical and coherent.

Transferability is used in relation to qualitative research when considering to what extent findings may be relevant or applicable in other contexts. Patton (2002) views transferability as “modest speculations on the likely applicability of the findings to other situations under similar, but not identical conditions” (p. 584). Extrapolations are thus similar to theoretical generalisations. They use “logical, thoughtful and problem-orientated rather than statistical or probabilistic” (Patton, 2002, p. 584). Lincoln and Guba (1985) also favor the term transferability. While emphasizing that there will always be circumstances which make any particular situation unique, these researchers propose that by taking contextual factors into account, it is possible to make judgements as to the transferability of findings from one “sending” context to another “receiving” context.

The provision of details of these contextual factors representing important aspects of the research context is part of the rich description which it is assumed can assist readers to make judgements about transferability to other contexts. In other words, contextual description allows the reader to discern and evaluate the degree of similarity between the research context, and other relevant contexts. The role of the researcher is therefore to provide

sufficient description of the research context and the phenomena under investigation. In terms of the research context in this study, the articles describe different factors that could assist readers to decide how applicable the findings might be to their own context. These include the following facts:

- Norway is thinly populated. Half of the population lives in small towns or rural areas.
- There is wide exposure to English, and Norwegians generally speak English well.
- Primary school classes are not normally very large and can be small in rural areas.
- Classroom environments are typically relatively liberal and pupil-centred.
- Norwegian primary school EFL teachers are normally generalists.
- Pupils in grades 1–4 have one English lesson each week, grades 5–7 have 2–3 lessons a week.
- There is a communicative curriculum with open-ended, target competence goals.
- The curriculum goals are divided between oral and written communication goals, goals for language learning strategies, and goals for literature, culture and society.
- Curriculum content is not prescribed but is left to teachers to decide.
- Generous study conditions are provided for CQ teachers over the course year.
- CQ courses are mostly online, with five 2-day seminars and a week seminar in York.
- Teacher educators' background experience and specialities are described.

In addition to the inclusion of these contextual factors, the in-depth descriptions of classroom activity and teachers' lives in the case studies can help readers to further identify differences and similarities with their own contexts. Stake (1978) suggests that this kind of description in case studies may allow the reader to form an “intuitive and empirical form of generalization”, based on the researcher's own experience and feelings rather than one that is rationalistic and law-like. He argues that what becomes useful understanding:

is a full and thorough knowledge of the particular, recognizing it also in new and foreign contexts. That knowledge is a form of generalization, arrived at by recognizing the similarity of objects and issues in and out of context and by sensing the natural co-variance of happenings (Stake, 1978, p. 6).

Bringing together the different terms discussed up to this point, it should be possible to consider the transferability of the findings to other contexts, to make theoretical propositions in the form of generalisations and also take into account a limited form of generalisation to the parent population.

In addition, in relation to the overall integration of the findings, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggest that the combination of mixed methods strands “can enjoy a dual advantage in terms of inference transferability”, since the larger samples in quantitative strands can provide “greater confidence” while “rich and inclusive understandings” from qualitative strands can “provide the details necessary for a comprehensive assessment of the conditions from which the inferences were made and to which the recommendations may be transferred” (p. 311–312). However, for the overall findings to be considered transferable to other contexts, the research as a whole must, above all, be considered as valid and truthful (i.e credible, dependable and confirmable).

Triangulation of methods is recognised as an effective way to increase the trustworthiness of results (Hammersley, 2008) since if different methods lead to the same result, there is less chance of the results being due to specific aspects of one method. In addition, if the results shown by different methods differ, this can stimulate new interpretations, and the overall results may show more nuanced and holistic understandings of phenomena. Therefore, if there is a high level of consistency between the data using different methods, there is a probability of increased validity.

Hammersley (2008) also suggests that there may be some disadvantages with triangulation, such as complexity or conflicts in the data that may be difficult to interpret or resolve and can lead to “fuzzy” conclusions creating additional complexity. However, other researchers argue that added complexity may simply be a part of reality, and fuzziness may be part of “an indispensable concept of plausibility” (Shadish et al. 2002, p. 484). Other disadvantages of triangulation can include overload of data for a single researcher and challenges in maintaining awareness of the implications of mixing data (Hammersley, 2008). I used peer debriefing and member checking to counteract these threats, as well as the perspectives provided by three independent supervisors.

3.5 Summary

In this study, the overall focus is on the relationship between the course design and the impact of the course on the teachers’ professional development. Phase 1 investigated the theoretical foundation for the course design. This was followed by the use of mixed methods in Phase 2, where the qualitative findings were used to enhance, elaborate and clarify the quantitative data in the form of the statistical results. In Phase 3, descriptive statistics were

used to support qualitative interpretations in the case studies. Methodological triangulation was used throughout to seek convergence and corroboration and strengthen the sequential validity of the findings, including the integration of the results from the different phases (Chapter 5).

4. Summary of the Articles

This chapter consists of summaries of the three articles included in the dissertation.

4.1 Article 1 Summary

Title: Coburn, J. (2014) Comparing varieties of in-service English language training for primary school teachers in Norway. *Acta Didactica*, 8(2), Art. 16.

The aim of the first article was to investigate different ways of organising and designing in-service courses for Norwegian primary school teachers who currently teach English without any formal training as language teachers. Three courses were compared. The first two offered 30-ECTS point courses within the framework of the national CQ programme. One is the focus course, the other CQ course is here referred to as the non-focus CQ course. The third course was a 15-ECTS course organised wholly independently of the CQ program, a cooperative effort between one small local municipality and the university college in that region. One objective of including the local course was to give a voice to teachers from a region, which was at the time largely excluded from participation on the CQ courses. My stance as a researcher advocating for this disenfranchised group (Greene, 1995, November, p. 1) is explicitly stated in the article.

The research question was:

What characterises the differences in organisation, pedagogical design, evaluation and perceived outcomes of the CQ course model vis-à-vis the local model?

The course contexts are first outlined in some detail. The different course designs are then presented using the results of document analysis interspersed with extracts from thematic interviews with the teacher educators responsible for the design of the different courses. The two sample CQ courses represented two of the three CQ EFL courses for primary school teachers initiated in 2013–2014. The local course was chosen as a rare example of an alternative initiative outside the CQ framework.

The analysis were obtained through a comparative analysis of the different courses with two main dimensions: the organisational framework and the pedagogical design. The former related to the partnerships between the educational institutions responsible for the different

courses, the mode of course delivery, number of paid study hours, ECTS points, and overall costs. The pedagogical design included both decisions about the subject-matter content, ways of working with the subject matter, and kinds of activities at and between seminars.

The findings showed that the financial premises for the organisation of the CQ and local course models are radically different: The CQ teachers are given generous paid study leave, while there was almost no paid study leave for the teachers on the local course. However, the design of the local course brought together local teachers in a collaborative learning environment, which both theory and research suggests is important for optimal learning (Desimone, 2009; Broad & Evans, 2006). There were also very limited opportunities for teachers to collaborate on the CQ courses largely due to its mainly online delivery, although the Lesson Study alternative on the non-focus CQ course showed that collaboration between CQ course participants is possible.

All of the courses provided school-based learning opportunities through classroom-based tasks as recommended in the research field (Hayes & Chang, 2012; Waters, 2006). The choice of subject-matter content for the courses differed most in relation to the amount of knowledge about language that was included. On the local course, the linguistics component was limited and was not very well-received, in contrast to the appreciation of the presentation of new teaching ideas and methods. In contrast, both CQ courses devoted considerable time to knowledge about language, especially the focus course. However, neither CQ course gave teachers the opportunity for structured practice of their oral English between the course seminars. The teacher educators experienced that there were too many practical problems in using Skype or a similar solution.

In addition to the comparison of the three course designs, the findings also included the responses of the teachers on the focus course and on the local course to identical questions concerning the development of their language skills on the two courses. (The equivalent data was not available for the non-focus CQ course.) This showed that while the teachers on the local course felt that their speaking abilities were weakest and improved least on the course, the teachers on the focus course felt that, after their reading skills, their speaking skills increased most. The main explanation for these findings is that on the local course, there was almost no time for the teachers to speak English during the monthly four-hour seminars. Conversely, the large amount of study time gave the CQ teachers time for extensive reading, which together with the opportunities to talk at seminars helped the teachers to strengthen their oral skills. On the focus course, there was also an oral exam halfway through the

course, which may have helped to focus the teachers' attention on developing their oral proficiency.

The article's discussion focuses initially on the need to develop collaborative learning environments in local schools or local regions in order to sustain learning and teacher development processes that are initiated or stimulated during in-service courses. Next, the importance of the teacher educators responsible for methodological content on the focus course and on the local course was also discussed; in relation to their role in assisting teachers to become more aware of their own beliefs about teaching, as a necessary precondition for introducing new conceptions and teaching practices (Borg, 2006; Postholm, 2012). The third part of the discussion referred to the impact of the lack of reference to pedagogical content knowledge within the guidelines for the subject-matter knowledge for the CQ courses. The lack of integration of pedagogical knowledge on the focus course in relation to grammar teaching meant that neither the linguistics teacher educator nor the teacher educator responsible for teaching methodology took responsibility for showing the participant teachers how to teach grammar more explicitly.

A variety of researchers and theorists have underlined the need for coherence in the organisation of in-service courses or CPD activities, between local, regional and national educational institutions. If educational change is to be successful and sustainable, the different levels of educational institutions must be coordinated so that they support one another (Waters & Vilches, 2010; Opfer & Pedder, 2011; Borg, 2015). However, the implications of the findings are that the design of the CQ programme lacks such coherence. The participant teachers' local schools are not connected with the universities or university colleges delivering the CQ courses, and the participant teachers were not required to share knowledge at their home schools.

Since this article was published, knowledge sharing at local schools has become a course requirement (See Appendix A with NDET guidelines from 2015). However, this is only likely to result in a token sharing at a single meeting. Other research on the CQ program suggests that a longer-term restructuring of the organization of the CQ programme is needed if the courses are to have significant effect on other teachers who are not directly participating on CQ courses (Maugesten & Mellegård, 2015).

The local course was organised in a more coherent way in the sense that the regional college, the local municipality and local schools cooperated in the organisation of the course. However, the local course lacked the resources to give the teachers time to study because it

was not supported by the national authorities (NDET). The course gave a limited but important stimulus to local teachers, but professional development is not likely to prove sustainable without further follow-up.

The possibility of giving teachers the opportunity to attend summer language schools in the UK was proposed as a relatively cheap and motivating addition or alternative as a way to help some teachers improve their oral proficiency. The development of EFL teacher networks was also proposed so that the learning from in-service courses can be sustained, in a context where a high proportion of the participant teachers' colleagues are not educated as EFL teachers. Finally, Article 1 concludes that despite deficiencies in relation to research recommendations, the CQ courses provide an extremely generous and unique development opportunity for the teachers who are lucky enough to be selected.

4.2 Article 2 Summary

Title: Changes in primary school teachers' cognitions and practices after a one-year in-service EFL education programme. To be submitted to: *Teaching and Teacher Education* OR *Second Language Research*

The aim of the second article was to investigate the impact of the one-year focus CQ course on 33 participant teachers' cognitions, confidence, self-reported classroom language and teaching practices. These experienced primary school teachers had previously taught English without any EFL teacher training. The research used a holistic mixed-methods approach to answer the following questions:

To what extent does participation in the English language in-service teacher training lead to changes in:

1. *teachers' beliefs about their competence as teachers in relation to curriculum goals?*
2. *teachers' confidence in their own English language proficiency?*
3. *teachers' self-reported use of Norwegian in the English language classroom?*
4. *teachers' self-reported approaches to the teaching of oral proficiency?*

The main research instrument was an obligatory, ungraded personal development task consisting of a questionnaire with 81 statements with response alternatives on a 5-point Likert scale. The teachers were asked to fill out this questionnaire twice, first during the

start-up course seminar and then during the final course seminar. After the final course seminar, the teachers were given a copy of their original questionnaire responses from the start-up seminar, as well as a copy of their responses from the final seminar. They were then asked to notice changes (or lack of changes) between their two sets of answers, and reflect and comment on these changes. The first time the questionnaire was administered, it also included four open questions about the teachers' own language learning and language teaching experiences and beliefs.

The changes in the teachers' responses to the Likert-scale items were statistically analysed using SPSS. A 95% level of certainty was chosen as the significance level for changes in the group of teachers' responses. The teachers' written reflections on their changes formed the qualitative material used to support, interpret, explain, exemplify and illustrate the quantitative findings.

The statements in the first section of the questionnaire drew upon approximately half of the competence goals in the Norwegian EFL language curriculum for primary school (KP06). For this part only, the questionnaire was divided, according to the different curriculum goals for the two different age groups: grades 1–4 and 5–7. The second section included statements drawn or adapted from the questionnaire: "Own-language use in ELT: exploring global practices and attitudes" (Cook & Hall, 2013). The other sections of the questionnaire focused on teachers' confidence in their own oral proficiency, their use of the textbook and other materials, and their beliefs and practices in relation to promoting pupils' oral proficiency. There were also shorter sections about grammar teaching and correction, but only minimal data from these were used in the article due to space limitations.

The teachers' answers to the open questions showed that they had mainly been taught English through traditional methods including translation, cramming individual words, following the textbook teaching and reading aloud in class. Interestingly, some teachers were initially positive to these approaches.

The SPSS analysis showed that the teachers' feelings of competence in relation to their abilities to help their pupils attain curriculum goals changed significantly in relation to most of the goals for oral communication. The exceptions were the goals for pronunciation and intonation, and for the 5th–7th grade teachers, for the goal of helping their pupils to "introduce, maintain and terminate conversations related to familiar situations". The teachers' feelings of efficacy in relation to all but one of the written communication goals also changed significantly.

Next, the 5th–7th grade teachers’ questionnaire responses did not change significantly in relation to the curriculum goals for helping their pupils with strategies for some goals for language learning strategies, or in relation to the goals for teaching about society, culture and literature. This stood in contrast to the changes for the 1st–4th grade teachers, which were significant in these areas. However, one of the most frequent and significant teacher reflections on their changes in relation to how easy they found helping their pupils attain curriculum goals, was that they said that they now understood more clearly what the goals meant. This might for example mean that even though the responses of the 5th–7th grade teachers did not change significantly, they may still have progressed considerably by developing a heightened awareness of the meaning and difficulty of achieving such goals.

With regard to the teachers’ self-reported classroom language use, both the 1st–4th and 5th–7th grade groups reported that significantly more English was used in all areas, but especially when explaining vocabulary and grammar, for creating a good class atmosphere, and for assessing learners. In the qualitative feedback, it was clear that teachers were using less translation and becoming more confident. This was confirmed by the results for the section concerning teachers’ confidence in their oral proficiency, which showed a positive significant change, except for some hesitation due to uncertainty about grammar.

In the other sections of the questionnaire, a significant reduction in teachers’ use of the textbook and textbook website was reported, with a significant increase in use of texts from other sources. There was a significant increase in the use of pair work for the 5th–7th grade group, with teachers emphasising their growing realisation of the importance of activating pupils orally. Both the 1st–4th and 5th–7th grade teachers reported using significantly less correction.

The discussion began by relating the findings and teachers’ reflections to the global context, since they illustrate the problems facing increasing numbers of primary school teachers who lack EFL teacher education and are simultaneously faced with communicative curricula that do not provide adequate methodological guidance (Wedell, 2013; Hall, 2011; Akbari, 2008).

The success of the teacher educator responsible for teaching methodology in working with and encouraging changes in teachers’ cognitions was also recognised. The evidence from different teachers’ reflections and from the researchers’ observations of seminar discussions showed that this teacher educator succeeded in creating opportunities for the teachers to discuss and “negotiate” their understandings of theoretical concepts, thus engaging teachers’ existing theories of practice (Timperley et al., 2008). She helped teachers to become more

aware of their beliefs about the relative value of translation by explaining how it can prevent pupils from developing their guessing competence (Lundberg, 2007). In so doing, she was apparently able to constructively manage the “conflict that inevitably arises when participants discuss their fundamental beliefs about teaching and learning” (Broad & Evans, 2006, p. 77).

The main factors explaining the relatively strong impact of the course were considered to be the long-term orientation of the training (one school year) and the integration of theoretical study and practical classroom teaching. The provision of ample study time in the form of paid study leave, the voluntary nature of the training, and the willingness of teachers to embrace change were also considered to be powerful influences that supported teaching learning. The ability of the methodology teacher to challenge teachers’ beliefs through lesson demonstrations and seminar discussions, giving them concrete alternative practical solutions to back up theoretical explanations was also considered a strong factor assisting development.

4.3 Article 3 Summary

Title: Assessing the impact of an in-service EFL teacher education course on four Norwegian primary school teachers. To be submitted to: *Journal of Teacher Education OR Language teaching research*

The aim of this study was to investigate changes in the cognitions, confidence, classroom language and teaching practices of four experienced Norwegian primary school teachers who took the CQ in-service EFL teacher education course. The four teachers, who had previously taught English without any EFL teacher education, were selected from seven teachers who volunteered from a cohort of 33 teachers who completed the training. Two were teaching at the 1st–4th grade level and two at the 5th–7th grade level. The research questions were:

1. *How did the course impact the four teachers’ a) classroom language, b) English teaching practices c) confidence and d) cognitions (knowledge and, beliefs) about English teaching?*
2. *What was the longer-term impact of the course on the four teachers within their respective school contexts?*

The article comprises longitudinal case studies that followed the teachers during and after the course, with three visits to each of the four teachers' schools, one early in the course, one late in the course, and a final visit 16 months after the course finished.

During the course, a small number of the case study teachers' early and late course lessons were observed. In some of these lessons, their classroom language was recorded and later transcribed and analysed. For the 1st–4th grade teachers, one full lesson was recorded early in the course and one lesson towards the end of the course. For the 5th–7th grade teachers, two lessons were recorded early on and two lessons late in the course. Shorter parts of other lessons were also recorded for different teachers (for example, one of the 1st–4th grade teachers often taught a little English mixed with other subjects), but the analysis of the selected transcriptions was based on the longer English lessons or longer lesson sections.

Before and after each lesson, recordings were made of the teachers' briefings and debriefings with the researcher. In addition, more structured interviews were carried out on each visit to discuss the lessons, the teachers' views about the course, their thoughts about their own learning processes and the development of their own English teaching.

The analysis of the transcriptions of the teachers' recorded lessons was carried out using a theoretical framework (Walsh, 2011) for categorizing different modes of lessons and related patterns of interaction. Next the analysis of the teachers' language was operationalised through quantitative measures of the amount of English used, the speed of speech, amount of word variation and frequency of errors. The data analysis also included comparison of the four teachers' pre- and post-course questionnaire responses and their written reflections on their changes, as well as analysis of the teachers' responses to other written course tasks.

The material from the analysis showed that all of the teachers began to use a more varied repertoire of methods and materials. In developing a more communicative approach, the teachers' spoke more English and their classroom language became less controlled and more spontaneous and interactive. Their word variation increased a little, while their frequency of errors remained the same or increased, probably as a result of the faster and more spontaneous teacher talk and more interactive teaching methods. Three of the teachers' confidence as English teachers increased while the overall confidence of one teacher was judged to have neither increased nor decreased. However, the confidence of three of the teachers as oral role models was judged to have decreased or remained the same, which implies the need for a more targeted concentration on the development of oral proficiency in the design of future courses.

The article discusses the consequences of the lack of classroom follow-up, limited opportunities for teacher collaboration and oral practice during the course, pointing out that the challenges of the predominantly online delivery of the course creates. These aspects of the focus course design do not directly correspond with theoretical and research-based recommendations that successful in-service training should include evaluation of “classroom implementation of what has been learned” (Hayes & Chang, 2012, p. 116), with an emphasis on “collaboration, shared inquiry and learning from and with peers” (Broad & Evans, 2006, p. 3).

The other major point in the discussion of the results of the longitudinal case studies was related to the second research question. It concerned the challenges which the two 1st–4th grade teachers experienced after the course when they were asked to teach new classes in which the pupils’ previous teachers had not been formally educated EFL teachers, and where the pupils were not used to speaking English in class. On a more positive note, this post-course perspective also indicated that the teachers had gained considerable confidence as EFL teachers and were ready to increase the amount of English they taught. Nonetheless, three of the four teachers regretted the lack of continuing support from more knowledgeable colleagues or outside experts. Two of the four teachers therefore expressed the wish to take a new 30-ECTS point in-service course to further boost their knowledge, skills and confidence, while a third teacher wished to spend an extended period in the UK as a school teaching assistant, in order to boost her oral proficiency.

A concentrated summary of combined findings from the three articles is given at the start of the final chapter, followed by an integrated summary answering the research question.

5. Discussion

This final chapter starts with a summary of the integrated findings in answer to the research question. The contribution of the study is then assessed, followed by a discussion of key points from the overall findings in relation to theory and previous research, and a summary of the implications for the CQ course and programme design. The limitations of the study are then set out prior to some suggestions for future research and the concluding remarks.

5.1 Integrated Summary of Findings: Answer to Research

Question

The following integrated general summary of findings answers the overall research question:

How does the impact of a Competence for Quality in-service EFL education course on participant teachers' professional development compare with an analysis of the design of the course?

One of the main strengths of the organisational design of the CQ courses is the provision of study time over one whole school year, which allow teachers to study English in depth, while continuing to teach English in their own classrooms. These generous conditions allow teachers to read, try out ideas and then reflect over new theoretical conceptions linked to a communicative teaching approach (Littlewood, 2013). This serves as an excellent foundation for the teachers' PD.

The significant positive changes in the participant teachers' beliefs in their abilities to help pupils achieve curriculum goals are certainly linked to these generous provisions. Even so, the role of the teacher educators in planning, structuring and inspiring learning should also be clearly acknowledged. The significant increases in the amount of English that teachers reported using in their classrooms (Article 2), together with the reduction in the use of translation, backed by the weight of evidence from the observation and measurement in the case studies (Article 3), are also clear signs of the effectiveness of the course. Furthermore, the move towards less textbook dependence, more varied activities and more active pupils, the use of a wider range of teaching materials, and a greater emphasis on reading through easy readers and stories, all give evidence of significant progress. In this, the role of the experienced teacher educator responsible for methodology must be especially credited. Her

systematic efforts to raise teachers' awareness of their own beliefs helped to deepen their understanding as they tried out a wide range of new ideas, practices and resources. This integration of practical ideas backed by simple but powerful explanation (i.e. theory) helped to gradually convince teachers of the increased effectiveness of a more varied and communicative approach to teaching.

However, the longer-term evidence from the case studies suggested that there are a number of factors working against the sustainability of these gains in PD. The longitudinal case study evidence from the four teachers' home contexts indicated that even though teachers' confidence in their oral proficiency and methodological competence had developed during the course, there were signs that the momentum provided by the course input was slowing down. For example, the lack of regular opportunities outside English lessons to practice speaking English seemed to erode three of the four case study teachers' oral confidence over time.

In fact, as shown in Article 1, the lack of emphasis on practicing oral English between course seminars was identified as a serious weakness of the course design. In Article 2, the lack of significant change in the entire cohort of teachers' feelings of competence with regard to teaching pronunciation, as well as the lack of significant change in relation to hesitancy and grammatical errors, can both be related to low confidence in their oral proficiency. Furthermore, in the case studies in Article 3, both the teachers' fears of making mistakes as well as their actual mistakes undermined their confidence.

Weaknesses in the CQ organisational design were identified in Article 1, in the form of the individualised course delivery and lack of knowledge sharing in home schools, the lack of contact between the institutions delivering the courses and the teachers' home schools and local municipalities, and the lack of post-course follow-up. The consequences of these weaknesses became clearer in Article 3, which focused on the four teachers' home school contexts.

When the course participants return to their own schools and local teaching contexts, they return to an educational environment where many of their colleagues' lack EFL teacher education. Many of these CQ teachers then have to cope with relative isolation as EFL teachers following a year of extraordinary opportunities for PD.

In order to deal with this situation, the teachers should ideally develop such resilience that they are able to regulate their own learning and future development without depending on

colleagues around them who have not shared the same course experiences. However, although the focus course did enable the teachers to develop principled understandings of communicative language teaching (as shown in Articles 2 and 3), the course design did not systematically provide opportunities for teacher collaboration between seminars or prepare the teachers for the post-course realities they were going to face.

A greater focus on collaboration and teacher inquiry as a part of the CQ course design, similar to that in the Lesson Study project (Article 1 - Coburn, 2014, p. 8) on the non-focus course, might help participant teachers to strengthen and sustain the development that they underwent during the course. If course participants learn the value of collaboration during the course and are also very actively encouraged to seek participation in EFL networks (e.g. through the Internet), to support their future development as professional EFL teachers, they may stand a better chance of continuing to thrive, irrespective of their local environment. This could also help teachers deal with the reality of the current lack of support from EFL experts or colleagues in their home areas.

5.2 Study Contributions

Very few research studies have previously investigated the design and impact of in-service EFL training for generalist primary school teachers, though notable exceptions are the work of Lundberg (2007) in Sweden, and Sim (2011) in South Korea. In general, only a relatively small amount of research has been done in the field of in-service EFL education (Borg, 2006a; Hayes & Chang, 2012). Most of this research has focused on relatively short courses (Eikrem, 2006; Waters & Vilches, 2012), or courses providing rather few teaching hours (Kubanyiova, 2012).

This study is different because it focused on a relatively long course with a very generous provision of paid study time for the teachers. In addition, the teachers continued to work in their classrooms rather than being removed to other locations to take a shorter course (e.g. Sim, 2011). These conditions on the Norwegian CQ course are in accordance with research findings on CPD that indicate that teachers need time to develop and that “it is only school-based teacher learning which can provide the necessary ‘hands-on’ practical understanding (‘procedural’ knowledge) needed for implementing new teaching ideas” (Waters & Vilches, 2010, p. 4).

Given these ideal conditions, the study contributes valuable knowledge by producing results giving clear indications of the areas in which teachers face the greatest challenges. Teaching pronunciation is one such area, implying the need to build teachers' confidence in their own oral proficiency. Improvement in teaching pronunciation would be most likely to have the greatest effect for the 1st–4th grade teachers, since younger children imitate more easily and are less self-conscious. On the other hand, the 5th–7th grade teachers face other difficult challenges that explain why these teachers' beliefs about their competence to help their pupils fulfil more challenging competence goals did not change significantly. One of the contributions of the study is in clearly identifying these differences between the challenges facing the teachers of the younger and older children. These may have implications that are transferable to other countries and contexts. For example, in Sweden, since English became an obligatory part of pre-service teacher training at primary school level in 2011, two different training schemes have been established: one for the teachers of younger children, and one for the teachers of older children. The results of the present study seem to support such an approach.

In recent years, there has been an increased amount of research on teachers' beliefs (Fives & Gil, 2014). Simon Borg has been in the forefront of this research development within language teacher education. However, Borg argues that research that separates teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices creates an unnatural separation. He concludes, "The attention beliefs have received over the years has perhaps created the mistaken impression they are what matters most" (Borg, 2016, April 25). In this research project, however, I deliberately focused on teachers' PD by integrating the study of changes in teachers' classroom language, practices, confidence and cognitions. In other words, as Borg argued, teachers' beliefs were not isolated from their language use and teaching practices. The breadth of the overall findings was made possible as a result of this holistic focus.

The findings from previous research into in-service EFL training (Borg, 2006a; Waters & Vilches, 2010), and from CPD (Opfer & Pedder, 2011; Timperley et al., 2008; Broad & Evans, 2006) all indicate the importance of taking into account both the individual teacher and their teaching contexts when researching the impact of CPD or INSET. I therefore deliberately adopted a research design that started with a broad comparative course design focus, narrowed down to one course group as a whole, and culminated in a longitudinal focus showing aspects of the impact of the course on individual teachers in their local contexts. This study design and research progression could be considered as a contribution to

knowledge, as a model showing how it is possible for a single researcher to shed light on a broad field as well as on individual participants.

The study illustrates a range of challenges that policy-makers and teacher educators face in designing suitable programmes for the development of generalist primary school teachers of English. It also makes a contribution to knowledge relevant to policy-makers and stakeholders, by illustrating the consequences of planning and organising in-service EFL teacher education by focusing on individuals without adequately taking into account the collective impact of educational policy. A main challenge lies in understanding the complexity of PD (Waters & Vilches, 2012; Broad & Evans, 2006; Opfer & Pedder, 2011). This means understanding the need to ensure that programmes instituted at national or regional level foster true collaboration between local school environments and the institutions responsible for delivering the courses. The results of the study might therefore serve as a warning to policy-makers, and educational authorities in other contexts, of the need to painstakingly consider the whole educational context and ensure coherence at the different levels of educational organisation, when planning a programme for in-service EFL education.

5.3 Discussion of Key Points in Overall Findings

The integrated findings and answer to the overall research question raise questions as to what the subject-matter content of in-service EFL teacher education courses should comprise, and how they should be taught and organised to maximise sustainable teacher development. The following discussion addresses the need to develop teachers' oral proficiency and the importance of finding ways to assist teachers to adapt their teaching to integrate the teaching of language forms within a communicative approach. This is followed by a discussion of ways in which in-service EFL courses for experienced primary school teachers can be designed to integrate teacher learning processes, by prioritising teacher collaboration and by enlisting the support of teachers in their home school contexts.

5.3.1 CQ course design: Need for focus on oral proficiency

The overall findings indicate that the course generally strengthened teachers' confidence in their oral proficiency, which helped them as they tried out new more communicative approaches. However, in the long-term, maintaining language proficiency is a challenge for

language teachers (Valmori & De Costa, 2014; Richards, Conway, Roskvist, & Harvey, 2013). This was also confirmed in the longitudinal case study results in Article 3, which cast considerable doubt on the sustainability of the teachers' gains in oral confidence. In fact, the results from Article 1 comparing the development of teachers' language skills (on the focus CQ course and on the local course) showed that the teachers on the focus course still considered speaking as their second weakest language skill, even though it was one of the two skills (together with reading) which they perceived had improved the most.

In the post-course interviews, 16 months after the end of the course, three of the four teachers mentioned having difficulties in maintaining their proficiency due to lack of opportunities to practice speaking English. In addition, even though the case study teachers dared to speak both more English and at a higher speed in the late-course recorded lessons, their number of grammatical errors relative to the number of words spoken did not decrease. In Article 3, I hypothesized that part of the explanation for the number of grammatical errors remaining the same is that the teachers were speaking more English and/or were speaking faster. These alternatives imply that the teachers would have less time to mentally control for mistakes while speaking. However, another likely explanation is that the course did not pay sufficient attention on helping teachers to eradicate grammatical errors in their classroom language.

To examine this in more detail, while Module 1 of the focus course concentrated on raising the teachers' language awareness (*Language in Use*), and Module 2 concentrated on teaching methodology (*Teaching and Learning English*), neither module included interactive oral language practice outside of the seminars. Nor did the course focus on raising teachers' awareness of their mistakes, perhaps because this would have been perceived as too negative (James, 2013). Nonetheless, the findings raise the question as to whether the CQ courses should include a more concentrated focus on the development of teachers' language proficiency. Hopefully, this might result in increased fluency as well as an awareness of the need for accuracy, thereby improving the teachers' confidence in these areas. This might also strengthen their confidence in exemplifying and modelling the language when teaching pronunciation and grammar. In other words, these are areas where the research results indicate that there is room for improvement.

While Module 1 focused largely on grammar and phonetics, the research results were less positive in these areas. First, as mentioned, the questionnaire results in Article 2 show that there was not a significant change in teachers' confidence in their ability to speak without

hesitation due to grammatical errors, while the case study results in Article 3 showed no decrease in teachers' grammatical errors. Furthermore, questionnaire results showed that the teaching of pronunciation was the one area where both the 1st–4th and 5th–7th grade teachers' beliefs in their own competence to help their pupils achieve curriculum goals did not change significantly.

Richards (2007) emphasizes the benefits that increased fluency can have for increasing the flexibility of the language teacher's classroom practices. Young, Freeman, Hauck, Gomez & Papageorgiou (2014) and Freeman et al. (2015) have been working for some time to develop courses specifically designed to help the new groups of generalist teachers who are now being required to teach English. In these the focus is on helping these teachers to improve their classroom language. These course materials show promise because they simultaneously focus on teaching methodology, which, as mentioned above, also turned out to be one of the main strengths of the CQ course. The importance of the integration of language proficiency and methodology was discussed in Article 2, while the negative consequences of a narrow focus on improving language proficiency in in-service EFL training without integrating a methodological focus has been documented by Choi (2014).

In Article 1, I also concluded that a greater emphasis on developing oral proficiency was needed on the CQ courses. I recommended that teachers should be offered the opportunity to attend two or three week tailored language and methodology summer courses in the UK. This idea was subsequently raised with the current head of the Norwegian study centre in York where most CQ course participants now spend one week. However, the rapid growth in CQ courses since the present research study started (from 3 in 2013 to 9 in 2016 with further increases likely), means that this centre does not have sufficient capacity to help organise summer courses. Furthermore, the CQ program will not currently support the idea (based on personal communication with Morten Skaug, Director, NDET, 10 February 2016). Even so, the evidence presented above still suggests that a greater emphasis on developing oral proficiency is required. Therefore, the best alternative currently appears to be to introduce and prioritise an oral component on the CQ courses using the available technology (Skype or the equivalent).

5.3.2 Challenges in integrating a focus on meaning with a focus on form

A different challenge for the teacher educators designing CQ courses is in finding out how to help course participants find new approaches to grammar teaching and focus on form which

are balanced and better integrated with the principles of communicative language teaching (Yalden, 1987). Many of the teachers had themselves experienced English teaching based on grammar-translation or behaviourist approaches or both, with a main focus on language form at the level of the sentence, phrase and word (e.g. cramming individual items of vocabulary or irregular verbs). In communicative language teaching, there is more emphasis on the macro-language level, in other words the need to communicate appropriately in different contexts. However, it is a common misconception that a communicative approach implies that a contextualised focus on meaning should be at the expense of a focus on form.

Nonetheless, the existence of such a misconception seems to be implied by a number of studies on English language teaching and learning in Norway (Lehmann, 1999; Eikrem, 2006; Helland & Abildgaard, 2011). In 1999, Lehmann wrote a doctoral thesis focusing on the apparent failure of the transition to a communicative approach in Norway, as witnessed by the low level of written competence and prevalence of basic grammatical errors exhibited by tertiary-level students. More recently, Helland and Abildgaard, (2011) compared the progress of 6th and 7th grade pupils from before and after the introduction of the communicative curriculum in Norway in 2006 (KP06). They found that test scores of 6th and 7th grade pupils after 2006 (in 2009) showed weaker results for grammatical competence (Helland & Abilgaard, 2011, p. 1), compared with the pupils from an equivalent study in 2001, despite the increased number of hours introduced in the curriculum in 2006. In contrast, the pupils in the post-2006 research with the weaker grammatical competence were however found to talk more freely. Other Norwegian studies (Eikrem, 2006) also indicate a perceived tendency amongst EFL teachers towards a reduced focus on accuracy vis-a-vis fluency in English teaching, whereas a high level of communicative competence ultimately requires the equal development of both aspects.

Integrating a focus on form within a focus on meaning is therefore likely to be a challenge for the CQ course participants as they try to make the transition to a more communicative approach. This is not an easy transition, especially when the curriculum does not give specific methodological guidance (see discussion in Article 2).

The teaching of correct grammatical forms can be closely related to the teaching of accuracy. This has traditionally been taught through rules and repetition in the grammar-translation or behaviourist approaches. The findings from the CQ course concerning grammar teaching (see Appendix F for further results from the research for Article 2) suggest that teachers increased their use of contextualised approaches to grammar teaching. The case studies also

indicated that the teachers were relying more on an inductive approach. Yet there were also signs of uncertainty as to how grammar should be taught. This uncertainty might however be partly due to the different approaches adopted by the two different teacher educators responsible for the course (see Article 1).

To exemplify, during the second part of the course, the teacher educator for Module 2 (the methodology expert) appeared to advocate a generally implicit contextualised approach based on frequent targeted exposure. On the other hand, as mentioned above, the linguistics specialist responsible for the Module 1 concentrated on trying to raise teachers' awareness about language structures in general, without specifically advising how grammar might be taught, or to be more specific, with the aim of developing the teachers' language awareness (TLA). Andrews (2001) considers TLA to be an important sub-component of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge which helps the teacher to utilise her subject-matter knowledge and thus impacts pedagogical practice. Further support for this view is found in a recent exploratory study in Cyprus, which included in-service primary school teachers' perceptions of the kind of knowledge and skills that they required to teach effectively (Kourieos, 2014). Nonetheless, the latter study views TLA only as a bridge to the use of PCK, concluding that: "The findings have highlighted the primacy of subject-matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge, showing evidence that both are necessary in order to avoid fragmented language teaching" (Kourieos, p. 2014). However, the linguistics teacher did not work with PCK, seeing it as a "messy concept". She also believed that the teachers would tend to go back to using textbook representations of grammar after the course, though by then they would hopefully be better able to explain and utilise the textbook material.

In fact, textbook knowledge is usually limited to declarative grammar knowledge, which is but one aspect of the "more global knowledge a language teacher must call on when teaching grammar" (Borg, 2003, p. 98). Such explicit representations (e.g. learning reasons for the use of the simple present and present continuous), may be too abstract for many children who are at different stages of development. In addition, the teacher may be tempted to concentrate on simply promoting a positive class atmosphere where the children lose their fear of talking English, rather than focusing on correct forms (Kourieos, 2014).

On the other hand, the teacher of older children may be faced with a dilemma, since failure to introduce certain grammatical terms which pupils will need in later stages of language learning could prove unfortunate. There is also evidence in the research literature that

“explicit types of instruction are more effective than implicit types” (Norris & Ortega, 2000, p. 417). However, the bulk of the studies upon which these findings are based refer to classes with language teacher specialists and older language learners with more developed metacognitive skills, rather than generalist teachers working with children. In this challenging area, the teachers on CQ courses are likely to need more guidance in order to find out how to maintain a balance between the explicit and implicit teaching of grammar, and to adapt this to the age groups they teach.

5.3.3 Strengthening sustainability through collaboration and inquiry

According to their meta-study of research into teachers’ learning and professional development, Timperley et al. (2007) found a key factor that was crucial for the sustainability of teacher development, namely the extent to which professional learning experiences were “sufficiently principle-driven for teachers to understand how their adaptations fitted with the fundamental principles of the change agenda and their practice context” (p. 219). The evidence from the present study indicates that, to a large extent, the teachers did develop such principle-driven foundation.

As noted in Article 1, one of the most positive aspects of the organization of the CQ courses is the fact that the teachers were able to try out new ideas and practices in their own classrooms and that they had time both to read and reflect on their practical classroom experiments in relation to new theoretical conceptions. Furthermore, through regular course tasks and related reading, as well as through seminar lectures, discussions and group work, teachers were able to further deepen their understandings. In other words, the teachers were given the time and opportunity to integrate “principle-driven” learning, and adapt ideas to their own classrooms. The long time-frame for the course and generous provision of paid study time was crucial for this process.

A second factor that Timperley et al. (2008) identified as vital to the sustainability of PD activities concerns “the extent to which the professional learning opportunities equipped teachers with the skills for ongoing inquiry into the impact of their practice on students, and whether such learning opportunities continued over time” (p. 219). The evidence for this was more mixed.

The phrase “skills for ongoing inquiry” can be interpreted in different ways. As indicated, the teachers on the focus course had multiple opportunities to connect theory and practice

and by implication, were likely to have developed some “skills for ongoing inquiry”. Another way to interpret “skills for inquiry” is in relation to the teachers learning how to assess their pupils’ learning and development. In the focus course, the teachers learned about the use of assessment through different tasks, e.g. by assessing teaching materials (textbooks), by assessing the quality of their own writing, and by learning different ways to assess pupils’ progress in developing their vocabularies. Apart from this, the CQ course had no special emphasis on formative assessment for learning. One indication that the CQ course might benefit from more focus on assessment for learning (Shute, 2008) was given to the researcher prior to the final post-course interview by one of the case study teachers, who specifically asked for materials to help her assess pupils learning. This teacher remarked that while there were plenty of assessment materials for the other two core subjects (Norwegian and Mathematics), she experienced that there was almost none available for English.

Another way to interpret the development of the “skills for ongoing inquiry” that are needed for learning to become sustainable, is with reference to the development of the teacher’s ability to systematically evaluate his or her own teaching practices. This kind of skill in EFL has been termed teacher inquiry (Borg, 2015; Richards & Farrell, 2005). The development of inquiry skills occurred on a small scale in the focus course through different classroom tasks, and in a more systematic larger scale through the collaborative Lesson Study project in the non-focus course. The Lesson Study project also harmonizes with a third factor identified as necessary for sustainable learning (Timperley et al., 2008), the need for “ongoing opportunities for teachers to deepen relevant knowledge and skills and to work and learn collaboratively with colleagues as they tested the impact of their teaching on student outcomes” (p. 219).

The teachers on the CQ course did not have the same opportunities for systematic collaboration as did the teachers on the Lesson Study project. The participants on the six-month in-service EFL training programmes in Sweden (2004–2006) also had better opportunities for developing skills for inquiry, because this training used a “Teachers-as-Researchers” approach (Lundberg, 2007). In this educational action research, the teachers themselves, in collaboration with the teacher educator, decided which area of their teaching they were going to focus on. The teachers defined their own research questions which Lundberg later categorised under five overlapping headings: an early start; target language use; strategies for teaching and learning; motivation; documentation and language portfolio.

This suggests that a larger element of collaboration on the focus course as illustrated by the Lesson Study project, and the inclusion of inquiry-based learning as in the Swedish project, might contribute to further the sustainability of teachers' development on CQ courses. Such an approach is also more compatible with the "bottom-up" approach to CPD discussed in Chapter 2, with a greater focus on the construction and development of knowledge through cooperative inquiry.

5.3.4 Need for follow-up to ensure continuing PD

Yet another factor that research findings indicate contributes to the sustainability of development (Timperley et al, 2008), is the proviso that learning opportunities should continue over time. As noted in Article 1, the lack of follow-up is a major weakness in the design of the CQ programme. I suggested in the recommendations in Article 1 that the development of EFL teacher networks could help to provide support. However, the questionnaire results showed that only one of the 33 teachers was involved with an EFL teacher network. This does not bode well for the future development of the teachers. For example, in a recent study of teachers' PD, Broad (2015) argues that

[t]he most significant barrier to engagement with beneficial and meaningful CPD is the result of teachers operating in impoverished and limited teacher/CPD networks. These impoverished networks do not offer teachers the opportunity to forge links with similar subject-specialist teachers, leaving them to develop subject and occupational expertise in isolation (Broad, 2015, p. 16)

Despite the lack of follow-up, most of the teachers on the CQ course may still have learned sufficient "skills for inquiry" to have acquired the momentum to be able to continue developing for some years. For example, Hagen and Nyen (2009) estimate that the practical experiences from teacher training may have the greatest effect three to five years after the training is completed. In addition, if teachers are fortunate enough to be employed in a school that is orientated to CPD, the effect may be maintained longer. However, given the current shortages of formally educated EFL teachers in Norwegian schools (see Chapter 1), all-too-many of the teachers taking the CQ courses will not find themselves in such a development-oriented EFL teaching environment.

As long as the present system does not train adequate numbers of primary school English teachers, CQ EFL course participants will continue to meet the consequences of the same shortages when they return to their home school contexts. In other words, a dramatic lack of

qualified colleagues (two thirds of 1st–4th grade EFL teachers of English, and a half of 5th–7th grade EFL teachers are not educated as EFL teachers). When they return to their home schools, the CQ teachers will therefore continue to take over responsibility for a majority of pupils who have previously been taught English by teachers who have no education as EFL teachers.

5.4 Implications

The implications of the overall findings are divided into implications for the CQ programme design, and implications for the pedagogical design of CQ EFL courses for primary teachers.

5.4.1 Implications for programme design

Giving English in primary schools special status on the CQ programme

- The Norwegian Directorate of Education and Training must admit that the current form of in-service training cannot solve the shortages. Due to the unique level of shortages compared with other core subjects, the CQ program for primary school English teachers should be considered an exception.

Restructuring implementation of the CQ programme for collective learning

- For each teacher who is accepted on the CQ programme, part of the teacher's funding should be given to the teacher's schools and municipalities. If necessary, the individual teacher's paid study hours could be somewhat reduced. The CQ program already offers the possibility of flexibility in the use of funding through a fully online alternative, so this is not a new idea. The difference is that the schools and municipalities would be made to assume co-responsibility for collective development in collaboration with the universities and colleges delivering the courses.
- Using part of the funding now used for each individual teacher, the individual participant's school should be required to financially facilitate obligatory collective development tasks given to the individual course participants by the teacher educators working for the colleges and universities delivering the course. This would be done by paying for development study time and if necessary travelling and materials expenses for other English teachers in the same school or school area. This

would mean a radical extension of the current knowledge sharing task in home schools that is currently required according to the NDET guidelines (Maugesten & Mellegård, 2015).

- The local municipalities should also be required to use part of the funding given to them when their teachers participate on CQ courses, to initiate and finance ongoing subject teacher networks. Colleges or universities receiving funding to deliver CQ courses should be obliged to inquire into and support such networks, reporting back to the national authorities on their progress.

Utilising and developing outstanding teachers

- The development of local teachers-as-trainers and network coordinators cooperating with teacher educators at the colleges and universities should be a part of this coordination between the local municipalities, colleges and universities and national authorities

5.4.2 Implications for pedagogical design

More focus on developing oral proficiency with support for online delivery

- The teachers' oral language proficiency should be tested at the start of the course. The teacher educators should work mainly with weaker teachers through regular Skype conversations focusing on methodological content. Other teachers should also be required to talk English on Skype together, collaborating on methodological tasks. The Institutions delivering the courses must provide pro-active support for the teacher educators responsible for the online delivery.

Unified and integrated course design and implementation

- To avoid fragmentation, CQ courses should have a one-year unified course design. The communicative language teaching approach taught on the CQ courses should pay particular attention to the need to balance a focus on fluency with a focus on accuracy. Teacher educators at the institutions delivering the courses should be pro-actively encouraged to cooperate with outstanding English teachers working in local schools. Such teachers should contribute to the delivery of courses.

Collaboration and teacher inquiry

- The course design must include collaboration between teachers between seminars. This might involve lesson study or some other form of joint teacher inquiry. Elements of systematic inquiry in teachers' own classrooms should be included as a central part of courses.

5.5 Credibility of Findings

The reliability and validity of the findings and the overall methodological approach have been discussed in Chapter 3. Beyond the arguments forwarded in that chapter, a further issue that makes the findings difficult to interpret with certainty is the time perspective and the question of maturation which can limit the validity of findings (Cohen et al., 2011). In other words, there are still uncertainties about the impact of the course on the course participants' long-term trajectories of development. In addition, the question of the representativeness and size of the samples is so important with regard to the validity of the overall findings that it is necessary to reiterate the limitations of the study, whilst simultaneously pointing out its undoubted value and usefulness.

In the school year when the study took place, there were only three CQ EFL courses for primary school teachers. Even though the national CQ framework and conditions were the same for the different courses, there are a number of important variables which differed, especially with regard to the teacher educators and the details of the pedagogical course design. This means that results for the small number of courses cannot be directly compared in terms of cause and effect.

Furthermore, even though the focus course was the largest of the three courses in 2013–2014, with almost half the total number of participants that year, there were still only thirty-three course participants in the study. While the results were for a whole cohort of teachers, this is a relatively small number on which to generalise results to a reference population, and this sample certainly does not allow for generalising to a wider population.

In like manner, the participants in the case studies in Phase 3 of the study cannot be formally considered as representative for the broader population. Furthermore, the small number of lessons recorded and analysed in the case studies mean that the results cannot be generalised, even though they show very interesting indications. These limitations notwithstanding, the

wide-ranging qualitative and quantitative research data from the in-depth, longitudinal study of these teachers supports an “intuitive and empirical form of generalization” as described by Stake (1978, p. 6), as well as the possibility for theoretical generalization in the form of “propositions, principles or statements from the findings for more general application” (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003, p. 264).

Furthermore, there are good reasons to believe that the overall findings from the study provided indications which are highly relevant, not to mention useful for the analysis of the developmental needs of EFL primary school teachers in Norway who currently lack formal education, and to the subsequent design of future in-service programmes and courses most suited to these needs.

Despite the various uncertainties and limitations, the central methodological feature of the research design strengthened both the validity and usefulness of the results: The use of mixed methods increased the validity of the results by capitalizing on inherent method strengths, allowing increased breadth and depth of interpretation (Greene et al., 1989). The cumulative knowledge that was constructed during the progressive stages of the research contributed to an expansion of perspectives, especially through the late post-course interviews which provided a valuable longitudinal perspective. The use of triangulation and multiple methods throughout the study increased the validity of the results by counteracting threats to validity inherent in the use of single methods. This triangulation, together with the accumulated weight of evidence from the study as a whole, means that the results are in general trustworthy and credible. The detailed contextualization also allows readers to evaluate to what extent and in what ways the findings may be transferable to their own contexts.

5.6 Conclusion

Overall, this study has shown that it is not possible to consider the impact of in-service EFL teacher education courses for primary school EFL teachers without considering the wider context in which the teachers work. In short, the impact of the course on the teachers will in turn be influenced by the wider teaching context in which the teachers find themselves. In the present study, the time frame of the CQ course and generous study conditions were enabling for the course participants, who have plenty of time to try out new ideas in practice. However, the programme is top-down and based on individual, rather than collective

development. After the course is finished, the teachers need to be able to regulate their own future development, not as individuals, but in a context where a high proportion of the other EFL teachers in the schools have no formal EFL teacher education. This state of affairs conflicts with the ideal solution identified by the ElliE research project which concluded that: “When a top-down process is combined with a supportive bottom-up school and home environment, the ideal conditions for sustainability are much more likely to be encountered” (Enever, 2011, p. 25).

Research projects in the following areas might help to prepare the conditions to strengthen the impact of the CQ courses and promote more sustainable development:

1. Research into the impact of the introduction of an oral proficiency component with teaching methodology as the main subject matter for discussion.
2. Research into EFL teacher networks for primary school teachers, with an initial survey to map the terrain.
3. A voluntary action research project for interested teacher educators and CQ course participants to help encourage the development of EFL teacher networks. Here, course participants could for example work with developing local networks.
4. A common research project connecting teacher educators at the different institutions delivering the CQ courses for primary school teachers. The purpose would be to use a common research tool to better evaluate the impact of the different CQ courses, and then work towards a model of best practice. One such research tool could be an improved version of the PD questionnaire and reflection task (Phase 2) used in this study. Teacher educators could analyse and compare results at the different institutions in order to make improvements in course design and strengthen collaboration between institutions.

The fact that there is a need for such research as well as for improvement in the design of the CQ programme and courses does not, however, imply that teachers who take EFL teacher education courses comparable to the Norwegian EFL CQ course will only meet negative post-course experiences. On the contrary, the teachers in this study undoubtedly developed a great deal as EFL teachers. The experience of three of four case study teachers also suggests that many of the participant teachers who take CQ courses are likely to face stimulating new challenges as recognised “qualified” EFL teachers when they return to their home schools. As if to confirm this, in the final days of this study, two of the case study teachers informed

me that they are now changing schools. One teacher had been employed for over 20 years at her school, the other teacher for almost as long. While I do not know the reasons, these changes may well be connected to the PD that the teachers experienced on the CQ course. These teachers have certainly become more attractive to employ.

Nonetheless, it is disquieting that the evaluations of the CQ program have not more strongly criticised the shortcomings of the individualised approach of the programme, and that NDET has not made far stronger representations to the political authorities concerning the chronic shortage of qualified EFL teachers in Norwegian primary schools. Indeed, NDET has previously stated (NDET, 2014) that in-service training can solve the problem of the shortages of formally qualified teachers in Norway. In the case of EFL in the primary school, this statement is patently untrue.

This is the same problem that Ion Drew pointed out sixteen years ago (Drew, 2000), when he and other teacher educators warned of the serious discrepancy between new national curriculum guidelines and weaknesses in the educational system, which is to ensure adequate certification of English teachers. Until NDET publicly acknowledges the scale of the problem and acts accordingly by clearly informing the political and educational authorities, the chronic shortages of formally qualified EFL teachers in Norwegian primary schools will continue.

The structural organisation of the CQ programme therefore needs to be changed away from the present exclusively top-down individualised approach so that far greater numbers of English teachers in primary schools can participate in CPD. This can be done through an extension of the present CQ programme by making “the development of competence into a collective responsibility rather than simply a private privilege for individual teachers” (Hagen & Nyen, p. 168). The current imbalance is reflected in teachers’ common description of being accepted on CQ courses as “winning the lottery”. Holding lotteries is not a good way to develop an educational system. A systematic change towards a more collective focus requires a new form of cooperation between the teachers’ home schools, the municipalities (school owners), the colleges and universities, and the national educational authorities.

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Appendix A: NDET CQ Course Design Guidelines

Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training (NDET) CQ course design guidelines

NDET requires that institutions delivering Competence for Quality (CQ) courses ensure that

- Courses should be based on laws, regulations and national guidelines for the subjects in the teaching education plans, teacher plans for primary and secondary school and other relevant documents.
- The subject plans that are developed should specify what students are expected to learn in terms of knowledge, skills and general competence.
- The work requirements for the studies should include collaborative learning with colleagues and competence sharing amongst the teachers' colleagues in their own schools.
- The studies should be practice-orientated and the participants' working practice should be used as part of the basis for reflection during the studies.
- The studies should generally be implemented as flexible learning and be organised as a combination of up to three joint gatherings pr. Semester, in addition to net-based/digitally-based forms of organisation, which include both administrative, pedagogical and subject-based areas. It is also possible to have a purely net-based study.
- The institutions of higher education in the region must perform internal evaluations and the region must give an overall evaluation report for the offers within the Competence for Quality programme.

The content of the study:

- The studies should have solid subject-based and subject-pedagogic content and include knowledge of varied ways of working in the subject.
- The studies should provide knowledge and experience in the use of the basic subject skills in practice.
- Differentiation should be integrated in the ways of working with the subject.
- The studies should include assessment of pupils' learning outcomes, how assessment can be used as a tool for the learning process, knowledge of pedagogical use of different evaluation/mapping tools, and include pupils' co-determination in the development of teaching goals and good evaluation practice.
- The studies should give student teachers experience in the pedagogical use of ICT in the subject and in the use of digital tools, and plan and assist reflection in their use.
- The studies must plan and assist practical work with the teaching plans and competence goals for the subject. Participants must gain practical experience in how the competence goals can be operationalised and made concrete.
- The studies should be designed so that participants can use their practical teaching experiences for discussion and reflection about how their subject teaching can be developed through good planning and implementation (subject-pedagogical focus)

Appendix B: Initial interview template

Initial themes for interview with teacher educators

1. The design and organisation of the course in relation to the official guidelines
2. The balance between discipline - subject matter and the didactic aspect?
3. Grammar as separate language component and PCK for grammar teaching?
4. Design and emphasis on developing oral proficiency
5. General English vs classroom English
6. Integration of practical methodology and theory
7. Classroom tasks
8. Teacher collaboration
9. Developing the online delivery
10. Qualifications of teacher educators

Appendix C: NSSRC Approval Documentation

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS
NORWEGIAN SOCIAL SCIENCE DATA SERVICES



MELDESKJEMA

Meldeskjema (versjon 1.4) for forsknings- og studentprosjekt som medfører meldeplikt eller konsesjonsplikt (f. personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter).

1. Prosjekttittel		
Tittel	Investigating cognitive, linguistic and methodological changes within in-service English teacher-training courses in Norway	
2. Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon		
Institusjon	Høgskolen i Hedmark	Velg den institusjonen du er tilknyttet. Alle nivå må oppgis. Ved studentprosjekt er det studentens tilknytning som er avgjørende. Dersom institusjonen ikke finnes på listen, vennligst ta kontakt med personvernombudet.
Avdeling/Fakultet	Avdeling for lærerutdanning og naturvitenskap	
Institutt	Institutt for humanistiske fag	
3. Daglig ansvarlig (forsker, veileder, stipendiat)		
Fornavn	james	Før opp navnet på den som har det daglige ansvaret for prosjektet. Veileder er vanligvis daglig ansvarlig ved studentprosjekt.
Etternavn	coburn	
Akademisk grad	Doktorgrad	Veileder og student må være tilknyttet samme institusjon. Dersom studenten har ekstern veileder, kan bivileder eller fagansvarlig ved studiestedet stå som daglig ansvarlig. Arbeidssted må være tilknyttet behandlingsansvarlig institusjon, f.eks. underavdeling, institutt etc.
Stilling	Stipendiat	
Arbeidssted	Hamar	
Adresse (arb.sted)	Høgskole I Hedmark, Avd. for lærerutdanning og naturvitenskap. Postboks 4010	NB! Det er viktig at du oppgir en e-postadresse som brukes aktivt. Vennligst gi oss beskjed dersom den endres.
Postnr/sted (arb.sted)	2306 Hamar	
Telefon/mobil (arb.sted)	62517245 / 45426179	
E-post	james.coburn@hihm.no	
4. Student (master, bachelor)		
Studentprosjekt	Ja <input type="radio"/> Nei <input checked="" type="radio"/>	
5. Formålet med prosjektet		
Formål	This research project will first investigate the design of a national in-service teacher-training program delivered by eight Norwegian Institutions of Higher Education through a mixed-mode delivery (online and face to face). Other Institutions with in-service training courses may also be investigated. Second, changes in participant teachers' cognition (i.e. their beliefs about language teaching) will be analysed, and finally, teachers' linguistic development (conscious knowledge and language skills proficiency) will be assessed and compared with changes in the methodological approaches employed by the teachers in their own classrooms	Redegjør kort for prosjektets formål, problemstilling, forskningsspørsmål e.l. Maks 750 tegn.
6. Prosjektomfang		
Velg omfang	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Enkel institusjon <input type="radio"/> Nasjonalt samarbeidsprosjekt <input type="radio"/> Internasjonalt samarbeidsprosjekt	Med samarbeidsprosjekt menes prosjekt som gjennomføres av flere institusjoner samtidig, som har samme formål og hvor personopplysninger utveksles.
Oppgi øvrige institusjoner		
Oppgi hvordan samarbeidet foregår		
7. Utvalgsbeskrivelse		
Utvalget	Lærerutdannere og lærere som er deltagere på videreutdanning kurs i engelsk.	Med utvalg menes dem som deltar i undersøkelsen eller dem det inntennes opplysninger om. F.eks. et representativt utvalg av befolkningen, skoleelever med lese- og skrivevansker, pasienter, innsatte.



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Postboks 4010 Bedriftssenteret
2306 HAMAR

Vår dato: 11.11.2013

Vår ref: 36012 / 2 / AMS

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

TILBAKEMELDING PÅ MELDING OM BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 22.10.2013. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

36012 *Investigating cognitive, linguistic and methodological changes within in-service English teacher-training courses in Norway*
Behandlingsansvarlig *Høgskolen i Hedmark, ved institusjonens øverste leder*
Daglig ansvarlig *James Coburn*

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger er meldepliktig i henhold til personopplysningsloven § 31. Behandlingen tilfredsstiller kravene i personopplysningsloven.

Personvernombudets vurdering forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, ombudets kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, <http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/meldeplikt/skjema.html>. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, <http://pvo.nsd.no/prosjekt>.

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 21.01.2016, rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen

Vigdis Namtvedt Kvalheim

Anne-Mette Somby

Kontaktperson: Anne-Mette Somby tlf: 55 58 24 10

Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

Dokumentet er elektronisk produsert og godkjent ved NSDs rutiner for elektronisk godkjenning.

Arkivingsdato: 12.11.2013 10:05

OMD: NSD, Universitetsforlaget, Postboks 1047 Berge, 5007 Berge, tlf: +47 56 58 21 17, www.nsd.no
NSD/NSD/NSD, Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet, 4790 Torshovm, tlf: +47 98 30 18 10, www.sivakent.no/na
NSD/NSD, 1503, 501, Universitetsforlaget, Torshovm, tlf: +47 98 30 18 10, www.sivakent.no/na

Appendix D: Questionnaire

Professional Development Task - About Being an English Teacher

The aim of the following task/questionnaire is to get you to express your thoughts, knowledge and attitudes in relation to different aspects of being an English teacher. The task is not meant to be an evaluation of how clever you are as an English teacher, but shall help to facilitate your professional development through reflection.

There are no right or wrong answers – your answers will not be evaluated. It is important that you answer as honestly as possible because it is only you who will compare and reflect over changes in your own answers. The answers will not be shared or discussed with other course participants. Towards the end of the course, you will be given the opportunity to discuss your reflections.

- The answers can be submitted using Fronter, sent as an email attachment to anneline.graedler@hihm.no, or delivered at the first class gathering in Hamar.
- Deadline for delivery: Monday 2 September 2013 (prior to the start of the course).

There are two versions of the task, based on which level you mostly teach: 1st–4th grade or 5th–7th grade (see the title of Part 1). Choose the version that is most relevant for you. (If you teach in the lower secondary school, choose the version for the 7th grade).

The task is divided into seven parts. The first five parts are in the form of a questionnaire:

1. Questions about how easy/difficult it is for you to help your pupils to attain the curriculum competence goals for the 4th or 7th grade
2. Questions about your current use of Norwegian in English lessons, your pupils' use of Norwegian, and your general thoughts in relation to the use of Norwegian in English lessons
3. Questions about your self-confidence in relation to your knowledge and use of oral English and your views on teaching to promote oral proficiency
4. Questions about your use of the English textbook and your use of other materials
5. Questions about grammar teaching and error correction
6. Open questions about your experiences and ideas as an English teacher
7. Make a simple drawing of what a successful English lesson might look like.

Part B consists of open questions about your experiences and ideas on being an English teacher. Please take your time and answer as completely as you can.

Please note: Part A is very detailed. You should take a break after filling out Part A, so you can begin on Part B with full concentration.

PART A Section 1-Based on revised curriculum goals for grades 1–4 (2013)

How easy/difficult it is for you to help your pupils attain the following selected curriculum competence goals for English for **grade 4**. Tick one of the squares on each line.

1.1 Language learning

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils find similarities between words and expressions in English and his/her own native language.					
2	I can help pupils use dictionaries and other aids in their own language learning.					

1.2 Oral communication

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils use simple listening strategies.					
2	I can help pupils use simple speaking strategies.					
3	I can help pupils listen to and understand the meaning of words and expressions based on the context they are used in.					
4	I can help pupils understand the main content of nursery rhymes, word games, songs, fairy tales and stories.					
5	I can help pupils use some polite expressions.					
6	I can help pupils use simple phrases to obtain help in understanding and being understood.					
7	I can help pupils participate in everyday conversations related to local surroundings and					
8	I can help pupils be able to recite the English alphabet, spell names and the name of their home town.					

1.3 Written communication

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils use simple reading strategies.					
2	I can help pupils use simple writing strategies.					
3	I can help pupils understand the meaning of words and expressions based on their context.					
4	I can help pupils write short texts.					
5	I can help pupils use digital tools to retrieve information and experiment in creating texts.					

1.4 Culture, society and literature

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils converse about some aspects of different ways of living, traditions and customs in English-speaking countries and in Norway.					
2	I can help pupils participate in presenting nursery rhymes, word games, songs, short plays and stories in English.					

PART A, Section 1: Based on the revised curriculum competence goals for grades 5–7 (2013)

How easy/difficult it is for you to help your pupils attain the following selected curriculum competence goals for English for **grade 7**. Tick one of the squares on each line.

1.1 Language learning

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils identify some linguistic similarities and differences between English and one's native language.					
2	I can help pupils use digital resources and other aids in one's own language learning.					

1.2 Oral communication

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils use listening and speaking strategies.					
2	I can help pupils use listening and speaking strategies.					
3	I can help understand a vocabulary related to familiar topics.					
4	I can help pupils use a vocabulary related to familiar topics.					
5	I can help pupils use expressions of politeness.					
6	I can help pupils express oneself to obtain help in understanding and being understood in different situations.					
7	I can help introduce, maintain and terminate conversations related to familiar situations.					
8	I can help pupils use basic patterns for pronunciation and intonation in					

1.3 Written communication

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils use reading strategies.					
2	I can help pupils use writing strategies.					
3	I can help pupils write coherent texts that narrate, retell and describe experiences.					
4	I can help pupils use basic patterns for orthography, word inflection, sentence and text construction to produce texts.					

1.4 Culture, society and literature

		Very easily	Easily	Quite easily	With a little difficulty	With difficulty
1	I can help pupils read children's and youth literature in English and converse about persons and content.					
2	I can help pupils express oneself creatively inspired by different types of English literature from various sources.					

PART A, Section 2: Use of Norwegian in English lessons

Here is a list of ways in which **teachers** might use **Norwegian** in class. In the class that you teach most often, how frequently do **you** use Norwegian to: (Tick one box only for each line.)

	2.1 I use Norwegian when I am going to	always	often	sometimes	rarely	Never
1	Explain the meaning of words					
2	Explain grammar					
3	Give instructions					
4	Promote a good relationship with pupils					
5	Create a good classroom atmosphere					
6	Correct spoken errors					
7	Give feedback on written work					
8	Assess learners competence					
9	Maintain order and discipline in the classroom					
10	Other (please specify):					

Here is a list of ways in which pupils sometimes use Norwegian during English classes. How frequently do **your pupils** use Norwegian to: (Tick one box for each line)

	2.3 My pupils use Norwegian by	always	often	sometimes	rarely	never
1	Using bilingual dictionaries or word lists					
2	Comparing English grammar with Norwegian grammar					
3	Watching English-language TV/video, YouTube with Norwegian subtitles					
4	Doing spoken translation activities					
5	Doing written translation activities					
6	Preparing for tasks and activities in Norwegian before switching to English					
7	Other (please specify):					

Tick ONE box for each statement below to summarise your views about your use of Norwegian in your classroom.

	2.3. My views on the use of Norwegian during English lessons	always	often	sometimes	rarely	never
1	I try to exclude the use of Norwegian.					
2	I allow the use of Norwegian only at certain points of a lesson.					
3	English should be the main language used in the classroom.					
4	I feel guilty if Norwegian is used in the classroom.					
5	The use of Norwegian helps the pupils express their cultural and linguistic identity more easily.					

Section 3 Use of the textbook and other materials

How much of the time in the classroom do you use the textbook and how much do you use other materials?

	3.1 I use	90–100% of the time	60–90% of the time	30–60% of the time	10–30% of the time	5–10% of the time	1–5% of the time	Never
1	the textbook.							
2	the textbook publisher’s website.							
3	material from other textbooks.							
4	materials borrowed from colleagues.							
5	stories which are not from the textbook.							
6	texts which are not from the textbook.							
7	materials from other websites.							

2. Reasons for your use of the textbook (+ workbook+ CD)

	I use the textbook because	Fully agree	Mostly agree	Partly agree	Mostly disagree	Fully disagree
1	it gives structure and predictability.					
2	it is designed to cover all the curriculum competence goals.					
3	I don’t have time to find other materials and activities.					
4	I don’t know where else to find other suitable materials.					
5	it has varied activities and a lot of good exercises.					
6	nearly all teachers I know use one.					

How to find and adapt other resources for use in English lessons?

	3.3 Finding resources and activities outside of the textbook	True	Partly true	Neither true or untrue	partly untrue	Untrue
1	My school has a lot of suitable reading and listening material and activities to use in English lessons that are easily available.					
2	The English teachers at my school cooperate a lot and share ideas and resources.					
3	I participate in a network with other English teachers that gives me access to reading and writing materials and activities to use in the English lessons.					

Section 4: Grammar teaching

	I think it's best to	Fully agree	Mostly agree	Partly agree	Mostly disagree	Fully disagree
1	introduce grammatical points according to when they are introduced in the textbook and workbook.					
2	concentrate a lot on grammar early so that the pupils won't develop bad habits.					
3	use a lot of written exercises with sentences to teach grammar.					
4	use a lot of oral repetition of sentences to teach grammar.					
5	practice a particular grammar point with the pupils by repeating certain sentences with clear and direct focus on the point.					
6	focus on a particular grammar point by finding texts which include examples of the point in a meaningful context.					

Section 5: Error correction

	I usually	Fully agree	Mostly agree	Partly agree	Mostly disagree	Fully disagree
1	try to correct pupils immediately when I hear that they make an error.					
2	We practice the most common oral errors together in class with oral practice and repetition.					
3	correct written errors					
4	do not correct written errors if the pupil is not mature enough to understand the error themselves.					

Section 6: How you relate to oral English

How much self-confidence do you have in relation your own oral proficiency in English?

	6.1 Your own oral English proficiency	Fully agree	Mostly agree	Partly agree	Mostly disagree	Fully disagree
1	I have sufficient self-confidence as my pupils' English-speaking role model.					
2	I have sufficient self-confidence in relation to my English accent and intonation.					
3	I don't need to sound like a native English speaker.					
4	I hesitate to speak a lot of English because I'm afraid of making grammatical errors.					
5	I hesitate to speak a lot of English because I'm afraid of making pronunciation mistakes.					
6	I have a sufficient command of of English words and expressions to be able to talk about feelings and opinions.					
7	I have a sufficient command of of English words and expressions needed for use in social situations.					

2. Helping to develop pupils' oral proficiency

To what extent do you agree with the following descriptions of how you can help your pupils develop oral proficiency?

	6.2 Facilitating the pupils' oral proficiency	Fully agree	Mostly agree	Partly agree	Mostly disagree	Fully disagree
1	Pupils should practice reading, writing and grammar before they start practicing speaking.					
2	From the start, I focus a lot of attention on practicing oral English.					
3	We often practice individual words and expressions to learn correct pronunciation.					
4	It's better that pupils listen to audio recordings of native speakers (CDs etc) than that they try to imitate me.					
5	We often practice songs, rhymes and poems together.					
6	Encouraging pupils to dare to talk and communicate in English is more important than if they speak grammatically correct English.					
7	We practice oral English together in class because when pupils work in pairs they quickly switch to Norwegian or say very little.					
8	I try to get pupils to practice a lot in pairs through short dialogues, interviews, roleplays, etc.					
9	Sometimes I get pupils to make sound files or photo stories or use digital tools in other ways (e.g. PhotoStory) to help develop their oral proficiency.					
10	I often work with story-telling with my pupils by getting them to join in dramatizing some of the content.					

BREAK!

Section 6 Your development and ideas as an English teacher

1. Please describe some early experiences from your own years in school that still influence the way you teach English today.

2. Have you changed as an English teacher over the years? If you have, who or what has influenced you, and in what ways?

3. Please describe the main ideas about teaching which influence your work as an English teacher and how you chose them?

4. Read and comment on the following quotations from two English teachers in lower secondary school.

“I’ve been reflecting on this... and I think basically when I’ve been on exam censor courses and such... I think it’s a bit wrong that there’s such a ‘who cares never mind’ attitude to so many things. There aren’t any real academic standards anymore. In the sense that it doesn’t matter if they can’t conjugate irregular verbs properly. It doesn’t seem to matter – and that I think that’s a bit dangerous, to use that word again. I think one should try to maintain a certain standard”.

(Interview IV, turn 126, Eikrem, B., PhD dissertation, Oslo University, 2006)

“We can see now that there’s a development, a change ...can see it very clearly ... you can see it in the trial material that we get from the Exam Administration, the exam tasks and the evaluation criteria which they include which has changed a lot over recent years. We’re now not looking for mistakes and errors in the same way at all. Now we’re looking for talents and creativity. And if there are some written errors or conjugation errors they don’t lose their high grade just because of that, you know...”

(Interview II turn 126, Eikrem, B., PhD dissertation, Oslo University, 2006)

OPPGAVE 1 (OBLIGATORISK ARBEIDSOPPGAVE)

OM Å VÆRE ENGELSKLÆRER

Hensikten med denne oppgaven er at du skal få uttrykke dine tanker, kunnskap og holdninger til forskjellige aspekter ved det å være engelsklærer. Oppgaven er ikke ment som en vurdering av hvor "flink" du er som engelsklærer, men skal kunne bidra til å fremme din profesjonelle utvikling ved hjelp av refleksjon.

NB! Det finnes ingen "riktige" eller "gale" svar i denne oppgaven, og den vil ikke bli vurdert i forhold til innholdet i svarene. Det er viktig at du svarer så ærlig som mulig siden det er du selv som skal sammenlikne og reflektere over eventuelle endringer i dine egne svar. Svarene skal ikke deles eller diskuteres med andre kursdeltakere, men du får anledning til å diskutere dine refleksjoner mot slutten av kurset.

- Besvarelsen kan lastes opp på Fronter, sendes som vedlegg til e-post (anneline.graedler@hihm.no), eller leveres på første samling på Hamar.
- Frist for innlevering: Mandag **2 September 2013** (før undervisningen starter).

Om oppgaven

Oppgaven kommer i to versjoner, basert på hvilke trinn du underviser mest på; 1.-4. trinn eller 5.-7. trinn (se overskriften i oppgavens del 1). Velg den versjonen som passer best for deg (hvis du underviser på ungdomstrinnet, velg 5.-7. trinn).

Oppgaven er inndelt i to hoved deler. Del A er et spørreskjema som inneholder spørsmål om

1. å hjelpe elevene å nå kompetansemålene i Kunnskapsløftet (ny revidert versjon);
2. språkbruk i engelsktimene;
3. bruk av læreverk og andre ressurser;
4. grammatikkundervisning;
5. feilretting
6. ditt forhold til muntlig engelsk;

Del B består av åpne spørsmål om dine erfaringer og idéer som engelsklærer. Her kan du ta deg god tid og svare utfyllende.

NB ! Del A er ganske omfattende! Du bør ta deg en pause etter at du har fylt ut del A og begynne på del B med full konsentrasjon

Navn

Del 1: Basert på revidert Kunnskapsløftet-mål i 1.-4. trinn (2013)

Hvor enkelt eller vanskelig synes du det er for deg å hjelpe elevene dine til å nå følgende utvalgt kompetansemålene i engelsk etter 4. årstrinn ? (Målene er tatt fra den nye reviderte læreplan for engelsk). Sett et kryss i én av rutene på hver linje.

	<i>1.1 Språklæring</i>	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elevene med å identifisere noen språklig likheter og ulikheter mellom engelsk og eget morsmål					
2	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke digitale ressurser i egen språklæring					

	<i>1.2 Muntlig kommunikasjon</i>	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elever til å bruke enkle lyttestrategier					
2	Jeg hjelper elever til å bruke enkle talestrategier					
3	Jeg hjelper elever til å lytte til og forstå betydningen av ord og uttrykk ut fra sammenhengen de er brukt i					
4	Jeg hjelper elever til å forstå hovedinnholdet i rim, regler, sanger, eventyr og fortellinger					
5	Jeg hjelper elever til å bruke noen høflighetsuttrykk					
6	Jeg hjelper elever til å bruke noen enkle fraser for å få hjelp til å forstå og bli forstått					
7	Jeg hjelper elever til å delta i dagligdagse samtaler knyttet til nære omgivelser og egne opplevelser					
8	Jeg hjelper elever til å si det engelske alfabetet og stave navn og bostedsnavn					

	<i>1.3 Skriftlig kommunikasjon</i>	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke enkle lese strategier					
2	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke enkle skrivestrategier					
3	Jeg hjelper elever til å forstå betydningen av ord og uttrykk ut fra sammenhengen de er brukt					
4	Jeg hjelper elever til å skrive korte tekster					
5	Jeg hjelper elever til å bruke digitale verktøy for å hente informasjon og eksperimentere med å skape tekst					

	1.4 Kultur, samfunn og litteratur	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elever til å samtale om noen sider ved ulike levesett, tradisjoner, og skikker i engelskspråklige land og i Norge					
2	Jeg hjelper elever til å delta i framføring av engelskspråklig rim, regler, sanger, korte skuespill og fortellinger					

Del 2: Språkbruk i engelsktimene

Nedenfor følger en liste over situasjoner hvor *lærere* av og til bruker *norsk* i engelskundervisningen. Hvor ofte bruker *du* norsk i den klassen du underviser mest? Sett et kryss i én av rutene på hver linje.

	2.1 Jeg bruker norsk når jeg skal	Alltid	Ofte	Noen ganger	Sjelden	Aldri
1	forklare hva et ord betyr					
2	forklare grammatikk					
3	gi instruksjoner					
4	fremme et godt forhold til elevene					
5	skape en god stemning i klassen					
6	korrigere feil i muntlig engelsk					
7	gi tilbakemeldinger på skriftlig arbeid					
8	vurdere elevenes kompetanse					
9	oppretholde orden og disiplin i klasserommet					
10	Annet (spesifiser):					

Nedenfor følger en liste over situasjoner hvor *elevene* av og til bruker *norsk* i engelsktimene. Hvor ofte bruker *dine elever* norsk i den klassen du underviser mest? Sett et kryss i én av rutene på hver linje.

	2.2 Elevene mine bruker norsk gjennom å	Alltid	Ofte	Noen ganger	Sjelden	Aldri
1	benytte seg av tospråklige ordbøker og ordlister					
2	sammenlikne engelsk grammatikk med norsk grammatikk					
3	se på engelskspråklig TV, video, YouTube, med norsk undertekst					
4	gjøre muntlige oversettelsesaktiviteter					
5	gjøre skriftlige oversettelsesaktiviteter					
6	Forberede seg til oppgaver og aktiviteter på norsk før de går over					
7	Annet (spesifiser):					

Kryss av ett felt for hver meningsytring nedenfor for å oppsummere hvordan du ser på bruken av norsk i engelskundervisningen din.

	<i>2.3 Mitt syn på bruken av norsk i engelsktimene</i>	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	Jeg forsøker å utelukke bruken av norsk.					
2	Jeg tillater bruk av norsk bare på enkelte tidspunkt i undervisningen.					
3	Engelsk bør være hovedspråket som er brukt i klasserommet.					
4	Jeg får dårlig samvittighet når det blir brukt norsk i klasserommet.					
5	Bruk av norsk gjør det lettere for elevene å uttrykke sin kulturelle og språklige identitet.					

Del 3: Din bruk av læreverker og andre ressurser.

Hvor mye av tiden *i klasserommet* bruker du læreverker og hvor mye bruker du andre ressurser?

	<i>3.1 Jeg bruker</i>	Ca. hver time	Ca. hver annen eller tredje time	En gang i måned eller oftere	Mindre en enn gang i måned	Aldri
1	lærebok					
2	forlagets websider knyttet til læreboka					
3	utvalgt materiale fra andre lærebøker					
4	utvalgt materiale lånt fra kolleger					
5	historier utenom de som er i læreboka					
6	tekster utenom de som er i læreboka					
7	websidene til fremmedspråksenteret					
8	Materialer fra andre websider					

Hva er grunnen til din bruk av læreverket?

	<i>3.2 Jeg bruker læreboka fordi</i>	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	den gir struktur og forutsigbarhet for meg og elevene.					
2	den er utformet slik at den dekker alle kompetansemålene.					
3	Jeg ikke har tid til å finne andre ressurser og aktiviteter.					
4	jeg ikke kjenner godt nok til andre kilder for ressurser.					
5	den har varierte aktiviteter og mange gode øvingsoppgaver.					
6	det er det vanlige, og nesten alle lærerne jeg kjenner gjør det.					

Hvordan finne og tilpasse andre ressurser til bruk i engelskundervisningen?

	<i>3.3 Å finne ressurser og aktiviteter utenom læreverket</i>	Sant	Delvis sant	Hverken sant eller usant	Delvis usant	Usant
1	Min skole har mye hensiktsmessig lese- og lyttemateriale og aktiviteter til bruk i engelsktimene som er lett tilgjengelig.					
2	Engelsk lærere på min skole samarbeider mye og dele ideer og ressurser					
3	Jeg deltar i et nettverk med andre engelsk lærere som gir meg tilgang til lese- og lyttemateriale og aktiviteter til bruk i engelsktimene					

Del 4: Grammatikk undervisning

	Jeg tror det er best å	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	introdusere grammatiske elementer ettersom de blir introdusert i læreboka.					
2	konsentrere mye på grammatikk på et tidlig tidspunkt for å unngå at elever utvikle uvaner.					
3	bruke mye skriftlige øvelser med setninger for å undervise grammatikk.					
4	bruke mye muntlig repetisjon av setninger for å undervise grammatikk.					
5	øve på bestemt grammatisk elementer med elever ved å repetere enkelte setninger med klart og direkte fokus på poenget.					
6	fokusere på et bestemt grammatisk element ved å finne tekster hvor det grammatiske element forekommer i et meningsfylte sammenheng.					

Del 5: Feilretting

	Jeg pleier vanligvis	Sant	Delvis sant	Hverken sant eller usant	Delvis usant	Usant
1	å korrigere elever med en gang når jeg hører en muntlig feil.					
2	å øve på vanlig muntlig feil gjennom felles muntlig øving og repetisjon.					
3	å korrigere skriftlig feil.					
4	ikke å korrigere skriftlig feil hvis eleven ikke er modne nok til selv å forstå feilen.					

Del 6: Ditt forhold til muntlig engelsk

Hvilken grad av selvtillit føler du i forhold til din egen kompetanse i muntlig engelsk?

	<i>6.1 Din egen kompetanse i muntlig engelsk</i>	Sant	Delvis sant	Hverken sant eller usant	Delvis usant	Usant
1	Jeg har tilstrekkelig selvtillit som engelsktalende rollemodell for mine elever.					
2	Jeg har tilstrekkelig selvtillit når det gjelder min egen uttale og intonasjon på engelsk.					
3	Jeg trenger ikke snakke som en som har engelsk som morsmål.					
4	Noen ganger nøler jeg med å snakke engelsk i klasserommet fordi jeg er redd for å gjøre grammatiske feil					
5	Noen ganger nøler jeg med å snakke engelsk i klasserommet fordi jeg er redd for å ha feil uttale.					
6	Jeg har tilstrekkelig kunnskap om engelske ord og uttrykk som trengs for å gjennomføre klasseledelse på engelsk.					
7	Jeg har tilstrekkelig kunnskap om engelske ord og uttrykk for å kunne snakke om følelser og meninger.					

I hvilken grad er du enig i følgende beskrivelser av hvordan man best kan fremme elevenes muntlige kompetanse?

	<i>6.2 Å fremme elevenes muntlige kompetanse</i>	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	Elevene bør øve på lesing, skriving og grammatikk før de begynner å bruke mye muntlig språk.					
2	Helt fra starten av fokuserer jeg mye på å øve på muntlig engelsk.					
3	Vi øver ofte på enkeltord og uttrykk for å lære riktig uttale.					
4	Det er bedre at elevene hører på lydopptak (CDer osv.) med noen som har engelsk som morsmål, enn at de hermer etter meg.					
5	Vi øver ofte sammen på sanger, rim og dikt.					
6	Å oppmuntre elevene til å tørre å snakke og kommunisere er viktigere enn at de lærer å snakke grammatisk korrekt.					
7	Vi øver mest på muntlig engelsk i full klasse, for når elevene arbeider i par slår de fort over til norsk eller sier veldig lite.					
8	Jeg prøver å få elevene til å øve mye parvis på muntlig engelsk, gjennom små dialoger, intervjuer, rollespill osv.					
9	Noen ganger får jeg elevene til å lage lydfiler eller bruke digitale verktøy på andre måter (f.eks. PhotoStory) for å øve på muntlig					
10	Jeg arbeider ofte med fortellinger ved å la elevene være med på å dramatisere noe av innholdet.					

Pause!

Del B: Dine erfaringer og idéer som engelsklærer (Svar så mye du ønsker under hvert spørsmål.)

1. *Kan du komme på noen tidlige erfaringer fra din egen skolegang som fortsatt påvirker måten du underviser engelsk på i dag?*

Svar:

2. *Har du forandret deg som engelsklærer i årenes løp? Hvis du har, hva eller hvem har påvirket deg, og på hvilken måte?*

Svar:

3. *Beskriv hvilke tanker og idéer omkring læring og undervisning som påvirker deg mest i arbeidet ditt som engelsklærer, og hvordan du har kommet fram til disse.*

Svar:

4. *Les og kommenter følgende sitater fra to engelsk lærere fra ungdomsskole.*

"Eg har no reflektert litt over dette her med at det ... eg syns i grunnen når eg har vore med på sensorkurs og sånn ... eg syns det har vore litt gale at der er sånn litt sånn skit-la-gå haldning no til veldig mykje. Det blir ikkje stilt sånne fagkrav lenger. I den forstand at det er ikkje så farleg om ein bøyer sterke verb feil. Det er ikkje så farleg med dette her - og det ... det syns eg litt farleg, for å bruke det ordet om igjen då. Eg syns ein skal prøve å halde eit visst nivå..."

(Interview IV, turn 126, Eikrem, B., Ph.d oppgave, Universitet i Oslo, 2006)

"Vi ser no det at det skjer ei utvikling, ei forandring i ... ser det veldig godt på ... du kan sei prøvemateriell som vi får utarbeidd frå eksamenssekretariatet, eksamensoppgåvene og dei vurderingskriteria som ligg til grunn der har forandra seg mykje siste åra. Vi er på langt nær så mykje ute og leitar etter feila. No ser vi etter talenta og etter kreativiteten. Og om der er nokre skrivefeil eller nokre bøyingsfeil så har dei ikkje mist femmaren sin for det, altså..."

(Interview II turn 126, Eikrem, B., Ph.D oppgave, Universitet i Oslo 2006)

Svar:

OPPGAVE 1 (OBLIGATORISK ARBEIDSOPPGAVE)

OM Å VÆRE ENGELSKLÆRER

Hensikten med denne oppgaven er at du skal få uttrykke dine tanker, kunnskap og holdninger til forskjellige aspekter ved det å være engelsklærer. Oppgaven er ikke ment som en vurdering av hvor "flink" du er som engelsklærer, men skal kunne bidra til å fremme din profesjonelle utvikling ved hjelp av refleksjon.

NB! Det finnes ingen "riktige" eller "gale" svar i denne oppgaven, og den vil ikke bli vurdert i forhold til innholdet i svarene. Det er viktig at du svarer så ærlig som mulig siden det er du selv som skal sammenlikne og reflektere over eventuelle endringer i dine egne svar. Svarene skal ikke deles eller diskuteres med andre kursdeltakere, men du får anledning til å diskutere dine refleksjoner mot slutten av kurset.

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Om oppgaven

Oppgaven kommer i to versjoner, basert på hvilke trinn du underviser mest på; 1.-4. trinn eller 5.-7. trinn (se overskriften i oppgavens del 1). Velg den versjonen som passer best for deg (hvis du underviser på ungdomstrinnet, velg 5.-7. trinn).

Oppgaven er inndelt i to hoved deler. Del A er et spørreskjema som inneholder spørsmål om

7. å hjelpe elevene å nå kompetansemålene i Kunnskapsløftet (ny revidert versjon);
8. språkbruk i engelsktimene;
9. bruk av læreverk og andre ressurser;
10. grammatikkundervisning;
11. feilretting
12. ditt forhold til muntlig engelsk;

Del B består av åpne spørsmål om dine erfaringer og idéer som engelsklærer. Her kan du ta deg god tid og svare utfyllende.

NB ! Del A er ganske omfattende ! Du bør ta deg en pause etter at du har fylt ut del A og begynne på del B med full konsentrasjon

Navn

Del 1: Basert på revidert Kunnskapsløftet-mål i 5.-7. trinn (2013)

Hvor enkelt eller vanskelig synes du det er for deg å hjelpe elevene dine til å nå følgende utvalgt kompetansemålene i engelsk etter 7. årstrinn? (Målene er tatt fra den nye reviderte læreplan for engelsk). Sett et kryss i én av rutene på hver linje.

	<i>1.1 Språklæring</i>	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elevene med å identifisere noen språklig likheter og ulikheter mellom engelsk og eget morsmål.					
2	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke digitale ressurser i egen språklæring-					

	<i>1.2 Muntlig kommunikasjon</i>	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke lyttestrategier.					
2	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke talestrategier.					
3	Jeg hjelper elevene med å forstå et ordforråd knyttet til kjente emner.					
4	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke et ordforråd knyttet til kjente emner.					
5	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke høflighetsuttrykk.					
6	Jeg hjelper elevene med å uttrykke seg for å få hjelp til å forstå og å bli forstått i ulike situasjoner.					
7	Jeg hjelper elevene med å innlede, holde i gang og avslutte samtaler knyttet til kjente situasjoner.					
8	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke grunnleggende mønstre for uttale og intonasjon i kommunikasjon.					

	<i>1.3 Skriftlig kommunikasjon</i>	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke lese strategier.					
2	Jeg hjelper elevene med å bruke skrivestrategier.					
3	Jeg hjelper elever til å skrive sammenhengende tekster som forteller, gjenforteller og beskriver opplevelser.					
4	Jeg hjelper elever til å bruke grunnleggende mønstre for rettskriving, ordbøyning, setnings- og tekstbygging.					

	1.4 Kultur, samfunn og litteratur	Svært enkelt	Enkelt	Ganske enkelt	Litt vanskelig	Svært vanskelig
1	Jeg hjelper elevene med å lese engelskspråklige barne- og ungdomslitteratur og samtale om personer og innhold.					
2	Jeg hjelper elevene med å uttrykke seg på en kreativ måte inspirert av ulike typer engelskspråklige litteratur.					

Del 2: Språkbruk i engelsktimene

Nedenfor følger en liste over situasjoner hvor *lærere* av og til bruker *norsk* i engelskundervisningen. Hvor ofte bruker *du* norsk i den klassen du underviser mest? Sett et kryss i én av rutene på hver linje.

	2.1 Jeg bruker norsk når jeg skal	Alltid	Ofte	Noen ganger	Sjelden	Aldri
1	forklare hva et ord betyr					
2	forklare grammatikk					
3	gi instruksjoner					
4	fremme et godt forhold til elevene					
5	skape en god stemning i klassen					
6	korrigere feil i muntlig engelsk					
7	gi tilbakemeldinger på skriftlig arbeid					
8	vurdere elevenes kompetanse					
9	oppretholde orden og disiplin i klasserommet					
10	Annet (spesifiser):					

Nedenfor følger en liste over situasjoner hvor *elevene* av og til bruker *norsk* i engelsktimene. Hvor ofte bruker *dine elever* norsk i den klassen du underviser mest? Sett et kryss i én av rutene på hver linje.

	2.2 Elevene mine bruker norsk gjennom å	Alltid	Ofte	Noen ganger	Sjelden	Aldri
1	benytte seg av tospråklige ordbøker og ordlister					
2	sammenlikne engelsk grammatikk med norsk grammatikk					
3	se på engelskspråklig TV, video, YouTube, med norsk undertekst					
4	gjøre muntlige oversettelsesaktiviteter					
5	gjøre skriftlige oversettelsesaktiviteter					

6	Forberede seg til oppgaver og aktiviteter på norsk før de går over til engelsk					
7	Annet (spesifiser):					

Kryss av ett felt for hver meningsytring nedenfor for å oppsummere hvordan du ser på bruken av norsk i engelskundervisningen din.

	<i>2.3 Mitt syn på bruken av norsk i engelsktimene</i>	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	Jeg forsøker å utelukke bruken av norsk.					
2	Jeg tillater bruk av norsk bare på enkelte tidspunkt i undervisningen.					
3	Engelsk bør være hovedspråket som er brukt i klasserommet.					
4	Jeg får dårlig samvittighet når det blir brukt norsk i klasserommet					
5	Bruk av norsk gjør det lettere for elevene å uttrykke sin kulturelle og språklige identitet.					

Del 3: Din bruk av læreverk og andre ressurser.

Hvor mye av tiden *i klasserommet* bruker du læreverk og hvor mye bruker du andre ressurser?

	<i>3.1 Jeg bruker</i>	Ca. hver time	Ca. hver annen eller tredje time	En gang i måned eller oftere	Mindre enn en gang i måned	Aldri
1	lærebok					
2	forlagets websider knyttet til læreboka					
3	utvalgt materiale fra andre lærebøker					
4	utvalgt materiale lånt fra kolleger					
5	historier utenom de som er i læreboka					
6	tekster utenom de som er i læreboka					
7	websidene til fremmedspråksenteret					
8	Materialer fra andre websider					

Hva er grunnen til din bruk av læreverket?

	<i>3.2 Jeg bruker læreboka fordi</i>	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	den gir struktur og forutsigbarhet for meg og elevene.					
2	den er utformet slik at den dekker alle kompetansemålene.					

3	Jeg ikke har tid til å finne andre ressurser og aktiviteter.					
4	jeg ikke kjenner godt nok til andre kilder for ressurser.					
5	den har varierte aktiviteter og mange gode øvingsoppgaver.					
6	det er det vanlige, og nesten alle lærerne jeg kjenner gjør det.					

Hvordan finne og tilpasse andre ressurser til bruk i engelskundervisningen?

	<i>3.3 Å finne ressurser og aktiviteter utenom læreverket</i>	Sant	Delvis sant	Hverken sant eller usant	Delvis usant	Usant
1	Min skole har mye hensiktsmessig lese- og lyttemateriale og aktiviteter til bruk i engelsktimene som er lett tilgjengelig.					
2	Engelsk lærere på min skole samarbeider mye og dele ideer og ressurser.					
3	Jeg deltar i et nettverk med andre engelsk lærere som gir meg tilgang til lese- og lyttemateriale og aktiviteter til bruk i engelsktimene.					

Del 4: Grammatikk undervisning

	Jeg tror det er best å	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	introdusere grammatiske elementer ettersom de blir introdusert i læreboka					
2	konsentrere mye på grammatikk på et tidlig tidspunkt for å unngå at elever utvikle uvaner					
3	bruke mye skriftlige øvelser med setninger for å undervise grammatikk					
4	bruke mye muntlig repetisjon av setninger for å undervise grammatikk					
5	øver på bestemt grammatisk element med elever ved å repetere enkelte setninger med klart og direkte fokus på poenget					
6	fokusere på et bestemt grammatisk element ved å finne tekster hvor det grammatiske element forekommer i et meningsfylte sammenheng					

Del 5: Feilretting

	Jeg pleier vanligvis	Sant	Delvis sant	Hverken sant eller usant	Delvis usant	Usant
1	å korrigere elever med en gang når jeg hører en muntlig feil					
2	å øve på vanlig muntlig feil gjennom felles muntlig øving og repetisjon					
3	å korrigere skriftlig feil					
4	ikke å korrigere skriftlig feil hvis eleven ikke er modne nok til selv å forstå feilen					

Del 6: Ditt forhold til muntlig engelsk

Hvilken grad av selvtillit føler du i forhold til din egen kompetanse i muntlig engelsk?

	<i>6.1 Din egen kompetanse i muntlig engelsk</i>	Sant	Delvis sant	Hverken sant eller usant	Delvis usant	Usant
1	Jeg har tilstrekkelig selvtillit som engelsktalende rollemodell for mine elever.					
2	Jeg har tilstrekkelig selvtillit når det gjelder min egen uttale og intonasjon på engelsk.					
3	Jeg trenger ikke snakke som en som har engelsk som morsmål.					
4	Noen ganger nøler jeg med å snakke engelsk i klasserommet fordi jeg er redd for å gjøre grammatiske feil					
5	Noen ganger nøler jeg med å snakke engelsk i klasserommet fordi jeg er redd for å ha feil uttale.					
6	Jeg har tilstrekkelig kunnskap om engelske ord og uttrykk som trengs for å gjennomføre klasseledelse på engelsk.					
7	Jeg har tilstrekkelig kunnskap om engelske ord og uttrykk for å kunne snakke om følelser og meninger.					

I hvilken grad er du enig i følgende beskrivelser av hvordan man best kan fremme elevenes muntlige kompetanse?

	<i>6.2 Å fremme elevenes muntlige kompetanse</i>	Helt enig	Ganske enig	Hverken enig eller uenig	Ganske uenig	Helt uenig
1	Elevene bør øve på lesing, skriving og grammatikk før de begynner å bruke mye muntlig språk.					
2	Helt fra starten av fokuserer jeg mye på å øve på muntlig engelsk.					
3	Vi øver ofte på enkeltord og uttrykk for å lære riktig uttale.					
4	Det er bedre at elevene hører på lydopptak (CDer osv.) med noen som har engelsk som morsmål, enn at de hermer etter meg.					
5	Vi øver ofte sammen på sanger, rim og dikt.					
6	Å oppmuntre elevene til å tørre å snakke og kommunisere er viktigere enn at de lærer å snakke grammatisk korrekt.					
7	Vi øver mest på muntlig engelsk i full klasse, for når elevene arbeider i par slår de fort over til norsk eller sier veldig lite.					
8	Jeg prøver å få elevene til å øve mye parvis på muntlig engelsk, gjennom små dialoger, intervjuer, rollespill osv.					
9	Noen ganger får jeg elevene til å lage lydfiler eller bruke digitale verktøy på andre måter (f.eks. PhotoStory) for å øve på muntlig engelsk.					
10	Jeg arbeider ofte med fortellinger ved å la elevene være med på å dramatisere noe av innholdet.					

Pause !

Del B: Dine erfaringer og idéer som engelsklærer (Svar så mye du ønsker under hvert spørsmål.)

4. *Kan du komme på noen tidlige erfaringer fra din egen skolegang som fortsatt påvirker måten du underviser engelsk på i dag?*

Svar:

5. *Har du forandret deg som engelsklærer i årenes løp? Hvis du har, hva eller hvem har påvirket deg, og på hvilken måte?*

Svar:

6. *Beskriv hvilke tanker og idéer omkring læring og undervisning som påvirker deg mest i arbeidet ditt som engelsklærer, og hvordan du har kommet fram til disse.*

Svar:

4. *Les og kommenter følgende sitater fra to engelsk lærere fra ungdomsskole.*

"Eg har no reflektert litt over dette her med at det ... eg syns i grunnen når eg har vore med på sensorkurs og sånn ... eg syns det har vore litt gale at der er sånn litt sånn skit-la-gå haldning no til veldig mykje. Det blir ikkje stilt sånne fagkrav lenger. I den forstand at det er ikkje så farleg om ein bøyer sterke verb feil. Det er ikkje så farleg med dette her - og det ... det syns eg litt farleg, for å bruke det ordet om igjen då. Eg syns ein skal prøve å halde eit visst nivå..."

(Interview IV, turn 126, Eikrem, B., Ph.d oppgave, Universitet i Oslo 2006))

"Vi ser no det at det skjer ei utvikling, ei forandring i ... ser det veldig godt på ... du kan sei prøvemateriell som vi får utarbeidd frå eksamenssekretariatet, eksamensoppgåvene og dei vurderingskriteria som ligg til grunn der har forandra seg mykje siste åra. Vi er på langt nær så mykje ute og leitar etter feila. No ser vi etter talenta og etter kreativiteten. Og om der er nokre skrivefeil eller nokre bøyingsfeil så har dei ikkje mist femmaren sin for det, altså..."

(Interview II turn 126, Eikrem, B., Ph.d oppgave, Universitet i Oslo 2006)

Svar:

Appendix E: Classroom observation form

	0-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20-25	25-30	30-35	35-40	40-45
Teacher explains									
Teacher describes									
Teacher translates									
Teacher writes words on board									
Teacher reads									
Teacher displays questions									
Teacher checks homework									
Teacher -pupil dialogue/reference questions									
Teacher uses smartboard									
Pupils use smartboard									
Teacher goes through song lyrics									
Teacher sings									
Children sing									
Teacher uses picture/photo									
YouTube									
Teacher plays song lyrics on screen									
CD listening									
Class/pupils read text out loud									
Class reads text for themselves									
Pairs read text									
Pairs answer questions									
Pairs roleplay oral practice									
Pupils do vocab test									
Pupils write in workbooks									
Teacher circulates									
Pronunciation practice - class									
Game - Memory chain									
Game - I-spy									
Game - Simon says									

Appendix F: Teachers' Errors

Teacher's Errors

The errors are shown for each teacher, for each lesson.

The errors in red were considered grammatical errors, while those in orange were considered to be more a result of mother tongue interference (often direct translations from Norwegian).

The errors in the main boxes were agreed upon by both raters. In the divisions at the base of each box, the differences and disagreements between the two raters are shown. Here, only one rater considered that the phrases or sentences on one side contained an error.

Lesson 1 (Anita), 1st visit

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <u>Did we miss somebody?</u> <i>Savner vi noe?</i> 2. Have everybody found the English numbers? 3. Are this number four Hannah? 4. Was there some difference? 5. This old man he play one he play nick knack on my thumb 6. What is the similar sounds here? 7. There is a little bit difference between those two words 8. You passed this test really good 9. Ok is it another number I've miss 10. Do you have the numbers in front of you? Why you don't have it? 11. You work together? Good! 12. Could you open page nine 	
Ok now – we're soon altogether	Can you take up your <i>Stairs</i> books please

Lesson 2 (Anita), 2nd visit

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. about animals who lives on a farm 2. Do anybody know what a crocodile is? 3. Knows somebody Lion King? 4. Do (a) everybody know what a lion is? Do (b) anybody knows what a zebra is? Do anybody knows(c) what a chameleon is? Do (d) everybody knows (e) what a bear is? 5. Here is the hens 6. I have no idea how it writes. 7. We have to (ha-ha) get it right spelled 8. Now I think we should do the end. 9. you can go in a line there 10. we say often 	
Can you take down your hand now?	we can put on more words afterwards

Lesson 1 (Unn), 2nd visit

1. It's a recorder – he **listen** after this lesson
2. Is it next month or last month or **in september month**?
3. When **have you birthday**?/You **have birthday** in October
4. and **so it's a lot of word** down in the textbook
5. **there is** some words
6. Can you say **some of this words** – Sara
7. winter months – the first is - yes can we **say it all**
8. **while we wait**

Do you like lollipop ? I like only the red one –	
---	--

Lesson 2 (Unn), 2nd visit

1. Have all of you **find** your books
- 2 **What's your plans**
3. Have I **forget** someone?
4. **there's many Sams**
5. **And the aims for this week is** –
6. And what are you good at – do you think? ***In sports maybe?**
7. I am good at **smile**
8. Ok then – have all of you **try**
9. **They come with** many words here now.
10. Yes – I don't know **they** either
11. I **do** not sleep this night
12. Are you good **in** cricket?)
13. Have you **playing** cricket?
14. I'm also bad at ice-hockey, cricket, golf, baseball. **All of it**
15. These **is** the aims for the week
16. And what **is he want** - to buy?
17. You can also use some of **these one**
18. **And it's some** words under the text
19. I'm bad at **get** my jacket when **it's laying** on the floor
20. I'm a little bit good **in** handball
21. It is twenty-nine ninety-**nine dollar**
22. You can think of **it home**

Can you read Mrs Hart *loud ? (You have read none ?)	Is there something here you want to read)
---	--

Lesson 1 (Monika), 1st visit

1. we have **visitor** today
2. if you haven't **hand** in your homework
3. Here I have one **without name**
4. **Is there someone** recognising this
5. each of you are going to write six **vocabulary**

<p>6. I will put the words into sentence</p> <p>7. Outside there's trees everywhere</p> <p>8. Have you read good</p> <p>9. chair is a furniture</p> <p>10. Do you read to each other?</p> <p>11. you can talk about these questions. Ok? In English. And try to answer it</p> <p>12 Are you finished with the whole.. to translate</p> <p>13. about this questions?</p> <p>14. You think it's fun doesn't you?</p> <p>15. come in and sit down on your desks.</p> <p>16. does someone wants to read?</p>	
Yep ok. Keep on	Do you want to ask me something

Lesson 2 (Monika), 1st visit

<p>1. do it good</p> <p>2. on step one it is four words</p> <p>3. have you seen that on television, someone of you?</p> <p>4. try to make it sound like she</p> <p>5. I will I will er see that you - that we're here on this page.</p> <p>6. You must read in the book when you are reading if you are just doing it after memory, you don't remember all of it.</p> <p>7. You can see at your papers</p> <p>8. You are starting good</p> <p>9. You can see at your papers</p> <p>10. the vocabulary for the step one.</p> <p>11 You are starting good</p> <p>12. you have to sit down on your desks</p>	
	open your books at page thirty-eight

Lesson 1 (Monika), 2nd visit

1. I wish you'd said -a little bit more **happy**
2. Have you looked very **good**?
3. **And last time**
4. see **if it's** something you want to change
5. I will give you until 10 to 9 to **write it finished**
6. I will find **a other** just wait a minute
7. please look **at page hundred** and fourteen
8. present the monster -- **how** the monster could look like
9. **yes I come back soon**
10. read through it first and **check if you have all this with**
11. I will give you until **15 to 9**
12. once **upon the time there lived** a giant
13. he was **friend** with the people in the mountain
14. **Lived happy/ or happy ever after_**
15. why **haven't** Halvor?
16. **Have everyone** said something positive?
17. when one **are** finished with reading then
18. **read normal**
19. **Have** everyone said something?
20. Ok Then **it's yours** turn
21. you're not **supposed to comment** what the others saying
22. I **think it was funny** name in it
23. don't sit until I **will** say so
24. during **the Easter**
25. yes you **wasn't**
26. you **can** a lot of verbs
27. please lift your chairs don't drag **it**
28. **this is** occupations – different occupations
29. **I'm picked** you
30. pick a card please and **not** show it to me
31. Ok **this are** the questions
32. I get to explore things and it's **very funny**
33. everyone of you have started

we are going **with the clock**
you are going to start – **don't notice** me

Look here **and see have you done all this**

<p>it's a myth which shall have a good ending</p> <p>If you mean you are finished</p> <p>you must just take what you have</p>	
---	--

Lesson 4 (Monika), 2nd visit

<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. and then afterwards when you're finish 2. Try out! 3. Do you know what is tuna 4. be quiet with your mouth 5. But he was first one so it was harder for him 6. remember if it's a word you don't understand 7. Where are a Tamil family from? 8. No but it's a neighbour country 9. No you could think so but no 10. Why is tuna nearly extinct 11. you have seen it just on a can 12. if we don't change and doesn't fish so much 13. yes it's not many of them anymore 14. put the chairs on the right places 	
<p>so remember to follow this recipe</p> <p>How does it go?</p>	<p>you must sit further that way</p>

Articles

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Comparing varieties of in-service English Language Training for primary school teachers in Norway

Abstract

International trends show the formal teaching of English starting at an increasingly early age. This presents challenges for national education systems and in particular, for primary schools and for primary school teachers who are not necessarily trained as English teachers. The present study investigates two different ways of organising and designing in-service educational training (INSET) in Norway for those primary school teachers who currently teach English without any formal training as language teachers. One response is a nationally organised programme; the other, a local initiative. The different course contexts are first outlined, and then the course designs are presented using document analysis interspersed with extracts from interviews with teacher trainers. Teachers' perceptions of some course outcomes are presented. Central themes arising from the comparison are discussed; including the need to organise collaborative learning environments to sustain English subject teacher development, the role which teacher trainers play in fostering change, and the question of what is appropriate subject matter and methodology for INSET courses. The study concludes that a more comprehensive and coherent system of in-service training is required towards 2030. Proposals include short language immersion courses, the training of teachers-as-trainers, and the systematic introduction of networks of primary school English subject teachers to nurture professional development.

Introduction

The growing importance of the English language is reflected in the tendency for national school systems to start teaching English from an increasingly early age (Eurydice 2012; Enever 2011). In Norway, this trend means that large numbers of primary school teachers now teach English to children on a regular basis without formal qualifications or preparation. This is because English has never been an obligatory part of any teacher training for Norwegian primary school teachers, despite English long being taught from year 1 in primary school, and having status as a "basic" subject in official educational documents. The situation is similar in Denmark, though, in contrast, in Sweden and Finland, English is a compulsory part of the primary school teacher training.

According to the Norwegian Ministry for Education and Research, approximately 42000 teachers currently work in primary schools in Norway. A report from Statistics Norway (Lagerstrøm 2007) tells us that approximately 70% of teachers who teach English in years 1-4 had no formal competence in the language, while just over 50% of those teaching English in years 5-7 were without formal competence. Lagerstrøm (2007) also reported that a higher proportion of older teachers had formal competence in English in 2005. Since some of these teachers have now retired the percentage of teachers without formal competence has been increasing. In other words, it is safe to say that many thousands of primary school teachers in Norway currently teach English without formal competence in the subject.

The organisation of in-service training

This paper focuses on three courses within two different models of organisational partnership for professional development (Villegas-Reimers 2003). Nearly all of the teachers taking the courses are experienced English teachers in Norwegian primary schools. The first two courses award 30 ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) points, and are within the framework of the Norwegian "Competence for Quality" (KK henceforth) programme. This started up in 2009 as an inter-institutional collaboration between the Ministry for Education and Research, the Norwegian Association of Local and Regional Authorities (NALRA), and selected universities and university colleges that were paid to offer the courses. The second model is a 15 ECTS course organised wholly independently of the KK program, a cooperative effort between one local municipality in a rural county and the regional university college closest to the municipality. All courses are hereafter referred to as in-service educational training (INSET) courses.

Background for the comparison between the KK courses and the local course

The KK program is financed jointly by the Ministry for Education and Research (henceforth MER), together with local municipalities who select which teachers to send on the courses. However, a significant number of local municipalities, especially those in rural areas which use considerably more of their own money on in-service training per teacher than urban municipalities (MER report 2012, p.13), disagree with the way that all municipalities have been forced to share the costs of what is perceived as a centralised program (Mellegård, 2010; telephone conversation with Hans-Olav Gammelrud, advisor for NALRA). The main cause of the expense of the KK program is the cost of hiring in substitute teachers, something which locally organised INSET courses avoid by carefully organising the school classes for the teachers attending the courses based on two-teacher systems, so that on the one or two days a month that teachers are absent, it is not necessary to hire in extra teachers.

In the school year 2012-2013, the regional university college in the county of Sogn og Fjordane, which regularly provides local-regional INSET courses, was asked by a rural municipality to provide a decentralised course for local primary school teachers. This course was chosen as the object of research and is compared with two KK courses. It is henceforth referred to as the local course.

The MER has ordered different evaluation reports on the KK (e.g. Oxford Research 2012, Nordic Institute for studies of Innovation, Research and Education (NIFU) 2013), but these have been constrained by a limited mandate. The reports have, for example, not commented on the fact that the KK programme trains only approximately one hundred primary school teachers a year as English teachers while many thousands continue to teach English without formal competence. The research in this paper therefore aims to shed light on other possibilities, seeking to find answers to the following research question:

What characterises the differences in organisation, pedagogical design, evaluation and perceived outcomes of the KK course model vis-à-vis the local model?

Literature review: INSET research and course design

A recent British Council report summarising a wide variety of research suggests that

the key to successful INSET is the integration of two main 'dimensions', viz., i) course-based vs school-based teacher learning opportunities, and ii) educational system vs school system priorities (Waters & Vilches 2010, p.4)

In other words, course-based theoretical learning needs to be closely linked to practical understanding through classroom work; while the overall management of educational systems, including institutions responsible for teacher training, needs to be effectively linked to and integrated with local level school systems. The report also gives recommendations for best practice, emphasising the need to provide INSET follow-up through "active and extensive educational and school support". According to Mujis and Lindsay's (2008) summary of empirical research in continuing professional development, such support should include the creation of collaborative professional learning environments for teachers since they represent the "single most important factor" to enhance teaching and learning.

A theoretically-grounded overview of international INSET research (Hayes & Chang 2012) gives examples of countries with "networks of in-service training centres which are staffed either on a full or part-time basis by teachers seconded from schools" in which the "teachers-as-trainers have greater face

validity than university or college based trainers” (2012, p.116). In comparison, in most countries, teacher educators are typically “academically well-qualified college or university lecturers with high status but limited or outdated practical classroom experience” (2012, p.112). The question of what kind of educational background and experience teacher trainers should have is an important topic of debate (Jordenais 2011), intimately connected to the question of course content or subject matter.

Until the 1980s, the knowledge needed for teaching was understood to equate to the subject matter, and in language teacher training this subject matter came to be compartmentalised into a “two-part” knowledge base (Graves 2009, p.117). One part comprised grammar and phonetics along with cultural and literary knowledge, the other part a methodology – skills component. However, the conceptual framework of language teaching pedagogy and course design has since been expanded to take greater account of “the activity of teaching itself (...) the contexts in which it is done and the pedagogy by which it is done” (Johnson & Freeman 1998, p.397). Thus, teacher training methodology and knowledge needs to be selected and constructed with careful reference to specific teaching environments and needs.

The design of language teaching courses is complicated by the fact that the subject matter is not simply equivalent to the content of the subject as it might be in other subjects, because this subject matter is at the same time the medium through which the subject is taught (see Borg 2006). This means that plentiful exposure to the language is essential and developing the teacher’s own target language proficiency is of crucial importance. Though the extent to which non-native English-speaking teachers need to teach through the medium of the target language is a complex and controversial issue (Kamhi-Stein 2009, Hall & Cook 2013), there is no doubt that the teachers’ own level of language proficiency is important, as the following primary school research indicates:

even if students’ had spent the first three school years with a teacher who taught around 80 % of the lessons in the target language, their oral development and their confidence for communicating decreased noticeably after only four months with a new teacher who only used the target language for around 30 % during the language lessons. When teachers frequently use translation between L1 and L2, students seem to copy the communication pattern and use L1 instead of L2 whenever possible and loudly crave translations even if they would be able to understand by concentrating and making use of their guessing competence. (Lundberg 2012, pp.3-4)

In addition to focusing on the importance of developing speaking proficiency, INSET course design needs to take account of the fact that research into teachers of young learners (Burns & Copland & Garton 2011) suggests that developing teachers’ confidence may be as important as developing language proficiency. This implies that if new and better approaches to language teaching are to be introduced, teacher trainers need to engage in collaborative processes with

teachers in order to build their confidence. An equally important aspect of this collaboration is to assist teachers to become more aware of their own beliefs about language teaching since they need “to recognise their existing knowledge and beliefs in order to transform them” (Graves 2009, p.118).

Method

The goal of this study is to compare the organisation and pedagogical design of three different INSET courses. It is primarily qualitative in nature, though some quantitative data are also presented. Data sources are documents (e.g. course descriptions, evaluations and reports on the KK program; and historical documents relating to Norwegian INSET policy from 1997-2006), semi-structured interviews with teacher trainers, open-ended interviews with educational administrators and teachers’ end of course evaluations.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight teacher trainers at the three different course institutions. Using the formal course descriptions as a starting point, questions attempted to elicit teacher trainers’ views on the chosen knowledge base, approaches to language teacher training, and the relation between theory and practice.

Open-ended interviews were conducted with the headmaster at the primary school which hosted the local course, the Head of Schools in the local municipality, and the Dean at the regional university college which supplied the teacher trainers for the local course. Due to space limitations these open interviews are only briefly referred to.

The diversity of viewpoints and data from the various data sources strengthens the quality and validity of the research (Flick 2007), as does the transparency obtained through peer-checking with the teacher trainers who were asked to read the draft article.

Participants

The teacher evaluation of the local course was based on a questionnaire filled out by all eighteen teachers who completed the course. Two questions from this questionnaire were also given to all thirty-six participants on one of the KK courses (2013-2014) as it neared completion. This was done to allow a direct comparison to be made between teachers’ perceptions of their language skill development on the local course and on one of the KK courses. This direct comparison of course outcomes is limited to a simple presentation of average frequencies in answers given to the two identical questions.

The samples for the two different courses where the direct comparison was made were very similar in terms of teachers’ average number of years of teaching experience (11 vs 13) and English teaching experience (5 vs 6). There were however some differences in teachers’ qualifications: Four of the eighteen

teachers on the local course already had 30 ECTS points in English while only one of the thirty-six teachers on the KK course had 30 ECST points.

Otherwise, for the KK courses, the only evaluation material available consisted of more general data in reports gathered centrally, first by Oxford Research and then by NIFU on behalf of the MER. Unfortunately, NIFU did not have permission from participants to make more detailed data available to independent researchers.

Researcher's stance

Although the MER has ordered regular reports and evaluations of the KK program, educational evaluations conducted for clients are often "not designed to speak to the underlying (...) policy issue" (Datta 1997, p.351). This is often because "most clients hope to use evaluation findings in advocacy for program continuation" (Stake 1997, p.470).

In contrast to the KK evaluations, this study deliberately introduces two different perspectives on INSET to allow important questions to be raised relevant to the future quality of English teaching in Norwegian primary schools. Motivated by "a search for knowledge" (Cohen et al. 2011, p.49), the research in this paper "actively advocates for the program's target group" (Greene 1995, p.1), those primary school teachers in Norway who teach English without formal competence and would like to upgrade their competence.

Findings

The findings provide overviews of the KK and local course models, starting with an outline of the organisational frameworks. This is followed by brief descriptions of the pedagogical designs, including teacher trainers' comments explaining the rationale behind significant aspects of the subject matter content, choice of teaching methodology and theory-practice relationship. Short descriptions of teachers' evaluations and perceptions of course outcomes are given after each course model description.

The institutions providing the courses are anonymised as follows: The two courses within the KK program are taught at "City" University (CU) and "Town" University College (TUC), while the local course is taught by the Regional University College (RUC).

Organisation of the models

The organisation of the educational frameworks for the different course models are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 The organisation of the different course models

	Competence for Quality (KK) courses	Local course
Partnership between	MER, Universities and University Colleges, and willing municipalities	A local municipality and local schools with the Regional University College
ECTS points	30 ECTS	15 ECTS
Course location and delivery	Online, but with 5-6 two day seminars at Universities/ University Colleges	All 8 seminars at a local school
Seminar hours	70-80 hours plus 1 week in York, UK	32 hours
Teaching activity between seminars	Recorded mini-lectures, written feedback, oral feedback by Skype or sound files, a few discussion forums	Information exchange
Costs	Approx. NOK 250000 per person	Approx. NOK 250000 for the course
Study time	37.5% paid leave	No paid leave. Some normal teacher preparation time set aside for study

The courses represent different partnership models and operate under very different financial constraints. The KK courses are part of a well-funded national program while the local course is in a municipality with very limited resources. The KK courses award twice as many ECST points as the local course and offer more than twice as many seminar hours along with more online interaction between seminars. The costs for one participant on the national courses are approximately the same as the costs for the twenty participants on the local course, this because the teachers on the KK courses get 37.5% paid leave unlike the teachers on the local course.

The pedagogical design of the KK courses

Both CU and TUC divide their KK courses into two parts which correspond approximately to a division between the development of knowledge about language, and the development of language teaching methods and methodology. While CU has one main teacher who is responsible for the whole course assisted by a specialist linguistics teacher, the TUC course is more clearly divided in two, between a linguistics specialist and a methodology specialist. The CU course outline is shown in Table 2.

Table 2- CU course outline

Course parts	Obligatory assignments	EXAMS
English language and teaching methodology 1	3 short written Language assignments and 3 teaching methodology – classroom assignments Theoretical paper - Methodology/Language	Written exam (language focus) 20%
English language and teaching methodology 2	2 short answer written Language assignments and 2 short written teaching methodology assignments Lesson Study project– classroom research	Written exam (language focus) 20%
	Sum	Sum 40%

The CU course has separate but closely integrated assignments for “language” and “teaching methodology”. It puts more emphasis on the assessment of teachers’ written language proficiency than on oral proficiency. The second part

of the course is notable for its Lesson Study - classroom research project whereby teachers plan lessons, not knowing who will teach the lesson till the last minute when the teacher is drawn at random. The TTs say that the teachers learn together through the “strong psychological effect” of planning discourse as they are “battling it out”.

The TUC course outline is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 – TUC course outline

Module	Obligatory assignments	EXAMS	
English in use	Reflection on your own role as an English teacher. How to work with pronunciation in the classroom. How to work with vocabulary in the classroom Reader-response task	Oral exam	50%
Teaching and Learning English	2 assignments using children’s literature (sound file) 2 classroom assignments based on oral communicative activity and use of book set; Teaching material assessment assignment (pairs)	Home written exam (Teaching focus)	50%
		Sum	100%

The first part of the TUC course focuses on the teachers’ own language development, although the course assignments are linked to classroom practice. It has an oral examination at the end of the first module which focuses on the teachers’ oral proficiency. The TT responsible for the second module on the TUC course explained that it emphasises “very practical things - activities which teachers can transfer directly to the classroom”. Both modules emphasise extensive reading.

Developing teachers’ oral language proficiency

TTs at both CU and TUC say that teachers have to talk English during the two-day seminars (10-12 days a year) and during a one week trip to York. They have tried different solutions to increase the amount of time teachers spend talking English between seminars, including the use of regular Skype group conversations, but have given this up due to technical challenges and difficulties in gathering teachers at the same time. They had, however, found other solutions which gave teachers a little extra practice. CU uses Skype to give individual oral feedback while at TUC teachers send in sound files to answer two assignments, receiving feedback through the same medium.

Challenging teachers’ traditional ways of thinking and teaching

The TT at TUC who teaches the second part of the course often presents model activities, and then deliberately creates or exploits opportunities which arise in seminars to challenge, for example, the unnecessary use of translation or the use of decontextualized rote learning. In this way, she and the teachers “jointly construct some sessions”. Using a children’s book, “Can’t you sleep Little Bear”, she asked the teachers:

What language could we use there? One person says “irregular verbs” – so then we discussed – how could you work with this – what could you do with the irregular verbs in the book? And then we discussed about – you know - do you take the irregular verbs out of their context and learn them by heart Oh yeah - yes of course everybody is doing that – learning five irregular verbs each week – and then I get on my high horse and talk about alternatives to that - the idea of exposure rather than abstraction

At CU, one of the TTs asserted that teachers “often come without any knowledge of how young learners learn a foreign language”, and have a high level of dependence on the textbook, yet they also have a well-developed capacity for reflection due to their own teaching experience. This TT favoured getting teachers to plan and try out lessons based on curriculum learning aims or the more detailed aims in the European Language Portfolio, and then reflect on the results. This encourages teachers “to remove themselves from the textbook – in order that they become confident enough to know how to plan an English lesson building on a learning aim”. She explained that “you can then re-introduce the textbook – and suddenly they become very critical to it- then they can begin to use the textbook rather than the textbook using them”.

Teachers’ evaluations of the KK courses

Towards the end of the 2013-14 TUC course, the participants were asked to assess their language skills. The averages of the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Average of TUC course teachers’ self-assessed language skills – near the end of the course (Scale of 1-5: 1 - very good; 2 – good; 3 - ok; 4 - poor; 5 - very poor) N=36

How do you now rate your proficiency in the different language skills?	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Listening
	2.1	2.8	2.5	1.9

The teachers assessed their receptive skills (reading and listening) as stronger. Among the productive skills, speaking ranked stronger than writing. The teachers were also asked to assess the order of improvement of their language skills, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Average of teachers’ self-assessed improvement in language skills near the end of the course (1- most improved; 2 – next most improved; 3 – third most improved; 4 – least improvement) N= 36

Rate your four language skills in order of improvement as a result of the course	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Listening
	2.3	2.8	2.3	2.7

Teachers considered that their reading and speaking had improved most during the course.

Teacher evaluations of the KK INSET courses were otherwise elicited centrally on behalf of MER, through anonymous questionnaires sent to course participants on all the different subject courses, not just the English courses.

English was one of only three courses singled out by teachers as having been “particularly useful” (Oxford Research 2012, p.21). However, this positive outcome was tempered by a separate general conclusion which pointed out that the lack of contact between the KK courses and the teachers’ home schools leads to a lack of “transfer” of what teachers learn to other teachers in their home schools or local environments (NIFO 2013, p.56 ; Oxford Research 2012, p.37).

The pedagogical design of the local course

Unlike the KK courses which are designed entirely by the teacher trainers, the content of the local course was agreed as a result of negotiation between teacher representatives and the head TT at the RUC responsible for English teaching methodology courses. The teachers wanted a course called “Teaching methods in English”, including “differentiation” and “how to teach grammar”. Given this extremely practical remit and her own overfull schedule, the experienced head TT at RUC asked a local primary school English teacher to assist her as a TT. This teacher also has a small (10%) position as coordinator of a local network for English teachers, though in a different part of the county from where the course was held.

The head TT then designed “a new kind of course” compared with the normal courses at RUC which have the traditional two-part knowledge base division between specialists in linguistics, literature and culture on the one hand, and methods on the other. This new course consisted mainly of language teaching methods and was principally taught by the head TT and the network coordinator, with a few sessions taught by specialists from RUC. Table 6 summarises the local course content:

Table 6: Overview of the 8 four hour sessions - local course content

	Part 1	Part 2	Tasks
1	Theories of language learning integrated with	communicative activities	Reading tasks
2	Songs and Rhyme ; Cats and other model projects-	use of website resources	
3	Exercises /ideas for teaching grade 1-4	Grammar+ Phonetics; Testing	between sessions
4	Literature and writing	Using Adrian Mole	
5	Grammar and phonetics	British civilisation	4 tasks
6	Teaching models with children’s books	Reading activities and strategies	
7	Assessment for learning; Expanding the textbook -	cross-disciplinary ideas	between sessions
8	Communicative and creative activities with a little	theory interspersed	
			-written
Evaluation: Tasks 60% Oral exam 40%			

The head TT was determined to ensure that the teachers “should at least understand the basics behind the curriculum”, but this was a considerable challenge since, as she noted, the different kinds of communicative competences in the 2006 curriculum are difficult to explain to teachers. This is because they

don't understand what these are – they are new in relation to what used to define the subject – Lexis and Grammar - so we have to make a huge move – and most teachers don't know about this huge change.

The head TT and the network coordinator provided very practical hands-on activities, ideas, and a variety of generic models such as ways of working with story books including activities “which can be adapted according to themes and characters”. The network coordinator showed teachers how they could make their own materials and become less dependent on the textbook. The head TT introduced communicative activities with “short versions of lots of things” while “listening for signals from teachers” because she was “very much in doubt about how much theory to use”. She chose to “sprinkle a lot of communicative activities in to illustrate theory” and help the teachers “have fun”, “lose their fear” and thereby learn how to use communicative activities in class. Through creative ways of showing how words can be understood in context she introduced “the division into Acquisition and Learning”, giving many teachers an “aha! -awakening experience” since they “get to understand that cramming might be a waste of time” since targeted exposure to language in context can be a much more effective and motivating way to widen pupils' vocabulary and learn grammar.

Teacher evaluations of the local course

Towards the end of the local course, the eighteen teachers were given a questionnaire provided by the researcher which included the same two questions which were later given to the teachers on the TUC KK course (see Tables 4 and 5), asking teachers to assess the current level of their language skills. The average of the results for the eighteen teachers is shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Average of local course teachers' self-assessed language skills – near the end of the course (Scale 1-5: 1 - very good; 2 - good; 3 - ok; 4 - poor; 5 - very poor) N=36

How do you now rate your proficiency in the different language skills?	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Listening
	2.0	2.1	2.7	2.1

Here, speaking clearly lags behind the other language skills. The teachers were also asked to assess which skills had improved most. The results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Average improvement of teachers' language skills near the end of the course (Scale 1-4: 1 - most improved; 2 - next most improved; 3 - third most improved; 4 - least improved) N=36

Rate your four language skills in order of improvement as a result of the course	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Listening
	2.2	2.3	3.0	2.5

Teachers perceived that their reading, writing and listening improved most, with speaking least improved.

Otherwise, the responses to the other questions on the local course questionnaire showed that the teachers were in general rather satisfied,

particularly with the parts of the course taught by the head TT and the “teacher-as-trainer”. All the practical tips, ideas, activities, exercises, models, materials and resources were considered the most valuable parts of the course. However, half of the responses considered that the grammar and phonetics sessions, which were taught by a linguistics specialist without experience of training experienced primary school teachers, were set at too high a level.

The evaluations also showed that nearly all the teachers perceived that the course had led to changes in their practices, especially in terms of increased variation. Just over half of the teachers said they had become less dependent on the textbook.

Two of the four teachers who were interviewed expressed clear dissatisfaction with the lack of time they were given to study between the teaching sessions. One teacher explained her decision to participate despite the lack of paid study time, saying: “I don’t want to be a teacher who says, sorry no I can’t teach English because I’m not good enough. I want to raise my own level”. This teacher’s desire for improvement may well represent the aspirations of thousands of other primary school teachers without formal competence in English teaching, and as such forms an important backdrop to the following comparative summary of the findings and answer to the research question.

Comparative summary of the findings

The research question asked what characterises the educational organisation, pedagogical design, evaluations and perceived outcomes of the KK course model vis-à-vis the local model. The findings show that the financial premises for the organisation of the models are very different: The KK teachers are given paid leave and this allows them to dedicate time to reading in English and also to reflect on new knowledge about language and language teaching methodology, leading to more deeply integrated knowledge. Conversely, the lack of paid study time for the teachers on the local course means that their learning is not likely to be as deeply-rooted.

The design of the local course deliberately emphasizes methods and materials which can be tried out immediately in teachers’ practices, bringing together local teachers in a collaborative learning environment. The KK also provides school-based learning opportunities through classroom-based tasks, but the centralised structure of the organisation of the KK courses leads to a focus on individual teachers without contact with teachers’ home schools leading to limited knowledge transfer to other teachers.

The choice of subject matter content of the KK and local courses differs most in relation to the amount of knowledge about language which is included. On the local course, the linguistics component was small and was not as well-received as the methodological input provided by the effective partnership between the head TT and the teacher-as-trainer. The KK teachers’ evaluations of the linguistics components on their courses are unknown, but some interesting

related facts did emerge from the interviews with the KK TTs, and these are discussed below.

On the local course, the teachers' perceived weakest language skill, speaking, progressed least. This contrasts with the perceived progress in the development of the TUC course teachers' speaking skills, though even with such development, the TUC teachers' perceived that their speaking proficiency remained much weaker than their receptive language skills.

Discussion

The results of the comparison of the different course models bring to light a number of important issues. First, neither the KK courses nor the local course are directly connected to any subject teacher networks, plans for local follow-up or long-term professional development. Second, it appears to be the TTs who specialise in methodology who are most likely to act as change agents for the teachers. Third, the research reveals some possible alternatives for the pedagogical design of INSET courses in Norway. Following the discussion of these themes, some implications are outlined in the form of concrete proposals.

The need for collaborative learning environments to sustain learning

The problem of lack of knowledge transfer to other local teachers which the evaluation reports on the KK program highlight has been recognised in previous INSET research (Waters & Vilches 2010). One of the TTs pointed out that such transfer is only likely to occur where a particular teacher has a strong position in his or her local school, but even where a teacher does have such a position, research indicates a further problem for the returning KK teachers: If no network-based collaborative learning environment for English teachers exists, case studies from INSET courses without follow-up have shown that participating teachers themselves experience a lack of opportunities for ongoing collaborative development with peers and suggest the need for "(i) a network of like-minded teachers to regularly share and exchange new ideas; and (ii) (...) a mentoring system", because "training alone is not enough" (Ju Youn Sim 2011, p.245).

Unlike the teachers on the KK courses, the teachers on the local course come from the same area with the potential for the development of a collaborative learning network, but also here there is a need for a coordinator or mentors to promote and sustain learning processes. Otherwise, without fresh impulses and opportunities for discourse, teachers' development is likely to stagnate as practical teaching ideas can only be recycled for a limited time. Teachers may then revert to non-communicative language teaching patterns, inappropriate for a modern curriculum.

The role of the teacher trainers in change and learning

Even though teacher trainers may know how to initiate processes designed to promote change in teachers' cognitions and practices, this change still takes time, a precious resource. Thus while the both the methodology teachers at TUC and on the local course shared a similar approach to initiating change through their common belief in the usefulness of teaching a variety of generic models; the effects of their efforts were different: The lead TT on the local course felt that time was "a bit short for us to manage to give them enough". She regretted that this led to the teachers being given "fish", but not learning "how to fish". This failure to reach a deeper level of development, together with the inability of the local course to develop teachers' oral proficiency must be seen as the major weaknesses of the local course model.

Change is also influenced by another factor, the background teaching experiences of the different TTs. This appears to influence the degree to which they are able and willing to pro-actively engage in promoting change in teachers' thoughts, beliefs and teaching practices. Thus, the TTs who talked explicitly about how they actively promote change processes were all methodology teachers with considerable previous experience as school teachers. On the local course, the Head TT together with the primary school teacher employed as an assistant TT appeared able to introduce new ideas and methods which were easily acceptable to the teachers, in part because they had high "face validity". Theory suggests that teachers are less resistant to change when they can identify with the innovation they are being asked to make (Fullan & Hargreaves 1992), and utilising teachers-as-trainers as well as TTs with substantial school teaching experience can thus make it easier for teachers to accept change. In contrast, none of the TTs for the linguistics components on the different courses had primary school language teaching experience, and their teaching was more abstracted from classroom practice. This raises the question as to how and to what extent INSET courses should focus on theoretical linguistics.

Alternative subject matter-knowledge bases and methodology for INSET courses

The guidelines given by MER to the institutions selected to teach different KK courses specify that part of the course should focus on subject matter knowledge and part on knowledge of subject pedagogy. The TTs on both KK courses use this guidance as part of the justification for including quite substantial linguistics components on their courses, but do not themselves necessarily agree with the guidelines. In particular, the guidelines ignore the fact that for language teachers, unlike in other subjects, it is probably the development of oral language skills proficiency which represents the most important "subject matter knowledge". For example, one of the CU TTs said that if given the choice she would "recommend a pre-course for some teachers to improve their language

ability – so they have a certain base, so we can focus on their teaching skills rather than their language ability”.

Another of the TTs at CU referred to a possible alternative to the KK course, giving the example of a local-regional 30 ECTS in-service course spread over two years which CU had previously taught before starting the KK program. This course had been ordered by a group of municipalities near CU who requested a focus on language teaching methodology without a separate theoretical linguistics component. According to the TT at CU, the result was a highly successful course using regular teacher classroom experimentation and collaboration as its long-term methodological approach. Teachers experimented with knowledge gained from monthly seminars through practical teaching tasks, which they then wrote up and reflected on together at the next month’s seminar. This model reflects current thinking in the international literature about how professional learning for teachers can be effectively supported (e.g. Broad & Evans 2006).

The experience from the earlier course has influenced the CU KK design which attempts to integrate linguistic content into practical teaching tasks including teaching pronunciation, yet none of the obligatory tasks on the KK course at CU involve experimenting with teaching grammar. At TUC, the TT who concentrates on language development deliberately tries to avoid mixing “how to teach grammar” into sessions where the teachers themselves learn grammar because she feels that it might be “a bit messy” and overload the teachers. The TT also observed that “if you’re interested in grammar teaching - my impression is that the teachers use their textbooks very slavishly - and follow just what the textbook says and do those exercises and that’s it”. This observation implies that it may be particularly challenging to initiate change in this area because the textbooks used by the teachers include certain ways of presenting grammar which the teachers assume are authoritative. On the other hand, due to the linguistics TTs’ own lack of school teaching experience, it may also be that they do not feel competent to integrate “how to teach grammar” into their teaching in a way that takes into account the complexity of actual classroom teaching environments. Given the shortage of time and resources on INSET courses, it is therefore debateable as to whether linguistics TTs should be used to teach abstract grammatical knowledge not normally needed in the primary classroom, rather than concentrating resources on developing teachers’ oral proficiency, as suggested in the first of the following proposals.

Implications for future INSET courses

For Norwegian primary school teachers who currently teach English without formal competence or experience of living in an English-speaking country, a supplementary course should be offered in addition to the KK program. This would recognize the special needs of foreign language teachers to be proficient in their main teaching tool, the language. It could be provided in the form of

tailored two or three week language and methodology courses organised through the Norwegian Study Centre in York, or at selected, monitored language schools in the UK during summer vacations.

Such immersion in the language in a country where the language is spoken is a normal part of studying to be a foreign language teacher in many European countries, though the stay is usually longer. This kind of voluntary course could boost many teachers' English speaking skills, as well as increasing their self-confidence and motivation. As a voluntary summer course, it would be relatively inexpensive for MER to finance compared with the KK courses, and should not cost teachers anything. Ideally, such courses would be taken immediately before a local-regional INSET course which emphasised school classroom-based assignments, and would be followed up by participation in a local English subject teacher network.

There is an urgent need to systematically develop such networks, thus fostering collaborative learning environments and continuous professional development. These should operate alongside the type of local-regional INSET courses previously taught at CU, providing integrated follow up. Such an approach would accord with recent research which shows that "teaching improves most in collegial settings where common goals are set, curriculum is jointly developed, and expertise is shared" (Darling-Hammond & Lieberman 2012, p.150). In addition, a new training for teachers-as-trainers could be devised for selected primary school teachers who already have 60 ECTS in English, preparing them as English subject network coordinators and assistant TTs.

These initiatives would require coherent educational planning, with close cooperation between MER's representatives at county level (Education directors), together with university and university college representatives including methodology TTs, as well as representatives from the municipalities on behalf of the schools. The summer courses and training of experienced teachers as teacher-as-trainers would need to be generously funded. In time, they could gradually replace the current centralised KK system as a new corps of expert English teachers and English teacher network coordinators develop local-regional INSET training courses in collaboration with experienced methodology teacher trainers from selected regional university colleges or universities.

Conclusion

This study has compared different kinds of INSET courses. The results indicate the need to prioritise the development of primary school teachers' oral English speaking proficiency and methodological competence. While individual teachers are satisfied with the KK courses, the program is expensive and fails to systematically transfer knowledge to other teachers. The local course provides

teachers with badly needed practical methodological input but does not help develop their speaking skills significantly and may not have long lasting effects without a network or mentors to provide follow-up. Above all, the vast disparity between the resources provided for the KK program and for the local “stop-gap” course reveals a lack of coherence in the educational planning of the training of English teachers in Norway.

The validity of the research is based on the presentation of significant facts and the comparison of a wide variety of perspectives and evidence, but is also limited by the relatively small size of the samples and the lack of availability of more detailed data. Nonetheless, to the extent that the findings appear credible and transferable, the proposals might be tested out using pilot projects and action research. Other research priorities include finding out precisely how many thousand primary school teachers currently teach English without formal training as language teachers, and to investigate which English subject teacher networks currently exist, and how they function.

Meanwhile, policy-makers should beware of underestimating the hunger and need for training amongst those currently struggling in the field of English teaching in primary schools, as expressed by the Head TT for the local course:

It was not about teaching them to fish – it was about them waiting like young puffins with open beaks to get a load of half-digested fish – lots of it.

A further question to consider is whether it is finally time to take preventative measures and make the “basic” subject of English, like the other “basic subjects” of Maths and Norwegian, an obligatory part of the teacher training of all future primary school teachers in Norway.

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Article 2

Changes in Primary School Teachers' Cognitions and Practices after a One-Year In-Service EFL Education Programme

ABSTRACT

This mixed-methods study examines the impact of a one-year blended-mode (online and seminar-based) in-service EFL teacher training course on a group of experienced primary school teachers. These teachers had previously taught English without any training beyond upper secondary school. The study finds that course participation leads to statistically significant changes in a range of areas. Teachers' confidence in their oral language proficiency increased as did belief in their competence as English teachers. Significantly more English was reported used in the classroom. The teachers of the older children used significantly more pair work, but these teachers' beliefs in their competence to help their pupils achieve curriculum goals for language learning strategies and for learning about culture, literature and society did not change significantly. The qualitative data indicates that the combination of teachers' growing confidence, increased theoretical understanding and knowledge of practical methodology enabled them to expand their English teaching repertoires towards more communicatively-oriented teaching approaches (Littlewood, 2013). The relatively strong impact of the course is connected to its length, the generous study conditions, the integration of practical teaching ideas and classroom practice, and the ability of the teacher educator responsible for methodology to convince many teachers to re-evaluate some of their beliefs about teaching. Despite these positive outcomes, there is reason to question to what extent professional development will continue in the long-term once the course participants return to full-time teaching in their home school environments.

Introduction

English as a foreign language (EFL) is now being taught at an increasingly early age in many state school systems. This means that primary school teachers with no formal training as English teachers often teach the subject, despite their limited language proficiency. Indeed, the problem of these teachers' "low proficiency level in English or their lack of confidence in their English ability is universally identified" (Garton, Copland, & Burns, 2011, p. 6).

In Norway, the research context for this study, the problem is exacerbated by the younger generation's increasing exposure to the English language. This creates higher expectations amongst learners and parents, which challenges primary school teachers of English who lack EFL teacher education. Most of these experienced teachers went to school before the internet and related technology transformed the linguistic landscape. The problem is further exacerbated by a modern curriculum requiring that teachers adopt a communicative approach characterised by (a) an emphasis on the development of oral skills and fluency, (b) the use of English as the main classroom language, and (c) the use of learner-centred activities that often include pair-work (Butler, 2005; Orafi & Borg, 2009). These requirements are highly challenging for teachers who are neither native speakers of English nor trained as foreign language teachers.

Generally, in the field of education, there is a widespread perception that "a high level of subject-matter knowledge is an integral part of a teacher's professionalism" (Andrews & McNeil, 2005, p. 161). However, since large numbers of primary school EFL teachers have a limited ability to use the language as well as a limited knowledge of the subject matter, there is a corresponding and growing need for appropriate in-service EFL training. There is also a need for research into how such training can be made most effective since as Hayes (2009) has pointed out:

In spite of a recent upsurge in writing on non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in the global discourse of English language teaching (ELT), the experiences of NNESTs working within their own state educational systems remain seriously under-investigated

(Hayes, 2009, p. 1).

Against this backdrop, the present study seeks to investigate the impact of a 30-ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) in-service EFL primary teacher training course on the beliefs and reported practices of a cohort of teachers working in the Norwegian state educational system. These qualified teachers had been teaching English for a number of years without any formal training. The main research question asked:

To what extent does the in-service training impact the beliefs and knowledge, confidence, self-reported language use and practices of the teachers?

Since the aim was to gain a holistic understanding covering different areas, this general question was divided into the following sub-questions:

To what extent does participation on the English language in-service teacher training lead to changes in:

- a) teachers' beliefs about their competence as teachers in relation to curriculum goals?
- b) teachers' confidence in their own English language proficiency?
- c) teachers' self-reported use of Norwegian in the English language classroom?
- d) teachers' self-reported approaches to the teaching of oral proficiency?

The article continues with a review of relevant research, an explanation of methods, a presentation and summary of the findings, and a discussion of the results and implications.

Literature Review

Challenges in Adopting a Communicative Approach to EFL

In a comparative, cross-country, sociocultural study of primary school teachers who were required to use a communicative approach to English teaching, Butler (2005) found that teachers had different understandings and interpretations of the purposes and value of the same communicative activities. This is connected to the fact that teachers have different understandings of what communicative language teaching means in different contexts. In a primary school context, research into in-service training has shown that teachers may be more concerned with creating a good atmosphere than with language teaching. In this case:

the teacher is more likely to show insufficient engagement with the language content and be more concerned with the affective dimension of her teaching, that is, with engaging the interest of her pupils. This clearly shows a move away from language teaching and a focus on primary teaching.

(Kourieos, 2014, p. 298).

Butler (2005, p. 423) also found that teachers had difficulties in understanding “the roles that developmental factors play in EFL learning and teaching”, referring to challenges in coping with the wide variation and different developmental stages of children as individual language

learners. In addition, she found that teachers with limited English proficiency, who sought to employ a communicative approach, tried to organise and manage their classrooms through efforts to minimise frustrations caused by their limited ability to use the target language. She refers to this as “classroom harmonisation”.

Despite these findings on the harmonisation strategy, research shows that a lack of teacher confidence and oral language proficiency are obstacles to effective foreign language teaching (Chambless, 2012). Lack of fluency is also associated with traditional teacher-fronted grammar instruction, as well as with an over-reliance on textbooks, and a tendency to “emphasize seatwork assignments and routinize student input” (Tsui, 2003, p. 54).

In Europe, teachers also need help to improve their skills, as the authors of the ELLIE (*Early Language Learning in Europe 2011*) report (Enever, 2011) indicate: Indeed, this report shows that the most commonly accepted minimum standard of oral language proficiency for primary school teachers, the B2 level as defined by CEFR descriptors (Council of Europe, 2001), is not being met in many places, with levels dropping as low as A2 (Enever, 2012).

Impact of Different Forms of In-Service EFL Teacher Training

Research on in-service training for EFL teachers has often focused on short courses ranging from a few days to a maximum of a few weeks (Waters & Vilches, 2010; Kourieos, 2014). Some positive findings have been reported through increases in teachers’ professional confidence (Tsui, 2003), which can in turn encourage teachers to dare to try out new methods and practices (Harland & Kinder, 1997), thereby setting in motion a positive learning spiral. In general, however, short-term in-service training courses “have been shown to be consistently less effective than other forms of professional development” (Hayes & Chang, 2012, p. 110).

In order to achieve longer-term change in teachers’ practices, research indicates that the beliefs of participating teachers need to be brought to light (Lamie, 2004). This may require skill and sensitivity. Borg (2011, p. 379) suggests some ways in which the reasons for investigating beliefs can initially be clarified for teachers. Furthermore, he elaborates on ways in which beliefs can be illuminated through reflective and biographical writing, and class discussion, etc. These processes can also assist teacher educators to gauge the extent to which their training practices are relevant and coherent with teachers’ current knowledge (Desimone, 2009).

The implied need for continuous close dialogue between teacher educators and course participants is pointed out in a British Council report on best practice (Waters & Vilches, 2010). It recommends that training should “actively involve the trainees in understanding, discussing and working with the teaching ideas in collaboration with the trainers” (p. 22). Recommendations also include “demonstration lessons” as “an important means of increasing practical understanding of teaching ideas”. According to this report, “systematic observation of and feedback on teacher’s attempts to implement the training ideas is vital” (Waters & Vilches, 2010, p. 22).

Research Context

This study focuses on a mixed-mode (online and seminar-based) in-service EFL teacher training course for primary school teachers in Norway. Here, English has been a compulsory subject from 1st grade since 2006, when the new communicative curriculum was introduced. This curriculum is quite open-ended, such that target competences are specified but the content is not prescribed. In theory, the content is meant to be devised by teachers, though in practice there is a heavy reliance on textbooks.

In Norway, there is no grading in primary schools. Teaching is relatively pupil-centred: there is a liberal social environment in the schools. The country is thinly populated with the majority of the population living in smaller towns and rural areas. Apart from the bigger cities, classes are generally less than 30 pupils, though they are often considerably smaller in rural areas. Norwegians generally have a relatively high level of English and a positive attitude towards the language.

Norwegian primary school teachers are generalists rather than specialists. Although they are normally fully qualified as teachers, their education does not necessarily include any EFL teacher education, since English is still an optional subject in teacher education in Norway. This is despite the fact that English is now designated as a core subject, together with Norwegian and Mathematics. The Norwegian government recently passed a law specifying that from 2024, all primary school teachers of English must have the equivalent of a half-year’s full-time education as EFL teachers (30 ECTS points) A recent national report (Lagerstrøm, Moafi, & Revold, 2014) shows that at the 1st–4th grade level (where pupils have one English lesson a week), 66% of EFL teachers do not have 30 ECTS, and most have

no formal education at all as EFL teachers, while 49% of EFL teachers at the 5th–7th grade level (where there are 2–3 lessons a week) do not have 30 ECTS.

In order to try to remedy this situation, the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research recently increased the number of one-year part-time 30-ECTS (570 hours of study time) in-service EFL courses for primary school teachers. The courses are mainly online with a few two-day face-to-face seminars. Teachers get paid study leave two days a week and have ordinary teaching in their home school classrooms the other three days. Most selected teachers have taught English for several years. Approximately half of the course participants teach 1st–4th grade pupils, while the other half teach 5th–7th grade pupils. They attend five two-day seminars during the school year, in addition to a one-week seminar at the Norwegian Study Centre in York, England. Otherwise, the course is delivered online, with regular tasks and assignments normally linked to teachers' own classroom practices. The course was the object of this research study. It comprised two modules: *English in Use*, and *Teaching and Learning English*. The first module seeks primarily to improve teachers' language knowledge and awareness, while the second module aims to present effective and motivating teaching methods (see Coburn, 2014 for details on course design).

Method

Data Collection

A mixed-methods approach (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) was used, starting with comparative quantitative analysis of changes in 32 teachers' responses to identical pre-course and post-course questionnaires. This data was closely supported by qualitative data comprising teachers' responses to open questions at the end of the first questionnaire and their final written reflections on the changes (or lack of changes) between their pre-course and post-course questionnaire responses.

The teacher educators responsible for the course agreed to the questionnaire being administered *as an ungraded but obligatory professional development task*, first, in the week before the first course seminar (September 2013) and second, during the final course seminar (May 2014). Before leaving this final seminar, the teachers were given copies of their answers to both questionnaires and during the following week, were required to write their reflections on the changes in their answers. The questionnaire was written in Norwegian to

minimise linguistic misunderstandings, but all teachers' answers were in English. Written permission to use the material for research purposes was obtained from all teachers.

The Questionnaire

Eighty-one Likert-scale questions were divided into different sections. The statements in Section 1 (as shown in the findings) correspond to approximately half of the competence goals in the Norwegian national EFL curriculum for primary school (KP06). For this part only, the questionnaire was divided into two, according to the different curriculum goals for the two different age groups: grades 1–4 and grades 5–7. It used selected curriculum goals for up to 4th grade (for the teachers of the younger children), and selected curriculum goal items for the 7th grade (for the teachers working with the older children). Section 2 of the questionnaire included statements drawn or adapted from the questionnaire: “Own-language use in ELT: exploring global practices and attitudes” (Cook & Hall, 2013). The questions in this section (see Findings) explored the extent to which the teachers reported using Norwegian when teaching English, as well as the circumstances in which this usage occurred. The other sections of the questionnaire focused on teachers' confidence in their own oral proficiency, and their beliefs and practices in relation to promoting pupils' oral proficiency. There were also shorter sections on beliefs about grammar teaching and correction, but these were not included in the results due to space limitations.

Sample

The 32 primary school teachers had an average of six and a half years of English teaching experience, representing nearly half of the total of 69 primary school teachers who participated in three similar courses at three Norwegian institutions of higher education in the school year 2013–2014.

Data Analysis, Reliability and Validity

Changes in mean scores for all of the pre-course and post-course individual questionnaire items were calculated using SPSS. Separate analysis of changes in the mean scores was also carried out for two particular groups of teachers: those teaching grades 1–4, and those teaching grades 5–7. The reliability of the scales (constructs) for all sub-sections were tested by examining the inter-reliability scores between individual items using the Cronbach Alpha (CA) test. Sub-sections 1.2, 2.1 and 2.2, and 6.1 all gave CA scores between $\alpha = .70$ and $\alpha = .91$, where a level above $\alpha = .70$ (Pallant, 2013) is regarded as adequate, especially in

exploratory research. The scales for the other sub-sections were found to be less reliable, so analysis and comparisons in these sections were limited to single question items.

The Wilcoxon test was used to measure the significance of changes for all the individual items. This test is non-parametric, meaning that there is no assumption of a normal distribution (Pallant, 2013). In the presentation of findings, a level of 95% ($p = .05$) was chosen to denote statistically significant change.

A number of individual items in the questionnaire were deliberately phrased to embody different layers of meaning. This meant that, according to their own written explanations, when some teachers filled out the post-course questionnaire, they sometimes answered that they found achieving a goal more difficult towards the end of the course, because they had become aware of a deeper meaning. In this sense, some of the statistical results may therefore be underestimates of the teachers' development.

For the qualitative analysis, teachers' responses to the open questions and their written reflections on their changes were originally analysed separately from the statistical material, using content analysis (Dörnyei, 2007) to thematically categorise the data within the separate sections of the questionnaire. After the quantitative analysis was finished, qualitative analysis was used to try to identify connections between items or sub-sections where significant quantitative change had occurred. The analysis of emergent cross-sectional themes revolved around words frequently repeated by teachers in their written reflections. This analysis was designed to shed light on inter-relations between changes across individual items and sections. Thus the qualitative material strengthened the validity of the interpretations of the statistical data.

While the measures based on teachers' confidence, beliefs and reported practices are not necessarily congruent with teachers' actual practices; the use of these concepts can still give valuable insights, since there is recognition that teacher education which impacts teachers' beliefs is more likely to impact practices (Lamb, 1995; Borg, 2011). Although the in-service EFL course was the only known intervention between the administration of the questionnaires, some caution must be observed as regards direct causal inference since some effects of extraneous factors cannot be ruled out (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002, p. 2).

Findings

The findings foreground a selection of teachers' responses to the open questions from the pre-course questionnaire where they describe their own experiences of being taught English, and how these experiences influenced their own English teaching prior to the course.

Teachers' Responses to Pre-Course Open Questions

Most teachers wrote that they had experienced "traditional" teaching and that they themselves continue with this "traditional" teaching, which was not necessarily experienced as negative:

My experience consisted of reading, translating, cramming vocabulary and grammar. It's mostly that in my own teaching too.

I teach pretty traditionally most of the time. We work with vocabulary, reading and grammar tasks – but I liked doing that. I follow the book most of the time.

Neither was the concept of cramming necessarily considered as negative:

Cramming and oral tasks - these are important elements when learning a language.

I show my pupils how I crammed, covering the page etc. I think some of them use my methods.

However, when cramming and monotonous teaching are combined, the experiences became negative:

I remember the teaching as being extremely traditional and a bit boring. We crammed vocabulary words and translated texts.

We were supposed to learn English through "learning words and grammar by heart". I agree you have to learn some things by heart, but it shouldn't be the one and only method.

With some exceptions, most teachers had experienced little positive oral activity during their own schooling. As one participant stated:

We hardly ever got the chance to practise spoken English. We had to read out loud for the whole class and many pupils dreaded having to do that.

Those teachers who related positive experiences all expressed a positive attitude towards their former English teachers, though the activities they participated in were different:

I had an English teacher at school who always spoke English and even talked English in other subjects. We learned a lot, worked a lot with dramatization. He is still an inspiration for me.

My teachers liked English. They used variation but we also did things the same way to develop routines - cram vocabulary and irregular verbs. Introduce a grammar book from 5th grade. I also use these methods.

In brief, the teachers' initial responses showed that some teachers continued to teach English the way they themselves were taught, while others were trying to find new or better ways.

The changes in teachers' beliefs and self-reported practices following participation on the in-service EFL training are presented in five sections of findings corresponding to the research sub-questions.

1. Changes in Teachers' Beliefs in Relation to Teaching of Curriculum Goals

The following section deals with teachers' beliefs about their abilities to help pupils' achieve curriculum goals. In the Norwegian national EFL curriculum, the goals for the development of oral communication skills are divided up into individual competence statements. Tables 1 and 2 show how, after the course, the teachers felt more competent to help their pupils attain most of the curriculum competence goals for oral communication. The results for the teachers of the youngest children (grades 1–4), are shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Belief in ability to help pupils attain 4th grade goals for oral communication. (N= 15)

	I can help pupils... (1 = very easily; 2 = easily; 3 = quite easily; 4 = with a little difficulty; 5 = with difficulty)	Before		After		Wilcoxon score	p value
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1.	use listening strategies	3.47	.92	2.27	.70	3.145	.002
2.	use speaking strategies	3.20	.78	2.33	.72	2.919	.004
3.	listen to and understand the meaning of words and expressions based on their context	3.00	.66	2.13	.83	2.511	.003
4.	understand the main content of nursery rhymes, word games, songs, fairy tales and stories	2.67	.62	1.73	.59	3.125	.002
5.	use some polite expressions	2.40	.63	1.40	.51	3.217	.001
6.	use simple phrases to obtain help in understanding and being understood	2.67	.72	2.00	.76	(1.887)	(.059)
7.	participate in everyday conversations related to local surroundings and own experiences	3.20	.56	2.40	.74	2.807	.005
8.	be able to repeat the English alphabet, spell names and their home town	2.73	.59	2.50	.94	(0.921)	(.357)

The results for these items show statistically significant changes in the 1st-4th grade teachers' beliefs in their competence to help pupils learn to use listening and speaking strategies, understand certain content in context, as well as participate in conversations and use some polite expressions. However, on item 6, using "simple phrases to obtain help in

understanding”, and particularly on item 8 relating to the teaching of the pronunciation of the letters of the alphabet, there was no statistically significant change. The equivalent results for the oral communication goals for the 5th–7th grade teachers are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. Belief in ability to help pupils attain grade 7 goals for oral communication. ($N = 17$)

	I can help pupils (1 = very easily; 2 = easily; 3 = quite easily; 4 = with a little difficulty; 5 = with difficulty)	Before		After		Wilcoxon score	p value
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1.	use listening strategies	3.59	.79	2.88	.86	2.360	.018
2.	use speaking strategies	3.82	.64	2.82	.95	2.754	.006
3.	understand a vocabulary related to familiar topics	2.59	.79	1.88	.70	2.972	.012
4.	use a vocabulary related to familiar topics	2.88	.78	2.38	.89	1.994	.046
5.	Use polite expressions	2.65	.93	1.94	.83	2.377	.017
6.	express oneself to obtain help in understanding and being understood in different situations	3.12	.93	2.35	.61	2.586	.010
7.	introduce, maintain and terminate conversations related to familiar situations	3.12	.86	2.94	.75	(0.832)	(.405)
8.	use basic patterns for pronunciation and intonation in communication	3.47	.62	3.06	.97	(1.221)	(.222)

The beliefs of the teachers of the older children (5th–7th grades) about their ability to help their pupils achieve the curriculum goals for oral communication also changed positively, with statistically significant changes in the first six questionnaire items, covering teachers’ beliefs in their competence to help pupils with listening and speaking strategies, with the development of the pupils’ vocabulary, and in pupils’ abilities to use simple polite expressions and phrases needed to obtain understanding. There was, however, no statistically significant change for item 7, regarding teachers’ beliefs in their abilities to help pupils “introduce, maintain and terminate conversations related to familiar situations”, a goal which some teachers described as being rather demanding in their reflection comments. Nor was there statistically significant change on item 8, which like item 8 for the 1st–4th grade teachers (but at a more advanced level), concerns teaching pronunciation and intonation.

The results for changes in teachers’ beliefs about their abilities to help their pupils’ achieve the curriculum goals for the development of *written communication* were similar to those for oral communication, with statistically significant change for both the 1st–4th and 5th–7th grade teachers on all items (except one for the 1st–4th grade teachers, concerning the integration of information technology and writing). As regards teachers’ beliefs in relation to their teaching of the curriculum goals for teaching strategies for language learning, and in relation to teaching the curriculum goals for culture society and literature, only the changes

in the 1st–4th grade teachers’ beliefs were statistically significant. (The statistics for these curriculum goals are not included due to shortage of space).

2. Changes in Teachers’ Confidence in Their English Language Proficiency

Table 3 shows changes in teachers’ confidence in their oral English language proficiency. The statements on the left side of the table were designed to cover different aspects of the construct of what it means for the teachers to be an adequate role model for their pupils.

Table 3. Changes in all teachers’ confidence in their oral English proficiency ($N = 33$)

Likert scale: True = 1; Partly true = 2; Neither true or false = 3; Partly false = 4; Untrue = 5	Before		After		Wilcoxon score	p value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1. I have sufficient self-confidence as my pupils' English-speaking role model	2.58	1.20	1.76	0.87	3.20	.001
2. I have sufficient self-confidence in relation to my English accent and intonation	3.03	1.19	2.09	0.98	4.34	.000
3. I don't need to sound like a native English speaker	2.52	1.18	1.56	0.76	3.34	.001
4. Sometimes I hesitate to speak English in class because I'm afraid of making grammatical errors	3.67	1.16	4.03	1.21	(1.95)	(.052)
5. Sometimes I hesitate to speak English in class because I'm afraid of making pronunciation errors.	3.81	1.06	4.27	0.91	2.65	.008
6. I have a sufficient command of English words and expressions needed for class management	2.82	1.13	1.73	0.88	3.96	.000
7. I have a sufficient command of English words and expressions to talk about feelings and opinions	2.48	1.09	1.67	0.82	3.28	.001

The p values for the Wilcoxon scores show that the increases in teachers’ confidence, with the exception of item 4, were statistically significant at the 95% level. The two items that involved the concept of hesitation lead to the inter-reliability of the section as a whole to fall below an acceptable level of item. When they were removed, the Cronbach Alpha inter-reliability level rose to acceptable levels at $\alpha = .72$ for the pre-course questionnaire and $\alpha = .78$ for the post-course measures.

The increase in teachers’ confidence in their oral English ability is reflected in the following comments:

What I think of as my turning point after this year is that I have become a better role model for young learners.

I am much more able to create a safe learning environment for my pupils, because my focus is on them mastering instead of on my own possible oral mistakes.

These comments notwithstanding, the spread of results in Table 3 (as indicated by the standard deviations) are larger than for other sections of the questionnaire. This is illustrated in Table 4 where the results for the first two items in Table 3 are expanded, showing:

- Item 1. I have sufficient self-confidence as my pupils' English-speaking role model and**
- Item 2. I have sufficient self-confidence in relation to my English accent and intonation:**

Table 4. The extent to which teachers had sufficient confidence: before/after training (N = 33)

Item	True		Partly true		Neither true or untrue		Partly false		Untrue	
	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After	Before	After
1	5	15	16	13	2	3	8	2	2	0
2	1	10	15	14	3	5	10	4	4	0

The results in Table 4 show that despite the statistically significant change for the sample as a whole, a number of teachers were still lacking in confidence, especially in pronunciation and intonation, as illustrated by the following reflection:

I feel it's hard to change the way I speaking, how I pronounce and do the intonation I use. I think I need more than this course (study) to really change (...) The best way to really learn the English language is to stay in an English speaking country for some time.

3. Changes in Teachers' Self-Reported Use of Norwegian in English Classes

In this section, the results of changes in the amount of Norwegian teachers report using while teaching English are shown. Language use is divided into nine categories according to the different purposes shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Teachers' self-reported use of Norwegian in English Lessons. ($N = 33$)

Use of Norwegian: <i>Always = 1; Often = 2; Sometimes = 3; Seldom = 4; Never = 5</i>	Before		After		Wilcoxon score	p value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1. to explain vocabulary	2.09	0.63	3.00	0.63	4.310	.000
2. to explain grammar	1.91	0.68	2.48	0.62	3.477	.001
3. to give instructions	2.79	0.70	3.30	0.68	2.911	.004
4. to develop rapport with pupils	2.58	0.71	3.00	0.80	3.130	.002
5. to create a good classroom atmosphere	2.79	0.74	3.36	0.78	3.626	.000
6. to correct spoken errors	3.03	0.85	3.56	1.01	2.631	.009
7. to give feedback on written work	2.84	1.08	3.41	0.98	2.337	.019
8. to assess learners	2.24	0.79	2.78	0.93	3.013	.003
9. to maintain discipline	2.58	0.94	3.12	0.93	3.252	.001

For all of these nine categories, statistically significant changes involving the reduced use of Norwegian and the increased use of English were reported. When the sample was broken down and analysed in the two smaller groups of teachers (grades 1–4 and 5–7), statistically significant change in language use was still found for both groups in relation to explaining vocabulary and grammar (items 1 and 2), for creating a good class atmosphere (item 5) and for assessing learners (item 8). There were, however, differences between the two groups of teachers with respect to changes in the items relating to classroom management (giving instructions and maintaining discipline), and the items relating to giving feedback (correcting spoken errors and giving written feedback).

For the two items associated with classroom management (items 3 and 9), the 1st–4th grade teachers ($N = 15$) reported mean changes of 0.80 ($z = 2.60$, $p = .009$) and 0.73 ($z = 2.65$, $p = .008$) which are both statistically significant, compared with the non-significant mean changes of only 0.22 ($z = 1.54$; $p = .124$) and 0.34 ($z = 1.90$, $p = .058$) for the 5th–7th grade teachers ($N = 18$). It is however important to note that the 1st–4th grade teachers started by using considerably more Norwegian for classroom management. Nevertheless, they ended up with almost the same average level of reported usage as the 5th–7th grade teachers (see Figure 1).

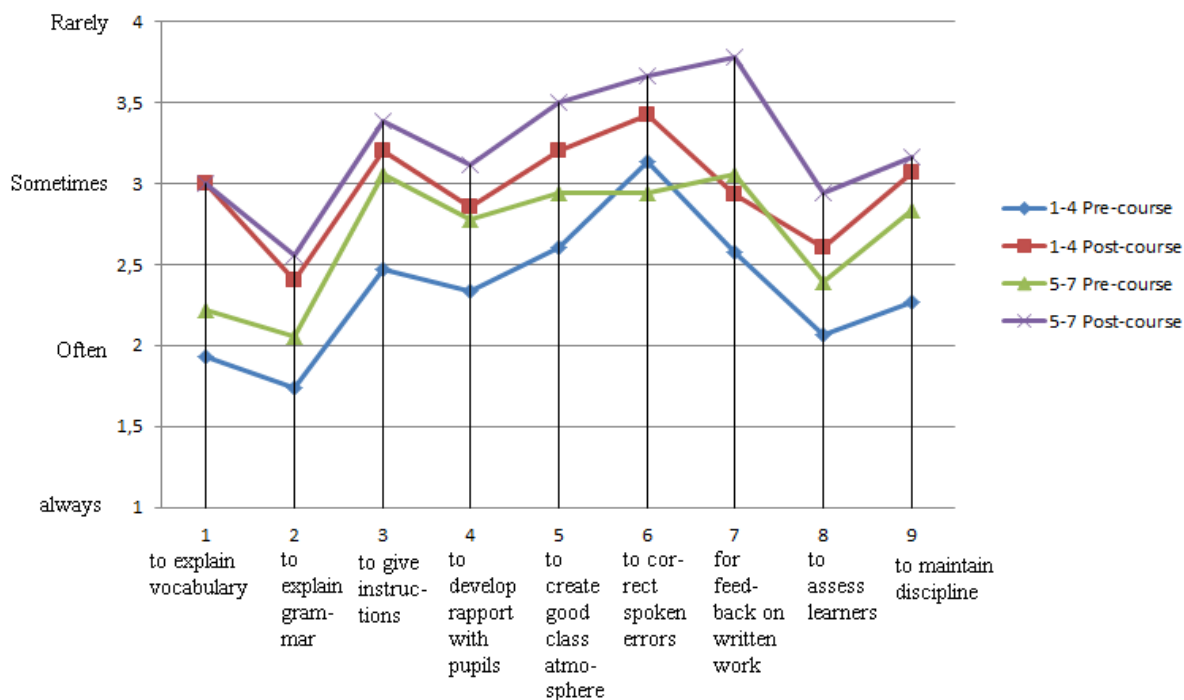


Figure 1: Use of Norwegian in EFL classrooms, comparison of development, teachers, grades 1–4 and 5–7.

Conversely, for the two items relating to giving feedback (items 6 and 7), statistically significant change was measured for the 5th–7th grade teachers with identical 0.72 mean changes for both items ($z = 2.26$; $p = .024$), compared with non-significant mean changes of only 0.30 ($z = 1.03$; $p = .305$) and 0.36 ($z = 0.93$; $p = .353$) for the 1st–4th grade teachers. Teachers’ reflection comments suggested that their increased use of English for both oral correction and written feedback was coupled with a growing sensitivity as to the importance of using discriminating correction to avoid the risk of eroding pupils’ confidence in their English as illustrated by this participant reflection:

It is better to encourage the pupils to use English than respond to every mistake they do.

The strongest single change for the teachers as a whole was for item 1, explaining vocabulary. Teachers’ post-course written reflections indicate that this means that they now use less translation, and that this change has had powerful consequences:

It has been said several times during this course, that by translating everything you say to Norwegian, you teach the pupils that they do not really need to understand the English, because a translation will follow. That was an eye opener for me.

Another teacher expressed one of the potential hazards in changing her approach:

The big change during this year has been the translating. I used to translate every word in a new text. I thought this was necessary and the right thing to do. It was certainly an expectation from the parents! I found that out when I stopped translating. We talked about this on parent night. I explained how

all the translating makes the students passive and I talked about the importance of understanding from the context. Today pupils are even told to guess! They found it interesting and a bit confusing.

Further reflections on the general change to speaking more English indicate that teachers underwent different processes, often facilitated by new ideas garnered from the course:

I realized that my urge for harmony during lessons was the strongest obstacle against English, not the pupil's ability to understand.

Gradually the frustration and complaining from the pupils were changed into sparkling eyes, enthusiasm and joy over their own ability to understand.

The increase in the 1st–4th grade teachers' use of English for classroom management was reflected in this teacher's comment:

I also speak English just to make a good atmosphere in class or to maintain order and discipline. I have experienced that this makes my pupils curious, responsive and motivated.

In some cases, the change towards using less Norwegian is synonymous with methodological change:

I automatically mimed a lot more. I chose my words and sentences more carefully and paid more attention to the vocabulary I was teaching. I brought more pictures and items for support than earlier.

My pupils and I have made about 20 classroom posters with different expressions illustrated with supporting pictures, and, the best of all: they now speak more English.

In addition to changes in the teachers' own use of Norwegian, statistically significant changes in pupils' use of Norwegian were reported, especially through reductions in translation activities and through the increased use of English, while preparing for English-speaking activities (details of these changes are not included due to space limitations).

4. Changes in Teachers' Approaches to the Teaching of Oral Proficiency

This section of the results examines the use of direct methods for promoting oral proficiency through activities such as dramatization, story-telling, the use of digital tools. Here, the only item where statistically significant change was found was for the use of pair work, as shown in Table 6:

Table 6: Changes in reported activities and practices to develop pupil oral proficiency

($N = 33$)

Fully agree = 1; Partly agree = 2; Neither agree or disagree = 3; Partly disagree = 4; Completely disagree = 5	Before		After		Wilcoxon score	p value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
I try to get pupils to practice a lot in pairs through short dialogues, interviews, role-plays etc.	1.88	.65	1.42	.56	2.982	.003

Though statistically significant for the group as a whole, when measured for each group (grades 1–4 and 5–7) individually, the increase in the use of pair work was only statistically significant for the 5th–7th grade group ($N = 18$; Wilcoxon score = 2.640; $p = .008$).

There is a limitation in the questionnaire item for pair work as it includes several different activities and it is not possible to be sure which activity teachers are referring to. For example, teachers’ reflection comments refer to reading aloud, dialogues, role play and communicative activities in general. Despite this ambiguity, there are two common themes running through teachers’ comments. First, there was an affective theme mentioned by several teachers relating to their concern that pupils should feel safe or secure when speaking English:

I have become more aware of the need to create an environment where the pupils can feel safe, without being scared of failing. These types of safe environments can be facilitated by working in small groups with learning partners they get to know over a period of time.

It is important that the pupils know each other, and that they can speak English in a safe situation. (...) They have to talk a lot to each other.

The second common theme running through teachers’ reflections is the perception that more pair work means increased pupil activity, more enjoyment and better learning outcomes:

I now use pair work when we talk or read to a much larger extent. I have experienced that the students like it, they dare to talk much more and then they are more active now. In this way I get more information about the single pupil and their skills. And the pupils’ outcomes are better knowledge and speaking abilities.

There was a statistically significant decrease in the regularity of textbook use by all teachers. For the 1st–4th grade teachers who only have one lesson a week, there was also both a statistically significant reduction in the use of textbook websites and a significant increase in the use of stories (Space limitations prohibit further documentation of these changes).

Teachers’ hopes for the future and reflections on factors influencing change. The following two reflections seemed to sum up many teachers’ hopes at the end of the course:

I really want to create a learning environment based on motivation, context, variety and activity.

I want to vary the lessons more, like more oral activities, games and English literature. The grammar teaching I would use in more meaningful contexts, not word tests.

A number of teachers' reflections touched on how the changes in their approaches to English teaching are received within their local environments:

Explaining why I don't correct all the children's mistakes to the parents is easier now.

Changing a way of working is not easy as long as you work with other teachers, I am not the one selected to plan the English-lessons this year [Teachers commonly share lesson planning in Norway].

I sometimes act as a substitute in other classes. They are not familiar to the teacher talking a lot of English. But they certainly like it!

Finally, one teacher summed up factors on the course that she felt had had an impact on her:

I have gained this experience through all the exercises we have been doing during our on-campus seminars, through our trip to York, through the presentations we have held for each other, through the books I have read and through the language immersion (baths) I have experienced throughout the whole year. There have been a lot of discussions and conversations during the on-campus seminars which have made me explore some of my beliefs and attitudes regarding how oral activities can function and how they can cover a broader range of the aims in the curriculum. All these factors have been important and together they have given me a lot of ideas and tools to help me in my teaching.

Summary of Findings and Answers to Research Questions

The overall research question asked to what extent the in-service EFL training impacted the beliefs and knowledge, confidence, self-reported classroom language use and practices of the teachers. The results show that the teachers' beliefs in their competence as teachers of most of the curriculum goals for oral and written communication were strengthened by statistically significant margins. The notable exceptions were for the goals relating to the teaching of pronunciation, and for the 5th–7th grade teachers, belief in their ability to help pupils initiate and carry through conversations. However, in relation to the goals of being able to help their pupils achieve the curriculum competence goals for learning strategies for language learning, and for learning about culture, society and literature, only the beliefs of the 1st–4th grade teachers changed statistically significantly. The 1st–4th grade teachers also reported using stories significantly more. A majority of the teachers reported becoming more

confident in their oral English proficiency. All teachers reported using more English in their classrooms, involving a notable reduction in the use of translation. Less Norwegian was used for explaining vocabulary and grammar, for creating a good classroom atmosphere and for assessing learners. The 1st–4th grade teachers reported using more English for classroom management, while the 5th–7th grade teachers used more English for correction and written feedback. The 5th–7th grade teachers also reported using more pair work, resulting in increased levels of oral activity for pupils. All these reported changes were statistically significant.

Discussion

In assessing the factors which have facilitated the changes in teachers' beliefs and reported practices, I start by locating the Norwegian context in relation to the global professional ELT culture.

The National Context and its Impact on Course Outcomes

In the current “post-method” era (Kumaravadivelu, 2006), many teachers in the ELT profession have moved away from uniform methods to a more eclectic methodological knowledge base. Here, it is natural for professionals to make classroom decisions according to their “own understandings of a shared approach” (Wedell, 2013, p. 99). The common characteristics of this shared communicative approach “address very general aspects of language learning and teaching that are now largely accepted as self-evident and axiomatic throughout the profession” (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p. 173). However, these characteristics are not necessarily understood or accepted by those outside the profession, or by those lacking training, such as the generalist Norwegian primary school teachers in this study. Policy-makers and stakeholders who are responsible for the introduction of communicative curricula therefore need to be aware that, as in Norwegian primary schools, most of those who have been tasked to implement such curricula have not been properly prepared for the task.

The most recent (2006) curriculum for teaching English to children in Norway is an example of a “competence-based” curriculum, which was introduced without any particular method being recommended and without any introductory training for teachers. After seven years, in 2013, the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research produced some teaching examples, helping to placate those teachers who craved more concrete support. Akbari

(2008) suggests that this kind of post-method curriculum often leads to more textbook dependence and can be criticised because it asks too much of teachers, while Hall contends that the lack of methodological guidance fails to “recognize the reality of teachers’ and learners’ everyday lives” (Hall, 2011, p. 101). Other teachers in similar contexts where communicative curriculums are prescribed are not likely to feel “comfortable and confident” (Wedell & Malderez, 2013, p. 111) about using competence-based descriptions to guide them. They need training in understanding the basics of the communicative approach.

The teachers in this Norwegian study are fortunate since participation on the courses is voluntary and all expenses are paid. These generous conditions have undoubtedly contributed a great deal to the successful impact of the program. The relatively long time frame has also helped to facilitate a deeper level of change. In addition, the Norwegian primary schools do not award grades or use a high-stakes test or exam-orientated system, but are based on a learner-centred pedagogy; this creates conditions favourable to the introduction of more communicatively-oriented English teaching.

Language Improvement Modules and Teachers’ Methodological Options

A number of researchers and teacher educators have argued that the levels for in-service language teacher training courses for non-native speakers should include specific language improvement modules or components as the central element of the course (e.g. Berry, 1990; Cullen, 1994; Freeman, Katz, Gomez, & Burns, 2015). This is because, for teachers, “the overwhelming desire is to improve their command of the language itself” (Cullen, 1994, p. 162). The purpose of having language improvement as the main focus is to increase teachers’ confidence and fluency and to help them develop the discourse and pragmatic competence needed for classroom interaction. This language improvement component can thus, in itself, amount to an indirect widening of teachers’ range of choice of methodology (Berry, 1990, p. 99). Cullen suggests that the content of any language improvement component should consist of the methodological subject matter.

Though this course did not entirely follow Cullen’s recommendation (the first module concentrating more on developing language knowledge and proficiency and the second module concentrating on methodology) the first part of this course did integrate classroom tasks. This may have been successful in initially building the teachers’ confidence and

language proficiency, before the focus was sharpened towards broadening the methodological repertoire.

Challenging Beliefs and Promoting Methodological Change

The strongest reported change in classroom language use was in relation to teachers' reduced reliance on translation. Some of the reflection comments clearly established the strong role of the teacher educator responsible for the methodology module in convincing teachers that if they "routinely speak English and then translate into Norwegian" (Munden, 2014, p. 65), their pupils will not develop guessing competence and will simply come to expect more translation. For a number of teachers, this simple but highly credible and effective argument appears to have been a turning point in relation to their classroom language usage, successfully challenging common beliefs and dispelling fears of possible resultant classroom disharmony (Butler, 2005). Nonetheless, this challenge would not have been successful, if the teacher educator had not suggested an abundance of practical strategies and ideas to fill the vacuum left by the change away from translation.

A number of teachers' comments clearly specified that the teacher educator for the second module not only helped the teachers to realise the perils of excessive translation, but also showed them in practice how to avoid it. One alternative was the use of simple teaching tools such as flash cards, since visual aids are useful as part of a strategy of exposure to a wide range of vocabulary (Hall, 2011). A second alternative promoted by the teacher educator was the use of mime, and a third the co-production of classroom posters with pupils illustrating useful classroom language. These strategies are in line with the kind of interactive ploys that research suggests are necessary for language comprehension when working with children (Cabrera & Martínéz, 2001).

In grammar teaching and correction strategies, the same teacher educator emphasised the possibility of using contextualised inductive strategies for noticing, rather than only relying on deductive, schematic grammar teaching. In general, it appears that this teacher educator consciously used the three two-day seminars in the second module to effectively discuss key issues, challenge teachers' beliefs, and then allow them to test out new ideas in their classrooms between seminars.

Implications: Systemic Challenges to Integrating New Methodological Approaches

The weakest change in the 5th–7th grade teachers' beliefs in their competence to help children achieve curriculum goals was reported in relation to the goal of helping pupils to “introduce, maintain and terminate conversations related to familiar situations”. Part of the explanation for the lack of change in this area is almost certainly related to the institutional organisation of Norwegian primary schools and the high percentage of unqualified English teachers.

Since approximately two-thirds of those who currently teach English at the 1st–4th grade level in Norwegian primary schools are not trained as English teachers (Lagerstrøm, Moafi, & Revold, 2014), a majority of the children who move up to the upper primary school (5th–7th grades) are unlikely to have had competent, confident English teachers. These children then typically start with new generalist or “semi-specialist” teachers whom they do not know. Since it takes time for the new teachers and children to get to know each other, there is likely to be an initial concentration on affective factors (Kourieos, 2014) rather than on the linguistic aspects of EFL teaching. It is therefore not surprising that the 5th–7th grade teachers' reflection comments in this area gave the impression that their most important consideration was that their pupils should feel secure when talking English, and that the pupils should actually dare to talk. The teachers expressed less overt concern with the linguistic content and the learning goals of the oral activities.

While it is understandable that a change to more oral activity will leave pupils and teachers needing time to adapt, a number of teachers' reflection comments did assume that children would automatically pick up a great deal of language implicitly simply because they read, listen to or use language in context. Clarifying the real purpose of oral communicative activities is therefore likely to be an important challenge that the teachers will have to resolve in coming years, as they attempt to integrate and develop the new ideas the course has given them within their individual English teaching styles.

To sum up, with the post-method, eclectic approach, the main challenge for teachers coming from more traditional backgrounds is to integrate different communicatively-oriented language teaching approaches in a principled, systematic way (see Ellis, 2005; Littlewood, 2013). Many of the teachers on the Norwegian in-service EFL course were convinced of the importance of repetition and cramming before they started on the course, but have now been

given many new ideas as to how to broaden their methodological approach, especially in terms of teaching grammar and vocabulary in context. They will face considerable challenges in devising systematic approaches to helping their pupils “notice” or inductively discover grammar rules and language structures, while working in the context of communicative activities. The urge and tendency to revert to textbook-structured teaching, schematic grammar presentations and word tests may be hard to resist in many schools where this is the norm and where the teachers do not belong to an EFL teacher network.

Limitations of the Study

As previously indicated, a number of teachers commented on the fact that their answers to items on the post-course questionnaire changed negatively compared to their pre-course responses. This was because they had become more aware of deeper meanings in some of the statements. In this sense, some teachers may have progressed more than the results indicate. It is also necessary to reiterate that the research has focused on changes in teachers’ beliefs and reported practices, as opposed to observation of changes in teachers’ actual practices. Finally, the research used a sample of primary school teachers in Norway who have previously taught English without language teacher education. While they are likely to be representative for the “parent” sample of such teachers in Norway, in terms of age and teaching experience, the degree of transferability to other contexts will depend on a “comprehensive assessment of the conditions” (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 312) in the particular “receiving” context.

Conclusion

This study shows that the Norwegian in-service EFL teacher training course has had a profound effect on the teachers. Starting from a mostly traditional teacher-centred item by item, textbook-dependent way of working (relying on reading, translating and the cramming of isolated vocabulary and grammar items), the teachers have developed towards a more learner-centred approach where pupils are more active, substantially more English is reportedly spoken in the classroom, and a wider variety of teaching methods are used. There is a growing belief amongst the teachers that language learning is facilitated through communicative activities and exposure to the target language in meaningful contexts. In short, the course has led to an improvement in confidence and teachers’ language proficiency coupled with development in teachers’ understanding of the foundation of methodological knowledge associated with communicative language teaching.

The main factors explaining the relatively strong impact of the course are:

- The long-term orientation of the training (one school year)
- The integration of theoretical study and practical classroom teaching
- The provision of plentiful study time with paid study leave
- The voluntary nature of the training and willingness of teachers to embrace change
- The teaching balance between language improvement and methodological teaching
- The methodology teacher's ability and willingness to challenge teachers' beliefs through lesson demonstrations and seminar discussions and to give concrete alternative practical solutions to back up theoretical explanations

Most of these factors should be transferable to other contexts, possibly with the important exception of the paid study leave, though it may be possible for teachers in other contexts to be freed from work two days a month rather than two days a week, perhaps over a two-year period.

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Article 3

Assessing the Impact of an In-Service English Language Teacher Education Course on Norwegian Primary School Teachers

Abstract

This study investigates changes in the classroom language, teaching practices, confidence and cognitions of four experienced Norwegian primary school teachers taking a blended-learning one-year part-time in-service English language teacher education course. The teachers had previously taught English without any language teacher education. Change was analysed through (a) comparisons of observations and transcriptions of teachers' early and late course lessons, (b) interviews conducted before and after the observations, and after the course, through (c) comparison of pre- and post-course questionnaire responses, and (d) analysis of teachers' written reflections on their changes. A theoretical framework (Walsh, 2011) served as a basis on which different modes of lessons and patterns of interaction were categorised. The teachers' language was analysed according to the percentage of English used, the speed of speech, amount of word variation and frequency of errors. The results show that the teachers were gradually developing a more varied repertoire of methods and materials. In developing this more communicative approach, the teachers' spoke more English and their classroom language became less controlled and more spontaneous and interactive. Their word variation increased a little, while their frequency of errors remained the same or increased, largely as a result of the faster and more spontaneous teacher talk and more interactive teaching methods. The teachers' confidence as English teachers increased. Even so, with the exception of one teacher, their confidence as role models decreased, implying the need for a targeted concentration on the development of oral proficiency in the design of future courses.

Introduction

The growing global importance of English means that in many countries the subject is introduced in state primary schools from an increasingly early age (Garton, Copland, & Burns, 2011). Furthermore, children are increasingly exposed to English through TV, the internet, games and other media; while primary school teachers of English are expected to teach to higher standards. This is often in spite of the teachers not having been educated as English language teachers and their lack proficiency in the subject and the language (Enever, 2012).

Consequently, in many countries, including Norway, governments are investing in in-service training to support primary school teachers of English. Given the outlay of resources, proper assessment of the impact of such training is clearly desirable. Thus, “from a research point of view as well as for practical accountability, understanding and demonstrating what difference LTE (Language Teacher Education) makes are important issues” (Borg, 2015, p. 548). This is the background and rationale for the research that consisted of holistic mixed methods analysis of case studies of four Norwegian primary school teachers. The study assesses the impact of a one-year part-time blended-learning course on the teachers’ confidence, classroom language, English teaching practices and related cognitions. Data from final interviews with the four teachers almost one and a half years after the end of the course are also included in order to provide a longer-term perspective that includes developments within the teachers’ local school contexts.

The research questions were:

1. How did the course impact the four teachers’ (a) classroom language, (b) English teaching practices, (c) confidence, and (d) cognitions (knowledge and beliefs) about English teaching?
2. What was the longer-term impact of the course on the four teachers within their respective school contexts?

Literature Review

The impact of In-Service Training in LTE

Research into the impact of in-service English LTE courses on teacher learning and development can be divided into four main areas:

1. impact on language knowledge and language proficiency
2. effects on pedagogical planning and classroom practices
3. influence on teacher cognitions including beliefs and knowledge about language learning
4. changes in affective elements including motivation and confidence

These different aspects of development are all interdependent. For example, the development of oral language proficiency can allow the repertoire of teaching methods to be expanded (Cullen, 1994), which may in turn enhance teachers' confidence (Kamhi-Stein, 2009) and encourage changes in beliefs about the value of different teaching approaches. However, the relationship between the different elements is rarely unidirectional (Borg, 2015). For example, improvements in confidence can also feedback positively into teachers' language, teaching practices and beliefs.

Two overviews of research findings on the impact of in-service LTE courses on language teaching conclude that short out-of-school courses do not have significant long-term impact (Hayes & Chang, 2012; Waters & Vilches, 2010). The former review suggests that the system of professional development that results in the greatest impact on teachers is a longer-term "day-release" model in which teachers are involved in training for one day each week, while spending the rest of the week in their schools practicing the teaching methods, activities or techniques with which they have just become familiar. During the following training sessions "they are then able to provide direct feedback on what trainers have recommended" (Hayes & Chang, 2012, p. 113). This gives teachers regular opportunities to reflect on and analyse their practice and attempt to integrate new learning directly into their teaching practices "within the framework of a supportive learning environment with peers. Most importantly they are not left to fend for themselves with no feedback on their attempts to innovate" (Hayes & Chang, 2012, p. 113).

Broader analyses of effective professional development highlight several key characteristics: it is collaborative, substantial (timewise), reflective, active and supported by effective school leadership (Broad & Evans, 2006). Recognition of the importance of including the influence of both school and educational contexts when considering the impact of teachers' professional development is incorporated in the model shown in Figure 1.

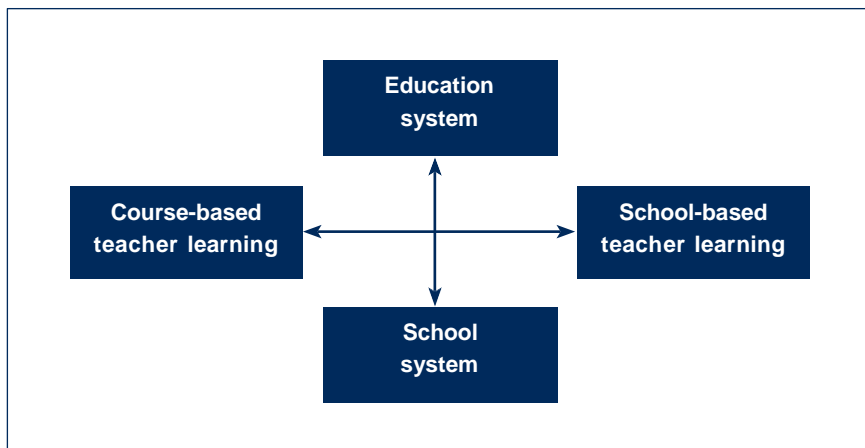


Figure 1: A 'best practice' framework for INSET (Waters & Vilches, 2010, p. 315)

According to this model, the success of in-service courses depends on the degree of integration of both the horizontal and vertical dimensions. In other words, the integration of course- and school-based teacher learning opportunities is necessary, together with the integration of educational and school system priorities. In short, teachers need to be able to try out new course ideas in their classrooms while receiving feedback and professional sustenance on the course, just as the school environments need to be supported by broader educational initiatives linked to course development.

Among theoretical models of teacher development that can assist in our understanding of how in-service LTE may impact teachers, Borg's (2006, p. 283) model concentrates attention on "elements and processes in language teacher cognitions" since "understanding the knowledge, thinking, beliefs and feelings teachers have is key to understanding what they do" (Borg, 2015 November 4). Like Waters and Vilches (2012), Opfer and Pedder (2011) urge the need for research that recognizes and takes into account the different dimensions that influence the impact of in-service education or continuing professional development. On the other hand, Kubanyiova (2012) has conceived a model of teacher development using psychological pre-dispositions as predictors of teachers' openness towards conceptual change, while consciously excluding direct consideration of school and educational systems.

Mujis and Lindsay (2008, p. 208) also acknowledge the importance of taking into account the micro context (teacher and class) as well as macro (school-based and broader educational) dimensions when assessing the impact of INSET. They propose a model with a hierarchy of five levels of impact:

1. participants' reactions
2. participants' learning
3. organisational change and support
4. participants' use of new knowledge and skills
5. student outcomes

In terms of the Waters and Vilches model in Figure 1, Mujis and Lindsay's levels 1 and 2 correspond to course-based teacher learning, while the longer-term impacts represented by levels 3–5 depend on school-based learning being embedded in the school and educational systems. However, as regards empirical evidence of the impact of in-service training at the highest level 5 (impact on student outcomes), Borg (2015, p. 550) asserts that in the field of language teaching “little progress has been achieved”.

Context

In Norway, English is compulsory from 1st grade. It is taught by generalist teachers rather than specialists, in classes with no more than 30 pupils (often less), using an open-ended, competence goal-based curriculum without test-based assessment. A recent national report (Lagerstrøm, Moafi, & Revold, 2014) shows that at the 1st–4th grade level where pupils have one English lesson a week, 66% of teachers do not have the 30 European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), points (equivalent to a half-year, full-time education), which will be required for English teachers in Norway from 2024. Forty-nine per cent of those teaching English at the 5th–7th grade level, where there are 2–3 lessons a week, lack such education.

In order to try to remedy this situation, the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research recently increased the number of one-year part-time 30-ECTS (570 hours of study time) in-service English courses for primary school teachers. The courses are mainly online, with a few two-day face-to-face seminars. Teachers get paid leave to study two days-a-week and have ordinary teaching in their home school classrooms the other three days. Most selected teachers have taught English for several years. Approximately half of the course participants teach 1st–4th grades, while the other half teach 5th–7th grades. For details about course design, see Coburn (2014).

Research Design and Methods

A multiple-case study format (Duff, 2008) was used to provide a deep understanding of the impact of the course by using a variety of methods, “in effect, an instrumental case study extended to several cases” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 152).

Sample

At the start-of-course seminar, seven teachers volunteered for classroom observation and interviews, but only four were selected. One was excluded because she was a native English speaker, one because he did not regularly teach a class, and one because she had previously taken a 30-ECTS English course. Thus the initial volunteer sample was a convenience sample, while the final selection was partly purposive (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 171).

Of the four teachers who were selected, two taught 1st–4th grade classes, while the other two taught 5th–7th grade classes. This allowed cross-case comparison (Duff, 2008) between teachers at the same level. Three of the teachers had long experience of English teaching, while one was almost a novice. As regards the representativeness of the level of the teachers’ language proficiency, on the course’s mid-year oral exam, three of the teachers received the average grade (C) while one got an A.

Data Collection

The data collection procedure is chronologically summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of data collection

Months	Research methods
0	Administration of pre-course questionnaire (Q) on cognitions and self-reported practices
1	1st visit. Early course classroom recordings, observations and interviews
8	2nd visit. Late course classroom recordings, observations and interviews
9	Repeat questionnaire (Q). Teachers write reflections on changes in their original answers
10	Course ends
26	3rd visit. Post-course Interviews

Identical pre and late-course questionnaires were administered with 81 Likert-scale questions, in addition to four open questions that focused on teachers’ practices and beliefs in relation to English teaching. The four teachers’ questionnaire answers and written

reflections on changes in their answers were used as a baseline for triangulated comparisons with observation and interview data.

As shown in Table 1, after obtaining permissions, visits were made to each of the four teachers in their schools. Classroom recordings were made using a discrete microphone attached to the teacher's clothing. The data are based on lessons recorded with the same classes, two lessons on each visit with the 5th–7th grade teachers, and one weekly lesson on each visit with the 1st–4th grade teachers. For each lesson visit, audio recordings were made of pre-lesson briefings, post-lesson debriefings and more structured interviews.

The structured interview questions for the second and third visits were based on themes arising from the course teaching and tasks, from analysis of transcriptions of the previous lessons, and from analysis of teachers' written answers to course tasks. The interviews were often conducted in Norwegian, depending on what the teachers preferred. In the descriptions of the case studies presented below, quotations from teacher interviews or written reflections in English are presented in their original form (i.e. without any corrections).

Criteria for Analysis of Classroom Transcripts and Classroom Language

The analysis of changes in teaching practices makes reference to a model of teacher-fronted classroom interaction which places “interaction at the center of learning” (Walsh, 2011, p. 180), with the understanding that interaction and learning are connected to engagement. The model has four classroom modes. These are used as simple tools of analysis, shown here in short form:

1. *Managerial mode* – teacher monologue
2. *Materials mode*– traditional materials-focused language practice with Initiation-Response- Feedback (IRF) sequences
3. *Skills and systems mode* – focus on language form but not only based on materials
4. *Context mode* - focus on oral fluency through the message rather than the form

(Adapted from Walsh, 2011, p. 135).

In brief, teaching limited to only modes 1 and 2 is likely to result in less engaged learners. Walsh's model applies only to teacher-fronted modes, so when other activities such as pair work are taking place, this is stated in the analysis of the lessons in the case studies.

Walsh makes the case for “multi-layered” classroom analysis that offers a description of both linguistic and interactional features. To this end, the analysis of the case studies relates changes in classroom practices to language changes measured quantitatively in terms of (a) percentage use of Norwegian or English, (b) speed of spoken English, (c) lexical variation, and (d) frequency of errors. This evidence of language change, together with qualitative analysis of observed changes in classroom interaction, is supported by the teachers’ own narratives.

The quantitative measures are interpreted cautiously and always analysed in relation to context. Since lexical variation is difficult to measure in terms of a simple token/type division, because it declines with increases in total word use (Djigunovic & Krevelj, 2012), the decreasing effect of the Giraud Index (the square root of the number of words divided by the number of types) was used as a counterbalance. There were few lemmas; only plural forms were disregarded since knowledge of variation of other lemmas is important. As regards fluency, there are different possible measures such as use of hesitations, number of “small words” or word speed (Simensen, 2010). The latter measure was chosen as most practical. Since teachers’ classroom language varies according to type of lesson and a variety of other factors, the analysis of words speed was carefully situated in relation to context.

Teachers’ errors were also analysed. In order to avoid a negative or one-sided focus, the quality of the teachers’ language was considered within the broader context of the analysis of changes in their teaching practices as a whole. Thus the error analysis was but one measure used within the context of “whole performance data from individual learners” (Corder, 1973, p. 207). A possible weakness of error analysis is that it may fail to take into account the fact that “learners have a tendency to avoid target language items they are not sure about” (James, 2013, p. 18). The case studies provide evidence both for and against this argument.

The reliability of the measurement of grammatical errors was enhanced through inter-rater comparison. Since differences have been found in this kind of error tagging between native and non-native speakers (James, 1977), the use of inter-rater reliability was operationalized through comparison of the analysis of the transcripts between a very experienced Norwegian teacher of English and an experienced English teacher who is a native English speaker. The average agreement of errors was between 80–90%, but never lower than 80%.

Validity

Though case studies do not “represent a formal sample from some larger universe” (Yin, 2006, p. 114), interpretation of the results of multiple case studies may allow logical inferences and analytic generalization (Duff, 2008) and also “have satisfactory face validity because of their comparative nature” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 153). Member checking (Duff, 2008) has also been carried out with the teachers (i.e. I asked them to read their case studies), and they accepted their individual accounts as fair representations of their experiences.

In sum, the analysis of change is operationalised through measures of change in classroom language, change in classroom practices informed by a theoretical model, and changes in teachers’ cognitions and confidence (as represented in interviews and teachers’ written reflections on changes in their responses to the questionnaire). These multiple sources of evidence strengthen the robustness of the findings (Yin, 2006).

Results

The four anonymised case studies are presented, starting with the two 1st–4th grade teachers.

Unn

Unn had thirteen years’ experience as a day care centre teacher before she started as a primary school teacher in 1994. In Unn’s school, there is a shortage of qualified English teachers. She had always tried to avoid teaching English. However, after the curriculum changed and 1st grade English classes started in 2006, she thought, “I’d better learn something”, as she put it. She therefore applied voluntarily for the in-service English course.

Asked about her approach to teaching she replied:

I use as many different varieties of what I know as possible, because some learn best by sitting at the desk, others learn best by listening, others by doing, and if I do different things, some altogether, some by looking at others so that they become secure and know then I can also try this out myself— there are many different ways of learning – and if I do use variation then there is the greatest possibility of reaching most of them.

Her belief in the importance of varying teaching methods includes enthusiasm for the use of the smartboard – “I love it”, and the use of Ipads that her school had recently acquired. She likes to use “station” teaching with one group doing oral English with her, another group

working with English game apps on their I pads, a third group doing more workbook type tasks and a fourth art group creating something physical or visual involving words. In short, Unn is a vastly experienced teacher with a broad methodological repertoire for younger children, but she has very little confidence in her own English.

In the first interview, she complained that on the course “they expect that you know English when you start – it’s almost too much for someone like me who hasn’t studied English since school...” “I have worked very hard with myself – the course in itself... I don’t think the seminars were especially useful.” In the late-course and post-course interviews, however, she was more positive and felt that she had learned many useful ideas about using dialogues and games. She also felt that what she had learned about teaching pronunciation had been helpful. Even so, there had been “a bit too much sentence analysis” and “not enough about how to teach grammar”.

In the spring interview, Unn announced, “I have become better at speaking English in the class. I mean I try to speak as much English as possible...” “The course has made me more secure about going beyond my comfort zone”. She had indeed increased her percentage of English dramatically from 44% to 76% of the total words she spoke, according to the analysis of the transcriptions of her autumn and spring lessons, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Language change- Unn

Unn		L1 vs L2		Word speed		Lexical variation		Accuracy	
Lessons	Time mins	Total words L1+L2	% English	Total English words	English words per min	English word types	Giraud Index	Raters’ agreed errors	Average no. words per error
Autumn	32	1593	44	701	22	169	6.38	8	88
Spring	38	1596	76	1213	32	239	6.86	22	55

Unn’s number of grammatical errors became more frequent as her teaching opened up, as described in the analysis of the spring lesson extracts (below). Her relative level of lexical variation increased slightly, while her English word speed increased. Her lessons are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3: Overview of autumn and spring lessons - Unn

Lessons	Mode	Materials – activities
Autumn	Materials - IRF	Listen to CD – “Scary Riddles”-Halloween (CD-textbook)
	Materials - IRF	Teacher-pupil translation
	Materials - IRF	Repetition of words
	Individual seatwork	Pupils write words in workbook
Spring	Management	Instructions
	Pupils reading out loud in turn	Dialogues – “Winter activities” (textbook)
	Materials - IRF- Context (mixed mode)	Teacher- pupil dialogue

In the autumn, Unn’s interaction with pupils in English was mostly based on one-word translations from the Halloween text, as exemplified in Extract 1.

Unn: Extract 1, autumn (T = teacher; P = Pupil)

- T: Skeleton? Line?
P: *Skjelett?*
T: *Skjelett. Sweets? – Kari?*
P: *Godteri*
T: *Godteri. Candy – Tina?*
P: *Sukkertøy*
T: *Ja sukkertøy.*

However, in the spring lesson, the following classroom extracts show Unn moving out of her comfort zone, beyond materials mode (Walsh, 2013) into context mode (see Table 3), giving her pupils the opportunity to speak more freely.

Unn: Extract 2, spring

- T: And the aims for this week is – “I am good at”. And what are you good at – do you think? In sports maybe? Can you say something?
P: ??? (inaudible) draw
T: Ok. I am good at drawing – Yes, Tina.
P: I am good at smile.
T: I am good at smile. Yes, very good. Some other? Yes, Hilde.
P: I am good at playing chess.
T: Yes. Hmm. And you?
P: I am good at skiing.
T: Yes. Skiing. Yes, Mona.

P: I'm good at running

T: Running. Yes.

Unn was aware that non-correction can be a controversial issue, but her priority here was encouraging fluency and daring to speak. Compared with the one-word answers elicited in the autumn lesson, this was a major step forward. She had learned how to elicit similar practice patterns at the previous course seminar and had been working with dialogues as a course task over the previous month. As the lesson continued, however, Unn ran into difficulties, turning for help to the reluctant researcher (James). The Norwegian words are translated in brackets.

Unn: Extract 3, spring

T: Yes. Ok then but we have something we are bad at too I think. I'm bad at playing football.

P: I'm bad at – *hva heter salto?* [what is somersault in English?]

T: *Salto?* – *hva heter salto?* [somersault – what is somersault?]

P: I'm bad at ride parallel slalom

T: It's only skiing James?

P: *Hva er kaste spyd på engelsk?* [What is throwing the javelin in English?]

T: You have to ask James

P: Erm throw *spyd* [javelin]

T: James! Er – they come with many words here now.

P: ?? (Inaudible)

T: Yes – I don't know they either

When Unn allowed the pupils to produce more authentic language that was not dependent on classroom materials, the result was, as she described it, “*ganske heftig*” [pretty intense].

In the final interview, 16 months after the course, she explained that she had been asked to take over a 5th grade class, the first time she had taught pupils above the 1st–4th grade level. She once again repeated that she felt she lacked vocabulary “because I'm not so good that the English flows out”. However, she had learned to “gesticulate”, to “guide”, and to “wait much longer” when helping pupils “guess from the context”. When I pointed out her increase in errors in the transcripts, she replied that for her, “more important than looking for mistakes is finding good methods for guiding my pupils in helping them to be able to participate in simple basic dialogues”. This was partly because the previous English teachers for her new 5th grade class (who were not educated as English teachers) had struggled to develop the pupils' oral confidence and capacity sufficiently in the 1st–4th grades.

Unn listens to audiobooks to try to maintain her proficiency but says, “I feel that I use English too little in everyday life – so I find that managing the language in the classroom is the most challenging thing.” She felt that she ought to take a further 30-ECTS course.

Anita

Anita also taught in a day care centre prior to her seven years teaching experience in primary school for 1st–4th grades. She is an amateur performer, often using English song lyrics that she memorises. Her only previous English teaching experience was one year as an assistant.

In the recorded lessons, Anita taught a 2nd grade class, using animated versions of children’s songs as she introduced the themes of numbers (This Old Man) and animals (Old MacDonald).

She explained her view of her role as an English teacher:

When they are so young, I think my job is to motivate them and think it’s fun to learn a new language and make them feel excited about it – joyful – make them read – make them happy and competent too. – so that they love to learn.

She found support from the teacher trainers for her whole-hearted enthusiasm and powerful motivation that the children should find joy in language learning.

In the classroom recordings, Anita’s use of English increased from 59% to 73% as shown in Table 4. However, her confidence in her own English did not increase during the course as shown in her written reflections, due to her becoming more aware of her own limitations.

Table 4: Language change - Anita

Anita		L1 vs L2		Speed		Variation		Accuracy	
Lessons	Time mins	Total words L1+L2	% English	Total English words	English words per min	English word types	Giraud Index	Raters’ agreed errors	Average no. words per error
Autumn	40	2392	59	1411	35	222	5.91	12	118
Spring	40	2017	73	1473	37	257	6.70	10	147

Table 4 shows that the regularity of her errors was reduced slightly and her word variation increased a little. An analysis of the lesson transcriptions shows a much more intense level of interaction with the pupils in the spring, as measured by the number of student contributions in the transcriptions (245 vs 130), which probably explains why Anita’s own

English word speed did not increase. However, it was clear that Anita had prepared the spring lesson more thoroughly than usual due to the researcher’s presence.

As a teacher with very little experience of teaching English, Anita felt that with all the new teaching ideas on the course there was “such a lot to learn”. Consequently, she did not feel ready to try out pair work dialogues with her 2nd grade class. According to Table 5, the modes of her transcribed lessons appear quite similar.

Table 5: Overview of lessons - Anita

Lessons	Mode	Materials – activity
Autumn	Materials - IRF	Learning numbers using laminated picture cards
	Materials – IRF	YouTube song-animations – eliciting words – repeating
Spring	Materials – RF - Context (mixed mode)	Introducing new theme – animals Animal pictures – eliciting words
	Materials - IRF	YouTube song-animations – eliciting words – repeating
	Materials - IRF	Farm pictures – eliciting words – repeating short phrases
	Materials – IRF	

Anita’s lessons were based largely on YouTube videos connected to engaging themes. In the spring lesson, her lesson plan was more structured: she successfully introduced a variety of vocabulary which the pupils practiced, including emphasis on the use of plural “s”. Her absolute determination to activate and enthuse her pupils was the overriding characteristic of her teaching. An example of this willingness to give opportunities for children to express spontaneous enthusiasm is indicated in the following introductory sequence to the Spring lesson:

Anita: Extract, spring

T: Ok, we’re going to do a new theme called.. called?

P1: Animals

T: Animals – yes

P2: (mooing noise) cow

T: Animals – yes – what is that? (showing picture)

P3: Dog

T: A dog yeah! – you’re ready already!

First of all, we’re going to listen to a song.

P4: Anita! (pupil interrupts teacher) I have a dog!

T: You have a dog!

P5: I have a cat.

T: You have a cat! Really!

P6: And I have cat.

T: Really! Ok!!!

She did not allow a growing awareness of her lack of formal knowledge to discourage her or her pupils from using English in class because as she only half-jokingly affirmed, “I’m not afraid about making mistakes – I think the life is about making mistakes, the bigger the better!”

Even so, she regretted the lack of opportunities for her in Norway where “you seldom talk English” and then “it feels a bit rusty” and at the final interview she expressed the desire to spend several months or a year in England in order to improve rather than taking a new course because “I’m not a rules person”.

In her written reflections at the end of the course, with reference to her answers to questions about how easy or difficult she found helping her pupils achieve various curriculum goals, she wrote:

I become more certain about myself. I have gone generally from a little difficult to easy and very easy. That surprise me really because I feel more unsure now than I did in the beginning, but when I think about it I become happy.

In other words, Anita felt that she was more easily able to help her pupils; but at the same time she had become aware of how much more she still has to learn.

In the school year following the in-service course, Anita was confronted with a challenge. She was asked to teach a 4th grade class where she did not know the pupils. She tried to “speak only English” but “sometimes had other teachers and assistants in the class who translated when I asked questions (...) before the pupils had a chance to answer! So it was... it wasn’t any good”. She later realised:

I should have collaborated more because I had started challenging the pupils more than the class teacher would have done. The teachers told me that the pupils had had a lot of English before, but they had had a lot of cramming so they had no active vocabulary – so they could hardly say anything – in contrast with the other class which I’d had before who I’d always talked English with. (translated by researcher)

Even so, the final interview ended on a positive note, as Anita described developments during the autumn of the final interview. She had started to teach English as one of three new 1st grade class teachers. In the team planning discussions, although there was

resistance, the three class teachers agreed to try to follow Anita's approach. They now use YouTube songs and teach the vocabulary from the songs, together with some simple useful oral expressions, rather than using a textbook. Anita's colleague admitted that she had been convinced one day when she saw a new 1st grader spontaneously ask another teacher, "How are you today?!"

Monika

Monika had been a primary school teacher for 17 years, first in a multicultural school in Oslo for four years before returning to her small home town. She confided, "I wasn't very good at English at school – it was my worst subject." Though she has often had to teach English, she has seen herself as primarily a teacher of Norwegian. However, her school is chronically short of English teachers and has difficulty in attracting teachers. Since Monika had already often taught English, she agreed to take the in-service course.

She had two 6th grade classes for English during the course year and was very familiar with one class. For practical reasons, however, the classroom recordings had to be made in the other 6th grade class, which Monika described as very quiet. She had not taught this class before and explained that the pupils were "not used to speaking English", but were "learning my way of doing things". The situation is illustrated by the following early course extract where Monika is circulating in the class repeatedly asking the paired-up pupils to speak English.

Monika: Extract, early course (Translation of Norwegian in brackets)

T: Ok. Do you read to each other?

P1: Yes.

P2: *Synes det var litt langt* [I thought it was a bit long]

T: Shhhh. *Ja*. [Yes] But that's the way it is. Try to speak English together. Ok?

P1: Ok. We speak English together.

T: Yeah good!

P2: I can't speak English.

T: Yes, you can.

It was clearly a struggle to get some of the pupils to speak English. Monika herself had decided to speak almost only English. In one early course lesson recording, however, she did translate a long sequence from a textbook text, resulting in the 67% English usage in the autumn lesson 2, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Language change - Monika

Monika		L1 vs L2		Word speed		Lexical variation		Accuracy	
Lessons	Time mins	Total words L1+L2	% L2	Total English words	English words per min	English word types	Giraud Index	Raters' agreed errors	Average no. words per error
Autumn 1	50	2129	98	2086	42	312	6.83	16	130
Autumn 2	43	2351	67	1575	37	259	6.53	12	131
Spring 1	56	3561	99	3525	63	399	6.72	33	107
Spring 2	25	1675	96	1608	64	292	7.29	14	115

In the spring lessons, the relative frequency of her grammatical errors increased somewhat while her English word speed increased by approximately 50%. These changes can be partly explained by differences in the characteristics of the autumn and spring lessons as outlined in Table 7.

Table 7: Overview of lessons - Monika

Lessons	Mode	Materials – activity
Spring 1	Management	Rollcall. Vocabulary test
	Pair work	Reading text on sport (textbook)
Spring 2	Management	Teacher hands back homework
	Materials	Listening (textbook-CD recording–The Beauty Contest)
Autumn 1	Management	Teacher instructions
	Seat work	Pupils finish writing fairy tales
Autumn 2	Management	Teacher instructs procedure in PC lab
	Pairs	Reading travel story on PCs, answer questions

In her first interview, Monika said that she depended on the textbook and weekly word tests. In the autumn lessons, Monika used a very traditional teacher-centred approach, closely bound to the textbook with substantial translation and class repetition after the CD. However, in the first recorded spring lesson, Monika used pair and group work in a new way. Her pupils were writing short stories and then retelling them in groups. Though this task was a directly inspired by the course, Monika said that it was also

something I'd thought about before as well. Because I know that the local junior secondary school has criticised our school because the pupils here are not used to writing, only to answering questions.

During this task, which was clearly new for the pupils, Monika circulated and talked more quickly and spontaneously compared with the teacher-fronted autumn lessons, first to individual pupils and then to the groups. She also talked faster in the second spring lesson. This was partly because her class had finally gained access to the school's PC room and she wanted to explain the task quickly and make sure that they finished in time.

After reading the transcriptions of the first recordings (before the final interview), Monika remarked on how often she hesitated (marked as “erm”) when speaking English. A total of 31 hesitations were marked in the autumn and 32 in the spring. Nonetheless, Monika wrote that she had become more confident as an English teacher due to becoming more secure in her knowledge of grammar and vocabulary. However, she reflected that she found it “a bit strange” that in relation to teaching oral communication strategies, her questionnaire answers had changed from finding teaching such strategies “quite easy” to “a bit difficult”. She wrote that this change

has to do with the fact that this learning process not only have made me a better English teacher, but also have made me more aware of my faults and of what's required of me to be an good English teacher

Having tried out various course ideas in her classroom during the course, at the spring interview, Monika felt that her teaching had become “much more interesting and exciting for the kids”. She had started to use more games and tasks “where they have to talk English together” (...) “and I put the textbook aside a bit more.” However, she bemoaned the fact that she had not tried out more roleplay or drama activities. Even so, she still regarded the textbook as the foundation for her teaching.

Sixteen months after the course ended, Monika's teaching situation at her school had changed considerably. Half of her job (12 lessons a week) was now teaching English with the parallel 6th and 7th grade classes. At the final interview, she concluded, “I have freed myself from the book to some extent, but perhaps not as much as I thought I would when I spoke with you”. However, she had stopped her traditional weekly word tests, now relying more on teaching vocabulary in context, through the introduction of simplified readers. In addition, she reported, “I've got feedback both from individual parents and pupils that they didn't like English before, but that they now think it's fun”. Monika had also received positive feedback from other school personnel and from the local lower secondary school confirming that the pupils going there now knew and spoke more English than before. Monika would like to take a further 30-ECTS points English course.

Helle

Helle had taught in different primary schools for over twenty years, the last eight years at a small school in a rural area. She did well studying English at school and has taught English “very often”. As a teacher, she “burns for creativity” which she feels has “almost disappeared in school” over the last few years.

Two or three years before starting on the in-service course Helle had consciously decided to try to develop her English teaching, prompted by what she perceived as the weak English of many pupils who came to her from 4th grade.

During the course year, Helle was both the class and English teacher for her small 6th grade class. Her early course lessons were mainly teacher-fronted but included a wide variety of different activities, which sometimes moved into freer interaction. For example, at the end of the second recorded lesson, the pupils took turns to act out a role play they had prepared as weather forecast presenters:

Helle: Extract, early course

P: This is Janne with the weather forecast. Today on the morning it's been sunny with some cloud. In the afternoon it's been rain and starting to ... It's been rain. No. Tomorrow it's been cold and rainy. The rest of the week it's been erm it's been different weathers. The competition can you take a picture of the weather and so you can win and so you can win.

T: There is a competition?

P: There is a competition where you can take a picture - a picture of the weather and send it to Radio Ratpack at number 47648490. You can win a trip to Sweden.

T: Yes! (Applause) You want to join in her competition?

Ps: Yes!

Helle continued to encourage the class to spontaneously develop the pupil's idea of a competition. For Helle, in general, “free conversation was an important part of the lesson” as were such pupil presentations. She also encouraged “loose” conversation – “it could be anything” – “because I think it's important to speak and talk – not always use the book”. Even before the course she said she had been “trying to make the pupils more active – getting them to talk more - by varying the teaching more”. – “trying to find ways – but not always very successfully”.

During the course, she felt she became “more reflective” and received “many good ideas and tips” as to how to put her wishes into practice “I think this is what was missing before - we didn’t have any alternative to the English book and that type of traditional teaching”. Table 8 shows an overview of Helle’s lessons.

Table 8: Overview of lessons - Helle

Lessons	Mode	Materials – activity
Autumn 1	Management/materials	Introduces new words
	Materials	Listening to textbook-CD - radio weather forecast
	Management	Teacher translates text
	Materials - IRF	Questions on text
	Management	Homework explanation
	Context	Memory chain class activity
	Materials - context	Song – talk about text
	Context	I-spy game
Autumn 2	Management	Instructions and word test
	Pair work	Pairs read together and translate
	Management	Teacher explanation
	Pupil presentations	Pupils present weather forecasts
Spring 1	Management	Instructions
	Pair work	Pupils change story endings
	Context	Pupils relate story-telling experiences
	Context	Yes-No game
Spring 2	Context	Pupils talk about new story-telling experiences
	Management	Task explanation
	Pair work	Vocabulary activity
	Materials/context	Song-listening – talk about lyrics

The spring lesson content reflects changes Helle was going through:

I changed my view of how pupils learn – it’s not me who should stand there and tell them everything – but rather that they – through being active – learn much more... I’m not now so controlling in a way you might say.

As a result, she uses less time on book texts and “chooses other kinds of tasks... using the materials in other ways and bringing in new ideas – for example tips from the course.”

During the recording of the first spring course lesson, Helle’s pupils went out to tell a story (The Caterpillar) in English to a 2nd grade class (this was not recorded). Helle had been

inspired by working with story-telling on the course, but getting her pupils to tell stories to other younger pupils was her idea. When they returned to the classroom, her pupils were excited and stimulated and talked in English about the experience. Changes in her use of English are shown in Table 8.

Table 9: Language change - Helle

Helle		L1 vs L2		Word speed		Lexical variation		Accuracy	
Lessons	Time mins	Total words L1+L2	% L2	Total English words	English words per min	English word types	Giraud Index	Raters' agreed errors	Average no. words per error
Autumn 1	72	3154	82	2586	43	476	9.36	7	369
Autumn 2	40	1467	99	1452	37	290	7.61	2	726
Spring 1	20	967	82	793	48	189	6.71	6	132
Spring 2	34	2107	99	2086	62	328	7.18	4	521

In general, Helle had few errors. Some of the first spring lesson errors may be due to her faster word speed used during the more open context mode parts of that lesson. During the first autumn lesson, Helle used less English mainly due to one long translation sequence. However, she also used a wide variety of activities during this longer lesson, which is associated with the high level of lexical variation in that lesson. In the first spring lesson recording, she also used Norwegian for one five-minute period as she gave particularly clear and specific instructions to the pupils who were going to tell stories with the second graders.

Otherwise, Helle had made a conscious decision to stop translating because “it takes a lot of time” and because “the important thing is that the pupils understand the message and can learn to guess according to the context, and think for themselves.”

Helle felt that her confidence in speaking English had increased significantly – “Maybe this is the greatest change of all.” Indeed, the changes in her responses to pre- and post-course questionnaire questions on teachers’ oral proficiency were remarkably strong. For example, in response to the statement “I have adequate knowledge of English words and expressions to manage the class in English”, Helle moved from 1 (Untrue) to 5 (True) on a five-point Likert scale. In reality, Helle’s classroom language had already been excellent in the first interview, but she was unaware of this.

In the final interview, Helle said that she felt that her teaching had changed “a great deal” since she first made a conscious decision to start improving. The course had dove-tailed with her self-initiated process. Since the course ended she had continued to develop, experimenting for example with dramatizations, pronunciation work, and drawing and cross-disciplinary work to stimulate vocabulary learning.

In discussions with the children and parents of her new 5th grade pupils, several children had said that English was “the best” subject and the most “fun”. This was something new for Helle. The children said it was because “you speak so much English” – “you speak English nearly all the time!”. Helle explained “the children think that is challenging and exciting.”

Discussion

Before discussing the results, some limitations need to be acknowledged. The small number of lessons and cases limits the generalizability of the study. Nonetheless, the research reveals knowledge that has considerable transfer value (Duff, 2008) through the light it sheds on developmental processes and interrelations between changes in the teachers’ language, teaching practices, cognitions and confidence. Otherwise, the fact that the teachers were somewhat nervous at times or may have prepared more for recorded lessons was taken into account in the analysis and discussed in the interviews.

The discussion begins with a comparative summary of the results in Table 10, answering the research questions regarding the various kinds of impact that the in-service course had on the four teachers in this study. In Table 10, the first three columns indicate how the course impacted (a) the teachers’ classroom language, (b) teaching practices and cognitions, and (c) changes in teachers’ confidence in relation to their language proficiency and teaching skills. Longer-term consequences of the course in the teachers’ school contexts are shown in the fourth column

Table 10: Summary of changes for case study teachers

	Category of change			
	Language (1)	Practices-Cognitions (2)	Confidence (3)	School context (4)
Operation- alised as Teacher	L1/L2 % use, errors, speed, variation	Classroom interaction, Teaching approach	As L2 model As L2 teacher	Teaching situation Possible developments
Unn, 1st–4th grade	Far less L1 use. % L2 errors and speed increase, but see (2)*	More open interaction and developing guidance skills, but hampered by lack of words and fluency	Less confident as L2 model, but more confident as L2 teacher	Given 5th grade class for first time. Wants further 30-ECTS course so she can guide 1st–4th grade teachers.
Anita, 1st–4th grade	Less L1 use. Errors similar. Speed similar, but see (2)*.	Did not want to change her teacher-fronted oral approach. More intense interaction*. Difficulty with pair work.	Not more confident as L2 model, but more confident as L2 teacher	Met resistance in school’s English teaching culture, but gaining acceptance. Wants a stay in England
Monika, 5th–7th grade	Less translation Less L1. Same % errors, word speed increase	Picked up ideas and tips. Still relies on materials mode and believes in a textbook-based approach	Ambiguous change in confidence as L2 model. Confidence increase as L2 teacher	Doubled her English teaching hours. Wants further 30-ECTS course, and more teaching hours
Helle, 5th–7th grade	Less translation Same % errors Higher speed	Inner developmental process continued, further stimulated by course ideas	Far more confident, both as L2 model and as L2 teacher	Continues as both class and L2 teacher. Feels no need for more education.

The focus of the following discussion of the results is on the teachers’ language development, the possible impact of limitations in the course design, and the systemic impact of the course on the teachers’ positions in their home schools.

Explaining language developmental processes

Participation on the course encouraged or required the teachers to experiment with new pedagogical approaches, which led to them speaking more English, interacting more intensively, and speaking more quickly. Trying out, and to varying extents mastering these new approaches gave the teachers more confidence. However, it also exposed and made them aware of faults and gaps in their language knowledge and proficiency.

A higher speech rate and more spontaneous, less controlled language gives less cognitive preparation time and sometimes makes it difficult for teachers with limited vocabulary to find the right words to complete utterances. It can also lead to a tendency to translate word for word from the L1 to the L2, which may cause hesitations and

further difficulties. For example, when a Norwegian teacher starts a sentence by directly translating a Norwegian word or phrase, the teacher may then realise that the different Norwegian word order is going to lead to the use of a word or construction of which she is unsure. In this case, she is likely to hesitate. Some hesitations were thus connected with attempts at error avoidance.

This partly explains why the teachers' frequency of errors remained similar or even increased. A second reason is that, for these very experienced teachers, many of the errors were fossilized. For example, there is a preponderance of concord errors, which may be difficult to eradicate. A third explanation is that the course itself did not target such errors or specifically aim to improve classroom language.

Lack of Classroom Follow-up, Feedback and Oral Practice

The teachers did not receive direct feedback on their actual classroom language or practices during the course. Although Unn dared to do more, her confidence might have benefited from more support. Anita was unable to initiate pair work without support. Monika regretted not trying out more dramatization, but might have dared to do more with classroom follow-up.

Nor did the teachers get the chance to practice their oral English beyond participation in conversations at the infrequent seminars. Conversations between seminars using Skype or a similar technical solution were deemed to be too costly in terms of resource prioritization and difficulties involved in providing teachers the necessary technical training.

The teachers were relatively isolated in their own classrooms between seminars with no course-based classroom collaboration with other English teachers. Neither did they have any classroom observation, follow-up, supervision or feedback on classroom practices from the teacher trainers. This situation contradicts the theoretical and research-based recommendation that successful in-service training should include evaluation of "classroom implementation of what has been learned" (Hayes & Chang, 2012, p. 116). The lack of individual classroom follow-up also meant that the teacher trainers were unaware of specific classroom challenges facing individual teachers who began the course at very different starting points. This approach is at odds with research, which suggests that effective professional development must take account of both the needs of the individual and of the collective, by being "responsive to the complex and unique needs and context of

the learner”, and through an emphasis on “collaboration, shared inquiry and learning from and with peers” (Broad & Evans, 2006, p. 3).

As a result of the lack of regular, ongoing, detailed feedback on their classroom performance, it was very difficult for teachers to obtain a more objective perspective on their oral proficiency and teaching practices. This explains why all of the four teachers’ evaluations of the level of their own language proficiency were different from the feedback they received at the oral exam. They had either believed that they were better or worse than they were assessed to be.

Systemic Perspectives

An important contextual factor in the teachers’ home schools that hindered the teachers’ abilities to change their teaching after the course was finished was the fact that they had inherited children who were not accustomed to communicative methods. For example, Unn, (the teacher who had been asked to teach 5th grade pupils after she had only previously taught younger children) felt that eradicating her own errors was not her main challenge: rather, it was the difficulty in getting her 5th grade pupils to speak English and participate in dialogues that concerned her. These pupils lacked the necessary vocabulary and confidence, largely because their previous English teachers had been so weak. Anita was also confronted with the consequences of working with other teachers who are unable to teach communicatively.

These examples are a natural consequence of the fact that in Norway approximately two thirds of those who teach English in 1st–4th grade have no language teacher education (Lagerstrøm, Moafi, & Revold, 2014). On the other hand, the fact that three of the teachers in this study were required to teach more English after the course may have further stimulated their development. Guskey (2002) suggests that outer pressure on teachers (in this case through the requirement to have extra English teaching) may be necessary to help teachers to develop, if they do not have sufficient inner motivation. This seems to have been the case for Monika, who became something of an English subject specialist. Research into the effects of professional development for primary school teachers, at least in science subjects, (Lumpe, Czerniak, Haney, & Beltyukova, 2012) suggests that an increase in the amount of time teachers spend teaching science is correlated with an increase in their self-efficacy. This raises the question as to whether a greater preponderance of specialist English teachers would be preferable to the tendency for primary schools to rely on generalists in Norway.

Implications

In sum, the impact of the course has been that all teachers now speak more English in class. They may speak faster, but make approximately the same number of errors. They have opened up their teaching practices with more interaction and pupil activity, and have become more confident as English teachers, but not necessarily as role models. As a consequence of taking the course, three of the four teachers are expected to do more English teaching and be able to teach at different levels. Considering the expense of the course, with the teachers being paid two days a week to study over one year, these results may appear to be adequate, but there is room for improvement.

One of the ways this could be done is through systematic experimentation or pilot projects testing out the areas where theory and international research results suggest that the course design is lacking. This includes teacher collaboration, the development of teachers' oral proficiency, and a focus on using technological opportunities. A course design with a greater emphasis on how teachers' classroom language and teaching approaches are interwoven is likely to be beneficial. For example, Freeman, Katz, Gomez and Burns (2015) argue that the thrust of efforts in state school systems where English teaching has expanded should be met through:

a reconceptualization of teacher language proficiency, not as general English proficiency but as a specialized subset of language skills required to prepare and teach lessons. This concept of English-for-Teaching as a bounded form of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) for the classroom builds on what teachers know about teaching, while introducing and confirming specific classroom language. (Freeman, Katz, Gomez, & Burns, 2015, p. 1)

A greater focus on better exploitation of technology to ensure more teacher collaboration and support from teacher educators between seminars could be achieved through regular Skype conversations focusing on teachers' experimentation and methodological awareness and development of their oral proficiency. Collaboration and the development of classroom teaching practices could be further supported through teachers' making video or audio recordings of parts of their lessons, which could potentially be used as material for reflection tasks for teacher development through peer collaboration (Reitano & Sim, 2010).

Conclusion

The course in this Norwegian study was successful in that it resulted in increased confidence for the four case-study teachers as teachers of English and helped the teachers to become more aware of the kinds of activities and patterns of interaction that are most likely to facilitate learning.

Conversely, three of the teachers became more aware of shortcomings in their language proficiency, which negatively affected their confidence and perhaps their willingness to experiment after the course. In this context, the suggestion that “the real issue is not the teachers’ lack of proficiency (...) but rather a lack of confidence” (Garton, Coland, & Burns, 2011, p. 40) risks drawing attention away from the real need to prioritize the development of oral proficiency in the course design, rather than neglect its importance in building confidence.

Thus the impact of the course might have been greater if the improvement of teachers’ oral language proficiency had been more explicitly prioritized in the course delivery and content. This could be done by targeting specific common errors through systematic practice. Technological solutions can be used to facilitate teacher collaboration and to allow teacher trainers to observe and discuss individual teachers’ lessons and classroom language with them on a regular basis.

The study suggests that the price of daring to initiate practices associated with more communicative language teaching may be to increase non-native speaking primary English teachers’ own language vulnerability: if this leads to increased learning, it is worth it. However, there is a need for post-course support for many of these teachers.

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