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Signature:
Acknowledgement

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This work is dedicated to my husband Aidan, son Joss and daughter Niamh who offered tangible support and encouragement which enabled me to keep going even when I thought I could not.
Abstract
Few would question the important role of teachers in influencing the quality of education in schools; who teachers are, how they teach and what they teach are all essential components in determining the quality of the education they are instrumental in delivering. It is a logical extension to assume that the same factors matter with regard to teacher education.
This thesis explores the professional identity of those involved in the preparation of new teachers – the teacher educators. Within this group, English language teacher educators, represent a small but significant subset, and one whose role in contexts such as the United Arab Emirates (UAE) is expanding beyond the confines of English language teaching alone and into the wider education arena. It is hoped that this study may provide a useful contribution to ongoing discussions about teacher education at a number of levels. Firstly, it will add to research findings about teacher educators in general, and English language teacher educators in particular, and it is hoped that the study may offer some insights into the professional lives of those engaged in teacher preparation, especially in the United Arab Emirates. Secondly, it aims to give voice to a relatively under-researched body of professionals with the aim of discovering why they do the job they do and what they value in that job, in so doing it is hoped that it may be able to uncover what, if anything, constitutes the professional identity of teacher educators as a distinctive professional group.
Contents

Chapter 1: The important role of teacher educators 11

1.1 English Language Teacher Education 13
   1.1.1 English in the United Arab Emirates – an expanding role 14

1.2 Who are the teacher educators? 15
   1.2.1 Routes into teacher education 15

1.3 What do teacher education programmes look like? Episteme vs Phronesis 17
   1.3.1 Teacher education: a profession “on the cusp” 19

1.4 A personal interest 20
   1.4.1 Narrative beginnings 21

1.5 Some broad research questions 24

1.6 Outline of the study 26
Chapter 2: Background to the study: Introduction

2.1. The United Arab Emirates

2.2 Education in the UAE
   2.2.1 Fundamental challenges in education in the UAE
   2.2.2 The language context

2.3 The New School Model in Abu Dhabi

2.4 Teachers in the UAE

2.5 Teacher education in the UAE

2.6 Summary

Chapter 3: Review of the literature

3.1 Introduction
   3.1.2 An historical perspective

3.2 Models of teacher education: an ELT focussed overview
   3.2.1 The 'craft' model
      3.2.1.1 Strengths of the craft model
      3.2.1.2 Criticisms of the craft model
      3.2.1.3 Implications of the craft model for teacher educators
   3.2.2 The applied science model
      3.2.2.1 Strengths of applied science models
      3.2.2.2 Criticisms of applied science
      3.2.2.3 Implications of the applied science model for teacher educators
   3.2.3 The reflective model
      3.2.3.1 Conceptualisations of reflection
      3.2.3.2 Strengths of the reflective model
      3.2.3.3 Criticisms of the reflective model
### 3.2.3.4 Implications of the reflective model for the teacher educator

3.3: The socio-cultural turn
- 3.3.1 Implications of the sociocultural turn for teacher educators

3.4 The concept of identity
- 3.4.1 Identity in education
  - 3.4.1.2 Psychological/developmental perspectives on identity
  - 3.4.1.3 Sociocultural perspectives on identity
  - 3.4.1.4 Post-structural perspectives on identity

3.5 Towards an understanding of professional identity

3.6 Chapter summary

### Chapter 4: Research paradigm and methodology

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Terminology: Research paradigm
- 4.2.1 Ontology: what is social reality?
- 4.2.2 Epistemology: what is knowledge and how do we go about acquiring it?
- 4.2.3 Methodology: a plan of action

4.3 The interpretive paradigm

4.4 Research methodology
- 4.4.1 Building a conceptual framework
  - 4.4.1.1 Commonplace one: temporality
  - 4.4.1.2 Commonplace two: sociality
  - 4.4.1.3 Commonplace three: place
  - 4.4.1.4 Weaving the commonalities together

4.5 Expanding the framework

4.6 The research participants and their settings
Chapter 5 Presentation and discussion of the findings

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Temporality: becoming a teacher educator
   5.2.1 Pathways: the how, accident or design?  
   5.2.2 Pathways: the why, motivations  
   5.2.3 Learning on the job: induction  
   5.2.4 Learning through experience: ongoing professional development

5.3 Sociality 1 doing teacher education
   5.3.1 Multiple roles: teacher plus  
   5.3.2 Multiple roles: role model  
   5.3.3 Multiple roles: mentor/nurturer  
   5.3.4 Multiple roles: evaluator
5.4 Sociality 2 being a teacher educator 143
   5.4.1 Personal experience and philosophy 144
   5.4.2 Theories of others 148
   5.4.3 Personal values: mission and moral purpose 151
   5.4.4 Personal values: professionalism 152

5.5 Belonging as a teacher educator 154
   5.5.1 Contextual impacts: local education reforms as
       a source of tension 155
   5.5.2 Contextual impacts: collaboration, non-collaboration and
       communities of practice 158

**Chapter 6 Summary of findings and implications from this study 162**

6.1 Introduction 162
6.2 Becoming a teacher educator: academic or practitioner? 162
6.3 Being a teacher educator and doing teacher education: a work in progress
   165
   6.3.1 A more expansive view of teacher education 166
   6.3.2 Professionalism, ethics and emotions 168
6.4 Belonging as a teacher educator 170
6.4.1 Individual institutional experiences 171
6.5 Limitations of the study 173
6.6 Implications and recommendations arising from this study 175
6.7 Possible further areas for research 178
6.8 Concluding remarks 179
Appendices

Appendix 1 Biographical information about research participants 182
Appendix 2 Samples from interview transcripts 207
Appendix 3 Examples of data coding 214
Appendix 4 Ethics forms 217
Bibliography 221

List of tables
Table 1 Preliminary interview guide 101
Table 2 Revised interview guide 104
Table 3 Biographical information about research participants 182
Table 4 Comparing participants in the sociality dimension 215
Table 5 Developing themes and categories in the sociality dimension 216

List of illustrations
Figure 1 The reflective model 58
Figure 2 Initial methodological framework 94
Figure 3 Expanded methodological framework 95
Figure 4 Analytical framework 117
Figure 5 Early stages of coding 1 214
Figure 6 Early stages of coding 2 214
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
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<td>BEd</td>
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Chapter 1 The important role of teacher educators

Despite coming to more prominence in recent years (e.g. Murray and Male, 2005; Loughran, 2006; Murray, 2010; Swennen, Jones & Volman, 2010; Davey, 2013), research about the development and professional identity of teacher educators has yet to match the extensive body of literature that exists about teacher development (Swennen, Volmann and van Essen 2008), and teacher educators have been characterized as “an under-researched and poorly understood occupational group” (Murray, 2003:1). Learning to teach is widely acknowledged as a complex, multi-faceted undertaking and this is well documented in the research, with many aspects receiving attention e.g. Kagan (1992), Clarke (2008), Roberts (1998) on novice teacher development; Bain (2004) on experienced professionals; Jarvis-Selinger, Pratt and Collins (2010) on teachers’ core beliefs and their influence on practice; and Borg (2003) and Fang (1996) on the development of teachers’ belief systems and the key formative influences leading them to a personal philosophy of practice.

However, Richert (1995) argues that learning to teach teachers is an even more complex undertaking and, positing a direct link between teacher learning and student learning, further argues that an appropriate place to start investigating the cycle of learning is, therefore, with the first teachers involved in the process i.e. the teacher educators. Whilst it is generally accepted that teachers are the most important in-school factor influencing the quality and nature of pupil learning (Barber and Mourshed, 2007), changes in our thinking about the nature of teaching and learning and an expansion of our understanding of the role of a teacher away from being merely a deliverer, or transmitter, of information, mean that the role of the teacher educator must also be redefined in parallel. It is logical to assume that those who prepare
novice teachers have an equally important and formative role to play in the educational enterprise; indeed Kremer-Hayon and Zuzovsky (1995) argue that teacher educators’ impact on the professional development of teachers alone makes them a group worthy of study. Cole and Knowles (1995: 148) assert that

An understanding of the backgrounds, experiences, attitudes, intellectual and praxis perspectives, knowledge, and career aspirations of those involved in teacher education [....] as well as of individual and institutional commitments to teacher education, can provide insights into the future of teacher education.

Beliefs about what constitutes an effective pedagogy for teacher education are bound up in the question of professional identity and core beliefs, and are impacted by the context in which one works (Tillema and Kremer-Hayon 2005). Murray and Male (2005:126) describe teacher educators as operating at the level of “second order teaching”, in the sense that they generally do not work in schools but are usually based in higher education institutions, yet their work remains inextricably linked to the “first order teaching situation” (ibid.), in other words, the school. Zeichner (1995) maintains that the key position of teacher educators in a particular society, i.e. in effect preparing teachers to teach everybody’s children, means that the very act of teacher education becomes part of a larger political, moral and ethical endeavor. This view is echoed by Guilfoyle, Hamilton, Pinnegar and Placier (1995:36) who maintain that in addition to responsibility for their own student teachers, the teacher educator has a duty to act as advocate for all the “unseen” learners these future teachers will teach in the course of their careers. Zeichner (2008) argues that it is important for those involved in teacher preparation to have more than just a knowledge of good teaching practices but that their work must also reflect and acknowledge the complexity of the role they are preparing novice teachers for,
a role which requires practitioners to respond to constantly evolving situations with diverse groups of learners. To be able to successfully scaffold the learning of novice teachers towards more expert teaching requires the teacher educator to have unique expertise and self-awareness in order to cope with the layered nature of teacher education. Zeichner (ibid.) argues that teacher preparation programmes, must reflect the complexity of influencing teachers’ beliefs and understandings that underlie their practices, and must develop reflective dispositions and capabilities in the student teachers enrolled in them. The teacher educator, therefore, has an important and extremely complex role to play and it is clear that the way they view themselves as professionals, and the approach they take to their work and the preparation and delivery of courses, will impact on the work of the novice teachers they are responsible for.

1.1 English Language Teacher Education

English Language teacher education, whilst remaining a subset of the education field in general and largely influenced by theory drawn from the latter, has come to increasing prominence in the years since World War Two due to the rapid spread of “English as a global language” (Crystal, 2003). There have been criticisms of this phenomenon on the grounds that it constitutes a form of “linguistic imperialism” (Phillipson, 1992) which, potentially, both marginalizes local and regional languages, and undermines or erodes cultural values (e.g. Pennycook, 1995, 1998; Canagarajah, 1999). Despite this, many believe that the importance of English as a global lingua franca has been cemented, with, realistically, no credible challengers on the immediate horizon; Bruthiaux (2002:129) for example, posits that the “worldwide dominance of English is such that only catastrophic upheaval could seemingly threaten it in the near future”. It is doubtless for this reason that English is not only the most popular
modern language studied in schools worldwide - Crystal (2003) estimates that it is the most widely taught foreign language in schools in over 100 countries -, but it is gaining increasing currency in institutions of higher education throughout the world as well (Graddol 1997). Criticism of the dominant position of English as a global language notwithstanding, English continues to be introduced to state school educational systems at an increasingly earlier stage in many countries throughout the world, a situation described by Johnstone (2009: 23) as “possibly the world’s biggest policy development in education”. The effects of such policy developments have political and social consequences and ramifications on many levels, all of which are deserving of investigation and study. However, this thesis will focus on those at the very beginning of the teaching learning cycle: the front line educators involved in the work of preparing novice teachers. The research is situated in the UAE, where English language teacher educators now routinely prepare novice teachers not only to become teachers of English language, but also to fulfil an expanded role as teachers of core subjects at primary level through the medium of English. This will be discussed further in the section below and the context will be described in more depth in chapter two.

1.1.1 English in the United Arab Emirates – an expanding role
In common with other countries introducing English into the curriculum at an early age, the United Arab Emirates has been expanding the presence of English in schools since at least 2006 and, following recent policy changes, English teachers involved in primary education are now commonly expected to deliver core primary math and science, as well as English language itself, through the medium of English. This study is an attempt to examine the role of the teacher educators preparing these new primary teachers in this context, a
relatively young, developing society which, despite rapid progress in many areas, has yet to establish a consistent and high performing education system. The country is currently undergoing a series of radical reforms in the education sector and an ‘education system in crisis’ discourse has become an almost daily feature in the local media for the last few years (see for example Afshan, 2011; Lewis, 2008; Lewis and Bardsley, 2008; Safadi, 2008; McPherson, Kachelhoffer and El Nemr, 2007; Salama, 2005.). One of the problems frequently highlighted is poor teaching and ill qualified teachers, which makes effective teacher education a key priority area but one which has, until recently, received little attention in the UAE.

1.2 Who are the teacher educators?
Koster, Brekelmans, Korthagen and Wubbels (2005: 157) provide a definition of a teacher educator as someone who “provides instruction or who gives guidance and support to student teachers, and who thus renders a substantial contribution to the development of students into competent teachers”. This definition could encompass school-based mentor teachers, as well as those involved in pre-service training in institutions of higher education; for the purposes of this study, however, the focus will be confined to the latter group.

1.2.1 Routes into teacher education
Swennen, Lunenberg and Korthagen (2008) offer reasons why the persona of the teacher educator remains a relatively under-researched area: for example the small number of teacher educators compared to the large numbers of practicing teachers, or the relatively new profession of teacher educator in comparison with the much older profession of teacher. However, another explanation may lie in the fact that the route to the profession of teacher educator is somewhat unclear. For example, there are very few professional
Qualifications available to specifically equip someone to be a teacher educator, and few teacher educators come to the role with formal and specific training for it (Kremer-Hayon and Zuzovsky 1995; Korthagen, 2000 cited in Smith, 2003). Lunenberg and Korthagen (2003) provide further evidence of this citing the work of Buchberger, Campos, Kallos and Stephenson (2000) in the European context, and Ducharme (1993) in the North American arena. The general consensus appears to be that a lack of a research-based knowledge and validated practices with reference to teacher education and the preparation and supervision of teacher educators persists in many contexts (Lunenberg and Korthagen, ibid.). In the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), both the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) and Trinity College offer EFL trainer credentials but, in both cases, these are closely linked to the professional EFL sector and are not generally recognized in the mainstream school education sector.

According to Ducharme (1993), in the North American, and by extension, other western contexts, teacher educators working with student teachers aiming to join national school education systems are unlikely to have been formally trained for the role and generally find themselves in position via one of two routes. The first is the educational researcher, often based in a university or other institution of higher education, who teaches courses deemed necessary for teachers, typically on a Bachelor of Education programme. This ‘brand’ of teacher educator may bring much in the way of theoretical knowledge, or what Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf and Wubbels (2001) call “episteme”, but they may have only limited practical knowledge of school-based teaching or experience of the realities of the school classroom. The second group are usually accomplished classroom practitioners, often with years of experience,
who have been asked, or who have chosen, to make the transition to the new role of teacher educator, either as a school-based mentor, or as a faculty member in a higher education institution. This group are likely to have considerable classroom experience, what Korthagen et al (ibid) term “phronesis”, or a store of practical wisdom borne out of specific teaching experiences, but may have less familiarity with academic research or the world of higher education institutions. Whatever route is taken into the profession however, it remains the responsibility of the teacher educator to provide quality teacher education which is both current and relevant, and this, in turn, means that they themselves need to be involved in continuous professional development, whether formally or informally (Smith, 2003).

1.3 What do teacher education programmes look like? Episteme vs. Phronesis
Despite the need for current and relevant teacher preparation, it is a common complaint amongst novice teachers that their teacher education does not adequately prepare them for the complex reality they encounter in their first years of teaching, and the tensions they experience have been well documented (e.g. Nieme, 2002 cited in Smith and Sela, 2005; Kagan, 1992). In a discussion of traditional teacher education programmes which are typical of the kind offered in many institutions of higher education, Korthagen et al (2001: 64) point out there are at least three underlying assumptions that may serve to elevate ‘episteme’ above ‘phronesis’ thus “inadvertently skew[ing] the manner in which approaches to teaching about teaching are implicitly constructed” (ibid.). These assumptions are, firstly, that theories help teachers perform better in their profession; secondly, that ‘Theories’ (with a capital T) must be based on scientific research; and finally, that teacher educators should make choices concerning which theories to include in the teacher education
programme. Fenstermacher (1994 cited in Loughran 2006) notes that the
differentiation between practical and theoretical knowledge of teaching has
unfortunately been interpreted as suggesting a concurrent judgment about the
perceived value of each, leading to an assumption that formal knowledge is
high status while practical knowledge is low status. Korthagen et al (ibid.) point
out that many teacher educators also fall into this trap and “consider it
(episteme) as more than an instrument for exploration (but) as the thing itself
that we are after, the real thing”.

Edge (2011:9), in an autobiographical, narrative account of his own professional
development as an EFL teacher educator, acknowledges that the well-worn
saying it is “all very well in theory” carries the pejorative implication that it [the
theory] is unlikely to work out in everyday practice. However, Edge (ibid.)
cautions that a negative attitude to theory-as-irrelevant can, if it is not
accompanied by careful reflection and reflexivity on the part of educators, be
merely an excuse leading to a kind of fossilization of professional growth and
further development. He advises that what educators need to do is to examine
and articulate “as best we can, statements that […] account for the data of our
experience”. Edge (ibid.) argues that “if something does not make a difference
to our practice, then it does not need a place in these theories of ours”. Thus,
Edge advocates an alternative perspective of ‘theory’ as espousing a reflexivity
which enables us to consciously examine beliefs and bring to the fore the
values which lead us to our practice, and he concludes that “the teacher
educator shapes the education on offer and is, in turn, shaped by the
experience of offering it” (Edge ibid: 172); it is this cyclical process of
continuous professional development which characterizes reflective and
reflexive teacher education (ibid: 81).
1.3.1 Teacher education: a profession “on the cusp”
The study seeks to examine the professional backgrounds of some of those engaged in teacher education in the UAE, and to explore aspects of their professional identity as they emerge in discussion of their perceptions of their role in the preparation of pre-service Emirati primary school teachers. It is expected that the study might uncover information about the tensions they experience in their work and how they resolve them, as well as the kinds of personal professional development activities teacher educators engage in in order to improve and develop their own practice. In addition, an examination of how these individuals navigate their way into, and through, the role of teacher educator could help to identify elements of best practice in preparing teachers within the specific UAE context and, potentially, beyond.

Hamilton (2012: xi) describes the experiences of teacher educators as “unpolished, unsettled, uncertain and unpredictable”. Davey (2013:2) characterizes the professional lives of teacher educators as taking place “in the gaps […] between the professional worlds of the school, the academy and educational policy”, influenced by all, but not fully belonging to any, and asserts that this state of flux, of being “on the cusp” (ibid.) professionally speaking, provides “a fertile opportunity for discussions of professional identity” (ibid.).

In the specific case of the UAE, most of the teacher educators I have encountered in the course of my work there, and all of those involved in this study, share a professional background in EFL, but may have differing degrees of familiarity and experience with school-based teaching. These individuals belong to the professional group of EFL teachers, yet they occupy something of a niche role there in the sense that they also ‘do something else’ in their role as teachers of teachers. It could, therefore, be said that these individuals share
more in common with their teacher educator counterparts in other contexts than
may at first be apparent, insofar as they too are expected to straddle multiple
worlds – the world of EFL, the world of school teaching, the world of the home
institution, and the world of changing education policy and reforms in the UAE.
The notion of operating in the gaps, or spaces, takes on even more significance
in the unique context of the UAE if one takes into account that the teacher
educators in this study are part of a transitory, expatriate workforce and are thus
not fully integrated into the education system of the host country in the way that
teacher educators in other studies are (e.g. Russell and Korthagen 1995;
Murray and Male, 2005; Chan, Keyes and Ross, 2012; Davey, 2013).

1.4 A personal interest
Clandinin, Pushor and Orr (2007) note the importance of having a justification
for one’s research, and I have offered the practical justification of the limited
number of studies revolving around the persona of the teacher educator. That
there are (to my knowledge) no studies of those involved in the delivery of
teacher education in the UAE could provide further justification, given that the
educational system in that country is in a state of flux and reform and those
working within it are confronted by challenges and tensions in their work on a
daily basis (see sections 2.2, 2.2.1, 2.2.3 for discussion of this). Further
justification linked to these reforms lies in the discussion about the ever-growing
role of English in many contexts; the UAE is no exception to this and the
expanding role of English in schools means that there is an urgent need to
examine all aspects of this phenomenon (see section 2.2.2 for further
discussion of English in UAE schools).

However, a final, personal justification which gave impetus to this study is, quite
simply, a very personal interest in the area prompted by reflections on my own
professional development as an EFL teacher and language teacher educator over a career spanning some 25 years. Reflecting on my changing and evolving professional identity, and beliefs about what is involved in educating teachers, I can recognize versions of myself in both Korthagen et al’s’ teacher educator caught in the trap of episteme, and in Edge’s reflexive teacher educator, and this has made me curious to find out what others think, at the very least to see if I can discern any patterns of similarity, or indeed, difference, in the experiences of others.

In the next section, I briefly sketch my own narrative beginnings in order to illustrate some of the experiences that have shaped my practice and what I mean when I say I recognize myself in both of the above characterizations of the teacher educator.

1.4.1 Narrative beginnings
My personal interest in teacher education stems from my early experiences of teaching in both the Moroccan and the Omani school systems. As a novice teacher in Morocco, I observed the work of the much more experienced regional teacher trainers (RTT’s) with great interest. The role of the RTT was to monitor the progress and professional development of the new young recruits to the profession such as myself, posted in schools throughout the country as part of a large-scale and ambitious school reform movement, and I freely admit, I held them in some degree of awe. Later, as a teacher in Oman working on a similar education reform project, I encountered, for the first time, the British Council appointed Key English Language Teaching Officers (KELTS, who later came to be known as English Language Teaching Officers, or ELTO’s) and I was, once again, impressed by their superior experience and knowledge as they travelled throughout the country offering professional development and training sessions
to groups of teachers working in the various regions. These people, I decided, were the ‘experts’ and I wanted to be like them, indeed to be one of them, so I set about a conscious process of enhancing my professional qualifications and experience in order to gain entry to the admired profession.

Some years later, armed with a newly minted Master’s degree, I achieved my ambition and was appointed by the British Council to work on a large scale project with teachers in the People’s Republic of China. Deeply impressed by my recently acquired knowledge of educational theory, I felt ready to step into that earlier admired role of ‘expert’, believing that I had only to impart my theoretical knowledge and readymade ‘bag of methodological tricks’ to the poor unfortunate teachers who would doubtless hail me as their saviour and guru as I furnished them with my theories and my toolkit to solve all their problems. My newly-arrived-at understanding of the popular theories behind language learning and teaching filled me with a confidence and a belief that I had, at last, found the magic solutions to the day-to-day complexities of teaching and I felt ready to impart this knowledge to others who, I was sure, would be grateful for my expertise. Needless to say I was sorely mistaken and even now I still blush at the thought of my youthful, naïve arrogance. Far from being the poor unfortunate, unknowing individuals I had imagined, the teachers I encountered were all seasoned professionals, seconded from their institutions for a year in order to refresh and update their qualifications. Some of them had considerably more teaching experience than I had, and all of them had first-hand background knowledge of the teaching context in China that I, newly arrived in the country, was completely lacking. Initially, I was frustrated by their polite disinterest in various courses I had devised, and I was baffled by their failure to appreciate the finer points of English morphology or the learning theories of Skinner,
Vygotsky, Chomsky, Krashen et al. I very quickly came to realize that, far from accepting without question the theoretical pearls of ivory tower wisdom I was attempting to share, these teachers had real world questions, cares, concerns and frustrations that they wanted to explore, and I came to understand that my approach was not helping with this, and certainly did not meet their needs. It was a sobering, deflating experience and one that sorely dented my confidence in my abilities at the time, but one that I now recognize marked the beginnings of my departure from an unconsidered reliance on academic theory towards my own path of reflection and reflexivity in my practice. Chan (in Chan et al 2012: 73), in an analysis of interim narrative field texts of teacher educators, identifies “vulnerability as a key player” in the formation of professional identity and the growth of reflective capacities, and I can attest to feelings of vulnerability as I struggled to reach new understandings of my role and how best to fulfill it.

In a comprehensive literature review of professional growth and development amongst pre-service and beginning teachers, Kagan (1992) has concluded that the developmental progression of novice teachers includes acquiring knowledge of pupils, using that knowledge to modify and reconstruct their personal self-image as a teacher, and developing procedural routines to integrate classroom management and instruction. Looking back at my early experiences, not as a novice teacher, but as a novice teacher educator, I believe I can see a similar kind of evolution, or transformation, in my own professional development as a teacher of teachers. After this initial shaky start, I came to believe that my starting point needed to be the students/student teachers rather than the theoretical input I had previously valued so highly, and I began to understand the crucial importance of individual contexts. Gradually, over a period of some years, I developed a personal self-image of myself as a teacher educator, which
moved away from my early reliance on academe as the authority, and focused more on working with student teachers as individuals in unique situations. My growing awareness and evolving beliefs about my role and my perceptions of preparing teachers led me to subsequently take a completely different approach to my job than I had in the early days in China, and I like to think that, with growing experience, I eventually became much more effective at my job than I was when I started out. It was not until I came across the work of Korthagen et al (2001) and encountered their “realistic approach” to teacher development for the first time, that I saw, verbalized, many of the tacit ideas I had instinctively felt but had not been able to make explicit. Realistic teacher education follows an inductive approach that builds on student teachers’ own perceptions, thoughts, feelings, needs and concerns about concrete teaching situations in which they are involved and places reflection at the heart of teacher development. Reading the work of Korthagen et al (ibid.) proved to be one of my professional ‘eureka’ moments and has validated many of my personal theories of how best to help student teachers develop.

1.5 Some broad research questions
As mentioned earlier, the role of the teacher educator in the teaching/learning cycle has been somewhat overlooked and many of those engaged in the enterprise have to learn ‘on the job’ as I myself did, generally having had no specific preparation for the role. This study, therefore, is a record of my attempts to understand how some of those engaged in the job of educating teachers in the particular setting of the UAE view their role and how it may contribute to the development of student teachers. Taking an exploratory approach, and starting from individual stories of how they came to be in the role of teacher educators, it is guided by the following broad research questions:
• How do teachers become teacher educators?

• How do teacher educators perceive their role?

• What informs the practice of teacher educators?

• In what ways does the local context of the UAE affect the sense of professional identity of those teacher educators working there?

As Hamilton (2012) points out, stories reveal identities and:

Examining stories offers glimpses of ways that a narrative approach with a deliberative stance may contribute to an enhanced awareness of the nuances of teacher knowledge and professional identity development (xiii)

Although this study hopes to move beyond the individual stories, and will attempt to identify whether there are any distinctive, or common, elements that might distinguish the professional identity of this group of teacher educators, I offer no hypotheses at this stage that ‘my story’ may be mirrored by that of others, despite having accounted for my own professional development with reference to Kagan’s (1992) observations about novice teacher development, Korthagen et als’ (2001) epistemically ‘trapped’ teacher educator and Edge’s (2011) reflexive teacher educator. Clandinin et al (2007) caution that some narrative researchers feel there is no need to position their work relative to other research and Hamilton (2012: xiii) notes that a critique of narrative inquiry “centre[s] on issues of whether the process of meaning-making is a plotline of meaning-making”. By this it is meant that some narrative researchers may begin with the answers and then merely sift through stories to identify one that illustrates the answer they wish to convey. Mindful of this, I shall, therefore, provide an explicit articulation of my ontological and epistemological beliefs, and
the theoretical framework which informs this study (see chapter 4), and will explore, in the literature review, what others have written about teacher education and professional identity (see chapter 3).

1.6 Outline of the study
This study is organized into six chapters. In this first chapter, I have outlined my reasons for engaging in this study and why I believe it to be significant. I have attempted to sketch a background of what I consider to be the salient and unique features of the work of teacher educators and language teacher educators in general, and of those involved in teacher preparation in the UAE in particular. I have speculated that the nature of the role of teacher educator as being “on the cusp” (Davey, 2013:2), or operating within the gaps between different worlds, is likely to influence the work and practices of those at the front line of the learning cycle - the teachers who teach the teachers. In chapter two I present the specific contextual background of the UAE, including the features currently impacting on the work of educators at all levels in that country. In the third chapter I offer a literature review of teacher education, including the historical background of the area which has influenced how teacher educators perceive and conduct their role. Evolving understandings of what is involved in the practice and processes of teacher education, the concept of professional identity and other major theoretical perspectives that I consider important to this study and my own epistemology are also discussed. As this is an exploratory study, the review of the literature will not be confined to a single chapter but, as theory emerges from the data, it will be woven throughout the subsequent analysis and discussion. In chapter four I provide a detailed account of the methods and data analysis procedures used. In chapter five I present my analysis and interpretations of the data with the relevant evidence
from the literature. Finally, in chapter six, I consider the meanings and implications of this study.

In the next chapter I shall recount in some detail the various background and contextual areas in which this study is situated, starting with a brief description of the setting (the UAE), before supplying details of the educational system and the current reforms it is engaged in which have had a significant impact on the lives of all those connected with teaching, learning and schools in the country.
Chapter 2 Background to the study: Introduction

This study takes place in two tertiary institutions in the emirate of Abu Dhabi: one a well-established tertiary college offering a Bachelor of Education (BEd) programme to prepare new teachers, the other a more recently opened, dedicated teacher training institute, the only one of its kind in the country. Throughout this study I refer to these establishments as Institutions A and B respectively. In order to understand the context of the study, it is important to look in detail at various aspects of the country and its relatively new education system, which is currently undergoing a series of sweeping and comprehensive reforms which have significantly impacted on the work of teachers, and of those who prepare them for their role.

2.1 The United Arab Emirates

The United Arab Emirates was formed from a group of seven tribally organized sheikhdoms in the Arabian Peninsula. The seven emirates, formerly known as the Trucial States, united in 1971 under the leadership of the late Sheikh Zayed, first president of the UAE and ruler of Abu Dhabi, the largest, and richest, of the seven emirates. As a country with large reserves of oil, the UAE was able to capitalize on the oil boom of the 1970’s, and throughout this decade and beyond, the federal government has used its substantial revenues to develop the physical and social infrastructure of the society, including the creation of an educational system which guarantees access to free education for all UAE nationals. Indeed, the rapid acquisition of oil wealth has made the UAE the fastest growing economy in the Gulf (Findlow, 2005). More recently, the economy of the country has diversified into areas such as high technology, heavy industries, a ‘future energy’ sector, real estate, tourism and cultural tourism. However, such rapid growth and diversification has not been entirely
unproblematic as the country is heavily reliant on an expatriate workforce with only 13.3% of the country’s 7.55 million residents being Emirati nationals (Habboush, 2010). This reliance on an expatriate workforce, including teachers, and the chronic underperformance of the educational system are just two of the structural problems within UAE society, which, according to Davidson (2009), could eventually impede economic development and even undermine political stability. Thus there is an urgent requirement within the country to tackle the problems endemic within the educational sector, and to educate a new generation of indigenous teachers to spearhead the social and economic development of the society in order to maintain its standing in the increasingly competitive and high-tech era of the twenty first century.

2.2 Education in the UAE
Despite great progress in many areas of infrastructure including transport and communications, healthcare and housing, the school system has for some years been, and remains, the focus of strong criticism from both internal and external sources (external: Loughrey, Hughes, Bax, Magness and Aziz, 1999; Barber, Mourshed and Whelan, 2007; internal: Mograby, 1999; Syed, 2003; Lootah, 2006, Al Mazroui, 2014). Having achieved what was once the distant goal of free access to education, the challenge now facing the UAE is the much more complex one of raising the quality of that education (Barber, Mourshed and Whelan, 2007). As far back as 1999, Mograby identified the following problems:

1. Unclear and conflicting missions and goals related to problems and discrepancies in study programs and curricula
2. Inappropriate methods of teaching and learning
3. Inflexible curricula and programs which lead to high drop-out rates and long duration of studies (p.299).
Well over a decade later, it appears that the same fundamental challenges persist (Emirates Centre for Strategic Studies and Research [ECSSR] 2012). The failure of the school system represents a serious problem for the future development of the UAE. Davison (2009: 150) points out that if UAE nationals are to participate effectively in the emerging “new economy” which is being created, and to compete on level terms with the expatriate majority workforce, they must have an educational experience which encourages critical thinking and a work ethic, including an acceptance of authority. Davidson (ibid) maintains these are essential skills which have rarely been transferred in UAE schools, where the chronic shortage of Emirati staff denies young nationals indigenous role models. As noted earlier, the deficiencies of the federal educational system, and its seeming inability to equip UAE nationals to function effectively in this rapidly developing new economy, have been a subject of open debate for a number of years now. However, in a country where the government routinely uses speeches and press releases as the main vehicles to announce new initiatives (Clarke and Gallagher, 2008), the unprecedented publication of damning criticism by the then newly appointed Minister of Education, His Excellency Sheikh Nahyan, in November 2004 raised this debate to new levels and sent a clear signal that sweeping educational reform was on the official agenda. In what was described as a “frank speech” (Al Nowais, 2004), Nahyan was quoted as saying:

We want students to think creatively and not just memorise to pass exams. We want to develop their skills and we want students to be active partners in the educational process. [...] We want to test students differently based on a system that evaluates their skills and not what they have memorised. We want to have curricula that match the UAE’s needs and are on a par with international standards. [...] We want each school to be an educational society that includes teachers and students. We don’t want schools to be places of coarse learning with students looking forward to the time they will leave.
2.2.1 Fundamental challenges in education in the UAE
It is clear, from Nahyan’s declaration above, that those engaged in preparing teachers to meet the demands of this dynamic and rapidly evolving situation face a number of challenges in shaping their work to meet local demands. It is possible to categorise some of the challenges into at least two contextually dependent areas. The first relates to the calibre of the students enrolled into teacher preparation programmes, coupled with the shape and content of their previous learning experiences. The school curriculum experienced by the novice candidates prior to joining a tertiary institution has been publicly characterized as “outdated and weak” (Salama, 2005), and teaching standards have been declared “second rate” (ibid). Thus, those preparing future teachers face a unique challenge in that the students they are preparing for a teaching career have almost certainly served their “long apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie 1975) in a less than ideal environment, which would surely have coloured their perceptions of teachers, teaching and schools in some way.

Writing as recently as January 2014, in an opinion piece in local newspaper The National, Al Mazroui asserts that, despite reform efforts, the main focus of the education system continues to be on the memorization of facts rather than the fostering and development of critical thinking skills.

A second contextual factor which will no doubt impact on the work of both teachers and teacher educators is that the relatively recent phenomenon of public expressions of dissatisfaction with current educational practice has translated into a series of radical reforms in the education sector. However, the reform process has not been characterized by an orderly and systematic transition but rather by a poorly managed and chaotic series of policy changes.
often hastily implemented and then, in some cases, later rescinded in favour of yet another ‘good idea’. Hashemi and Collins (2011), reporting in The National, wrote:

It would be hard to imagine a sector under more scrutiny and review than that of education across the UAE right now. Barely a day goes by without some initiative being announced, some study published or some goal set. In public and private schools alike the drive to improve, to "up-skill" teachers, is relentless, and navigating the fine line between necessary shake-up and destabilising change is not easy. (The National 14/05/2011)

The “policy hysteria” (Stronach & Morris, 1994) which characterizes the reform efforts has not gone unnoticed on the ground. For example Emirati PhD student Mariam Al Halami is critical of the reform efforts and accuses the authorities of being uninformed and of simply “following international patterns” without taking due account of local context (quoted in Swan, 2014).

Against this backdrop of change and differing demands on teachers, the teacher educators preparing them for their role must somehow reconcile their own views with the demands placed on them by external forces and, at the same time, respond quickly as these new initiatives exert pressure for curriculum change within teacher preparation programmes. Writing recently, Riddlebarger (2015:1) characterizes the work of those preparing teachers in the UAE as becoming increasingly difficult because they are “attempting to prepare pre-service teachers to work in schools that are constantly being reinvented and restructured – sometimes midyear”.

Despite, or perhaps because of, the fact that standards of English language teaching and attainment in schools are generally regarded as low, a major
feature of the reforms has seen the already prominent role of English assume even greater importance, as will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.2 The language context
The language context in the UAE is extremely complex; Arabic is the official language, and the only language mentioned in the constitution. Although English has, hitherto, held no special institutionalised status, it has emerged as the *lingua franca* through which the majority of resident nationalities communicate (Clarke and Gallagher, 2008). Karmani (2005) writes critically of the link between oil and English which underlies the ‘rentier’ economies in the Gulf region, including that of the UAE, which, he maintains, has stifled the growth of local knowledge and expertise, accusing the “ELT sector” and other “international speculators” of promoting a “virulently self-serving mercenary culture” (*ibid.* 91) which undermines the development of local expertise. Despite the widespread use of English and a large ‘ELT sector’ presence, however, standards, as stated above, remain low. In a 1999 consultancy report commissioned by the Ministry of Education to evaluate the federal English language curriculum, a team from the University of Surrey, led by Loughrey, noted:

..when a representative sample of students were given a range of internationally benchmarked examinations they achieved very low grades...systemic underperformance stems from the interaction of critical weaknesses within the area of curriculum and textbooks, examinations, pedagogy, management and resources (p.3).

Writing just under a decade later, Fox (2008:120) notes that large numbers of high school graduates entering the tertiary sector still lack the requisite skills in English to succeed at that level, and a recent Brookings report on education in the Arab world revealed that almost half of the young people in schools in rural
areas of the UAE, and just over a quarter of those in urban areas, are still not meeting basic learning levels of literacy and numeracy (Steer, Ghanem and Jalbout 2014).

It seems evident, therefore, that it is not only the standard of English which is poor. In fact there is growing concern that standards in Arabic are also lacking and it is clear that the whole issue of language is a potentially contentious area and one which has been the subject of comment and debate in various quarters. Quoting prominent Emirati, Abdullah Al Midfa, Davidson (2008: 202) writes:

....a quick observation of the language used at present indicates a looming catastrophe. The new generations are becoming more and more distant from their native tongue...this has given rise to a new form of broken language that combines various accents emerging on the surface.

Since the opening of the first tertiary institution in the UAE (United Arab Emirates University – UAEU- was established in 1976), higher education in the country has always been conducted through the medium of English, and it is a telling fact that, with the possible exception of courses in Shari’a law, Arabic Language and, briefly, a bilingual postgraduate diploma in education (discussed below), there is seemingly nowhere within their own country for UAE citizens to follow a course of tertiary study in their native tongue. Since at least 2006, the use of English as a medium of instruction has been spreading consistently beyond the tertiary sector as various reform plans were trialled and implemented in selected schools in the emirates of Abu Dhabi and Dubai promoting English as the language of instruction for both math and science. This led to the announcement, in 2010, from Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC), the body responsible for education in the emirate, of an ambitious
‘New School Model’ (NSM) for state kindergarten and early primary grades, which is planned to extend annually to eventually cover all grade levels in Abu Dhabi emirate. The NSM encompasses a range of ongoing pedagogic, curricular and school leadership and management reforms, as well as the positioning of English as an additional medium of instruction alongside the existing Arabic (Gallagher, 2011). Similar plans have been announced for schools in Dubai emirate.

2.3 The New School Model in Abu Dhabi
The NSM includes the introduction of an ambitious ‘new’ curriculum in schools which, as noted above, elevates the position of English and promotes a bilingual model of education whereby the core subjects of math and the sciences should be delivered in English. However, this western style integrated day which serves as the model for primary education in effect means that, with the exception of Arabic and Islamic studies, primary education is now expected to be delivered almost exclusively through the medium of English.

At the pedagogical level, decisions regarding bilingual education are complex and it is highly unlikely that the issues are fully comprehended by personnel in schools where many teachers lack any basic pedagogical training (McPherson et al, 2007; Riddlebarger, 2015). An examination of the curriculum documentation introduced in the NSM reveals that, far from being a new model tailor-made for this context, it actually originated in an English speaking country; the small print at the back of the document indicates that it has been “Adapted from English K-6 Syllabus. Copyright Board of Studies New South Wales”. Thus it appears that ADEC have, in effect, ‘purchased a curriculum’ from Australia, which they have then adapted and rebadged with the ADEC logo. This is consistent with the “rentier mentality” so heavily criticized by Karmani
who maintains that this approach places the onus almost entirely on foreign experts to work out crucial far-reaching policy initiatives to the detriment of potential local experts. Farah and Ridge (2009), in a report for the Ministry of Education, make the same point, noting that the heavy reliance on foreign expertise is unsustainable in the long term as it leaves Emirati nationals excluded from the reform process.

The dangers of attempting to import a curriculum are obvious: as Gopinathan (2006:261) points out, learning is a “culturally scripted activity” and the socially held views about teaching and learning, which are culturally embedded, influence both teaching and learning approaches. Farah and Ridge (2009) urge caution when “borrowing” curricula from abroad and highlight the need for a home-grown curriculum authority which can address concerns from parents about the perceived erosion of a sense of national identity caused by the imposition of a foreign curriculum on Emirati children.

Whilst it is clear from Nahyan’s criticisms, noted above, that elements within the leadership may wish to move towards a system that encourages critical thought, learner independence and creativity, the reality of Emirati schools is of a reliance on rote learning and memorization, poor student motivation, particularly amongst boys, dependence on high stakes testing, outdated methodology and, perhaps most crucially, under-qualified teachers (Clarke and Gallagher, 2008; Macpherson et al, 2007; Syed, 2003; Loughrey et al, 1999). Therefore, the virtually overnight importation of a curriculum based on a philosophy of social constructivism, requiring teachers to plan and implement learner-centred activities and experiences which encourage learners to interact and share ideas cooperatively in English (ADEC K-5 Language Arts Curriculum p25), is a pedagogically demanding and complex challenge, and there is both anecdotal
and research-based evidence from schools that teachers are struggling to cope with these new demands (Thorne, 2011; Riddlebarger, 2015).

In preparing teachers to work in schools, each individual context has its own challenges. However, it seems the unique context of the UAE, whereby a desired ideal and an actual day to day reality stand in stark contrast to one another, would almost certainly add an extra dimension to the challenges involved in educating and preparing teachers and, in such a situation, it becomes necessary to examine to what extent these features have had an impact on the work of the teacher educator.

2.4 Teachers in the UAE
As stated earlier, teachers’ qualifications in the UAE are often inadequate. Macpherson et al (2007), quoting a source in the Ministry of Education, note that as many as 4500 school teachers are unqualified, lacking even a diploma in education, and a major criterion for teacher recruitment and selection appears to be proficiency in English, regardless of pedagogical preparation (Thorne, 2011). Expatriate Arabs still make up the bulk of the teaching force, but a recent aggressive drive towards Emiratisation has seen the numbers of Emirati nationals teaching in schools rise to approximately 40% (Hashemi and Collins, 2011), although these individuals have not necessarily had any pedagogical training to become teachers and are often simply first degree holders from a variety of disciplines. The concerted push towards Emiratisation has become a top priority in all sectors of the labour market (Salem, 2014), yet this sits uneasily beside a parallel policy, as part of the new bilingual education model, to import large numbers of western trained, native English speaking teachers to implement the new model. The arrival of several hundreds of western teachers, known as Licensed Teachers, or LTs, has not been
welcomed in all quarters, and the debate about the negative impacts of the spread of English and the threat to local Emirati culture which this poses continues unabated (Habboush, 2010) as the presence of the non-Arabic speaking LTs effectively means that hundreds of children now have little or no exposure to their native Arabic throughout much of their school day. Indeed, there have even been claims from some quarters that promoting English as the main medium of instruction is unconstitutional (Issa, 2013; Habboush, 2009). As the student teachers from the higher education institutions in this study come into contact with the LTs during their school practicum experiences, the presence of the LTs is likely also to have a direct impact on the work of the teacher educators. One could speculate that the presence of an alternative mentor figure in the form of the LTs carries the potential for either positive relationships based on cooperation and mutual support, or negative relationships revolving around conflicts of experience or authority.

2.5 Teacher education in the UAE

In 2007, the first dedicated teacher preparation college in the UAE, referred to in this study as Institution B, was opened in Abu Dhabi with a mission to prepare the next generation of Emirati educators who will be responsible for developing the UAE’s future through its education. However, the approach adopted by the educational authorities at ADEC towards the opening of this new establishment mirrored that taken towards the curriculum reform imposed on schools and attempted to ‘import’ a model from another context. Gopinathan (2006:261) describes how, as part of a consultancy group from the National Institute Of Education in Singapore involved in the planning of the new college, he and his team were asked by ADEC to “[import] the Singapore brand of teacher preparation”. As with the importation of curriculum in schools, a similar
approach to teacher development suggests a ‘one size fits all’ mentality from the authorities, which may require considerable negotiation and adaptation by those on the ground tasked with the delivery of the various teacher education courses, thus creating yet another potential source of tension for the teacher educators.

Prior to the opening of Institution B, teacher education in the UAE has been a relatively neglected area. Teachers already working in schools, many pedagogically unqualified, as noted earlier, are usually supervised by a cadre of inspectors, or supervisors, more often than not expatriate Arabs, who are responsible for the professional development and in-service training of these teachers. Farah and Ridge (2009), however, characterize the supervisor role as “marginal”; they report that school principals choose their own supervisors and are most likely to choose those who are amenable to giving the school a good report, rather than those who might give any serious thought to improving standards. The supervisors are generally very experienced teachers but, like the teacher educators in higher education institutions, few have any prior experience of teacher preparation, having been promoted to the rank of supervisor on the strength of their teaching experience either in the UAE or elsewhere, thus belonging to the second cadre of teacher educators as described in section 1.2.1. In addition, most of the supervisors have relied on a traditional transmission based approach in their own teaching and are not necessarily familiar with up to date pedagogical trends and practices (Guefrachi and Troudi, 1997). Guefrachi and Troudi (ibid.) report on some early training efforts at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU) to upgrade the skills of school supervisors to enable them to assist more effectively with the professional development of teachers in schools. However, these kinds of
training programs have not necessarily been sustained in any systematic way and discussion with colleagues appears to indicate that such professional development as does take place may be largely unfocused and uncoordinated. Special interest organizations such as TESOL Arabia offer a variety of professional development workshops and opportunities throughout the academic year, but these are reliant on the goodwill and individual interests of the various volunteers who are prepared to offer their expertise.

In January 2014, again using the local press as a mouthpiece, the government announced plans to launch a training centre for teachers to “enhance and unify teaching standards in government schools” (Gulf News Report 14/01/14), with another recent press announcement (Pennington in The National 16/03/14) proclaiming that the state is about to further its involvement in teacher education with the rolling out of a federal teacher licensing system within the next year.

Prior to these announcements there has been little, if any, attempt at centralized, targeted professional development to upgrade teachers' skills in the schools, with the exception of a brief two year period from 2007-2009 when the aforementioned Institution B was tasked by ADEC with the offering of a bilingual postgraduate diploma in education (PGDE) for in-service teachers. As one of the lecturers closely involved with the development and delivery of the PGDE, I can attest that it was highly popular with those teachers participating as students on the course, and some 160 individuals completed the course on an extra-mural basis over the two year period when it was offered. However, in 2009, with no consultation or explanation, ADEC ordered the suspension of the programme until further notice. It subsequently emerged that ADEC’s decision to suspend this programme was directly linked to its language policy planning:
ahead of plans to expand the use of English as a delivery mode in schools, a bilingual model of teacher development, although practical and expedient, suddenly became unacceptable.

As far as pre-service training of teachers is concerned, in addition to Institution B, the three major federal universities, Zayed University (ZU), UAEU and the women’s branches of the Higher Colleges of Technology (HCT), each offer education degrees. However, the programmes offered by the three federal institutions pre-date the introduction of the NSM, which requires primary school teachers to be able to deliver holistic, integrated primary education: therefore, in order to remain current, and meet market demands, these programmes have required considerable curricular adaptation away from a focus solely on the teaching of English to young learners towards an expanded pedagogy of primary education. The impact of this on existing BEd faculty (i.e. the teacher educators) is clear: in order to keep their positions they are required to expand and upgrade their own repertoire of teaching skills to meet the demands of their newly defined role.

Numbers of students opting for a BEd major are usually small: for example an HCT college would typically have a single, small group of no more than ten or fifteen education students per year, and Institution B has seen undergraduate student recruits fall from a peak of approximately 300 when the college first opened in 2007, to around 20 in the 2010/2011 academic year. Generally speaking, teaching is not regarded as an attractive profession, particularly amongst male Emiratis, and the competition from other majors in this rapidly developing society means that the numbers of Emiratis opting for education studies will likely remain small (Al Subaihi, 2012). In addition, recent changes in
the salary structure for Emirati teachers in Abu Dhabi has caused “outrage” amongst teachers, and many feel this will further deter Emiratis from entering the teaching profession (Al Nuwais, 2014). All of this ultimately represents yet another potential source of tension for the teacher educators as they must devise ways to ensure motivation is present, and maintained, amongst the student body, in what is perceived as an unattractive and demanding field of study.

2.6 Summary
The above sections have provided a comprehensive overview of the background context of the UAE and its education system, within which the teacher educators in this study are preparing novice teachers. The radical nature of the education reforms makes effective teacher education a priority which must be addressed urgently and systematically if the ambitious plans for the future development of the UAE are to be successful. However, it can be seen that the landscape is a complex one of endemic problems within the school system, pressure from numerous sources for ‘quick fix’ reforms leading to “policy hysteria” (Stronach and Morris, 1994), a contentious language policy context, and a requirement that those engaged in teacher preparation, at least in the federal institutions, adapt their course content to meet the requirements of the new school model. The teacher educators in this study, therefore, need to adapt their role and their sense of personal and professional identity if they are to navigate successfully through this landscape and achieve a sense of professional wellbeing and equilibrium; it is hoped that this research will uncover some of the ways these individuals have risen to these challenges.
Chapter 3 Review of the literature

3.1 Introduction
Defining what constitutes best practice in the preparation of quality teachers has been called one of the “most enduring and contentious questions” (Kennedy 2008: 1199) surrounding the debate about teacher education. Ben-Peretz (2001:48) contends that teacher education nowadays is a “nearly impossible endeavour” due to the combination of external demands placed on teacher education in different contexts, combined with the inherent professional needs of teachers and student teachers. External demands may include, but are not limited to, government mandates on curriculum coverage, restrictive regulations on the part of universities and colleges of education and the “consumer orientations” (Sidebar and Rosenberg 2000 cited in Ben Peretz 2001:48) of students in higher education. Internal needs and tensions, Ben-Peretz argues, are centred on prospective teachers’ need for certainty and control over professional situations, and the self-images and identities that underlie teachers’ work and which may be at odds with the contextual realities.

Whatever the issues involved in teacher education, however, at the heart of the enterprise lie the questions of who is doing the educating, how they are doing it and why they are doing it in a particular way. For those preparing novice teachers, what they themselves believe to be the most important role of the teacher will likely impact on how they perceive and fulfil their role as teacher educator, but there exists a whole host of differing opinions about the function of the teacher in a society. For some, the teacher should be a kind of cultural ambassador representing an educated ideal. For others, the teacher should be a nurturer and carer, helping young people to grow and develop. Some believe
the teacher should be a kind of political activist striving for social justice and working to address issues of inequality, whilst for others the teacher is a specialized professional with unique expertise who commands respect accordingly (Kennedy *ibid.*). One could extrapolate from this that the teacher educator could likely cast themselves in a similar variety of roles and, inevitably, their personal beliefs and circumstances will impact on how they approach their work in preparing teachers and what they prioritize in their practice.

Cochran-Smith and Fries (2008: 1050-53) suggest that it is possible to identify, historically, at least four different conceptualizations of teacher education which have shaped how questions and issues about teacher preparation have been addressed at different points in different contexts. They caution, however, that these four approaches should not be regarded as some kind of “steady march over time in which one perspective supplants another”(1053), but should rather be regarded as a dynamic, interactive debate about alternative viewpoints and approaches which have informed, and continue to inform, teacher education approaches in different contexts. The first conceptualization identified by Cochran-Smith and Fries (*ibid.*) regards teacher education as a matter of curriculum, i.e. effective teacher preparation is a question of systematizing and standardising a teacher education curriculum. Cochran-Smith and Fries note that this early conceptualization eventually gave way, in many circles, to a view of teacher education as a matter of training, i.e. identifying and transmitting strategies to produce desired teaching behaviours in teacher candidates. In the early 1980s, they report that for many researchers teacher education came to be seen as a learning issue, i.e. codifying the professional knowledge base for teaching, and understanding the processes involved in
learning to teach over a professional lifespan became a major focus of research and influenced practice. The final conceptualization they outline (ibid.), and one which they maintain currently carries most influence in many contexts, sees teacher education as a policy issue whereby the main focus of attention is on pupil outcomes, and teacher education is, therefore, a matter of identifying and implementing cost effective, outcomes-focused policies to improve standards of pupil achievement and attainment. Inevitably, where one stands in the debate about what should be the focus of teacher preparation, and what contextual pressures are brought to bear in a given situation, will impact the work of the teacher educator, and depending to what extent the teacher educator is comfortable with, or agrees with, the prevailing views, they will act as either a support, or a tension, in their work and practice.

Teacher education has been an identifiable activity in western contexts for almost a century and a half (Cochran-Smith and Fries ibid.); however, in the UAE there is no such extensive history of teacher preparation and, as discussed in section 2.5, it has been a late addition to the educational agenda. In the first part of this review of the literature therefore, I start with a brief overview of the development of teacher education from a historical perspective, as well as more recent thought about teacher education and how it should be conceived in order to get some sense of the major influences shaping the professional work of the teacher educators in this study. In the second half of this review, I turn to questions of identity and professional identity, and examine how these concepts are treated in the literature.

3.1.2 An historical perspective
Adler (1984) explains that critical examination of the background education and socialization processes of a given occupation must also include a consideration
of the historical traditions in which those occupations function, for these historical traditions, together with the traditions of the larger culture, will influence the work of those engaging in them. Adler (ibid.4) goes on to comment that a look back at the collective history of a profession can be beneficial since it:

provides a process to uncover the ideas and modes of thought which supported the development of certain social practices and institutions at particular times. Seeing only things “as they are” makes it too easy to take for granted current forms and practices, too easy not to question the underlying assumptions and power relationships, too easy not to consider alternatives.

Therefore, an examination of how teacher education in general terms, and language teacher education in particular, has changed over time, and the various perceptions of what it should look like and comprise of, is a good starting point for exploring the roles and professional identities of those who conduct it.

3.2 Models of teacher education: an ELT focussed overview
Teacher education is a much contested area and there remains no single unified or agreed theory of what it should look like and what it should comprise; however, one can discern in the development of teacher education, a trajectory which parallels that of the literature on knowledge and human learning, moving from behaviourist practices through to cognitivist approaches and on to social constructivist models. Whilst this trajectory would seem to imply a linear progression from one approach to the next at the expense of the others, this would be too simplistic an assessment. In my opinion, ‘good’ teacher education and teaching should take the strengths from each model, and recent work in the field would suggest that others agree (see for example Edge 2011); but different models and approaches are still very much in evidence in teacher
training/education programs throughout the world which makes it very much worthwhile to examine the major features of each.

Broadly speaking, the history of language teacher education has mirrored the larger field of general education, and has been greatly influenced by theory drawn from the latter. Wallace (1991), taking the field of language teacher education as his main focus, provides a useful initial framework detailing a shift from transmission models to the reflective model. Subsequent developments in teacher education (Burns, 1999; Korthagen et al, 2001; Tsui, 2003; Johnson, 2009; Edge, 2011) have seen a further profound shift expanding the reflective model to incorporate collaborative approaches, placing interpersonal development at the core of teacher education which reconceptualises learning “as a dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts, and distributed across persons, tools, and activities” (Johnson 2006: 237). Learning and, by extension, learning to teach, as conceived in this “sociocultural turn” (Johnson ibid.) in the human sciences:

.......... is not the straightforward appropriation of skills knowledge from the outside in, but the progressive movement from external, socially mediated activity to internal meditational control by individual learners, which results in the transformation of both the self and the activity (Johnson ibid: 238).

In the following sections I will discuss Wallace’s two earlier models of teacher education – the craft model and the applied science model – before moving on to a brief discussion of the now more current reflective and sociocultural models of teacher development.

3.2.1 The ‘craft’ model
Johnson (2009:8) informs us that the education of teachers has long been predicated on a view that knowledge about teaching and learning can be
transmitted to teachers by others, and this is the clear assumption underpinning the ‘craft’ model. This model is based around the notion that novice teachers can learn their ‘craft’ from a more experienced and skilful professional; the novice teacher is, therefore, akin to the apprentice copying the master. In this approach, teaching is treated as a group of behaviours which can be modelled by the expert practitioner, and copied and learned by the student who unconditionally accepts the wisdom of the expert. In its most traditional conception, the craft model, as mere mimicry without question or thought, is a training model as opposed to an education one, and novice teachers are reduced to a blank slate, or “tabula rasa” (Locke cited in Palmer 1994: 165), to be shaped and moulded by others. Teaching in this model is regarded as a matter of behaviours and delivery, and the teacher training, therefore, becomes simply a transmission of knowledge and passing on of behaviours.

3.2.1.1 Strengths of the craft model
Despite the very traditional, indeed some would say old-fashioned, nature of this model, numerous craft model practices endure in many teacher education programmes, and as Edge (2011:50) explains, learning from what has already been done and copying from others, providing it does not “represent some kind of unconscious drift into repetitiveness”, is not necessarily a bad thing. Craft model practices can be adapted into effective dialogic and reflective teacher education approaches as long as they are brought to a level of conscious understanding: “Awareness is what counts, awareness of just what it is that one is doing, trying, undergoing” (Edge: ibid.).

3.2.1.2 Criticisms of the craft model
Whilst Edge (2011:15) acknowledges that some craft model approaches have advantages in that they can anchor teacher learning in actual situations, and
encourage and foster inter-generational continuity and collegiality amongst teachers, he is critical of the model on the grounds that it is conservative and limiting. It offers no obvious place where professional innovation, or growth, can take place since the overemphasis on reproducing what already exists limits creativity. Secondly, it assumes a static, unchanging, unproblematic society which is not one we can easily relate to in today’s technological era in which the pace of change is ferocious. This is true also of the UAE which, as noted in section 2.1, is a nation constructing itself as a force within, “new globalism” (Kazim, 2000: 456). It is, therefore, ironic that, until very recently, education authorities in the UAE have seemingly attached little importance to the pedagogical background of teachers, often recruiting them solely on the basis of their English language proficiency rather than any pedagogical expertise or preparation (see section 2.4).

3.2.1.3 Implications of the craft model for teacher educators
If the teacher educator, or perhaps more accurately trainer, in the craft model is the ‘expert’ to be imitated, then that immediately creates a high stakes situation for that individual to ‘deliver’ a consistently excellent ‘performance’, and furnish immediate and effective solutions to any problems. Within this lies a kind of paradox: on the one hand this individual has achieved the level of expert status that makes him or her worthy of observation and imitation – this individual is the ‘master’ who will teach the ‘apprentice’. On the other hand, however, this very status as expert implies having reached a point of knowing all there is to know, in other words a point where, it could be argued, there is no further growth or professional learning to be done which, as any classroom practitioner will attest, is simply never the case. Therefore, as noted above, the model is a static one which risks transferring obsolete methods and/or knowledge in a dynamic ever-
changing world; under such a model a novice teacher working with a wise old ‘master’ would naturally expect her/him to have all the answers, and could well be disappointed when that inevitably turns out not to be the case. Many novice teachers entering the pre-service arena for the first time have an unrealistic and simplistic view of what is involved in teaching. Feiman-Nemser and Remillard (1996:9), assert, rather bleakly:

Like much of our society, prospective teachers believe that teaching is a process of passing knowledge from teacher to student and that learning involves absorbing or memorizing information and practicing skills. Students wait like empty vessels to be filled and teachers to do the filling.

Writing some twelve years later, Labaree (2008:298) concurs with this view, and notes that a general perception that teaching is actually very easy persists in the public domain. Labaree accounts for this referring to Lortie’s (1975) notion of the long apprenticeship of observation: prospective teachers entering teacher education programmes for the first time generally hold the naïve belief that they “already know what teaching is all about”; after all they have been watching their own teachers in action for years! Thus a kind of pre-programmed belief that teaching is easy, coupled with the inevitability that techniques observed and deemed effective in one context will almost certainly not transfer unproblematically to others may lead to unforeseen consequences. For example, ‘apprentice’ teachers may experience a damaging and demotivating crisis of confidence in their own abilities if they ‘fail’ despite using the techniques they have learned at the hands of the master; alternatively they may experience feelings of ambivalence towards the ‘venerable old master’ him/herself, perceiving the individual as old fashioned or out of touch, thus damaging the authority and esteem of the teacher educator or the programme of study. The
craft model, therefore, despite its uncomplicated appeal to the layman, is not without difficulties for those engaged in preparing new teachers.

3.2.2 The applied science model
The applied science model (Wallace 1991) should perhaps be more accurately referred to as applied science models since there is no single model of applied science but, rather, various versions also referred to in the literature as the “technical rationality” model (Schön, 1983), the “product-process” model (Freeman and Richards, 1996), the “competency-based” model (van Huizen, van Oers and Wubbels, 2005) and “cognitive approaches” (Kelly, 2006); for the purposes of this review, I use these terms interchangeably. These models are the prevalent ones underlying training and education for most professions, including teaching (van Huizen et al, 2005), and they derive authority from nineteenth and twentieth century empirical positivism which redefined practical knowledge in terms of assessable objectives using the ‘scientific method’.

Although, like the craft model, applied science models continue to view teaching as a matter of behaviour and delivery, the focus is no longer on the folklore of received wisdom, but rather on the application of empirical science to the practice of teaching. In language teaching a whole variety of methodological approaches and techniques have been formulated, with theoretical and empirical input principally from the fields of cognitive psychology and the study of second language acquisition. Novice EFL teachers have been exposed, at different times, to a raft of resulting ‘designer’ methodologies, ranging from grammar translation, to the direct method, to audiolingualism, to communicative language teaching, depending on which theoretical framework was in vogue at the time (Freeman, 2004; Richards and Rogers, 2001).
In the earliest manifestations of applied science models, so-called process-product studies were carried out in order to examine how teachers’ actions influenced student learning; it was assumed that the different ways teachers organised instruction, and interacted with students using different methods and materials, would impact how much they learned (Freeman, 2002). The underlying notion was that concrete, observable behavioural criteria would serve as the basis for training novice teachers, which resulted in the compilation of detailed lists of skills and competencies for neophyte teachers to acquire (Korthagen, 2004).

The early performance models, which specified what beginning teachers should be able to do in the form of skills and competencies, came to be expanded in the 1970’s and 1980’s, and the focus shifted towards a more comprehensive competency-based model which incorporated knowledge competencies and moral competencies, alongside the skills of instruction (Freeman, 2002; Korthagen, 2004). This translated into teacher education programmes in which student teachers are taught the theoretical bases of pedagogy and of the disciplines which underpin their specialisation, and they are then expected to be able to apply these principles in practice (Edge, 2011:15). In English language teaching the applied science approach involves mastering linguistic and meta-linguistic content (product), and learning and practising classroom techniques, as well as understanding their theoretical underpinnings (process) (Freeman, 2002).

By the mid 1980’s, cognitive learning theories and information processing models had produced a dramatic shift in the research focus away from teaching behaviours and the student learning outcomes they produced,
towards an emphasis on teacher knowledge, how teachers use their knowledge, and what impact these decisions have on their instructional practices (Johnson, 2006). Although much teacher education of this period continued to focus on content knowledge and teaching practices (Johnson, 2006), this recognition of the inner worlds, or “mental lives” (Walberg, 1977 cited in Freeman, 2002:3) of teachers would, in turn, lead to a new emphasis on making tacit teacher knowledge explicit, hence a renewed interest in the concept of reflection. This will be discussed in section 3.2.3 below.

3.2.2.1 Strengths of applied science models
It has been said that a strength of competence based models is that in institutionalising the preparation of teachers, it elevates their status to that of “professional” (Adler, 1984), and acknowledges their intellectual capacities and expertise in their subject area, both of which are important aspects of a teacher’s life (Edge, 2011:15). A further advantage of these models is that they have provided a framework to meet “bureaucratic and political demands for objective testable standards of training and institutional accountability” (Roberts 1998:15). This professionalization of teaching has involved a definition of a knowledge base of fixed categories and processes to assess what teachers know and can do.

However, despite still forming “the basis” of many teacher education qualifications (Loughran, 2006: 64), and indeed enjoying something of a revival in many places (Korthagen, 2004), competency-based models have been the subject of much debate and criticism for at least two decades; this will be discussed in the next section.
3.2.2.2 Criticism of applied science

Korthagen (ibid.79) maintains that the evermore comprehensive lists of skills and competencies that these models have produced are, in practice “unwieldy” and they take “insufficient account of the fact that a good teacher cannot simply be described in terms of certain isolated competencies which can be learned in a number of training sessions”. Echoing this view, Edge (2011:16) notes that good, skilful teaching comprises more than just a technical application of disciplinary knowledge, and that many student teachers fail to see the relevance of much of the theoretical content they are required to learn. Matthew Clarke (2008:5) notes that applied science and competency-based models reflect an atomistic approach which has led to a persistent weakness in teacher education programmes in which students are exposed to a range of different expertise but are left to integrate the resulting knowledge themselves. Clarke characterizes the theory-practice split as something of “an endemic Achilles heel”, and labels competency based models as inadequate on the grounds that they “produce [...] people who are able to teach but do not understand what they are doing” (Furlong and Maynard 1995:32 cited in Clarke ibid.). Others have refuted arguments that applied science models contribute to the professionalization of teachers, maintaining that the separation of theory and practice, whereby scientific knowledge becomes the exclusive preserve of experts who convey that knowledge to practitioners reduced to the role of consumers, in fact serves to disenfranchise classroom teachers (Pennycook, 1995), and actually diminish their status as professionals. Mark Clarke (1994:11) discussing this in the context of EFL writes:

Discussions of language lessons in which the individuality of teachers and the idiosyncrasies of each teaching/learning event are not highlighted contribute to the diminution of teachers. And this, I believe, can be traced to societal and professional tendencies to separate theory from practice and to relegate teachers to the less important role
of practitioner. This creates a disabling atmosphere for teachers and an unhealthy climate for education in general

Patrick et al (2003:240) argue that these approaches to teacher learning stress a limited and simplistic conception of professionalism:

...firstly, that the professional is one who is competent and develops excellence only in respect of measurable, pre-defined standards; and secondly, that professional skills can be described readily, defined meaningfully and delivered through simple transfer (with values, attitudes, knowledge and understanding being classes and subsets of general teaching skills)

3.2.2.3 Implications of the applied science model for teacher educators

The teacher educator in the applied science model is firmly cast in the role of expert knower of theoretical knowledge and, as such, these individuals are under pressure to keep abreast of all the latest theories and research in their area of expertise. Labaree (2000, 2008) has argued that the extensive efforts during the 1960’s, 1970’s and 1980’s by teacher educators based in US universities to develop a, ‘science of teaching’ was, in fact, self-serving and motivated by a concern to raise their own professional status. Hartley and Whitehead (2006: 157) argue that the tendency to reduce teaching to a technical activity serves to “hide the political content of instruction”, and thus, “to promote unexamined educational ends”; by establishing the source of teachers’ professional authority as a form of technical rationality, the political distance between teachers and parents is widened and the notion that education may be a legitimate matter for political debate is denied. This raises Foucauldian questions concerning the links between knowledge and power, whose knowledge is selected and privileged in teacher education programmes and whose interests are best served by them. The expert in this model, therefore, needs to be aware of these undercurrents if they are to be successful and relevant and, indeed, to have a measure of face validity since the expert
status enjoyed by these individuals can mean that they are perceived as somewhat remote from the classroom; Edge (2011:16) notes that it is not uncommon for lecturers in educational theory to complain bitterly about lack of interest from student teachers at the same time as student teachers complain equally bitterly about the perceived irrelevance of much of what they are required to learn.

It is also worth noting that student teachers may not be the only dissatisfied parties in an applied science model: top down requirements from theoreticians to implement the dictates of a particular teaching method are not always met with enthusiasm by practising classroom practitioners who have sometimes countered with a stubborn resistance (see for example Nolasco and Arthur, 1986) or a so-called “eclectic approach” of their own (Akbari, 2007). Ironically such counter actions on the part of teachers can be viewed as indicative of their “inner worlds” (see above), long before these were recognised and taken into account by academic circles.

Despite the above criticisms and problems, however, van Huizen et al (2005) consider that an explicit framework for teacher education with stated objectives and assessment criteria has contributed to the credibility and accountability of public education, and the applied science model probably remains one of the most prevalent ones in teacher education today.

3.2.3 The reflective model
The notion of reflecting on practice is not a new concept. Every writer on reflection would certainly acknowledge the pioneering work of Dewey (e.g.1934), however, for the sake of consistency I shall continue to use Wallace’s (1991) framework as my starting point in this review, and will return briefly to Dewey later in the discussion.
Wallace (*ibid.*) draws on Schön’s twofold division of professional knowledge as “received” and “experiential” (1983). Received knowledge is research-based and, therefore, mirrors the knowledge on which the applied science model focuses which, according to Schön, is an incomplete account of professional competence since it does not explain how professionals deal with “divergent” situations in which they are confronted with “uncertainty, instability, uniqueness and value conflict” (p49). Schön (*ibid.*) refers to that professional knowledge as “experiential”, based on tacit, built upon experience. Schön uses the terms “reflection-in-action” and “reflection-on-action” (49-50) to distinguish between these two stores of professional knowledge. The former takes place in what Schön calls the action present, “the zone of time in which action can still make a difference to the situation” (1983: 62), and constitutes the myriad of on-the-spot reactions and decisions professionals make as they respond to evolving situations in the workplace. “Reflection-on-action” refers to the process of looking back on, and learning from, experience or action in order to affect future action. The reflective model, as conceived by Wallace, maintains that teacher education should address both types of professional knowledge and incorporate both processes of reflection (1991: 15) as illustrated in figure 1 overleaf.
Although Schön’s work was not principally concerned with teaching, it has been enthusiastically embraced by the field and has been “seminal in the debate on the development of professional practice in education” (Erlandson and Beach 2008: 409); indeed, for some scholars, reflection has become a key component in the epistemology of teachers’ professional practice (Erlandson and Beach *ibid*). It seems that there is general agreement in the literature that reflection is a generic professional disposition and should be the goal for all teachers (e.g. Clarke, 2008; York-Barr *et al.*, 2006; Korthagen *et al.*, 2001; Valli, 1997; Zeichner and Liston, 1996; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Sparks-Langer and Colton, 1991; Schön, 1983), but there exists a range of opinions regarding what reflection is, what it looks like in action, and how it can be measured.

Nevertheless, the collective literature on reflective thinking, whilst using varying terminology, reveals a number of common themes which will be briefly reviewed below.

### 3.2.3.1 Conceptualisations of reflection

Sparkes-Langer and Colton (1991) identify multiple influences on teachers’ knowledge construction which enables reflection; they present a comprehensive
review of three areas which they believe to be important in teachers’ reflective thinking. The first is the cognitive element which looks at how teachers use both experiential and professional knowledge to process information and make decisions. The second, critical element focuses on the experiences, goals, values and social implications which drive teachers’ thinking, and the third refers to teachers’ own narrative interpretations and feelings about events which occur in their classrooms and schools. Osterman and Kottkamp (1993 cited in York-Barr et al, 2006) define reflection in terms of an experiential learning cycle similar to the action research cycle. Zeichner and Liston (1996) also subscribe to the notion of reflection linked to action research. They challenge the assumption that education will necessarily be better if teachers reflect because, they claim, reflection can validate and justify practices which may be harmful to students, thus they emphasize the role of critical reflection and critical action research. Korthagen et al (2001) discuss a five stage model of reflection based on concrete situations and the student teachers’ personal perceptions of these situations as the starting point for the process of reflection; they call this model the “ALACT model” which underpins their notion of “realistic teacher education”. ALACT consists of five recurring phases:

1. Action
2. Looking back on action.
3. Awareness of essential aspects.
5. Trial.

(Korthagen et al 2001:108)
Van Manen (1977), in an early attempt to provide a taxonomy of reflection, identified three levels of reflectivity. The first, and lowest, level of reflection is the “technical” which examines the skills, strategies, and methods used to reach predetermined goals. The second level is the “practical” which looks at the underlying assumptions of the methods teachers use to reach their goals; it also examines the goals themselves and their effects, or outcomes, for students. The third, and highest, level according to this taxonomy is “critical reflection” which addresses the moral, ethical, and equity aspects of teachers’ practice. Zeichner and Liston (1987 cited in Korthagen et al 2001: 56) used van Manen’s levels to develop their “reflective teaching index” which distinguished between four levels of discourse during supervisory conferences in teacher education:

- factual discourse based on what has and what will occur;
- prudential discourse suggesting or evaluating courses of action;
- justificatory discourse explaining why certain actions were taken;
- critical discourse examining and assessing the adequacy of justifications for actions or assessing the embedded assumptions and values contained in curriculum content and instructional practices.

 (*ibid.*)

In yet another operationalization of reflection, Hatton and Smith (1995) developed a framework to analyse student teachers’ work based on the identification of four types of writing, three of which may be characterized as reflection. The fourth, descriptive writing, does not constitute reflection as it is merely a description of events or circumstances without any additional information related to reasoning or justification. In their classification, “descriptive reflection” attempts to provide justification for events but still in a narrative or descriptive way; “dialogic reflection” includes the qualities of
judgement, explanations and hypotheses, and “critical reflection” demonstrates both an awareness of multiple perspectives, and the fact that these multiple perspectives are located in, and influenced by, multiple historical and socio-political contexts.

The final typology to be reviewed in this section is that of Valli (1997). Valli’s classification starts at the “technical” level, focusing on general instruction and classroom management processes based on research. The next level is the “reflection-in and on-action” which focuses on one’s own teaching performance and decision making based on the individual’s unique situation. “Deliberative reflection” can focus on a wide variety of teaching related concerns but it involves intentional probing of assumptions and consideration of different perspectives and research findings. “Personalistic reflection” focuses on personal growth and involves listening to one’s own inner voice as well as the voices of others, and finally “critical reflection” focuses on the moral, political and ethical dimensions of education.

Thus it can be seen that, although terminology differs, most conceptualisations of reflection, start with action or decision-making which is consciously examined at a technical level, and then further examined and refined within increasingly critical dimensions.

3.2.3.2 Strengths of the reflective model
Unlike earlier models focussed on experts and remote from the classroom, the reflective model places teachers and practical experience, “at the very core” (Wallace 1991: 52) of the enterprise, thus bringing together practical experience and theoretical knowledge. Schön stresses the importance of framing and reframing problems in the light of experiences and notes that this process of
reconstructing experience involves both problem setting as well as problem solving and is more indicative of real-world practice. Schön writes:

Problems do not present themselves to the practitioner as givens. They must be constructed from the materials of problematic situations which are puzzling, troubling or uncertain. When we set the problem, we select what we will treat as the “things” of the situation, we set the boundaries of our attention to it, and we impose upon it a coherence which allows us to say what is wrong and in what directions the situation needs to be changed. Problem setting is a process in which, interactively, we name the things to which we will attend and frame the context in which we will attend to them. (1983: 40).

The reflective model does not dismiss teacher education approaches from other models of teacher development, but attempts to redesign them in ways that promote reflection. For example, a strong focus of the applied science model was the observation of teaching and the development of taxonomies to categorise it (see for example Flanders, 1960); in the reflective model observation aims at understanding what lies behind a particular technique and unpacking the complexity of teaching (Zeichner and Liston, 1996; Edge, 2011). Similarly, micro-teaching becomes a reflection-in-action approach when it is used to act as a conduit to professional reflection rather than mere mimicry (Wallace 1991: 93). Reflection-on-action is encouraged to assist future planning – Loughran (1996) has termed this “anticipatory reflection”. As noted in the previous section, reflection-on-action has also been used in more formal ways in the form of action research and critical action research.

All in all, it can be said that the reflective model has made an important contribution to teacher education and TEFL professionalism more generally (Edge 2011:17) and it has allowed us to “explore the experience of craft learning and intellectual learning in mutually interpenetrative ways” (Loughran, 1996 cited in Edge 2011:17). Despite this however, there
have, perhaps inevitably, been criticisms of the reflective model and these will be discussed in the following section.

3.2.3.3 Criticisms of the reflective model

Clandinin (2008:389) warns, in purely practical terms, that, “the effects of reflection on practice have yet to be fully realized, for the creation of reflective learning spaces in itself does not necessarily lead to change”. This echoes Zeichner and Liston’s view (see section 3.2.3.1) which challenges the assumption that reflection automatically results in better practice. Others (e.g. Griffiths, 2000; Akbari, 2007; Thiessen, 2000) also argue that there is little research-based evidence to suggest that reflection results in higher student achievement or better teacher performance.

Questions and critiques about reflection at an epistemological level have also been raised (e.g. Erlandson and Beach, 2008; Fendler, 2003; Akbari, 2007) and it has been argued that the multiple trends and philosophies in the historical origins of reflective teaching have resulted in contradictory interpretations of the term. Fendler (2003), for example, identifies at least four interrelated, but sometimes contradictory, threads which have contributed to the popularity of reflection in education: “the epistemological foundations of Cartesian rationality, the appropriation of Dewey’s works as authoritative for education, the value of Schön’s professionalism for teachers, and the currency of feminist anti-establishment critiques” (Fendler ibid.17). Most of the academic literature promoting reflection stresses the importance of the work of both Dewey and Schön as influences on reflective practice, but in so doing, this either intentionally, or inadvertently, distorts the fundamental differences in conceptualisation of the term which exist in the work of these two thinkers (Akbari; 2006; Fendler, 2003). Reflection as conceived by Dewey is a means to
control “action that is merely repetitive, blind and impulsive” (Dewey 1933:18 cited in Fendler 2003:19), thus it is a practice aimed at professionalization of teaching which, as Fendler (ibid.) points out, is, “associated with science and scientific methods as a means to raise social status”. For Schön, however, reflection is a personal, non-rational activity with an intuitive base, in other words, for Schön, reflective knowledge is the direct result of practice. Fendler (ibid.) sums up the difficulty thus: “these days the meaning of professional reflection is riddled with tensions between Schön’s notion of practitioner-based intuition on the one hand, and Dewey’s notion of rational and scientific thinking on the other”. Erlandson and Beach (2008) take this argument further; whilst acknowledging Schön’s immense contribution to the professionalization of teaching, they argue that his reasoning is flawed and his epistemological position is, therefore, inconsistent. They explain that at times his argument draws on a “Cartesian mind/body duality” with the mind in charge, yet at other times the duality is rejected and “learning to handle practice is not a question of the mind or of thinking but rather of actual experiences of the living reciprocal body” (2008:419). Edge (2011:18) finds the philosophical arguments surrounding the Dewey/Schön distinction interesting but considers Schön’s pragmatic stance to be the crucial point because this conceptualisation of the reflective approach, “allows for the interaction of craft-based intuition and rational intellect as each becomes a complementary investigative lens for the exploration of their combined potential”.

The conceptualisations of reflective practice outlined in section 3.2.3.1 notwithstanding, questions have also emerged about the extent to which reflective teaching, particularly as it is promoted and practised in ELT teacher education, disregards and fails to engage with issues of critical practice (Akbari,
reflection which constitutes merely thinking about one’s practice has been characterised as “domesticated and pedagogically neutral” (Troudi 2006: 281) and “[un]responsive to the social dilemmas the global community is faced with” (Akbari, 2007: 197). However, as noted in section 3.2.3.1, reflective practice, as it is conceptualised by many writers, incorporates criticality and, indeed, imposes a hierarchy of levels of reflectivity in which critical reflection is seen as superior (e.g. Van Manen, 1977; Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Valli, 1997). As Edge (2011:18) points out, it may be the case that some teachers do not have as committed a critical stance as others would wish, but this should not be regarded as a criticism of reflective practice itself since it does provide a vehicle for critical pedagogy should one wish to practice it. Indeed, in a context such as the UAE, critical pedagogy could actually be a risky undertaking. In the wider context, perhaps a greater irony surrounding the notion of reflective practice as empowering for teachers might, in fact, be seen in the way researchers and academics have so enthusiastically embraced the concept, and in so doing have (re)appropriated it into academe, thus once again raising the spectre of the old theory/practice divide. Fendler (2003: 23) sums up this dilemma well, she writes:

When teacher education research provides elaborate programs for training teachers to be reflective practitioners, the implicit assumption is that teachers are not reflective unless they practice the specific techniques promoted by researchers. It is ironic that the rhetoric about reflective practitioners focuses on empowering teachers, but the requirements of learning to be reflective are based on the assumption that teachers are incapable of reflection without direction from expert authorities.

3.2.3.4 Implications of the reflective model for the teacher educator

Despite criticisms, the reflective approach has been, and continues to be, a key factor in many teacher education programmes and reflective activities and
reflective modules are now routinely incorporated into teacher education. For the teacher educator this has involved an expansion of their role – they are no longer cast simply as the subject expert or master practitioner, but are expected to possess a variety of other skills as well. For example, Durham (2001:5), writing about the teacher educator role in this model notes “[…] teaching, particularly in a reflective, developmental model is essentially about creating helpful relationships which enable people to grow into the best teacher they can be.” Durham goes on to point out that there are a number of hidden, interpersonal skills which are essential for a teacher educator to be effective in this model including being an active listener, effective questioner, non-directing supervisor and non-judgemental observer. Edge (1992 cited in Durham ibid.) notes that reflective teacher educators need to learn new styles of communicating with students to ensure a relationship that empowers student teachers enough to feel safe and confident about taking an active role in their own professional development. Korthagen and Vaseulos (2005) argue the need for teacher educators to develop counselling and therapy skills to enable them to work with student teachers whose classroom behaviours are deeply rooted in a personal and affective past which requires a degree of “core reflection” to bring to a conscious level for scrutiny. Reflective teacher educators need to be able to verbalize teaching experience and make relevant links between practice and theory in order to help novice teachers towards an understanding of teaching, yet student teachers themselves may be reluctant to accept new understandings which challenge their pre-conceived beliefs. Many beginning teachers expect a technical model of teaching, coming to the teacher preparation programme with a set of beliefs which may be difficult to change and which compete with the ideas teacher educators bring to courses, thus
impeding the desired outcomes (Pajares, 1992; Farrell, 2006). Cochran-Smith and Fries (2008:1079) describe this as the “fundamental tension between teacher educators’ desire to change their students’ beliefs and prospective teachers’ desire to learn how to ‘do’ teaching”.

Thus it can be seen that the teacher educator role in the reflective model is a great deal more complex and layered than might at first be expected. Reflection and reflective practice remain current buzz words in teacher education but early conceptions of reflection centring on this as a private and personal activity, for example in the keeping of reflective journals (e.g. Bailey, 1990; Shin, 2003), have increasingly given way to collaborative and social models of practice and reflection on practice. Nowadays, the teacher is commonly no longer viewed as a lone individual seeking and constructing personal, private knowledge, but as a professional member of a community where reflection and collaboration are at the forefront (Burns, 1999; Korthagen et al., 2001; Tsui, 2003; Johnson, 2009; Edge, 2011). Johnson (2006: 235) terms this shift as the “sociocultural turn”, which will be discussed briefly below.

3.3 The socio-cultural turn
Johnson (ibid.) informs us that the epistemological underpinnings of the “sociocultural turn” in the human sciences regards human learning as a dynamic social activity, situated in physical and social contexts incorporating multiple persons, tools and activities, and rooted in a number of different, but compatible, intellectual traditions and theories. Theories of situated cognition argue that knowledge does not simply reside in books and courses but involves lived practices and entails ‘knowing-in-action’, in other words teachers’ practical, professional knowledge is embodied in their practice in a particular community (Wenger, 1998; Johnson, 2006; Kelly, 2006). Echoing Schön’s concept of
knowledge-in-action, the professional, in this case the teacher, becomes competent by taking intelligent action in dialogue with a particular situation and in interaction with others within the same situation, or what Wenger (ibid.) has termed a “community of practice”. Teacher learning is characterised by the movement of teachers from peripheral (i.e. novice) to full (i.e. expert) participation in the community of practice (Kelly, 2006; Wenger, 1998), and teachers’ actions are regulated by normative ways of reasoning and the particular working practices and ways of thinking which define their school community. In becoming expert by engaging in particular social practices and moving from the peripheral novice to the full expert, the concept of identity becomes significant (Kelly, 2006; Wenger, 1998). In the movement from novice to expert people adopt different stances towards the tasks they are engaged in as they develop a sense of self in their professional context. In this view professional identity can be regarded as a process of ‘becoming’ rather than just ‘being’ and is in a state of constant evolution (Lave, 1993; Kelly, 2006) through a process which “consists of negotiating the meanings of our experience of membership in social communities” (Wenger 1998: 145).

3.3.1 Implications of the sociocultural turn for teacher educators
The clear implication of this position for teacher education is that students need exposure to the professional discourses and theories of teaching, as well as the practical realities of the classroom in the form of real teaching situations. The teacher educator needs to create opportunities that allow student teachers to develop the capacity to “inquire sensitively and systematically into the nature of learning and the effects of teaching”(Darling-Hammond 2000:170), and the capacities to work in collaboration with students, colleagues and others to explore multiple perspectives. In this view of teacher preparation, the teacher
educator is required to engage in “boundary crossing” (Darling-Hammond *ibid.*) in order to elicit, value and understand the knowledge of student teachers and, in turn, to equip them with the skills to incorporate this into their own practice as teachers. Delpit (1995 cited in Darling-Hammond, 2000:170) notes:

> We all interpret behaviors, information, and situations through our own cultural lenses; these lenses operate involuntarily, below the level of conscious awareness, making it seem that our own view is simply ‘the way it is’.

As Darling-Hammond (*ibid.*) notes, developing the abilities of student teachers to see beyond their own perspective, and to understand the learner and their experiences in terms of what this means for learning, is probably one of the most important roles for teacher educators.

It seems, therefore, that a key role of teacher education as conceived in the sociocultural turn, involves equipping student teachers with the initial communication, content, pedagogic, reflective and analytical skills necessary to begin to manage the transition from the periphery to the centre of the profession, and to develop their own personal, professional identity en route.

To summarise, thus far I have sketched, albeit in very broad strokes, how perceptions of (language) teacher education have changed over time and I have attempted to account for this with reference to various epistemological shifts which have led to different conceptualisations of human learning. I have also speculated about the possible implications of the various epistemological perspectives on the work of teacher educators. In the second half of this review of the literature I shall turn more closely to the concepts of identity and professional identity as I conceptualise them, before outlining the definition of professional identity which informs the rest of this study.
3.4 The concept of identity
The importance of identity crops up time and again in recent literature about
teacher education (see for example Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009;
Chan, Keyes and Ross, 2012; Davey, 2013; Edge, 2011; Freese, 2006;
Korthagen, Kessles, Koster, Lagerwerf and Wubbels, 2001). Generally
speaking, the concept has different meanings for different researchers but the
various meanings share a common view that identity is not a fixed attribute of a
person but is rather a relational phenomenon whose development occurs as an
ongoing process of interpreting oneself as a certain type of person and being
recognised as such in a given context (Gee, 2001; Beijaard, Meijer, and
Verloop, 2004). Beijaard et al (ibid, 108) summarise this quite succinctly when
they note that identity can be viewed as an answer to the recurrent question
“Who am I at this moment?”

It is widely accepted that student teachers must undergo a shift in identity as
they progress through their various courses of study and, further shifts later as
they assume their careers in schools and interact in a variety of broader
communities. It is logical, therefore, to assume that teacher educators must also
develop an identity, or identities, as they engage in their work. However,
whether that identity resembles that of a teacher, with teacher education being
considered as simply another form of teaching, or whether there are any
features of identity which are unique to the profession of teacher educators
remains a question of speculation which this study hopes to address.

A number of recent studies have focused on the professional identity of
teachers in the specific contexts of the UAE and the wider Gulf region. For
example, Clarke (2008), using a Critical Discourse Analysis Framework,
explored the developing professional identity of novice Emirati teachers as they
progressed through their teacher preparation programme. Clarke’s study found that these young teachers discursively constructed their professional identities within an evolving community of practice where intrapersonal features of identity and interpersonal relations within the community played a crucial role. Hunt (2010) also explored the same phenomenon; his study found that the action research projects conducted by novice teachers as part of their BEd. Degree were a significant influence on their emergent teacher identities. In an interesting study of experienced western expatriate English Language teachers working in the UAE, Hudson (2013) found that the context played a major role in how these individuals conceptualized their professional identities. Hudson (ibid. 7) found that a “complex interplay of cultural, economic, religious and political ideologies” was at play, which significantly impacted on the working lives of those interviewed in his study. In the wider Gulf region, Scotland (2013), found that the professional identities of a group of experienced expatriate English Language teachers working in Qatar were affected as they adapted their pedagogies to working in the local context. However, to my knowledge, the question of the professional identities of teacher educators working in the UAE, or the wider Gulf arena, is an area which has not, hitherto, been addressed and therefore, remains a gap in the literature which this study will attempt to redress.

As noted above, the concept of identity has been explored in the literature of many fields ranging from philosophy, to psychology, social psychology and sociology and has thus taken on many meanings depending upon the particular analytical lens one uses to explore it (Gee, 2000). In a comprehensive review of studies on teacher professional identity, Beijaard et al (2004) note not only differing definitions but, in many studies, the absence of any definition at all, which contributes to a certain vagueness surrounding the concept; Sfard and
Prusak (2005:15) echo this view when they explain that the concept of identity is rarely clearly defined and is often presumed to be “one of those self-evident notions”. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, I draw principally, but not solely, on the works of Davey (2013), Beijaard et al (2004), Gee (2000) and Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) to frame the concepts as each offers insights and perspectives which resonate most closely with my own conceptions and understandings of these terms. I shall start this review with a brief survey of the main theoretical perspectives which inform the concept of identity in the educational literature and use them to summarise the key characteristics of the definition of professional identity as it is understood in this study.

3.4.1 Identity in education
According to Davey (2013:24) it is possible to identify three main theoretical perspectives on identity and professional identity which have informed much of the education literature on the subject. These perspectives are psychological/developmental, sociocultural and post-structural, with each having somewhat different historical origins and underlying assumptions about the nature of self and identity but which, nevertheless, carry some overlap amongst them. Following Davey (ibid.) I shall briefly review each in turn.

3.4.1.2 Psychological/developmental perspectives on identity.
In developmental psychology, identity is essentially viewed in terms of internalised mental models, or ideals, located within individuals. These internalisations are constructed by individuals as reflections about themselves but are open to change in response to external events. The work of Erikson (e.g.1968) may be considered pioneering in this field. Erikson suggested that identity formation is inherently individual and internal, in which an individual creates and negotiates a number of different identities as s/he goes through
stages of maturation. While a part of the individual remains constant throughout the stages, Erikson does not discount external influences and feedback from others, which is filtered and interpreted subjectively, and, in the process, forms part of the dynamic process of identity formation.

Others (e.g. Goffman, 1959) have also emphasised the idea that in addition to a personal identity, we have a social identity or number of adaptable ‘selves’ that are shaped and negotiated by our interactions with the world around us and focus on the performance of different roles in society (Goffman, 1959 in Davey 2013). In other words, the normative expectations of society, which attributes certain specific characteristics to a given role, will shape how we function in that role i.e. we act how we are expected to act by others in a given social role e.g. teacher, student, parent etc. Ball (1972 cited in Davey, 2013) posited that identity is situated (adaptable according to the situations one finds oneself in), but also has characteristics which are ‘substantive’ (i.e. more stable and immutable) and inherently part of who we are.

Beijaard, Verloop and Vermunt (2000: 750) summarise this position thus:

Identity can generally be defined as who or what someone is, and the various meanings one attaches to themselves or the meanings attributed by others.

To summarise this perspective in terms of what it contributes to the concept of professional identity as it is conceived in this study, we could say that the latter can be viewed as both substantive and situated; professional identity is essentially how individuals see themselves and the formation of that professional identity is about the process of creating congruence between ones self-image(s) and the image(s) others have of them (Davey 2013:25/26).
3.4.1.3 Sociocultural perspectives on identity

Like developmental psychology, sociocultural perspectives on identity also see it as a dynamic phenomenon which is both individually and socially constructed; identity is located within individuals and is also externally influenced by interactions with others. However, sociocultural theorists are mainly concerned with the social rather than the individual identity and their focus is on how groups of individuals operate as communities or distinct cultures. A name closely associated with this perspective is Wenger (1998) who considers that “building an identity consists of negotiating the meanings of our experience of membership in social communities”(145).

Wenger (ibid.) proposes five dimensions of identity:

- **Identity as negotiated experience.** We define who we are by the ways we experience ourselves through participation as well as by the ways we and others reify ourselves.
- **Identity as community membership.** We define who we are by the familiar and the unfamiliar.
- **Identity as learning trajectory.** We define who we are by where we have been and by where we are going.
- **Identity as nexus of multimembership.** We define who we are by the ways we reconcile our various forms of membership into one identity.
- **Identity as a relation between the local and the global.** We define who we are by negotiating local ways of belonging to broader constellations and of manifesting broader styles and discourses. (Wenger 1998:149 emphasis in the original)

For Wenger, identity and practice mirror each other:

There is a profound connection between identity and practice. Developing a practice requires the formation of a community whose members can engage with one another and thus acknowledge each other as participants [……] In this sense, the formation of a community of practice is also the negotiation of identities.

(Wenger: *ibid*)
Coldron and Smith (1999:711-712) however, argue that sociocultural explanations of identity can be limiting and, in some cases, “leave little room for agency”. They maintain that an individual constructs an identity by taking an active position in a “social space” defined as, “an array of possible relations that one person can have to others. Some of these relations are conferred by inherited social structures […] and some are chosen and created by the individual”. Thus, for them, individual action and agency within a social context are key, and individuals need to be aware of the variety of choices and positions they may assume in a given context. On the concept of professional identity they write:

“We contend that, by choosing some and rejecting other possibilities in various professional fields of choice, a teacher affirms affiliations and makes distinctions that constitute an important part of his or her professional identity. (ibid. 713)

Coldron and Smith (ibid.) also note, however, that theoretical possibilities for choice are not necessarily the same as actual ones and, in this respect, the notion of power comes into play. Davey (2013:27) expands this discussion, explaining that Bourdieu’s (1983) concepts of “habitus”, “field”, “forms of capital” and “symbolic violence” have greatly influenced how we understand the notion of identity in a socio-cultural perspective. “Habitus”, Davey (ibid:28) explains, refers to the internal beliefs and dispositions we both innately possess and develop in response to external circumstances, or “fields”, we encounter. “Field” refers to a specific, bounded social space e.g. a university or a school, where individual participants may compete for specific types of capital within that field. “Symbolic capital” is a cognitive form of capital which is dependent upon factors such as reputation, authority and public recognition. When those who possess symbolic capital exercise power over other less powerful
individuals in the field in order to change, shape or dominate the actions of those individuals, they are said to be using symbolic violence in order to replicate or legitimise their own perspectives (Davey *ibid.*). In other words, depending on social position within a given community, power can both limit or enable one’s identity choices. In terms of developing a professional identity this notion becomes particularly pertinent in the context of educational institutions which, as Rodgers and Scott (2008) point out, fall within the category of professional organisations where

> Contextual forces are normative and determined by those in authority who have a vested interest in the compliance of those under their authority […] lack of awareness of these norms and pressures to assimilate, keep teachers subject to contextual forces, robbing them of agency, creativity and voice. (734).

Although referring specifically to teachers, Rodgers’ and Scott’s observation could apply equally well to teacher educators who must operate both within their own educational institutions and, in their preparation of student teachers, in the schools where their students are placed. The importance of the influence of context on identity has also been noted elsewhere (e.g. Coldron and Smith, 1999; Beijaard *et al*, 2004; Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009).

To summarise what sociocultural perspectives may contribute to an understanding of professional identity, we can emphasise the importance of interaction both internally (internal reflection and self-questioning) and within a context, working with colleagues to develop a shared “community of practice” (Wenger, 1998). The notion of agency is also important and educators need to be active in the process of professional development and critically aware of the choices they make and the constraints and possibilities offered by the various contexts in which they find themselves.
3.4.1.4 Post-structural perspectives on identity

Post-structuralist views on identity acknowledge the social but emphasise the place of discursive practice and power relations in identity formation (Davey, 2013: 29). The post-structural view challenges the notion of an essentialist concept of identity unrelated to the political context in which one’s actions take place and embraces the idea of identity making as a “communicational practice” and a “discursive activity” (Sfard and Prusak 2005:16). Zembylas (2003: 213) describes this in the following way: “identity is formed in this shifting space where narratives of subjectivity meet the narratives of culture”. In other words, identity is formed between the structures we inhabit and the agency we possess within those structures, it is in the interaction between these that we will locate ourselves. Britzman (1993:28 cited in Zembylas 2003:221) writes:

As each of us struggles in the process of coming to know, we struggle not as autonomous beings [...] but as vulnerable social subjects who produce and are being produced by culture.

Thus, viewed from this perspective, identity is constantly contested, always in a state of becoming under the transforming shifts of power, ideology and culture. Within this viewpoint, Zembylas (ibid.) argues that the affective domain is fundamental to the concept of identity, explaining that research in various disciplines has emphasized the role of emotions in helping human beings to survive and adapt, to motivate their learning and to communicate with others (215). Thus emotion, as a dimension of the individual, influences the expression and shaping of identity and the two are inextricably linked since our cultural and discursive experiences are simultaneously felt and embodied. Zembylas (ibid: 231) argues that the relationship between emotion and identity has profound political dimensions since the emotions educators experience, and in certain
contexts may be encouraged or forbidden to experience, may “expand or limit possibilities” (Zembylas, ibid: 122) in teaching. Zembylas writes:

Emotions in teaching are unavoidably linked to matters of interests (political dimension) and values (moral dimension); therefore, coping with the sense of vulnerability teachers often feel, means they need to engage in political action to regain the social recognition of their professional self and restore the conditions that ensure their good job performance(231).

Clearly this poststructuralist perspective on identity and professional identity has implications for teacher educators as well, since the affective dimension is an area to be aware of, and attended to, not only in their own professional lives in teaching/education but, by extension, in their work with novice teachers, who need help to develop skills and strategies to negotiate emotional issues in their work.

Gee (2000) offers further insights into the nature of identity and professional identity. Whilst acknowledging the existence of a core identity or ‘I’ which has a kind of continuity which “holds more uniformly, for ourselves and others across contexts”(99), Gee argues that our various social identities particularly as a group or collective identity, are built around four interrelated perspectives which lead him to a deceptively simple definition of identity as what it means to be recognised as “a certain kind of person in a given context” (ibid.). Gee perceives these four perspectives as interrelated in multiple and complex ways and tied to the workings of historical, institutional and sociocultural forces; he maintains that they provide a useful way to formulate questions about how identity is functioning for a specific individual in a specific context, or across a set of different contexts (101). The four perspectives are:

- **Nature-Identity (N-identity):** a state developed from forces in nature. Gee gives the example of being an identical twin as the state he is in and not as something he has accomplished. N-identities are given meaning
through the work of institutions, through discourse and dialogue and/or through affinity groups - the same entities that give meaning to the other perspectives on identity which Gee lists.

- **Institution-Identity (I-Identity):** those parts of who we are that are authorised by institutions and are thus given power within them. For example a teacher in a school or a teacher educator in an institution of higher education; in both cases the source of identification is not intrinsic in nature but is ascribed by an institution. The teacher or teacher educator is ‘authorized’ to hold a particular identity by their position and is expected to uphold the traditions and principals that go with the position.

- **Discourse-Identity (D-Identity):** those parts of who we are that are developed and recognized through dialogue/discourse with/of others. For example a ‘charismatic person’ becomes so because other people recognize and ascribe this quality to an individual.

- **Affinity-Identity (A-Identity):** those parts of who we are that arise out of experiences with an affinity group. An affinity group is defined as a group of people, potentially dispersed across a large space, but who share an interest, affinity or allegiance to a particular practice. For example, fans of a particular TV show or music group may be identified by their actions and experiences in pursuit of their interest (attending or viewing shows, collecting memorabilia, chatting on Internet forums devoted to the object of their allegiance etc.). (Gee, 2000: 101-105).

Gee maintains that these multiple identities are negotiable, interrelated and that people may, at any given time, engage in a combination of identity discourses which exist on a continuum in terms of how actively or passively they subscribe
to, or fulfil, a particular role. These discourses are grounded in the meanings people ascribe to different things, bounded by social practices and constantly subject to (re)negotiation, problematizing and contestation. By way of illustration of the complex and multiple interrelations of these discourses Gee uses the example of what he neutrally calls a *motorically active* child. Such a child may be referred by teachers, or others, to the medical profession and be subsequently diagnosed with an attention deficit disorder (ADHD). Under the analytical lens of an N-Identity this child’s behaviour is interpreted as a matter of nature (genes or neurological ‘defects’) and the child is identified, or labelled, as this particular type of person within an N-Identity analytical lens. If this neurological disorder then becomes the subject of medical intervention and remediation it then functions as an I-Identity and the child becomes defined by the institutionally sanctioned medical practices relevant to the diagnosed disorder. This I-Identity is sustained through discourse and dialogue, and this same child may then be recognised in a different way in a different setting: for example, in a classroom the motorically active child may be recognised as ADHD in a ‘folk’ sense, thus acquiring a D-Identity characterised as problematic or disruptive. The child, or the child’s parents, might engage in joint experiences with others diagnosed with this condition, sharing experiences, attending support groups and so on, thus acquiring an A-Identity. It is evident therefore, that the interrelations between Gee’s four perspectives on identity are complex and multiple, and an individual may have several different identities functioning at any one time.

To summarise post-structural perspectives: identity is informed and re-formed through multiple, inter-related discursive practices and social interactions. Identity may be made up of multiple selves which are contestable and
changeable in response to differing historical, social, cultural and psychological circumstances. Identity is shaped by group politics and affiliations and is both emotional and value-laden.

3.5 Towards an understanding of professional identity
A number of key characteristics of the concept of identity may be extrapolated from the above discussion. The following common conceptual elements are apparent:

• Identity is both dependent upon and formed within multiple contexts which embody a variety of social, cultural, political and historical forces
• Identity is shifting, unstable and multifaceted, involving the ongoing (re)construction of our ‘stories’ over time
• Identity is formed through relationships with others
• Identity involves emotions

(Rodgers and Scott, 2008: 733; Davey, 2013: 31).

Drawing together these perspectives enables us to reach a working definition of the concept of professional identity which encompasses the following characteristics:

• Professional identity may be considered as both personal and social in origin and expression. On the one hand we have our own sets of personal beliefs, values, emotions and perceptions which filter the way we see ourselves in the world. On the other hand, this sense of a ‘personal’ self is situated within the contexts we find ourselves in and is influenced by the social, cultural and historical conditions and discourses operating around us. “Professional identity is thus personally and
individually perceived, but socially and culturally negotiated” (Davey, 2013: 31).

- Professional identity is multifaceted, always shifting and, therefore, both fragmentary and evolving. Professional identity is not a single, stable entity but is composed of many factors which may vary according to circumstances. There may be some relatively stable ‘core’ aspects of professional identity but even these may be subject to (re)negotiation and (re)storying over the course of one’s professional life. “By its very nature, ones’ professional identity is always in the process of becoming” (Davey, 2013:31).

- Professional identity involves emotions. Because professional identity is formed in a social context, those very same contextual forces operate to shape and constrain it, which, inevitably, involves emotional commitments. For example, at times of reform and restructuring, we may experience emotional resistance. Belief systems, professional discourses, professional and cultural norms may all be subject to challenges to which we respond emotionally. Our professional identity can be seen in terms of a valued professional self. “Professional identity comprises both how one sees oneself and what one values in oneself as a professional” (Davey, 2013: 32).

- Professional identity involves a sense of group membership – or non-membership – and identification with a collective of others. Professional identity involves not only my own perceptions of my job and how it should be done, but also those of others, and the common elements between individuals may be said to form a collective identity. “One’s sense of self
as a member of a purposeful occupational community is a significant and necessary component of one’s professional identity” (Davey, 2013: 32).

### 3.6 Chapter summary

In this review of the literature I have surveyed a variety of epistemological positions which have influenced the content and practice of teacher education and I have speculated about the impact of these different perspectives on the work of the teacher educator. Nevertheless, as Cochran-Smith (2000: 163) asserts, there remains no clear consensus about what teachers need to know, about who should provide education for teachers and how that education should be certified or licensed. Cochran-Smith (ibid.), writing about the situation in North America, maintains that teacher education is “under attack” and, with no shortage of opinions about what is wrong with teaching, teachers and teacher education, the debate and the rhetoric have become increasingly politicised. I believe a similar situation may now be seen to be developing in the UAE which makes it both important and timely to examine the nature and professional beliefs of those actually engaged at the front line in the preparation of teachers in that context. For, as Zeichner (1995: 21) writes:

> Unless teacher educators can themselves articulate what it is that they professionally know, believe in and ‘stand for’, then, just as in the case of teachers […] there is a danger that a knowledge-base [for teacher education] will be defined without the voice and perspectives of teacher educators [themselves].

Therefore, in the second part of this literature review I have reviewed the concept of identity as it is presented in the literature on education and I have used these perceptions to draw together a definition of professional identity as it is understood in this study. I have isolated and identified four main features of professional identity: the personal/social/cultural combination of the
phenomenon; its ever-shifting and evolving nature; its affective complexity and its location within a context or community. These four areas will be the focus of my questions and analysis (see section 4.5) as I attempt to explore the participants’ sense of professional identity as it is expressed in dialogue with me.
Chapter 4 Research paradigm and methodology

4.1 Introduction
This study is an attempt to explore and understand the work of a small group of teacher educators in the United Arab Emirates, in particular examining the nature of their professional identity and how it has come to be developed. The research addresses the following broad research questions:

- How do teachers become teacher educators?
- How do teacher educators perceive their role?
- What informs the practice of teacher educators?
- In what ways, if any, does the local context of the UAE affect the sense of professional identity of those working there?

This chapter explains the research design and methodology employed in the study. I begin with a definition of some of the major terminology connected with research design. I then discuss the research paradigm within which the study is situated, followed by a discussion of the conceptual framework guiding this research, including the data collection methods and analysis. I also discuss the selection of research participants and include a section on research issues to cover issues connected with trustworthiness and credibility, ethical concerns and the role of the researcher.

4.2 Terminology: Research paradigm
Ernest (1994:8) offers a working definition of research in education, or in any field, as being a “systematic inquiry with the aim of producing knowledge”. Although useful insofar as it highlights the notion of systematic knowledge-seeking through a process of inquiry, this definition fails to highlight the issue of
the philosophical position underpinning the research. Researchers approach research from different philosophical positions, or paradigms, depending on “the background knowledge against which they made sense of their observations” (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999:3). How a researcher makes sense of the world depends on the “theoretical perspective that is our view of the human world and social life within that world” (Crotty, 2003:7). Punch (1998:28) notes this will influence what constitute proper techniques and topics of enquiry, and will be the ultimate determinant of the methodological design and methods used. As Grix (2002:180) emphasizes, “It is of paramount importance that students understand how a particular view of the world affects the whole research process”. Educational research is an activity which takes place within a recognized, or unconsciously assumed, research paradigm. A research paradigm, therefore, can be said to be made up of three components which determine the shape and substance of the research: the ontology, the epistemology and the methodology.

4.2.1 Ontology: what is social reality?
Numerous researchers (e.g. Grix, 2004; Crotty, 2003; Pring, 2000) maintain that ontology is the starting point of research, after which one’s epistemology and methodology will logically follow. Put simply, ontology is the study of being and how people view reality (Crotty 2003: 10). Blaikie (2000:8 cited in Grix 2004:59) offers a fuller definition which maintains that ontological claims are:

Claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other. In short ontological assumptions are concerned with what we believe constitutes social reality.
4.2.2 Epistemology: what is knowledge and how do we go about acquiring it?
Epistemology is a branch of philosophy concerned with the theory of knowledge. Ernest (1994: 20) explains that epistemology is made up of two related parts: a theory of knowledge and a theory of learning, or “how we know what we know” (Crotty 2003:8). This, coupled with our ontological position, will determine the overall research methodology, or research strategy, that we choose to adopt.

4.2.3 Methodology: a plan of action
Crotty (2003: 7) explains that research methodology refers to the strategy, or plan of action, that we adopt. The overall research methodology will reflect a theory of acquiring knowledge, and within any given methodology, a number of particular techniques, or methods, may be employed in the process of data collection. Grix (2002) notes that methodology and methods are terms which, although logically linked, should not be confused or used interchangeably. Methods simply refer to “the techniques and procedures used to collate and analyze data” (Blaikie, 2000: 8 cited in Grix, 2002).

Having defined some key terms connected with research as I understand and use them, I shall now turn to a description of the research paradigm and methodology used in this study.

4.3 The interpretive paradigm
This research is situated in the interpretive research paradigm. In contrast to a realist positivist, or post positivist, paradigm based on an objectivist epistemology in which knowledge is seen as existing outside human consciousness, and which seeks “nomothetic” knowledge (Crotty, 2003:67), interpretive researchers hold that people are unique individuals who are far more complex than things in the natural world, and that to understand human
behaviour requires research to focus on the fundamental, “subjective qualities that govern behavior” (Holliday, 2002:5). Crotty (2003:67) explains that this perspective may be traced back to the 19th century German scholar Max Weber, who suggested that, with regard to the human sciences, we should be dealing with understanding (Verstehen) rather than explanation (Erklären), which is a major goal of research in the natural sciences.

In direct contrast to the positivist standpoint, interpretive researchers argue that there is not an objective body of knowledge separate from us to be discovered, but that there are multiple, subjective individual realities, the nature of which depends on a variety of factors including individual cultural, religious and other beliefs, experiences, intentions and intellectual leanings. Individuals are believed to be actively involved in making sense of the world around them, constantly constructing and reconstructing reality on an individual basis. Consequently, interpretive research is commonly associated with a constructivist view of knowledge (epistemology), and a subjective view of reality (ontology).

Interpretive methodology involves researchers getting closely involved with participants as individuals, interacting with them and trying to understand the world as they see it; thus working from the bottom-up rather than taking a neutral, objective stance and dealing with broad populations from a distance, trying to find objective facts and working from the top-down in their search for understanding. Holliday (2002:5) indicates that interpretive researchers see human behaviour as mysterious, multi-layered and complex, and that their main intent is to make sense of, interpret and build a gradual understanding, rather than to find proof, evidence or to look for conclusive, objective explanations. Interpretive research takes an insider position and employs an idiographic
methodology to understand the individual perceptions of participants. Bryman (2001: 12-13) notes that an interpretivist's epistemological position “is predicated upon the view that strategy is required that respects the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action”. Thus knowledge is regarded as subjective, personal and unique, and is obtained by a careful process of induction and observation. Each individual’s way of making sense of the world is as valid and worthy of respect as any other (Crotty, 2003: 58). Auerbach and Silverstein (2003: 3) offer the following definition: “Qualitative research is research that involves analyzing and interpreting texts and interviews in order to discover meaningful patterns descriptive of a particular phenomenon.”

Connole (1993:14) writes in a similar vein: “The interpretive perspective places primary emphasis on this process of understanding. From this, the researcher can identify patterns of meaning which emerge, and then generalize from them.”

Whilst Connole (ibid.) seems to be making the case for the possibility of generalizing from the outputs of interpretive research, it is precisely in its lack of generalisability that interpretive research has come in for much criticism from those who favour the scientifically-based research (SBR) movement initiated in recent years by the National Research Council in the USA; Denzin and Lincoln (2005: 8) indicate that this has created, “a hostile political environment for qualitative research” in some quarters. However, I would agree with Connole that generalizations may be possible if patterns of meaning emerge from the data but I would add that, although possible, generalization is not absolutely necessary if we accept that the aim is to explore and understand particular occurrences in depth.
Further criticism of the interpretive paradigm holds that it “neglects questions about the origins, causes and results of actors adopting certain interpretations of their actions and social life” (Carr and Kemmis, 1986: 95). This suggests that there is a need to examine the relationships between individuals’ interpretations of their worlds and the external factors that influence them. I agree with this point and accept that social interactions and culture play a major part in shaping our worlds. Therefore, this study is informed by a combination of a constructivist and a social constructionist paradigm, whereby the former permits examination of the phenomenon of professional identity from a unique, individual perspective, and the latter permits examination of the same phenomenon as situated within a specific cultural and historical context.

4.4 Research methodology

The notion of professional identity as a perceptual rather than visual or observable phenomenon led me towards a research methodology which would permit participants to explain themselves in a personal, narrative way, and to tell their own professional 'stories' in terms of how they came to the role, how they conceive the role and how they practice the role. I chose to adopt a narrative-based approach to guide this study in the sense that I wanted to hear the participants own voices recounting their own professional 'stories' in a conversational interview with me.

Connelly and Clandinin (1990: 2) first introduced the term narrative inquiry into educational research, defining it as the study of the ways humans experience the world, and established the importance of this as a research methodology that brings “theoretical ideas about the nature of human life as lived to bear on educational experience as lived” (ibid.3). Narrative research, as conceptualized by Connelly and Clandinin, arises from a Deweyian (1938) notion that life is
education. Other theoretical foundations lie in the work of Schwab (1983), who examined the role of deliberation in the planning and implementation of curriculum, as well as Connelly and Clandinin’s (1988) earlier work on teacher knowledge and the role of experience in developing curriculum. Narrative inquiry has gained popularity in educational research today for a number of reasons; the current emphasis on teacher reflection, a focus on teacher knowledge, thought, professional development and classroom practice, and a growing need for teachers to share their experiences (Cortazzi, 1993 in Creswell, 2002: 522).

Clandinin (2012: 148 in Chan, Keyes and Ross eds.) offers specific justification of the use of narrative inquiry as a research methodology in the field of teacher education. She writes:

> As debates swirl around the globe about teacher education, it is important that we continue to inquire deeply and narratively into who we are, and are becoming. It is in this way that we can more fully, and more thoughtfully, engage with the preservice teachers who come to learn with us about whom they are, and are becoming, as teachers. It is in this way that we can more fully, and more thoughtfully, engage in the policy discussions about teacher education.

Using narrative inquiry as a starting point to research teacher educators’ professional identity appears, therefore, to be a logical choice. In the next section I shall explain how I used the principles of narrative inquiry to build a conceptual framework in which to gather and analyze data.

### 4.4.1 Building a conceptual framework

There are multiple forms of narrative research and the field is still very much developing and evolving. In this research I use the term to mean the professional stories, views and opinions that the participants chose to share about their work. Having reached a definition of what professional identity is in
conceptual terms, I needed to address the challenges of how to elicit it in the interviews I conducted with the participants and how to represent it in the resulting research. I thus turned to a consideration of a framework which guides narrative research and then considered how to incorporate this with the conceptual definition of professional identity which I had already arrived at.

Connelly and Clandinin (2006: 479 cited in Clandinin, Pushor and Murray Orr, 2007) acknowledge that narrative inquiry shares features in common with other forms of qualitative inquiry but, in an effort to formulate a conceptual framework to distinguish the qualities of narrative inquiry, they borrow from Schwab’s (1978) writing on curriculum, and recycle the term “commonplaces” to provide a framework for narrative inquiry. For Schwab, “commonplaces” meant the unique qualities of curriculum, which were identified as teacher, learner, subject matter and milieu. Examining narrative inquiry from a similar stance, Connelly and Clandinin (ibid.) identified three “commonplaces” which they believe clarify the distinct qualities of this type of inquiry: temporality, sociality and place. These three “dimensions of an inquiry space” (ibid.) act as a kind of checkpoint, or place to direct one’s attention, when conducting a narrative inquiry. It is important for the researcher to be mindful of all three areas and not to focus on one to the exclusion of others.

I shall now turn to a discussion of each of these three commonplaces and indicate how I have attempted to take account of them and link them to the definition of professional identity which frames this research.

4.4.1.1 Commonplace one: temporality
Clandinin et al (2007) remark that events under scrutiny are always in temporal transition. In other words, events and people have a past, a present and a future, which are always in transition. For example, as I recount in my own
narrative (see section 1.4.1), my younger teacher-educator-self evolved over time as experiences and events influenced and shaped my thought processes about my profession; I am no longer the youthful, enthusiastic but, with hindsight, naive teacher/teacher educator I was. From my current perspective I believe, as a professional educator, I am still a ‘work in progress’. I felt this notion of temporality combined well with the notion that professional identity is always in the process of becoming (Davey, 2013: 31).

4.4.1.2 Commonplace two: sociality
Connelly and Clandinin (2006, cited in Clandinin et al, 2007) write:

In other words, a narrative inquiry should examine individual motivations and the effects of the immediate environment, including students, peers and superiors, on the research participants. I felt that this aspect of a narrative inquiry fitted well with the notions of professional identity as a value-laden and emotional phenomenon which is individually perceived, but socially and culturally negotiated (Davey 2013: 31).

Another dimension of the sociality commonplace noted by Connelly and Clandinin (ibid.) is the relationship between the research participants and the inquirer, in other words, myself. Connelly and Clandinin (ibid.) note that “inquirers are always in an inquiry relationship with participants’ lives. We cannot subtract ourselves from relationship”. I shall discuss this point further in section 4.9.1 when I turn to the question of reflexivity.
4.4.1.3 Commonplace three: place
By place, Connelly and Clandinin (ibid.) are referring to the “specific concrete, physical and topological boundaries of place or sequence of places where the inquiry and events take place”. I felt this tied in well with the notion of membership of an occupational community, which was highlighted in the definition of professional identity. In this study the immediate place, or setting, are the two institutions in the UAE where the participants work. In a broader sense, the place is the UAE at a time of educational reform and revision. Each of these factors will shape and influence individual narratives.

4.4.1.4 Weaving the commonalities together
Davey (2013) has conducted an extensive, longitudinal (5 year) ethnographic study of the lives and work of teacher educators in the New Zealand context and, to do so, she has proposed a methodological framework of five separate analytical lenses through which to explore the professional identity of her research participants. Davey’s framework is composed of the following foci of analysis:

- **Becoming** a teacher educator
- **Doing** teacher education
- **Knowing** teacher education
- **Being** a teacher educator
- **Belonging** as a teacher educator.

Davey 2013: 39

As a more modest, smaller scale exploration into the lives of my research participants, I chose to start with Connolly and Clandinin’s three dimensional narrative space, and to identify intersection points between the commonalities
of the narrative, aspects of Daveys' framework, and the features of professional identity outlined in the literature review. The resulting preliminary framework is illustrated in figure 2 below.

![Figure 2 Initial methodological framework](image)

4.5 Expanding the framework
Auerbach and Silverstein (2003: 18) note that it is important in a study such as this one to review the research literature on the phenomenon in question, in this case the notion of professional identity, in order to prepare pertinent questions to take the research participants through their history with the phenomenon in what they term a “narrative interview”. Having established an initial framework, as illustrated in figure 2, I was then able to choose and adapt from Davey’s (ibid.) original five analytical foci to establish a series of themes, or topics, which I thought would best enable me to access, or elicit, the participants’ sense of professional identity in interview, and which would subsequently become the lenses I would use to analyze and categorize characteristics of individual and
collective professional identity narratives. The expanded framework is illustrated in figure 3 below.

4.6 The research participants and their settings
For this research purposive sampling was used to select the participants.

Cohen et al (2007:114-115) note that with this kind of sampling researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample in terms of their typicality. They further explain that, whilst this type of sampling may satisfy the needs of the researcher, it does not represent the wider population and should, therefore, be considered as subjective and selective. In this particular study I was attempting to explore the nature of the professional identity of the research participants in their role as teacher educators in the UAE. I had initially hoped to interview ten or twelve teacher educators in the two colleges. However, staff departures occurred in both institutions reducing the number of available teacher educators. Despite this, I was, in fact, fortunate enough to be able to get the
cooperation of two complete populations. By this I mean that I was able to work with all the remaining team members of the English teacher education departments in institution B and all the team members of the BEd. In Institution A, a total of eight participants, five from institution A and the remaining three from Institution B. In addition, two of the participants, Sally and Kylie, like me, had been team members in both institutions, with Kylie having recently returned to institution A after a brief period in institution B. The participants based in Institution B, in addition to mentoring and supervising the practicum, were responsible for the teaching of courses specifically related to ELT such as phonology and various ELT methodology courses. By contrast, those in institution A teach the whole range of courses offered across the BEd. Degree including modules such as Childhood Development, Education Studies, Classroom Management, Educational Psychology etc. As well as working in two separate institutions, the two teams could be further sub-divided in terms of experience in the role of teacher educator, and in length of time spent in the UAE. With the exception of Sally, the individuals working in Institution B had four or fewer years of experience in teacher education and in the UAE, whereas, with the sole exception of Joanna, the team in institution A had considerably more collective experience in both teacher education and in the UAE (full details of this may be found in Appendix 1).

All of the participants were female; in Institution A there are no male educators involved in the teaching of the BEd. Degree and, although there are some males involved in teacher education in Institution B, they are not involved in the ELT education components of the course, therefore my sample was limited to females only. A further notable characteristic of this group of participants is that they were also all from a western background and, perhaps significantly, none
of them spoke anything more than basic survival Arabic, despite, in some cases, a lengthy period spent in the UAE. It was noted in chapter 2 that the language context of the UAE is complex and that English has emerged as the lingua franca through which many of the resident nationalities communicate; whilst I do not condone it, it has been my experience of the UAE that few expatriate westerners bother to acquaint themselves with anything more than basic Arabic. In addition, the fact that all came from a western background is not necessarily surprising given that the higher education system of the UAE is largely built “upon standards, systems and faculty imported from Western Europe and North America” (Mackenzie-Smith 2008:21). Hudson ((2013: 51) notes that the “myth” of the superiority of the native speaker teacher of English has strongly influenced hiring practices in the UAE, resulting in a situation where native speakers tend to be in the majority in institutions of higher education in the field of ELT. In this study, all of the participants were originally recruited to their respective institutions as English language teachers who later found themselves co-opted into acting as teacher educators; the only slight exception to this is Jane who, in the course of applying for an ELT position, was diverted to the BEd. department at a time of staff shortages. Further detailed biographical details about the research participants may be found in Appendix 1.

Creswell (2002: 194) explains that purposive sampling applies to both individuals and sites. In this research the sites chosen were two (of the three) institutions in Abu Dhabi which have Bachelor of Education programmes to prepare teachers. My ‘insider’ knowledge, having worked in both institutions, was both an advantage and a disadvantage and, as discussed below, required me to be reflexively vigilant in order to allow the voices of the research
participants to be heard. However, the insider knowledge also helped me in terms of the purposive selection, as I felt both fitted well into the three dimensional inquiry space of the narrative: institution B is a relatively new institution and all aspects of it, from teaching teams to facilities to curriculum, are still very much evolving, whereas, in contrast, Institution A is very well-established both in terms of the BEd programme and, with only one exception, the teaching team involved in it. I felt these contrasting factors would, at the very least, be of interest and might well prove to be rich sites for data collection within the three dimensions of the narrative.

4.7 Data collection: epistemological considerations
The research tool I selected for this study was semi-structured interviews, aiming to collect qualitative data through which to “explore, catch glimpses, illuminate and then try to interpret bits of reality” (Holliday, 2002:5) as the participants told their ‘stories’ through the course of the interviews. Grix (2004) maintains that the choice of method should be determined by the research question, and further notes that the methods themselves should be seen as free from ontological and epistemological assumptions but that a particular method, employed in a particular way by a researcher, will inevitably associate it with a particular paradigm. In this case interviews seemed to be the most logical way of collecting data since they allow participants to focus on their perception of themselves, of their environment and of their experiences. As Kvale (1996: 1) writes, “If you want to know how people understand their world and their lives, why not talk with them?” Kvale (ibid. 47) goes on to present two contrasting metaphors of the interviewer – interviewer as miner and interviewer as traveller – which he maintains illustrate the different epistemological conceptions of interviewing, either as a process of knowledge collection, or one of knowledge
construction respectively (ibid: 48). The latter metaphor represents the approach to interviewing taken in this study as I attempt to act as the interviewer-traveller in conversation with the research participants; as Kvale (ibid: 48) notes, the “conversation” in this case is in line with the original Latin meaning of the word as a form of “wandering together with”, whereby the interviewer-traveller “walks along with the local inhabitants, asking questions and encouraging them to tell their own stories of their lived world” (ibid). Thus the choice of interviews as a data collection tool links logically to the notion of narrative inquiry.

Richards (2003:50) notes that interviews allow us to “pursue understanding in all its complex, elusive and shifting forms [...] and to establish a relationship with people that allows us to share in their perception of the world”. Cohen et al (2007: 349) characterize the interview as a flexible data collection tool capable of collecting responses to a wide range of deep and complex social issues.

4.7.1 Effective Interviewing
Kvale (1996: 148-149) offers very clear guidelines for effective interviewing, which I attempted to follow in conducting the interviews. Kvale (ibid.) explains that the interviewer should:

- Be knowledgeable about the subject matter so that an informed conversation may take place.
- State clearly the purpose of the interview and the structure it will take.
- Be clear in expressing the subject matter
- Proceed in a gentle manner allowing participants to verbalize their thoughts and feelings in their own way and at their own rate.
- Be empathetic and aware of and sensitive to the non-verbal aspects of the communication in addition to the verbal aspects.
- Be an active listener, open to new aspects introduced by the interviewee and prepared to follow up on them.
• Be purposeful in steering the conversation to keep it to the point.
• Question participants critically in ways that will allow checking for consistency and reliability of the statements made
• Relate back to what has already been said in the interview to make links and elicit elaborations
• Interpret through clarifying and confirming what has and has not been said.

In following Kvale’s guidelines outlined above, the interviews I conducted may be described as semi-structured in the sense that they were not simply random conversations but rather a purposeful professional conversation in order to “obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena” (Kvale, 1996:5-6).

Auerbach and Silverstein (2003: 16) recommend asking no more than six very general questions which are flexible enough to give participants opportunities to bring up unanticipated topics, but they also note that getting the questions right is not necessarily as crucial as one might suppose, since giving the research participants the opportunity to talk about what matters to them will often shed light on the research area. Mindful of this, and taking into consideration the potential analytical themes outlined in the expanded methodological framework in figure 3 I drew up the following preliminary interview schedule as a pilot.
Before conducting the actual interviews I contacted each participant in advance by telephone and asked them if they would be willing to participate in the research. In this initial conversation I explained the purpose of the research and clarified that it would be conducted through an interview lasting between one and one-and-a-half hours which would be recorded and transcribed for analysis. I made it clear to participants that they were not under any obligation to participate, and that if there arose any question with which they were uncomfortable they did not need to answer it. I also made it clear to the potential participants that their identity would be protected by use of a pseudonym and that I would supply each of them with a copy of the interview transcript for checking and in the event any further clarification was required. Following these initial conversations all of the participants agreed to take part in the research and I subsequently arranged to meet with each participant at a place of their choice.
When I met with each participant for the purpose of conducting the interview I reiterated the above information and supplied each participant with two copies of the University of Exeter Graduate School of Education Consent form for signing (see Appendix 4). Participants retained one copy, whilst I retained the other. When I was sure each participant was comfortable and clear about what was going to happen, I began the actual interview process. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, and then returned to each participant for checking before the transcripts were subjected to any detailed analysis. Kvale (1996: 166-167) notes that there are problems involved in transcription in terms of the inherent differences between an oral and a written mode of discourse. He writes that “the apparently incoherent statements” which may occur in a transcription, “may be coherent within the context of a living conversation, with vocal intonation, facial expressions and body language supporting, giving nuances to, or even contradicting what is said”(167). In order to minimize these problems, I transcribed the interviews as quickly as possible after they were recorded and included short memos whenever I needed further clarification to help later in the analysis of the data. The memos were included in the transcripts sent to the participants for their further comment; samples from the transcripts are included as Appendix 2. I used capital letters to represent vocal emphasis and (…) to indicate long pauses. In the event, as all but one of the research participants are native speakers of English, the process of transcribing the actual words used was relatively unproblematic.

4.7.2 Piloting the interview
I used the first interview as a pilot to check whether or not my general questions were effective in eliciting useful data, and to act as a kind of rehearsal for the subsequent interviews. I listened to the pilot interview immediately afterwards; I
felt the interview had yielded useful data but, in having such specific pre-
determined questions, I felt it had become more structured than I had intended
and I felt I needed to revisit the initial interview schedule in order to introduce
more probing and less structure.

Richards (2003: 69) asserts that an interview schedule such as the one I had
initially devised encourages what he calls an “eyes down” approach that fails to
spot opportunities in the interview. He suggests, rather, drawing up an
“interview guide”, which can be used as a resource rather than a “straitjacket”
(\textit{ibid}: 64), and which is not designed solely in terms of questions but more in
terms of main topics and possible subsidiary topics. Richards (\textit{ibid}: 70) advises
that the so-called “big questions”, or main topics, can act as a guide but that it
is important to sketch out in advance the possible subsidiary lines of inquiry that
may emerge and which can then be followed up when, and if, appropriate,
providing one is attentively listening to the interviewee and responsive to
nuances. Radnor (1994: 13) offers similar advice and suggests using a number
of open questions to elicit responses pertinent to the research area, but within
each open-ended question to be mindful of areas we might “like to pick up on”
(14). With this in mind, I decided to review my interview schedule to see how it
could be refined to be closer to the desired semi-structured conversational
interview I was aiming at. Following Richards’ and Radnor’s format of “pick up
points”, I reworked the schedule to be more open, yet still leaving reminders for
me as interviewer of areas to ‘pick up on’ which linked back to the guiding
framework (see fig. 3). By limiting my direct questions but expanding my
potential ‘pick up’ points, I was able to use probes and redirections to cover
areas I was interested in, whilst not being so closely bound to a ‘script of the
next question’ format, which the original schedule seemed to impose. The revised interview guide is below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Main guiding questions</th>
<th>Possible pick-ups for probing within main question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Becoming/Temporality</td>
<td>• Tell me about your professional background and qualifications.</td>
<td>• Professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Motivations for teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Driving forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Job satisfactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being + Doing/Sociality</td>
<td>• What is involved in your role as teacher educator?</td>
<td>• Similarities to teaching, differences to teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Likes, dislikes, influences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Job (dis)satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Professional influences and beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belonging/Place</td>
<td>• What supports your role?</td>
<td>• Relationships: colleagues and peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Sources of frustration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Community involvements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Place within the college/the school</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Revised interview guide

In the course of the remaining interviews I adopted this more active listening approach, and was more mindful of potential areas to pick up on to probe further if participants themselves raised them or suggested them. I also made use of various interview techniques such as elaborating probes (e.g. ‘tell me more about that…’) ‘Could you give me an example of that……’ etc.) and clarifying probes (e.g. ‘Why?’….‘could you explain that further…’ etc.) to elicit more information and attempt to get participants to explain things in more depth. Following Kvale (1996: 148-149), I was actively engaged in keeping the participants talking by the use of mirroring techniques (e.g. ‘So are you saying
that…’) and empathetic encouragers (e.g.’ Mm’, ‘Yes..’, ‘uh huh..’ etc.) to keep the conversation going.

Although I acknowledge Stake’s (1995: 46) view that in interviews the spectre of “entrapment is regularly on the horizon”, meaning that I, as interviewer, needed to approach the tasks of interviewing, and later analysis, from a reflexive stance and needed to be consciously aware of my own role in the process, I sincerely believe the active listening approach which I have described above, and the conscious awareness I eventually brought to the task of interviewing, enabled me to become, at least to a certain extent, a co-constructor of the data, thus fulfilling Kvale’s role of interviewer as traveller.

4.8 Approaching the data
Riessmann (2005:2) explains that there exist several models of narrative analysis but a typical approach is to use a thematic analysis where the emphasis is on the content of a text, “‘what’ is said more than ‘how’ it is said, the ‘told’ rather than the ‘telling’”, and the resulting representational strategy is typically small vignettes or case studies. As I had used Clandinin and Connelly’s (2000: 50) three dimensions of narrative space as part of the conceptual framework used to gather the data, a thematic analysis based around these three dimensions seemed to be the most logical starting point. Clandinin and Connelly (ibid.) explain,

> Studies have temporal dimensions and address temporal matters; they focus on the personal and social […] and they occur in specific places or sequences of places.

In order to create the vignettes I began by gathering factual biographical information from the data about areas such as professional history, qualifications and motivations for becoming a teacher educator. I limited my
interpretations of individual stories to those which could be supported directly from the data using participants’ own words wherever possible, and I used this information to compile a short biographical vignette, or narrative, for each participant, describing how they had come to be teacher educators and outlining the thoughts and feelings about their jobs and professional experiences which they had shared with me (see Appendix 1). I shared these vignettes with participants to ensure my understandings up to this point were accurate.

The narratives, or biographies, which emerged from this preliminary analysis of the data were revealing insofar as it became clear that the participants could be split into two distinct groups; the first group, comprising Kylie, Jane, May, Rose and Sally, displayed a strong professional identity as teacher educators whilst the second group, Joanna, Amanda and Mary, did not seem to identify as strongly with the role. However, whilst the stories were illuminating to this extent, it was much more difficult to pinpoint with any degree of confidence, how and why some of the participants displayed a strong sense of professional identity as teacher educators whilst others did not; in other words what were the factors that made the difference?

Riessmann (2000) is a strong proponent for narrative analysis but even she admits that it is “one approach, not a panacea, suitable for some situations, not others”. In constructing the biographical narratives above, I came to understand that people hold multi-layered meanings about themselves just as much as they function in multiple contexts, and therefore, to really understand, or ‘know’ an individual, is not possible. I felt that I had a clear understanding of whether or not the individuals involved had a sense of professional identity as teacher educators, but less idea of how that sense of professional identity had come to be developed or of what it actually comprises, which is important from the
perspective of my research questions. Bertaux (1995: 2 cited in Riessmann 2000) acknowledges that research participants may represent themselves in their narrative accounts in the way that they wish to be perceived by others; the narratives are therefore subjective and open to interpretation. From a social constructionist perspective, the “truth” of the individual narratives is not the most important factor, as Riessmann (2000) states: “The “truths” of narrative accounts lie not in their faithful representation of a past world, but in the shifting connections they forge between past, present and future”. I felt that the individual narratives would be an interesting but somewhat limited first approach to the data and it was always my intention to undertake a further, more systematic, analysis of the data in order to arrive at interpretations which might be more robustly defended. Bertaux (ibid.) claims that by collecting a number of stories from the same or similar sources, the researcher can potentially uncover “recurrent patterns concerning collective phenomena or share collective experience in a particular milieu”. With this in mind, I reviewed the data again to attempt what Radnor (1994: 18) terms “a descriptive/interpretive analysis”. Radnor explains that this involves firstly identifying the discrete elements (or descriptors) in the data and then ordering the discrete elements into categories (ibid.), in other words undertaking a process of systematically coding the data. The steps I followed to achieve this will be discussed in the following section.

4.8.1 Coding the data
Saldana (2009) provides in depth guidance on procedures to follow when coding data and on the various different types of codes one might use to do so. He explains that different approaches to coding may be appropriate for different types of study, the most typical being the approach adopted in “classic or re-envisioned grounded theory”(49), but he also explains that other approaches
are perfectly acceptable if they are deemed appropriate to the study: “your choice of coding method(s) and even a provisional list of codes [could] be determined beforehand to harmonize with your study’s conceptual framework or paradigm and to enable an analysis that directly answers your research questions “(49). I decided, therefore, to continue to base my analysis on the existing conceptual framework of the three-dimensional narrative space and to use the categories I had already established within this to guide and frame my coding process. In order to do this I began by drawing up on large separate flip chart sheets three matrices, one for each dimension; I divided the paper into nine separate columns, one column for each research participant and in the first, left-hand, column I listed the different categories within each dimension. I then went through each transcript in detail, completing short descriptive or ‘in vivo’ codes (indicated by italics and quotation marks) where appropriate under the different categories for each participant. I repeated this process several times for each participant until I was satisfied that I had reached “a saturation point” (Cohen et al, 2007: 494), when no further insights or codes were forthcoming. By cross referencing with each column I was able to get a more systematic confirmation of my initial impression that some of the research participants identified more strongly as a professional teacher educator than others, but I still needed to pinpoint the factors that made up a strong sense of professional identity. In order to try to get at this, I then typed up all the codes for the five participants exhibiting a strong sense of professional identity into three lists, one for each dimension. Looking at the initial lists I drew up, it soon became apparent that many of the codes were overlapping or identical and could, therefore, be reduced: for example, the various different roles mentioned by course participants such as mentor, coach, evaluator etc., could
all be grouped under a single code as “multiple roles”. Thus by a process of constant comparison and refinement I was able to reduce the original long lists of codes, and was able to group them into broader and more abstract categories. Examples of various stages in the coding process are included as Appendix 3.

By following this lengthy inductive procedure for each of the three dimensions I was able to come up with a set of broad categories which I was satisfied captured the essence of the nature of the participants’ sense of professional identity as I interpreted it; Schutt (2012: 321) describes this as an hermeneutic process, during which “a researcher is constructing a “reality” with his or her interpretations of a text provided by the subjects of research”, but he also acknowledges that “other researchers, with different backgrounds, could come to markedly different conclusions” (ibid.). Nevertheless, I was satisfied with the findings I reached, which I consider are not only common-sense assertions, which to a large extent mirror my own experiences, but are also interrelated across the dimensions of time, place and social context. I outline the findings which relate specifically to the small group of teacher educators in the UAE who have been the subject of this research in the chapter which follows.

4.9 Research Issues
Merriam (1998: 199) states that researchers and others must be able to have confidence in the conduct of an investigation and in the results of any particular study. The research undertaken must be shown to be trustworthy and to have been conducted in an ethical manner, which, in a positivist paradigm, generally refers to the reliability and validity of the study. However, it has been argued that qualitative research which is based on different assumptions about the nature of reality and a specific worldview, should consider the questions of
validity and reliability from a perspective congruent with the philosophical assumptions underlying the paradigm (Merriam ibid. 200). Guba (1981), in a pioneering attempt to formulate alternative criteria for assessing validity in interpretive research, proposed the following categories: credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. However, others (e.g. Lather, 2007) have been critical of such formulations on the grounds that they remain rooted in the ‘scientificity’ of a positivistic paradigm. Spencer, Ritchie, Lewis and Dillon (2003) have produced a detailed review of the literature surrounding evaluation criteria for qualitative research and they conclude that the whole issue of quality in qualitative research has been, and remains, a hotly contested area (38). They explain that various positions are evident throughout the literature, ranging from a rejection of quality criteria altogether (e.g. Smith 1984, 1990), to retention of concepts common to both quantitative and qualitative research (e.g. Le Compte and Goetz,1982; Kirk and Miller , 1986 cited in Spencer et al ibid: 39). Indeed, as they explain (ibid. 41), the debate ranges around fundamental questions such as what is even meant by ‘criteria’, and whether the underlying philosophical assumptions of qualitative research themselves make the nature of ‘criteria’ problematic. However, they conclude that the very flexibility of qualitative methods means that some assurances are needed that the research has been conducted thoroughly and professionally (ibid. 42). In this study I have attempted to be both flexible and creative, whilst at the same time being both rigorous and transparent by focusing specifically on the areas of reflexivity and neutrality, ethics and trustworthiness.

4.9.1 Reflexivity and neutrality
Reflexivity entails awareness that researchers are inescapably part of the world that they are researching (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983 in Cohen et al,
2007: 171). Given that my own biographical background and experience as a teacher educator will inevitably shape my own views of the process of teacher education, I have been mindful throughout this research of the need for vigilance and reflexivity to avoid unwittingly drowning out the voices of my research participants. As an ‘interested’ participant in this study – indeed my own personal narrative was part of the initial justifying impetus for it and I have been at various times a colleague and co-worker of the research participants - I am aware that I could be open to accusations centering on “the plotline of meaning-making” (Hamilton 2012: xiii), in the sense that, as discussed in section 1.6, some critics suggest that narrative researchers begin with answers and then merely sift through individuals’ stories to identify instances which illustrate the answers they intend to assert. However, I felt that in some measure my familiarity with the research setting and the work the research participants are engaged in might also increase the likelihood of particular shared educational discourses emerging from the data, and decrease the possibility for other ‘jarring’ discourses to emerge. The shared experiences of particular activities within specific institutional and social settings might, I felt, enable a deeper exploration of the ways in which our professional identities are being constructed. In addition, as, at the time of data collection and analysis, I was not engaged in the act of teacher education and had no connection with teacher development, I hoped that I would be able to approach the processes of collecting and analyzing the data from a certain point of distance, in that I was not at that point living the particular story of being a teacher educator. Nevertheless, I remain mindful of the need to retain an open-mindedness and constant conscious interrogation of the data in order to monitor my own interactions with the research participants, and to remain vigilant for the
possibility of the emergence of my own biases, and to this end, in my efforts to allow my research participants voices to emerge, I gave them copies of the unedited transcripts of our interview conversations and invited further comment and discussion. In addition I shared with the participants my construction of their stories, again inviting further comment and dialogue from their perspectives rather than simply my own.

4.9.2 Ethics
Ethical outlines were followed according to the University of Exeter's adherence to the British Educational Research Association's (BERA) recommendations; BERA requires researchers to structure ethical aspects of a study giving specific attention to an ethic of respect for the persons involved in the research, for knowledge and democratic values and for the quality of the research (BERA, 2004:5). Therefore, prior to commencing data collection I completed and submitted the necessary ethical form for University approval (see Appendix 4).

Whilst ethical review is mandatory for all research with human participants, I defined the risk of stress, inconvenience or discomfort for the participants in this study as low. My position as researcher does not equate to any position of power or authority over the participants. I no longer work in either institution involved, although I still enjoy informal relations with the research participants. I did not, therefore, feel that there was any element of risk or coercion to participate and, indeed, all respondents freely expressed their willingness to be involved. Before beginning each interview, as explained above in section 4.7.1, I guaranteed that the interviews would be confidential and all privacy issues adhered to. I dealt with the research participants in a ‘common-sense’ manner, explaining the purpose of the study ahead of the interview and obtaining written
consent in advance (see Appendix 4). I also explained that the participants had the right to withdraw from the research at any time, and for any reason. My interview questions were unlikely to cause distress and the conditions under which the interviews were conducted, at a time and place of the respondents own choosing, were designed to minimize inconvenience. Nevertheless, I was aware that had I discovered any sensitive information which could have a bearing on the life or well-being of an individual, I would have a moral duty to do something about it such as referring them to someone who might provide support or counselling. In the event such a circumstance never arose.

Maintaining privacy is an important consideration in a study of this nature and I gave assurances that nothing discussed during the interviews would be attributed to particular individuals. No real names were put on the interview transcripts, instead pseudonyms were used. Once initial transcripts were prepared, a copy was provided for each participant to validate its contents and each participant was given the opportunity to erase any comments or details they were not happy with, although, in the event, none of the participants requested any changes and all of them approved both the transcripts of interviews and the biographical narratives I subsequently constructed from them. Access to the transcripts was restricted to the individual involved and myself, transcripts from other participants were not shared. Throughout the data analysis respondents were kept appraised of the emerging findings, and were asked for feedback and comment at each stage before a final copy of the findings was sent to them.

4.9.3 Trustworthiness
In order to demonstrate the trustworthiness of the data and findings of this study, I have made every effort to ensure that an audit trail which can allow
readers to determine for themselves the authenticity of this research is apparent.

In the conduct of the research, and throughout this discussion of the research methodology, I have been careful to explain my choices and decisions, and have outlined systematically the steps I took to arrive at the point of data collection, including the changes and amendments I made during the process. The main documents involved in this study (e.g. interview guides, conceptual frameworks, extracts from interview transcripts, samples of data analysis, ethical approval forms etc.) are either included in the main body of the study, or attached in the accompanying appendices. I asked the participants to approve both the typed interview transcripts and the various interpretations of the findings in terms of how accurately they represented their perspectives. I also invited comment and clarification from them on the memos where they were included in the transcripts.

In chapter two I have provided a detailed overview of the background context in which the research is set, and I have acknowledged that my selection of research participants was purposeful and based in two sites in Abu Dhabi. Insofar as these individuals are all engaged in the preparation of teachers and are at two distinct career stages I feel it is reasonable to assume that their experiences might be representative of others’ experience, certainly within the context of the UAE and, potentially, beyond.

In my discussion and analysis of the data I attempt to provide a rich, thick description and interpretation of the facts according to the theoretical framework that locates the study, and I clarify the raw data with discussion and explanation.
focusing on both the research questions and the existing literature to provide theoretical support.

4.9.4 Summary
Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999: 426) note that interpretive research often has many illustrative quotes or anecdotes, and this is particularly true of narrative inquiry. However, as a result researchers may often “feel their way” to conclusions as well as relying on personal experience and background knowledge of the field, so I have been careful to state clearly my own position vis-a-vis the question of professional identity in teacher education and vis-a-vis the research participants. As noted above, I have consciously adopted a reflexive approach as well as making every effort to ensure that ethical considerations are taken into account. In addition, I have left a clear audit trail through which readers may determine for themselves the quality of this work. In the chapter which follows I present and discuss my findings.
Chapter 5 Presentation and discussion of the findings

5.1 Introduction
I began this exploratory study with the following broad research questions:

- How do teachers become teacher educators?
- How do teacher educators perceive their role?
- What informs the practice of teacher educators?
- In what ways does the local context of the UAE affect the sense of professional identity of those teacher educators working there?

In preparing to research these questions, I conducted a review of the literature on teacher educators (presented in chapter three) which led me to the understanding that at the heart of these questions lies the notion of professional identity. Parlitt and Hamilton (1976 cited in Schutt, 2012: 322) explains that it is not uncommon in the course of exploratory research for additional concepts to emerge which need to be investigated and explored and thus necessitate some adjustments on the part of the researcher; they call this process “progressive focussing”. Therefore, in order to seek answers to the original questions with which I began this study, I devised a conceptual framework which placed the notion of professional identity at the centre and used the three narrative dimensions of time, sociality and space to shape the process of data collection.

In other words, I placed the four research questions above within one of the three dimensions and these became the “lenses”(Davey 2013: 39) through which I collected and scrutinised the data in order to arrive at the set of findings I present in this chapter. Figure 4, overleaf, illustrates this.
In the sections below I focus on each research question in turn, presenting the categories and themes from the data in tabular form at the beginning of each section before briefly discussing them. The themes are those which emerged from the data prompted by my interview questioning within the three dimensions, and although each is addressed separately in this preliminary presentation and discussion, they are inevitably interlinked and interwoven and will be considered more holistically in the final summary discussion of findings which follows this chapter. In the discussions below I include extracts from the raw data to support my interpretations, attributing the extracts to individuals using pseudonyms to protect anonymity.
5.2 Temporality: becoming a teacher educator

“...who I am, professionally, is a function of, and inexorable dialogue between, ‘where I have come from’ and ‘what I want to be’”

Davey, 2013: 45

RQ1: How do teachers become teacher educators?

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>• Pathways</td>
<td>i. The how: accident or design?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ii. The why: motivations</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Learning on the job</td>
<td>iii. Induction</td>
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<td>iv. Ongoing professional development</td>
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5.2.1 Pathways: the how, accident or design?

Of the eight participants in this study (see Appendix 1 for biographical details), some became teacher educators via a planned or purposeful route, whilst others found themselves working as teacher educators by a process of chance or, some might say, serendipity.

Seeking greater job satisfaction, moving into teacher education as a logical progression from the classroom or as a career move were the various reasons which prompted some participants to become teacher educators. Typical comments from those who actively pursued the role included:

“teacher education just seemed like the right thing for me at that stage, with all my experience, in terms of classroom experience teaching younger learners, and also the opportunities in terms of the reform programme here, it just seemed really exciting and very inviting so that’s how I landed in teacher education” (Rose)

“I found out how to get into that programme because that’s where I thought I would get more job satisfaction, and that has proved to be the case”. (Sally)

“well I started off as a primary teacher for 10 years […]then moving to [name of country] where again I was a primary teacher [and I also] got
experience teaching adults in [name of country] and at the university. From there I studied my Masters in literacy and language education and then I went into teacher education” (May)

One participant explains that although she had both a previous interest in, and experience of, working with novice teachers, and actively pursued the role when the opportunity arose, she regards actually getting the position as more a matter of serendipity than design. She describes getting the job as a case of “being in the right place at the right time” (Kylie), indicating that, despite actively pursuing the role, her successful appointment was more a matter of luck than chance.

However, the element of chance seems to be a greater factor for some of the other participants and was linked more to staff shortages within their institutions than to personal ambitions or career planning. In other words, in terms of personnel decisions, it appears that there were, at certain times, no coherent recruitment policies in place and individuals were simply co-opted into position regardless of whether they wanted to do it or not, and with seemingly little regard for whether their background experiences and/or qualifications made them suitable candidates for the job. For example, Joanna describes how the job was thrust upon her:

“As I said, it happened like many things in my life by sheer accident. I was hired to teach a certain number of hours and one of my groups collapsed and I was given an alternative to take these student teacher courses or not, so I said why not? I’ll try and see what it’s about. So I was thrown into the class and that’s how it happened.” (Joanna)

Another participant described her appointment in the following terms:

“they were desperate, I had applied previously for an English teacher’s job, I had no interest in teacher education to be honest. I wanted to continue what I was doing, so I actually got this job by chance but I loved it straight away and since I’ve been in this job, I’ve always tried to develop professionally.” (Jane)
Jane’s statement above, seems to indicate that the she felt an immediate affinity with the job; however, these sentiments are not replicated in the comments of others who found themselves co-opted as teacher educators. There is some sense of detachment, or indifference, in the comments of the other ‘accidental’ teacher educators. Maryellen, for example, says:

“..overall teaching teachers or future teachers is..uhh..well I wouldn’t really say more rewarding, maybe just different” (Maryellen)

Amanda’s sense of reluctance is evident in the statement below:

“when I was asked to teach this course I didn’t feel that necessarily I was the person trained with the adequate coursework in phonology to teach this, I had a half course in phonology, not a full course in phonology in my Masters, so I kind of felt pushed, or invited depending on your mood on the day, to teach this course with someone who was SUPPOSEDLY to be the person to guide me through and help me learn through this process of becoming a phonology teacher”. (Amanda)

This same participant made it clear to me in a follow up email that she has a ‘take it or leave it’ attitude to teacher education and does not intend to actively pursue a future career in the field: “if it is required in a future job, fine, if not, also fine” (Amanda, personal communication 2012).

One of the ‘accidental’ teacher educators, Joanna, expressed her feelings about her work very strongly, appearing to feel more than just indifferent to it, but possibly going so far as to reject it entirely as part of her personal self-image:

“I don’t want to think of myself as a teacher or as an educator, because for me it is a person who is not very successful [….] I don’t think of myself as an educator, I wouldn’t call myself an educator [….] I don’t call myself that, for me labelling yourself as an educator, or educational professional means nothing. It really means nothing, when I say this is the action and this is the practice, the noun itself, teacher educator, has a pejorative meaning”. (Joanna)
These sentiments, expressed by Joanna, seem jarring and inconsistent with the attitudes of a professional educator but careful scrutiny of the data has led me to the conclusion that Joanna is something of an anomaly in this study; I shall return to this point in section 5.3.3 of this discussion.

Discussing the routes into the profession of teacher educators in New Zealand, Davey (2013: 51) offers two metaphors - that of “seekers” and that of “foundlings” to describe, respectively, those who arrive purposefully at the role versus those who become teacher educators by chance or by accident. It can be seen from the above presentation of the data that the participants in this study fall into either one or the other of these two distinct groups: Sally, Rose, Kylie and May could all be described as “seekers”, whilst Maryellen, Joanna and Amanda would best be described as “foundlings”. Jane would also be best described as a “foundling”, having come into the job purely by chance; however, her immediate affinity with the role, and evident enjoyment of it, mark her out as different from the other ‘accidental’ teacher educators.

Whichever route one takes into teacher education, it should be seen as a major career decision and one which requires a reorientation of one’s professional practice; in their guidelines for the induction of new teacher educators in the UK, Boyd, Harris and Murray (2011:6), write that the process of becoming a teacher educator “involves critical changes in professional practice and identity”. The notion of becoming a teacher educator is, therefore, rather more complex than simply being appointed to the position and the following section will examine the motivations of the teacher educators in this study.

5.2.2 Pathways: the why, motivations
In the section above, it emerged that the participants in this study generally followed one of two distinct routes into the profession of teacher educator. It is a
logical assumption that those characterised as *seekers*, whose route into the job was purposeful, would have clear and more specific motivations to become teacher educators than those who found themselves unexpectedly thrust into the role. Career ambitions and progression might be assumed to be a potential motivating factor to seek such a position; for example, in a study of female teacher educators in faculties of education in Canada, Acker (1997) identified conscious intention and deliberate career planning as two of the motivating factors prompting the move to teacher education and it could be said that my own progression into teacher education fits this pattern. Similarly, Dinkelman (2011) describes how he purposefully left a school teaching background to return to higher education in order to enhance his qualifications with the express intention of moving into teacher education. However, these findings were largely not replicated in the data in this study as discussed below.

Of the so-called *seekers* in this study, the general sense which emerges from the data is that they wanted to become teacher educators in order to achieve greater job satisfaction in a personal sense, rather than necessarily regarding the move into teacher education as one which would lead to further career progression in the UAE or other contexts. The comments below are typical of those who were actively seeking more personal and professional satisfaction in their work, and who saw teacher education as potentially offering this:

“I am never happy myself, just teaching English, because the things you do (...) because teaching English itself, is much more like a training activity, which I don’t mind, I enjoy it. BUT(...) really the nicest job I had, or one of the nicest jobs I’ve had, was being a teacher of history, because there you are teaching deep thinking skills, deep critical things, really stimulating teaching and equally as rewarding as the teacher education” (Sally)

“I find being a teacher educator, my role is far more collegial, I feel far more equal to the students and I enjoy that. I guess I see it as my job to
facilitate and help them be, you know, the best teacher they can be” (Kylie)

“it’s a role that I really enjoy […] I actually think I prefer it to classroom teaching” (Rose)

On the issue of translating current employment into future career progression opportunities, there was also a recognition amongst some of the participants that the unique environment in which they are working is a factor in ensuring job satisfaction, and that this may not be transferable to other contexts as the comments below indicate:

“because of the programme that I work in, we’re lucky, but if I was in a university and I was a lecturer, I think that would be very difficult and I don't know how I would cope in that kind of environment in education, as a teacher educator” (Jane)

“we were in the very lucky situation that we had all of us very involved in the programme, we had a good overview of the programme […] whereas I think if you were in a big university and you were just teaching one little course, you might not really know what the students were doing” (Sally)

Implicit in some of the comments above is some sense of the service aspect of teaching as a profession which contributes to personal growth and development, for example Sally’s enjoyment of fostering critical thinking and Kylie’s desire to help her students to become the best teachers they can be. As noted in section 5.1 above, there is a degree of overlapping and linkage within themes and the service, or mission, aspect of educators’ professional lives is one I will return to in more depth in section 5.4 of this discussion.

Career ambitions then, perhaps surprisingly, did not emerge from this data as a major motivating factor for becoming a teacher educator, although there was one notable exception to this as illustrated by the extract below from May:
“I was interested in this area [teacher education] from the very start and (...) well in [name of home country] they’ve just started in the last few years, and this is something I was hoping to get into in the future, was [sic] new lecturers now entering universities, they’re providing training for new lecturers in methods of teaching in the classroom. So not necessarily teacher educators but anybody that enters college teaching, they would be given classes on different methods of teaching(...) and yeah I’m hoping to get into this area because I feel that is something I could contribute to because I feel that I would be able to do it, it would challenge me to be the best I could be.” (May)

Thus it could be said that the motivating factors for May were both personal, in the sense of seeking job satisfaction through professional challenge, and instrumental, or purposeful, in the sense that, unlike others in this study, she sees her teacher education role in the UAE as being a foundation for further career progression back in her home country.

5.2.3 Learning on the job: induction
As noted in chapter three, teacher learning is characterised by a transition from a peripheral or novice position, to a full, or expert position. The transition period for teachers has been identified as both emotional and frequently disturbing(Korthagen et al 2001: 32). Davey (2013: 57) and Boyd et al (2011:14) write that much of the available research on teacher educators indicates a similar trajectory and the transition into the role of teacher educator is described as,”difficult, gradual and marked by a significant amount of angst”(Davey ibid.).

In this study, varying degrees of feeling stressed are reported in the data, but this stronger notion of professional angst was most apparent in the experience of only one of the participants. She described the physical and emotional toll her job takes on her thus:

“This job is really demanding. In (name of country) I felt the demand was like really putting in long hours and here I feel it is actually a really big, huge, social and emotional demand. After a day at work I’m really tired and I’m conscious of what it would mean to be burnt out here and that it’s so easy to do and you’d be left on your own. I have to do things daily to
buffer myself, to try to stop it(…)it could actually overpower you. So it really is a huge responsibility, to make sure that you try and stay healthy, emotionally, physically and all that. I actually do a lot to take care of myself (…) the job is so demanding, for instance I do yoga, I do a breathing and meditation course, I also do a spin class to kind of vent the stresses and just channel all that, yeah to get rid of it”. (Amanda)

A more common experience amongst the other participants in this study was expressed rather in terms of a certain degree of self-doubt, or lack of confidence, than real emotional angst. This finding is consistent with those of others who have reported that it is not uncommon for beginning teacher educators to express feelings of vulnerability or anxiety due to concerns about the adequacy of their knowledge base, or their ability to do the job (e.g. Clemans et al, 2010; Dinkelman et al, 2006a; Ritter, 2007). This is illustrated in this data by the quotes below:

“I don’t think it would be true to say that I felt very well equipped but I felt my classroom experience was definitely something I could share and that others could learn from, but in terms of being educated to be a teacher educator, I didn’t think I had great skills” (Rose)

“when I first started I thought oh I can’t do that. I had always thought it had to be somebody with all sorts of letters after their names, but eventually it dawned on me that possibly the best teacher trainers and teacher educators are the ones that have a lot of classroom experience you know? But you have to do your homework, which I did (…) the most difficult thing for me was that I didn’t have my bag of tricks, at least from a teacher’s point of view, in teaching primary (…) so yeah it wasn’t easy because of the practical aspects of it. Learning the theory and that stuff and explaining those wasn’t that hard, it was the other stuff that I think I fell a little short ” (Maryellen).

Others expressed their transition experiences more in terms of a gradual ‘learning on the job’ and accumulation of experience and knowledge:

“it’s a long process, it doesn’t just happen, I mean when I did my cert and I did my dip(loma), and I thought, oh I’ve got the theory now, but I knew nothing really because I’m still learning.(…) I think it’s trial and error”. (Jane)
“what I didn’t understand when I started was how students learn to be teachers and that’s the part that I think you learn as you go along” (Sally)

In her study of professional identity development referred to earlier, Davey (2013: 51) identifies the presence of a supportive “sponsor” figure who sees and fosters potential in an individual as a contributory factor in easing the career transition into teacher education, and this was a feature which also emerged in the data in this study. For example, Jane describes the presence of a supportive supervisor in her institution as an important factor in helping her induction and transition into the role:

“I think I was very lucky with the supervisor we had at that time. I think she knew I wasn’t really qualified to teach (...) I wasn’t a teacher educator, I had a Masters in teaching English, and I taught kids for years and years and I’ve taught a lot of young learners, but she eased me in gently (...) she saw my potential I think and she scaffolded me in my learning and then I became the teaching practice coordinator in about 2005, and she gave me that job and there was NO WAY I was going to let her down”. (Jane)

The same supervisor is mentioned by May as providing “significant support”, and by Rose who says this of her transition into the role:

“I’m going to describe this person as a good supervisor and there was a mentoring process in place, so a lot of what I learned and what I felt I did want to know and I needed to learn, I was able to ask directly. I was mentored.” (Rose)

One participant characterised the transition period as an “exciting” time because of the presence of this same mentor figure who supported and encouraged professional communication and growth:

“when the programme was new, there was lots of different discussion between people, between us and the supervisor, and the programme was evolving and I felt I was developing a lot” (Kylie)
In comparison, Amanda who works in Institution B, and who shared her very real sense of angst and stress, as noted above, seems to keenly feel the absence of support and guidance from colleagues:

“I think we’re missing a whole level of experienced managers in the sense of knowing what’s going on in the schools and being able to help us to help the students(...) I wish that there were other colleagues who could help me be better. (...)I emphatically feel that the administration should help see what this task is about, I feel that in many cases there’s an active, some kind of, I don’t know if its subconscious or not, but there’s some kind of sabotage going on I feel from the changing administrative guard”. (Amanda)

Another participant also shared her sense of abandonment, or isolation:

“the limitations of the college are pretty strict, so you can’t do this, you can’t do that, so I would see that as a major limitation in terms of encouraging me and supporting me, there hasn’t been much support except for very occasional discussions and talks with my colleagues and supervisor which hasn’t happened that often really, so I was basically on my own” (Joanna)

It seems therefore, that the presence of a supportive mentor figure in Institution A in the early years of the programme there may have been a significant contributory factor in the career transition and subsequent professional development of the personnel involved in programme delivery. That particular mentor figure has since left Institution A so the induction experience of Joanna, who was more recently employed there, was not characterised by the same sense of being supported and mentored that her colleagues talked about. Similarly Amanda’s experience in Institution B indicates that a lack of collegial support may be a detrimental factor, making career transition more problematic.

On the question of induction into the role, two further interesting features emerge from the data, both of which can be linked to the literature on identity formation and the concept of the nature of professional identity as involving a
sense of evolving group membership. The first is provided by May who describes a form of self induction before she took up her post in the college:

“I know it may sound a bit geeky, but before I joined the programme, I actually bought several books on methods of teaching in the college classroom and I summarised them all, so reading and research yourself is always a source of learning and preparation” (May)

This process, whereby new members of a profession begin to learn the demands of the new job prior to commencement, has been termed, “anticipatory socialisation” (Murray and Male, 2005: 127), and most discussion of this phenomenon describes it as a deliberate act on the part of upwardly mobile aspirants (Murray and Male, ibid.). This would be consistent with the remarks above (see section 5.2.2) which identified May as the only participant who indicated professional career ambitions and aspirations as a motivating factor in her decision to become a teacher educator.

The second interesting feature to emerge in respect of induction and support is that there was a distinct difference in attitude between some members of the group who fell into Davey’s category of “foundlings” (Amanda, Maryellen and Joanna), and that of those who were more akin to Davey’s notion of “seekers” (Kylie, Sally, Rose, May). The latter group of “seekers” had a much more positive attitude towards the induction and ongoing professional support aspects of their jobs than those who fell into the “foundling” category. It seems an obvious point to make that “seekers” might naturally have a more positive predisposition towards their new role than those who did not seek out the job, but in this respect, the case of Jane becomes more interesting. Jane did not seek out the job, and certainly had no positive predisposition towards it, yet in her own words, she immediately “loved it”, which contrasts with the attitudes
expressed by the other ‘accidental’ teacher educators. It seems possible that the positive induction experience followed by the targeted professional support and development that Jane received in institution A, and subsequently actively pursued herself, may actually have been significant contributory factors to enable a comfortable and successful career transition for her.

5.2.4 Learning through experience: ongoing professional development
As noted above, ongoing professional development following an initial induction period is obviously an important factor in continued professional learning, indeed this would be true of any profession, and the theme of professional development emerges a number of times in this data. Without exception, the participants in this study who worked in institution A when the BEd there was just being established, highlight the ongoing organised professional development opportunities which were a feature of those early years as an important part of the process of becoming a teacher educator. The comments below are representative of this view:

“within the BEd programme, when I joined there first, there was quite a bit of professional development [...] because the then Dean of Education [...] was very very proactive with the idea of getting faculty across all the BEd programmes together and that was excellent” (May)

“there was a lot of cross team, erm, what do you call it? Not so much meetings, but you know we moderated as teams, we had meetings to discuss curriculum, working in teams on various things, I thought that was really good.” (Sally)

Informal professional development in the form of everyday work-related discussion with colleagues is also an important feature of the working environment. Both Jane and Sally clearly articulate this:

“I’m lucky here in that the small team we’ve got, we do discuss what we’re doing, talk about our practice. So we actually provide our own professional development” (Jane)
“I really believe this so strongly that you don’t need to go to courses to develop professionally if you work in a good team, that’s professional development, if you chat to your colleagues in the tea break about what’s gone on in the classroom that’s professional development(...)and that’s what we did all the time in (Institution A).” (Sally)

Rose describes how she relies on the advice and experiences of colleagues to help her prepare to teach unfamiliar courses:

“‘I’ve recently taught the curriculum course, have never taught it before so a lot of my professional development was done informally with my colleague who had taught it before, looking at curriculum, philosophical underpinnings, different types of curriculum etc.’” (Rose)

In contrast to the formal programme-specific professional development meetings in Institution A mentioned above, additional institutionally-imposed professional development was both unwelcome and seen as largely irrelevant. This is perhaps not entirely surprising as most people are likely to feel at least some resentment at having professional development imposed upon them; in such a scenario it would likely be perceived as an additional burden which serves some unknown agenda rather than being for the benefit of individuals or specific programmes. This view is both implicit and explicit in the comments below:

“….because they feel they’ve got to put on CPD opportunities which is actually often what nobody wants to do at the time nobody wants to do it and these are really rather wasted and I feel quite strongly about this, actually letting teachers(...)leaving them alone and letting them work in teams and giving...providing an atmosphere where they can share ideas actually results in a lot more pd, REAL professional development than sitting in some lecture hall” (Sally)

“the best thing that’s happened to me recently in terms of my professional development is being left alone to decide what is right for me, instead of professional development being dictated from on high in terms of what you will attend and won’t attend” (Rose)

“there’s a very fine line between being pushed and being forced to do professional development and actually empower teacher educators to
actually want to attend conferences so maybe if they were allowed to choose in an area that they are really interested in themselves it would be better, otherwise it's just extra work that no one needs.” (May)

In addition to institutionally provided professional development, a strong feature for five of the eight participants discussed here was self-generated, and largely external to their institution, professional development activities. These individuals were pursuing doctoral studies, or in the case of one of them, had already obtained a doctorate. This aforementioned PhD holder had additionally enrolled on a self-funded course in coaching as she felt it would develop cross-over skills which she would find helpful when mentoring on teaching practice. Of the remaining three, two of whom could be regarded as ‘accidental’ teacher educators, one (Joanna) maintains that she does not have time for professional development activities and another characterises herself “a bit of a slacker when it comes to reading all the latest journals and all that stuff” (Maryellen). The third, however, who actively pursued the role when the opportunity arose, appears to come to the realisation in the course of the interview itself that professional development activity is something that has been lacking in her professional life and that this has been a contributory factor in her growing sense of dissatisfaction with her work. In response to a question about her professional development activity she replies:

“I have to say, frankly I’m at a stage now where I’m stale and that’s probably because I’m not doing further education for example a PhD and now that there isn’t the same amount of discussion and pd and cross team meetings and all that stuff on the programme that there used to be(…)no that’s an excellent question! Yeah, I need to do something really, I really do, just to keep me moving” (Kylie)

In the previous discussion about induction it was noted that the presence of a mentor or ‘significant other’ with whom one can interact, and from whom one
can seek guidance and advice, seems to be an important factor in the process of transitioning into a new career. In the subsequent discussion in this section, another common story has emerged, namely the importance of continued professional development as a factor in professional growth. Beijaard et al (2004: 122) note that agency is an important element in this regard, and being active in the process of one’s own professional development is a contributory factor in identity development. This was a point also noted by Coldron and Smith (1999) who maintain that, as individuals, we construct our identities by taking an active position in a social space and by choosing certain professional activities over others. However, it is also evident in the data that professional development activity is not always a formal choice and it also occurs in informal, ad hoc ways through interactions with colleagues. Barak et al (2010) in their discussion of developing as, or becoming, teacher educators, consciously choose to use Webster-Wright’s term “continued professional learning” rather than professional development (Webster-Wright 2009 cited in Barak et al ibid.276) because, as they explain, this emphasises the point that professional development is embodied in both everyday activities as well as formal ones. Viewed in this way, they explain, professional development is not merely tied to time-bound, intentional activities but it becomes a, “way of life” based on complementary relations between practice and enquiry.

5.3 Sociality 1 doing teacher education

“I wear many hats in this job” – Interview with May, research participant 2012

Davey (2013: 68) explains that our perceptions of the scope of the job we do are as much a part of our professional identity development as our professional motivations and expectations. How we describe the jobs we do, and what we
would like our jobs to consist of, play a significant role in helping us to frame our professional identities. As can be seen from the quote above, there is a perception that the work of a teacher educator involves fulfilling numerous different roles. This will be the focus of the discussion that follows.

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<th>RQ2: How do teacher educators perceive their role?</th>
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<tr>
<td>Category</td>
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<td>Multiple roles: complex job</td>
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5.3.1 Multiple roles: teacherplus

In terms of the various roles involved in their day to day work, being a teacher was the primary role mentioned by all but one of the individuals in this study, thus a strong sense of professional identity as a teacher was evident throughout the data. Typical remarks included:

“I think if I’m honest, I’m still a teacher, I often describe myself in terms of a teacher by trade and I think that underpins(...)well it says a lot about where I am coming from. (...) but I think that experience has put me in a very good position to be a teacher educator and I would describe myself as a teacher educator now but originally a teacher which might give a bit more information, or a few indicators in terms of where I’m coming from and how that might impact on my practice as a teacher educator.” (Rose)

Speaking in similar terms, May says:

“I feel I am a teacher at heart. I’d say I’m very confident [in the job] at this stage, I wouldn’t be overly confident, but I would be quietly(...)I’d say I’m confident in who I am as a teacher educator and how I’ve developed and I think it’s because I have worked at all different levels. I am authentic as a teacher and as a teacher educator” (May)

The two extracts above also suggest that how the participants feel about their roles may also be important. Both Rose and May draw upon their respective practitioner backgrounds to give themselves a certain confidence in fulfilling
some aspects of their role. May’s choice of the word “authentic” is an interesting one suggesting that it is important to her to be perceived as ‘real’ by others, in other words, she seems to want others to recognise that she has a degree of ‘street credibility’. A common feature shared by all the participants in this study upon entrance to teacher education, is that they have all come from a practitioner background; indeed this could be further refined to state that, although some have experience of teaching in additional subject areas and at varying levels (primary, secondary, tertiary), all share a common background in EFL teaching. As with Rose and May above, others also perceived their own professional background in EFL to be a factor supporting their work with non-native English speakers in an English medium environment, as aptly exemplified by the following remarks:

“It’s been that long really since I’ve been an English teacher but I think in the environment that we work, we do a bit of both and my philosophy of teaching is that I’m not a lecturer, I don’t think I could ever be the spouter of information” (Jane)

“There is English teaching involved really because for them it’s all in a foreign language” (Kylie)

“Some of the skills that you learn as a teacher in one context inform the other. In my case I think it makes me sensitive to the challenges I think the students are facing in trying to learn this content in a foreign language. So I guess that role of being, or having been, an English teacher helps with the content based instruction that goes on. You’re always working with, through, the medium of English”. (Amanda)

Almost all of the participants in this study readily identified the fundamental role of teacher as lying at the heart of their work. However, as noted in section 3.1 there exist a whole range of opinions as to what exactly is the role of the teacher; this can be seen in Jane’s comment above, which indicates that for her, teaching involves more than simply conveying content or, as she puts it, “spouting” information. Nevertheless, by identifying themselves as teachers,
most of the participants viewed the delivery of content courses as forming a large part of the work they do, but Jane was not alone in rejecting the traditional tertiary format of a lecture to do this. One participant describes how she might initially adopt a lecturer role when imparting content information, but then extends her role by employing a variety of pedagogical techniques and approaches in ways which more closely resemble an active teaching stance than a tertiary based lecturer role:

“The lecturer role of presenting content at the beginning of say a new module? Yes maybe but then a more active teaching or facilitator role to extend that initial content in class through interactive classes, problem based learning, research, trying to develop criticality in the students” (May)

As McKeon and Harrison (2010: 26) point out, teacher educators need to have an understanding of their role as teacher that goes beyond merely being a good teacher, but as one which involves knowing and articulating the “what”, the “why” and the “how” of teaching. This is intricately interwoven with the question of the professional knowledge base of teacher educators, and indeed their professional values as educators, these are questions that will be revisited in a later section of this discussion. However, to conclude this discussion of ‘teacher’ as a fundamental role played by teacher educators, it can be seen from the data that some of the teacher educators in this study, whilst primarily identifying themselves as teachers, recognise that ‘teacher’ by itself is not an adequate description of their role, hence the descriptive theme of ‘teacher plus’. Sally, for example, distinguishes between teaching, training and educating and the roles involved in each:

“there is more to it than just teaching and training. There IS an element of teaching and training, but when you are discussing somebody’s philosophy of education, you’re an educator, you’re not just training
them. It’s more than just teaching as well, it’s not just content. Training implies just a kind of apprenticeship model, you follow, you copy, you do, without the reflective side of it. Teacher educator has got a much bigger umbrella term which I like, but I am a teacher. I think I am not anything more fancy. You know I think teaching, to say you are a teacher, is good enough and I am happy to say I am a teacher and if you are a teacher of teachers, then yes that’s another kind of level because you are teaching them the content, the theory and stuff but also HOW to be a teacher” (Sally)

In the extract below, Jane also succeeds in articulating her view that her role involves more than simply teaching:

“education is the subject that you are teaching if you know what I mean, that is the subject but we also teach them the HOW(...) about the pedagogy, the methodology, how to plan and prepare(...) this is the subject, but I see myself more as a teacher. You’re teaching a subject, the subject matter and the knowledge they need(...) teacher knowledge, personal knowledge, professional knowledge, the pedagogical knowledge, everything. It all comes together and we need to teach them how to cope with all that because it’s so big, it’s huge. I’m a teacher but the teacher role is more than just teacher, it’s a bigger view of teacher if you like” (Jane)

Loughran (2006: 2) explains that teacher education involves teaching about pedagogy which he describes as the “art and science of educating focusing on the relationship between learning and teaching such that one does not become distinct from the other”. It seems, from the remarks above, that this aspect of being a teacher educator is appreciated by some of those in this study.

Features of the various models of teacher education outlined in chapter three permeate the practice of these teacher educators, who, with the exception of Joanna (see section 5.2.1), all identify themselves primarily as teachers whose job involves many different aspects of teaching: to demonstrate best practice (craft model), to impart theory (applied science models), to help learners reflect and develop reflective dispositions (reflective model), and to guide the novice teachers towards full participation in the teaching profession (socio-cultural
models). Some of these additional roles will be explored in the sections that follow, and the question of the professional knowledge base of teacher educators will be revisited in section 5.4.1.

5.3.2 Multiple roles: role model
Another dimension of this expanded concept of ‘teacher’, as discussed above, is the understanding that, as a teacher educator, you also act as a role model.

One of the participants identified the lack of good role models in her own teacher preparation courses as a factor that prompted her move into the field. She says:

“in teacher education you’ve got to be an example of good practice because you’re aiming to produce future teachers and this is where I think there are big issues in teacher education, because sometimes we’re not examples of good practice, so you know if we’re actually meant to be models of, or examples of what, of how to teach then we need to be that and that’s one of the things that drew me into teacher education. I have felt for years that there was a big gap in college lecturing and particularly teacher education, that lecturers often have the content knowledge, and even teacher educators ironically tend to be content focused but not necessarily great deliverers or very good teachers” (May)

One participant talked about the modelling of good practice in purely technical terms; in this respect she apparently conceives her role as that of master practitioner, and her students as apprentices (see chapter three for discussion of the craft model). She says:

“I help these kids with their teaching techniques and I know that they will go out and probably use some of these techniques I demonstrate. I think a lot can be gleaned from watching someone who’s professional, somebody who’s really a seasoned teacher, but you have to be careful because you don’t want them to pick up bad habits” (Maryellen)

However, others had a broader perception of the concept of being a role model.

Sally, for example, sees the role as more complex and demanding and, in her
view, it relates not only to teaching but extends to embodying the profession as a whole:

“when you are a teacher educator everything you teach is related to developing their identity as a teacher, so even the way you walk into the class and say good morning to them is a teaching and learning opportunity about how to interact with students so the role of a teacher educator in the classroom, it’s more complex, more demanding(...) you are a role model which I think in this atmosphere of education reform is crucial because every interaction you have with a student is an opportunity to model good practice. The students pick up a lot from interaction with you and I think that’s really important, you represent the profession and hopefully you represent best practice.” (Sally)

This is a view echoed by Jane who also believes that any interaction she has with students, even just “little castaway remarks” is important and needs to be consciously monitored on her part. It seems therefore, that some of the participants in this study have an expanded understanding of the concept of modelling as being more than simply demonstrating technical strategies or techniques, to incorporate fostering professional capabilities and dispositions as well. This echoes the view expressed by Loughran (2006: 39) who maintains that an expanded conception of modelling is a cornerstone of effective teacher education pedagogy, he writes: “it is important to recognise that in all that occurs in teaching about teaching ‘something’ is always being modelled, be it good, or not so good, intentional or unintentional.”

5.3.3 Multiple roles: mentor/nurturer
Teaching practice mentor is an officially designated role of the teacher educators in this study and forms part of their formal job descriptions. At a factual level, mentoring involves visiting the student teachers in schools, advising them about the planning and content of lessons, providing formative feedback following observed lessons and ultimately, evaluating student teachers’ practical classroom performance. Although officially one of the duties
of the practicum mentor, the role of evaluator is treated as a separate theme in this data because participants themselves differentiated between the mentoring and the assessing part of the job description, identifying a tension between the two. As far as mentoring goes, it can be seen from the data that most of the participants perceived this role as going beyond the straight facts of a job description of observing and providing formative feedback into a more affective realm, with the notion of being a caring, nurturing supporter at its core. Kylie was also clear that for her, the mentor role involves a proactive approach:

“I take the mentoring role very seriously, I think when I worked in (Institution B) where there were new mentors a lot of people didn’t realise what is involved. It isn’t a chance to skip off classes and put your feet up. Even though it may say that you need to observe twice in three weeks, you still need to keep on going in there, you need to keep going in and making yourself available to people so that when, if, things happen you are informed about it. It has always been in my nature to be a nurturing kind of mentor. I suppose I do see myself largely as a nurturer. I’ve just been out on teaching practice in a highly challenging school with the students, (name of school) and the behavioural problems there were quite severe. I really admire the students for going in there and doing their best to deal with it and I see real growth happening when they do that which I think is great. I see my job there as being as supportive as I can” (Kylie)

The caring, nurturing aspects of mentoring were also important to others. Sally described her practicum mentor role as being one of “emotional support” and acting as a “sounding board” and Jane talked about how much students rely on practicum mentors and both need, and want, to be nurtured through the experience. Amanda characterised the mentor role as having a more “intimate” relationship with the students than her other roles, and Rose describes being a practicum mentor as the most enjoyable aspect of her job and one she considers as “REALLY being a teacher educator”.

The general tone of the comments discussing practicum mentoring from most of the participants indicates that these teacher educators enjoy close relationships
with students that transcend merely being their teacher; their students actually matter to these teacher educators and it is clear that these participants are concerned with student teachers’ well-being, growth and needs. Researchers have often cited respectful, supportive and empathetic relationships as lying at the heart of teacher education (Acker, 1992; Collinson, 1999; Kitchen, 2005; Davey, 2013) and these views are clearly apparent in this data.

However, there was one notable exception in the data which stands out as completely different from the views expressed above. Joanna appears to have a much narrower view of her role as a practicum mentor. She described it thus:

“well on teaching practice my role was basically to go and make sure they were there, and that they showed up on time the first day. My role was also to acquaint them with the work responsibilities, dress code, behaviour, issues like that. (Joanna)

Additionally, Joanna reports that her students made great progress during the practicum period:

“But you know, it seemed like once they started working, once they started the teaching practice, they got everything very quickly and they didn’t really need much outside help.” (Joanna)

I would argue that Joanna’s somewhat simplistic assumption that her students ‘get it’ very quickly is perhaps more related to her inexperience in the work of teacher education, after only four months in the field, than it is indicative of the students’ developing skills as teachers. The notion that exposure to an initial practicum period is sufficient to prepare students as teachers is somewhat implausible, and certainly does not correlate with other teacher educators’ descriptions, either implicit or explicit, of the level of support they need to provide to assist students with the emotional struggles and uncertainties they
experience during teaching practice. As we have seen from the sections above, Joanna did not choose the role of teacher educator, it was unexpectedly assigned to her, moreover, in terms of her personal orientations, she appears to take a poor view of the enterprise of education in any of its forms (see section 5.2.1). In addition, Joanna has seemingly received very little induction into the role, or support from her colleagues (see section 5.2.3). These factors combine to make Joanna something of an anomaly in this study and are suggestive of a rather limited understanding of what is involved in the practice of teacher education; they also have clear implications for those involved in the appointment of teacher educators which will be discussed further in the final summary chapter of this study.

5.3.4 Multiple roles: evaluator
The evaluating function which sits within the formal job description of mentoring was recognised by most of the participants as being the most problematic aspect of what they perceived as actually being two roles. It was clear that the notion of mentor as evaluator was in conflict with their preferred perception of themselves as mentor/nurturer. The two halves of the role sit uneasily side by side and participants described having to manoeuvre a way through this difficult aspect of their job; it was evident that the lack of congruence between their self-perception as nurturing mentor and the requirements of their evaluator role create a tension for some of the participants. Rose expressed this in the following way:

“actually I see them as two different roles. It would make the job more meaningful if you were just a mentor and you didn’t have to assess grades. I think there is some tension and some conflict there but the way the college is set up we attempt to do both and I don’t know how well we do both.”
Davey (2013: 117) reminds us that when our personal sense of ourselves as a particular kind of person is at odds with our sense of either what the world expects of us, or what we want to be seen as in the eyes of others, we may experience a kind of identity crisis. I would argue that identity crisis would perhaps be too strong, or dramatic, a term to describe the experiences of participants as expressed in this data, but I would agree that there is certainly a sense of identity discomfort which is apparent with respect to the evaluator role.

The remarks below reveal both discomfort, but at the same time a certain degree of pragmatism in seeking congruence to resolve inner tensions:

“I would prefer to be a mentor and not an evaluator and trying to do both maybe then I am compromising what I really believe. It makes it difficult but I am realistic. I offer guidance and feedback to the best of my ability but I know the students know that I will ultimately give them a grade, so in terms of what they do with the information you give them, well their professional development is often underpinned by ‘well I actually need to do what she says I should do because that will probably affect my grade’” (Rose)

Another participant seeks congruence by making it clear to students that she is taking a longer term developmental approach to their evaluation as teachers and will not focus on discrete lessons:

“I don’t ever grade a particular lesson we talk about (…) I try to be very supportive if something didn’t go well, I say never mind you can learn, you know what you did, learn from that. I make it clear that an individual lesson in itself won’t result in a fail or a bad grade, it’s kind of performance over the whole thing that I’m interested in seeing” (Kylie)

Others also take a developmental perspective and identify reflection as a key factor in achieving professional growth in the long run:

“I am always saying to students it is not about your performance on the day, it’s everything, the planning (…) we can all have a perfect lesson and it all goes wrong. It’s how you deal with it after that, it’s the reflection and that’s really important to me when I’m assessing. So I think we’ve got a big responsibility when we are assessing teaching practice, because you can make or break a teacher I think, we’ve all been there ourselves so I’m really careful” (Jane)
There was very much a sense from several participants that evaluating and assessing students was something they had to do as part of the programme requirements, but it was not the role uppermost in their minds when interacting with students; they rejected a technical, product orientation and came out strongly in favour of a humanistic, developmental view of education:

“I like to think of seeing the journey and the route as more important. I want them, as future teachers to understand that” (Sally)

“I find it very, very hard, when someone has tried really hard and met requirements in all other areas but actually just isn’t cutting the mustard on TP and then I have to grade them accordingly, I find that really difficult, but I think you have to explain to students so they know what the competencies are and how they are going to be assessed and as long as you can say why, I think that’s fair. But the good, the really good ones say, particularly when they are blown away in private schools, they say, it doesn’t matter about the grade, I’ve just learned so much here, and I think that is just such a sign of real maturity on their part. (Kylie)

5.4 Sociality 2 being a teacher educator

“There is little in our field of teacher education as to what knowledge matters or even what might be the matter of knowledge”.

Britzman, 2000: 200

As the above quotation from Britzman reminds us, there exists no real consensus about the knowledge base of teacher educators, of what it should comprise and of how it might look. In the sections which follow, I shall explore the question of the factors which are the main influences on the practice of the teacher educators in this study.
RQ3: What informs the practice of teacher educators?

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<tr>
<td>Personal professional knowledge base</td>
<td>i. Personal experience and philosophy</td>
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<td>ii. Theories of others</td>
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<td>Personal values</td>
<td>iii. Mission and moral purpose</td>
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<td>iv. Professionalism</td>
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5.4.1 Personal experience and philosophy

In this study, there is a sense which emerges from the data that most of the participants use their own classroom practitioner backgrounds to support their work, and draw upon their own experiences to help students towards an understanding of what is involved in the role of teacher. This is consistent with the findings of Murray (2008:119) who identifies “teaching as the anchor of professional identity” of teacher educators. More than one of them commented that they felt their own practitioner backgrounds lent them a certain degree of face validity, or as one participant phrased it “authenticity”, with students; having experienced the classroom from a teacher’s perspective themselves enabled them to empathise more fully with students and they felt students understood this:

“If the student teachers know that you’ve been there yourself they respect you more. I could empathise with them and we’d have discussions about how difficult it is to deal with such and such a problem and share ideas. They see you as a human being and a fellow learner…yeah it’s useful.” (May)

However, Munby and Russell (1995:175) point out that “experience cannot be taught; it must be had”, and Williams and Ritter (2010: 87) cite Brandenburg (2008) on the need for teacher educators to transition from being the “provider” of knowledge to being ‘provoker’ of learning. In this study it was clear that at
least five of the participants understood this and, whilst sharing their own experiences was one resource, it was but one among many and they rejected a reliance solely on what Korthagen et al (2006:1027) call “the doctrine of teaching as telling”. This was expressed in the following way by one participant:

“when they arrive at college aiming to be teachers you have a challenge of meeting them where they are, combining their previous learning experiences, drawing that out of them, asking their ideas about teaching from where they are at and then trying to move them forward with some of the…we’ll say…world ideas on teaching and at the same time not forcing them to take on your ideas, because at the end of the day we want them to actually develop their own styles of teaching” (May)

Bruner’s notion of scaffolding (Bruner 1978 cited in Foley 1994) and Vygotsky’s concept of the zone of proximal development (cited in Foley ibid.) were features of the pedagogical practice of a number of the participants, although not necessarily explicitly expressed in those terms. Both Sally and Kylie referred to the need to be realistic about expectations and to understand that students need to work from the developmental level they are at:

“When you start with them in year one, a lot of it is just over their heads so you have to work with them from where they are at and when they are ready to take on different roles, to take on the role of teacher, to do certain things, to read certain things, then help them towards it when they are ready, not just throw theory at them from the beginning” (Sally)

“we hope that theory informs practice but we know that it doesn’t always happen like that, and it doesn’t always happen immediately. We teach them about various learning theories but to expect them to immediately put it into practice is a tall order, so it’s about slowly increasing their awareness” (Kylie)

Five (out of the six) participants who had current or prior experience of working in the BEd programme in institution A each separately talked of their practice in terms of an inductive pedagogy, very similar to Korthagen et al’s “Realistic Model” of getting at theory through practice. They also highlighted the need to encourage both discovery learning and reflection:
“then back in college (after practicum) we explore (what they have seen) and link together stuff with them and help them make links and discoveries for themselves. We’re trying to help them to perfect what they have to do by showing them different ways how they can do it, but they also have to reflect and think and work out why they need to do certain things in certain ways. It doesn’t happen overnight” (Kylie)

One of these participants described, very succinctly, her own personal professional development as a gradual movement towards episteme from phronesis; in other words following a process of more overtly theorizing her own practice. She also expressed the profound belief that this is an appropriate developmental progression for educators:

“What I know doesn’t work, is you teach them theory and they put it into practice. 100% I am convinced this doesn’t work. I was a teacher quite a long time and I didn’t have any theory and I was, looking back, I was an ok teacher without the theory. When I started studying theory it did inform my teaching but when I studied it I had a framework, I had a schema, I had experience which I could then plot the theory on and it made sense. I don’t think starting from the theory, you know maybe it’s because I’ve been teaching second language learners and they find the theory very difficult because linguistically it’s challenging(...) I think theory helps you make sense of practice rather than theory being the basis of your practice and that’s how I think it should be” (Sally)

Reflection and reflective practice was clearly an important part of the pedagogy of these five participants. Each talked at some point or other in the data about the importance of reflection as a tool to understand one’s pedagogical reasoning. The notion, explored in chapter three, of professional identity as being always in a state of becoming is well exemplified in the extract from the data below in which one participant describes how, through a growing orientation towards reflection in her own practice, she has come to understand her own reasoning processes and how that allows her to feel confident helping novice teachers towards similar understandings, she says:
“I am really confident [in my ability to do the job]… don’t get me wrong, I am still learning but I’d say I’m at a stage now where I can articulate much better than I used to be able to, I still have some problems articulating my beliefs and my philosophy, but through teaching students how to do it, I’ve learned a lot about myself, through teaching students how to reflect, I’ve started to reflect. I’m really aware now of when I am reflecting ‘God, I’m doing it!’… You know, things that I was never really aware of before, I’ve become really aware. I’ve wanted to learn why I do the things that I do and why I think the things that I think and why I teach the way that I teach and it’s only through my own study and through my interactions with the students that I’ve learned about myself. So the whole thing, you know, you’re continually developing professionally” (Jane)

There is a strong sense in the data from the group of five above that they need to operate simultaneously on the levels of what, how and why, a complexity which Davey (2013:112) characterises as “the nested nature” of teacher educators’ professional knowledge base and practice, and each of the five expressed a deeply held personal philosophy of their practice as being based around a student-centred, humanistic and inductive pedagogy. In contrast, the personal epistemological stance of the other three participants was less clear cut in this data. Joanna, as already noted, was something of an anomaly and appears to still be in the earliest stages of acclimatising to her new role. The data does not reveal much about her personal professional philosophy, beyond, as we have seen above, an apparent rejection of the whole educational process itself. Nevertheless, Joanna’s limited experiences in teacher education have led her to the realisation that it is a complex and sensitive area and one in which she clearly does not feel entirely at ease as the comment below illustrates:

“as I mentioned before I was thrown there so I really didn’t have a choice, either I will lose the hours or I must teach this so I thought I just have to go through that … but it made me aware how sensitive the field of teaching, learning, education is, very sensitive, very, erm, I’m looking for the right adjective, I’m not sure how to describe it. It’s like walking on water, or ice, you have to be so careful what to say, what not to say, the human factor is so fragile” (Joanna)
The remaining two participants each represent different cases of teacher educators who have perhaps not transitioned as far into their new role as the group with experience in Institution A, and perhaps do not share the views of this group that the job is multi-layered and complex. Both, to varying degrees, appear to have a technical, product perspective on what they need to deliver to students; one talks in terms of passing on her “bag of tricks” to novice teachers and, as noted in section 5.2.3, feels uncomfortable when this knowledge store proves inadequate. The other, Amanda, relies heavily on available curriculum documentation to shape her practice, as indicated in this comment below:

“my perception of what they need to know is shaped by the shape of the curriculum, the curriculum documents, the specifications that ADEC says the curriculum is and what I see from the practicum that they are going to go into, having access to that world and using that as shaping what I think they need to know. So the curriculum has content there, has some skills there and then it’s trying to kind of, not embody, not personalize but try to make that tangible, discussable in the classroom.” (Amanda)

Clearly personal experience and background have played a role in shaping the professional practice of all the teacher educators in this study to varying degrees. Strong views were apparent about the roles of ‘theory’ and ‘practice’ in what teacher educators do and expect, and this has implications for policy and curriculum which I shall consider in the final chapter of this thesis. Yet another influence on practice was also apparent in the data, and that was the influence of the theories of others. This will be discussed in the section which follows.

5.4.2 Theories of others

Bourdieu’s concept of “habitus” as the internal dispositions and beliefs we innately possess, or develop in response to circumstances, can also be understood as the specific knowledge and expertise that pertains to a given occupation and which is central to a group’s particular professional identity (Bourdieu, 1983 in Richardson, 1986: 248-249). In other words, a
familiarity with the key theoretical perspectives which underpin a particular profession, as well as a familiarity with the particular discourses that pertain to it, will mark out an individual as a knowledgeable member of that profession, or not.

In this respect, once again a pattern emerged from the data, with the group of five teacher educators with strong experience in Institution A, displaying a familiarity with the professional discourses of teacher education, a knowledge of the work of the major names in the field of teacher education, as well as an ability to speak knowledgeablely about the various models of teacher education which were discussed in chapter three. The comment below was representative of this group:

“main influences on my pedagogy? I suppose there would be a wide variety of influences, the first would be primary teaching pedagogy going back to how I was trained myself (...) the second would be reading, I keep up to date with research and conferences, also [the work of] people who are gurus in the field are an influence on me, teacher education experts from around the world, like Korthagen who has the Realistic Model of teacher education, he is an influence on my thinking, the likes of Bailey, Nunan, er Russell – the big names in teacher education are an influence on how I approach my teacher education methods. I’d say I have quite a hybrid, I suppose eclectic style really, I wouldn’t be rigid in my approach, whatever would be the best fit for a particular lesson or course, I would try” (May)

By contrast the data from the other participants (Institution B: Amanda and Maryellen, Institution A: Joanna) was not marked by the same degree of familiarity with the field. The fact that the group of five discussed above, demonstrated a familiarity with the literature and the professional discourse of teacher education is perhaps not entirely surprising given that they share a common background in Institution A where targeted professional development, was a defining feature of the beginnings of the BEd programme. However, it
serves to underline the importance of ongoing professional development as a means to reach deeper understandings of one’s profession.

The two sections above which have examined some of the areas which inform the practice of the teacher educators in this study, have thrown up an interesting pattern insofar as it is possible to discern a lot of similarities within one particular group who, at one time or another, have all shared a professional background working on a specific BEd programme. This raises questions about the content and delivery of different teacher education programmes as well as the theoretical underpinnings which inform them. The teacher educators’ experience in Institution A was of a small, holistic programme which was planned in a sequenced and incremental way to create a coherent whole, this is evident from the comments below:

“all of us involved in that teacher education programme had a very good idea of the whole overview of the programme, so when you’ve been involved in designing different elements of the programme you see how it all hangs together” (Sally)

“I really liked working on the BEd programme at that time. It was very well organised and coherent and well established. It was accredited with (name of university) and accreditors came out every two years to accredit it” (May)

By contrast, the much newer BEd in Institution B is designed in a more atomistic way and composed of a number of discrete courses or units within each year of the degree. A sense of unity or overall coherence seems to be lacking. This is how one participant described the situation:

“the phonology course I’m teaching, well it has many people expecting many things from it and in this, there’s not, never has been, a real clear set about what it is that they need to know except for sort of moral imperatives from different people that have a strong voice (…) different people have certain views that it should be about phonics, or that it should be about pure phonological things so you have to negotiate between these different people” (Amanda)
In terms of research question 3 which aims to explore what influences someone’s practice as a teacher educator, it seems, therefore, one could add not only one’s personal experiences and epistemology coupled with the theories of others, but also how the theories of others manifest within the specific programme design of the particular courses we are tasked with delivering. This is an area I will revisit in the discussion in the final chapter.

5.4.3 Personal values: mission and moral purpose
Teaching is typically regarded as one of the so-called ‘caring professions’ and many teachers become very personally involved with their jobs in ways that other professionals perhaps do not. Lortie (1975:30 cited in Ducharme 1993: 19) identified a number of what he termed “attractors to teaching”, one of which was a theme of service, or the performance of a special service for society. For many educators, teaching is not simply a job, it is a vocation and it is not uncommon for teachers to be very personally involved with their work to the extent that there is a kind of fusion between the professional identity and the personal identity (Davey 2013:117). Guilfoyle et al (1995: 37) point out that for teacher educators there is an even greater moral imperative in their work in that teacher educators are not only responsible for the education of their own students, they must also be an advocate for all the unseen learners whom their students will go on to teach over the years.

In this study, it was clear that a number of participants recognised this aspect of their work and that it was an important and deeply held personal value for them. In general they spoke of their commitment to education as a means of empowering students, and to their role as educators in terms of having a sense of mission or moral purpose; more than one of the participants mentioned that they were not educators for financial gain. Sally, for example, believes teacher
education to be one of the “most rewarding” forms of teaching and feels a great sense of satisfaction in “passing on the baton” to the next generation. Rose and May both make it very clear that they love their work, and Kylie declares herself committed to helping her students become “the best teachers they can be”. A couple of illustrative extracts from the data below will serve to further highlight this point. In describing the extended impact of her job as a unique aspect of the work of the teacher educator one said:

“Well it is unique, because you are preparing teachers, you’re preparing people who are going to prepare the next generation and I think that is so important and we have to be really careful about how we prepare them and how we teach them about how to treat children, I spend a lot of my time doing that, talking about relationships, relationships are really important to me and I think the relationship they have as teachers with the kids has to be at the forefront. So I think it really is an important role.” (Jane)

Another participant described her sense of mission thus:

“You know if you are a good teacher, you would (...)a teacher in a school, (...)you would be concerned with how students are developing as individuals [...] you know like Michael Fullan, how he writes and what he writes about and he says strongly that teaching is a moral endeavour and I think that isn’t, that humanistic side of teaching, isn’t always discussed or included but you do want your students, your student teachers, I want them to feel they are engaged in this bigger thing than teaching English or teaching maths or teaching science. So that kind of mission that they are learning this for a specific purpose and the purpose is a big part of our community and a big part of society and a culture. I know I am sounding very Pollyanna’ish but you know, you don’t start being a teacher to make a lot of money, you go into it with some kind of moral purpose I think.” (Sally)

In addition to the intense level of personal involvement and sense of mission evident in the extracts above, a further deeply held value was that of professionalism which will be discussed in the next section.

5.4.4 Personal values: professionalism
With only one exception the participants in this study expressed, to varying degrees, a sense of the importance of professionalism to them, either in terms
of their own sense of themselves as professionals, or in terms of fostering professionalism in their student teachers and instilling that into them as an important aspect of their future work. The notion of professionalism links with the theme discussed above of acting as a role model and representing the profession in everything that you do. Speaking about their own sense of themselves as professionals, Maryellen explained her belief that her experience had led her, over time, to be both more competent and more professional in her work, and Rose made it clear that she had no regrets about entering what she regards as “a great profession”. Amanda acknowledged that teaching requires a great emotional investment but she felt that she had the energy and professionalism to commit to this.

Fostering professionalism amongst the student teachers was also considered important. One participant felt that an entire course dedicated to teacher professionalism would be a useful addition to a BEd degree and another described her extreme displeasure if she found students acting unprofessionally:

“if I get wind of unprofessional behaviour, for example not coming and not calling the school, arriving late, that kind of thing, I’m down on it like a ton of bricks. I just won’t have it” (Kylie)

Yet another described her sense of dismay that student teachers she has previously deemed to be inadequate and unprofessional might somehow have slipped the net and ended up in the system:

“it’s quite scary sometimes because we graduated a couple of girls, well actually I failed them on TP, they just weren’t professional, but they managed to somehow scrape through and graduate and I have been horrified to see them in schools and see what they do and hear from colleagues and I just think we should never have let them through because obviously that aspect of it, that professionalism and that knowledge that they need, they just haven’t got it and that frightens me a bit to think of it” (Jane)
For these participants, professionalism is a key aspect of what Gee (2000:101) has termed the “institution” identity, or “I-identity”, of teachers whereby teachers and teacher educators are expected to uphold a principal of professionalism and professional behaviour in their work. They set high standards of professionalism for themselves, and expect high standards of professional behaviour from their students.

It would seem that both a sense of mission and a valuing of professionalism, as discussed in the two sections above, combine to create that aspect of one’s professional identity that Davey has termed “the valued professional self” (2013: 31). The final dimension of professional identity, that of belonging as a member of a particular professional group, will be discussed in the next section.

5.5 Belonging as a teacher educator

"Today it is widely accepted that some of the most powerful professional learning occurs when there is the opportunity to be part of a learning community, an inquiry community”

Barak et al 2010:276

The final part of this presentation and discussion of the findings of this study addresses the fourth research question which examines how the local context in which the participants work impacts upon their work and their sense of themselves as professionals. I shall first discuss some of the constraints the participants experience before highlighting some of the more positive experiences which emerged from the data.

RQ4: In what ways does the local context of the UAE affect the sense of professional identity of those teacher educators working there?

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<th>Contextual impacts</th>
<th>i. Local educational reforms as a source of tension</th>
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<td>ii. Collaboration, non-collaboration and communities of practice</td>
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5.5.1 Contextual impacts: local education reforms as a source of tension
The local context of the UAE as one undergoing rapid, and often seemingly uncoordinated, large scale reforms in the educational sector was described in some depth in chapter two, so it might be anticipated that this contextual factor would have some impact both on participants’ work and on their sense of themselves as professionals, and the reform context is indeed a prominent feature emerging from the data. Almost all of the participants mention the ongoing reforms as a factor in their daily work and, more often than not, the reforms are perceived as a source of tension. At the most basic level, the participants in this study reported a sense of not knowing exactly what was expected of them because of the extensive changes that are going on around them, and a feeling that communication channels which might aid them in understanding what they needed to do were not effective. Amanda, for example, expresses a sense of confusion in quite general terms:

“here I feel the path to be followed is in its development and it’s evolving and dynamic and changeable and I don’t know what the rationale is that’s behind it. That rationale is not communicated so that communication of the rationale, it’s not there, it’s not clear” (Amanda)

However, both Rose and Jane expressed their frustrations in more specific terms, clearly suggesting that it is the responsibility of their college (Institution A) to liaise more effectively with the local government bodies responsible for education in order to ensure that planning and course delivery at college level can more effectively target the needs of the local authorities and be tailored to their strategic objectives:

“unfortunately, it does not filter down to us very quickly, us not knowing about what’s happening in the world of education out there in terms of policy and vision. It kind of filters through but actually as a teacher educating course we should know exactly what the vision is and the
mission is, before it’s disseminated to others, so actually that’s a huge stumbling block from the get go that we don’t even know what’s going on, so in terms of the institution’s responsibility I would say that is something they really need to take more into consideration because it’s only when we get that information that we can make decisions about modifying courses or organising things differently and when we know what that vision or mission is, and when we know what the long term, or even short term plan is...so we get that information only indirectly and often much later than we need to” (Rose)

“I’d like them (the college management) to work with ADEC so that we are better prepared, to prepare what they need for schools, but they are not doing that and it’s really annoying”. (Jane)

There is a sense in the data, which is evident in the remarks above, of a certain measure of frustration at the lack of clarity about the respective institutional roles. One aspect of the local context which clearly has a major impact on the educators involved relates to the lack of employment offered to graduates from Institution A, a situation which has occurred for the last three years. This not only creates fear – “a fear that the programme is going to finish” (Jane) – but also impacts on the motivation of the teacher educators working there:

“if I’m honest, it does affect my motivation that they don’t get the jobs anymore, it does from time to time anyway, and I think that some of the policies that are being implemented kind of lack foresight which isn’t really helpful” (Rose)

Nevertheless, some of those involved have found a way to overcome this considerable issue:

“my philosophy, and my way of dealing with things is to say that personally and truthfully I believe teaching is a great profession and we do an important job, so preparing potential teachers for teaching, whenever that happens, is still a worthwhile occupation and that helps to keep me focussed. Also knowing that we are equipping the students not only academically but also and we’ve seen it over the years, we’ve seen great personal growth so that whether or not they enter the teaching profession is not seen as such a negative, it’s more about their growth and opportunities for them in their country in the future. It’s unfortunate that the emphasis has changed somewhat from being a teacher in the government system, however, there ARE still opportunities and other employment possibilities that keep me motivated in terms of preparing them for the future” (Rose)
However, for others, the frustrations of the reform policies which have marginalised the new graduate teachers from the programme have had a much more negative impact. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the case of Kylie whose sense of herself as a valued professional has been challenged by contextual issues to the point where she questions not only her role, but her very future in the profession:

“I’m training teachers for no particular purpose, for the last three years they haven’t had a job so they find that very unmotivating (sic) and so do I. Before I felt that the students had a real mission, they wanted to change their country and you know I felt it was exciting to be part of that, to help them, to support them while they did it and now that’s been taken away, so it makes me feel jaded as an educator but it also makes me feel very angry on their behalf. […] it is important to me [that my job serves a useful purpose], so now it might be that if I feel my role as a teacher educator in the future no longer serves a purpose, then perhaps I might revert to my role as an English teacher where I could define my job as to improve the English… help people improve the English language. At least then I know I would be doing something valuable” (Kylie)

Murray and Male (2005:126) describe an interesting study by Southworth (1995) which made a distinction between a “situational self” and a “substantial self” when describing occupational transition. Southworth (ibid.) posits that the situational self develops from interaction with others whilst the substantial self consists of a core of self-defining beliefs, relatively impervious to change, although remaining open to modification and reframing in response to altered circumstances. Southworth’s study sees career transition as complete when the two aspects of self are closely aligned. For Kylie, it seems her substantial self is that of a teacher who feels a sense of mission, and who needs to feel that her work is valuable and useful. For a time, it appeared that she had transitioned into the teacher educator role and found a real sense of personal and professional satisfaction; her career transition into that field was complete and she characterised her initial experiences in teacher education as an exciting
time of professional growth and development. Now, however, contextual factors beyond her control have intruded into her professional life and, in Southworth’s terms, it could be said that her situational self and her substantial self are no longer in alignment, indeed one could say they appear to be in conflict with each other. Thus, in the case of Kylie, it is possible to discern that two of the aspects of professional identity discussed in chapter three - professional identity is comprised of what one values in oneself as a professional (Davey 2013: 32), and professional identity requires a sense of self as a member of a purposeful occupational community (Davey *ibid.*) - are threatened, resulting in feelings of self-doubt and professional dissatisfaction.

The discussion above has focussed on the impact of the wider macro context of the UAE on the practice of the teacher educators in this study. I shall now turn to the micro-context of the individual institution to assess what impact, if any, this has on the participants.

5.5.2 Contextual impacts: collaboration, non-collaboration and communities of practice. The micro-contexts of this research are the two individual institutions which are the setting for the work of the participants. As discussed in chapter two, Institution A is a well-established college, with a BEd programme which is now in its twelfth year of operation and has graduated nine cohorts of student teachers, whilst Institution B is a much newer institution, which at the time of data collection was just approaching the graduation of its first cohort. It might be expected, therefore, that collaboration and a sense of a community of practice would likely be more evident in Institution A than in Institution B given the timeframes involved, and this is indeed the sense which has emerged from the data. The earlier discussions in sections 5.2.3 and 5.2.4 about learning on the
job and ongoing professional development, have, to some extent, already revealed a strong sense of collaboration, of working towards a common goal to be a feature of Institution A. On the other hand, speaking of her experience in Institution B, one participant was clear, both in the initial interview and in a follow up email, that she feels unsupported in her work; Amanda talks, as we have seen, in terms of feeling the absence of any guide or mentor to assist her professional development. She also indicates that she feels rather isolated within her immediate team, she says:

“I feel I can only be as good as my team is and I feel we need more, I want to be led by others, by others with more experience, I think if that were there it would make things easier but it isn’t. I feel really like I’m on my own” (Amanda)

By contrast, most of the participants with experience of Institution A characterise the atmosphere there as one of close collaboration and mutual interdependence amongst team members. Boyd et al (2011:13) differentiate between what they call “expansive” versus “restrictive learning environments” and note teacher educators need to work in the former environment rather than the latter in order to develop as professionals. Obviously within a restrictive environment, individuals feel the limitations imposed on them. By contrast an expansive environment is characterised by the presence of mutually supportive colleagues, an explicit focus on teacher learning, supported opportunities for professional development and opportunities to participate in working groups. The data has shown a number of examples to indicate that participants in institution A appreciated and benefitted from the presence of a supportive mentor as well as the many targeted professional development opportunities afforded to them. Numerous opportunities to become closely involved in course design and development were routine in the early years of the BEd
programme in institution A, as were opportunities to present at local, regional and international conferences as well as to offer professional development sessions to peers in one’s specific areas of expertise. It is clear that in those early years Institution A was representative of an expansive environment as described above. Indeed there is some evidence in the data to support the assertion that Institution A still retains some features of an expansive working environment. For example, both Jane and Sally emphasise, and clearly appreciate, the supportive nature of the BEd team in Institution A with regard to encouraging collaboration:

“I think building teams is critical, good team building. I know not everybody likes working in teams but I do and I actually get a lot out of it, and in (Institution A) we had a really great team when I was there, we all worked really well together and helped each other a lot (...) you can learn a lot from a good dynamic between you, you know if you’ve got three of you sitting down together, working on something, and you start marking exams or essays, inevitably the conversation will go to ‘ok, the students haven’t done very well on this, what could we do better next time and why do we think it ended up in that?’ I think that kind of reflection, building in reflection to our work together really gave us the opportunity to keep on doing better and keep on reaching better understandings.” (Sally)

“well there can be tension in terms of the political side, I mean, with the college management, the people that run things because they’re following an agenda, but in terms of our team, no. All we care about really is the students and their development and we all work together really well with that as our focus” (Jane)

The above extracts from the data well exemplify Wenger’s (1998) concept of a community of practice which understands knowledge as dynamic and negotiated rather than as a set of decontextualized rules to follow, and shifts the focus from the individual’s mind to social practices and the negotiation of meaning. Indeed, Sally’s comment above, is indicative of an enhanced notion of a community of practice; the participative process she describes, whereby knowledge is created within the group suggests that the team in Institution A
may have functioned as an “innovative knowledge community” (Paavola et al., 2004 cited in Barak et al. 2010: 277). Barak et al. (ibid.) explain that knowledge creation within this framework is a “social, non-linear process where new ideas and innovations emerge between rather than within people, thereby emphasizing the importance of the social, communal context.”

As the discussion above has illustrated, the data support an interpretation that a number of the participants in this research feel, or felt, a strong sense of belonging as a teacher educator within a group of like-minded professionals. As discussed in chapter three, one’s sense of oneself as a member of a purposeful occupational community is both a significant and a necessary component of one’s professional identity (Davey, 2013:32). In the final chapter of this research I shall present a synthesis of the findings discussed in this chapter as they pertain to the concept of professional identity and I will consider what might be some implications which arise from this study.
Chapter 6 Summary of findings and implications from this study

6.1 Introduction
The purpose of this study has been to examine the professional lives of a group of teacher educators working in the UAE in order to understand how they came to be doing the job of teacher education and how they perceive that job; it was also my intention to try to uncover what might be some specific features of their professional identity which might distinguish them as a professional group. As noted in section 4.8, my preliminary analysis enabled me to conclude that the participants could be divided into two broad groupings: a group of five (Rose, Jane, Kylie, May and Sally) who exhibited a strong sense of professional identity as teacher educators, and a second group of three (Joanna, Maryellen and Amanda) who did not. As outlined in chapter five, I then used the three perspectives of becoming, being & doing and belonging to address the four research questions and present a detailed analysis of my findings in the data. In the sections below, I shall attempt to synthesise these findings and consider what might be some implications arising from them.

6.2 Becoming a teacher educator: academic or practitioner?
Whilst Davey (2013) uses the terms seekers and foundlings to describe purposeful versus accidental routes into teacher education, she also outlines a further division of routes into the profession which appears in the literature, and which is also considered in some depth by Ducharme (1993), namely that of the academic pathway and that of the practitioner pathway. Historically, at least in western contexts, teacher educators have either arrived at the role through the pursuit of higher academic qualifications, or have been recognised as successful and competent school teachers themselves, and have been
appointed as teacher educators on the basis of this. The former is closely linked to what was described in the literature review as the applied science model, and the latter has more in common with the notion of the craft model. Both traditions have come in for criticism, as neither is seen by itself as being adequate preparation for the job (Zeichner, 2005). It could be said that the teacher educators in this study are, on the whole, more representative of the practitioner route; all have a teaching background in EFL and five of them have teaching experience in other subject areas as well, with two of the eight also being qualified primary teachers.

Ducharme (1993:4), writing about teacher education in North America, asserts that he struggles to define what he means by teacher educator due to the nature of American academe where teacher educators sit uneasily between the two worlds of academe and school teaching; in the context of this study, there exists no such confusion, as those defined as teacher educators are directly involved in the delivery of courses on the specific BEd programmes in their respective tertiary institutions. However, in common with Ducharme’s description of the position in North America, one could concur that in the UAE too, there is no comprehensive study of the origins and development of this burgeoning educational “professoriate” (Ducharme, *ibid.* 7) and, as discussed in chapter five, some steered themselves towards the job, whilst others fell into it accidentally. In this study, the data pertaining to the group which exhibited a strong sense of professional identity as teacher educators suggest that their sense of professional identity stems from specific professional motivations to do the job, or, as in the case of Jane, an immediate affinity with the job when first taking up the role and, in general, the specific motivations towards the role were
more connected with a desire for professional fulfilment than with particular career ambitions.

This study has further shown that half of the teacher educators involved were appointed to the role simply to ‘plug a gap’ in staffing in their institutions and of these four, three did not exhibit any strong sense of identifying professionally with the role, but rather had a ‘take it or leave it’ attitude towards it. I would suggest that this is clearly problematic given the importance of the work they are engaged in; the preparation and education of future teachers who will, in turn, prepare future generations is not something that can be left to chance. Zeichner (2005) notes that in many contexts there exists an assumption that educating teachers is not something that requires any particular additional preparation beyond having been a teacher oneself, and this seems to have been the attitude of those tasked with the allocation of workloads for these four individuals. Zeichner’s view (ibid.) is that teacher education involves more than just knowledge of good teaching practices and it must reflect the complexity of influencing teacher beliefs and the understandings of what underlies practices, in addition it must simultaneously develop reflective dispositions and capabilities in novice teachers. However, this perspective has seemingly been given little or no consideration in the case of some of the participants in this study. McKeon and Harrison (2010:27) echo Zeichner’s perspective, they write:

Teacher educators need to provide support for their student teachers’ transition from student to teacher, which goes well beyond the provision of ‘good’ activities and which helps them to consider their decisions about what to teach and their thinking about teaching. Such considerations are underpinned by sound pedagogical reasoning.

As noted in chapter two, teacher education in the UAE has only recently come to the fore as an area of interest to the government, and the question of
minimum credentialing and experiential requirements for those engaged in the preparation of teachers is an issue which remains unclear. A Master’s degree was, and still is, considered a sufficient level of academic qualification to be employed on the BEd degree in Institution A whereas, in Institution B, a Master’s degree, whilst sufficient when the institution first opened, is no longer deemed adequate: recruitment policies have changed and, as of this current academic year, anyone employed to do teacher education there (as opposed to EFL teaching) must either hold a doctoral qualification, or be in the process of obtaining one. In a very recent public statement, the UAE authorities have announced plans to roll out a uniform licensing system for teachers in the country as early as the first quarter of 2015; under the new plans, all teachers, both expatriate and local, will be required to obtain a federal license to work in the country. Details remain vague, but it is indicated that in cases where teachers’ existing credentials are considered inadequate, further training will be required (Pennington, 2014). However, nothing has as yet been revealed as to who exactly will conduct this training, nor of what specific form it will take, therefore, an examination of the professional trajectories of those tasked with teacher education in the UAE must surely be addressed as a priority area.

6.3 Being a teacher educator and doing teacher education: a work in progress
In this study, all but one of the participants expressed a strong commitment to teaching as their core business. However, for those participants who had transitioned furthest into the role of teacher educator, and who identified most strongly as teacher educators, their ‘teacher’ identity was extended into a more complex amalgam of teacher, role model, mentor, nurturer, guide, even “bridge” between the worlds of school and college. These individuals viewed their role as embodying the professional values and ethics at the core of ‘good’
teaching, and they took this aspect of their work very seriously by drawing upon past experiences as teachers, but also very much by learning from current experiences through a process of reflection. In this respect, professional development was important to these individuals, and all but one of them had made great efforts to keep up to date with the latest trends and theories in their field. Informal professional development amongst colleagues was also an important feature of their daily work, as was the presence of supportive mentor figures and a supportive college management. The teacher educators who lacked a supportive working environment, or who had not maintained an active professional development profile, were generally less secure in their role. However, those who felt most comfortable in their work, nevertheless expressed their sense of professional identity in organic terms, in the sense that it is still evolving and in a state of ‘becoming’ as they learn ‘on the job’, and from each other, through discussion and reflection upon their work.

6.3.1 A more expansive view of teacher education
As noted above, the individuals who identified themselves most strongly as teacher educators had developed a more expansive view of what is involved in the job, and this sense of the complexity of the role led them to understand teacher education as more than just teaching. They had developed, over time, strong personal epistemologies which transcend a simplistic -theory versus practice- view of teacher education which is commonplace in many contexts; the data in this study suggest that committed teacher educators understand and conceptualise their work as a more sophisticated and eclectic blend of theory and practice which is firmly rooted in the local context. One participant, Sally, who had experience of both institutions, was critical of what she saw as the overly theoretical focus in Institution B, and expressed her belief that theory for
the sake of theory is not an appropriate way to educate novice teachers. Sally was not alone in this view, and those most committed to teacher education all, to some extent, spoke of their job in humanistic terms which placed the novice teachers themselves at the centre of the enterprise. They were familiar with the discourses of EFL teaching and methodology, as well as with educational theories and theories about the nature of appropriate teacher education practices in general, and were able to talk knowledgeably about these areas employing the specialised discourses related to them to do so. At the same time they were able to draw upon their own experiences as practitioners, in other words, these individuals were able to both ‘talk the talk’ and ‘walk the walk’ so to speak, and there are clear indications that they regard their work as teacher educators as being a complex multi-layered endeavour which goes well beyond merely conveying content knowledge to novice teachers, or simply passing on ‘tricks of the trade’. A central part of their pedagogy was modelling and acting as a role model, in so doing embodying what it is to be an educator; Davey (2013: 169) explains this embodiment as “not only demonstrating exemplary practice but also constantly articulating and problematizing that practice”. In teaching, but at the same time teaching about teaching, they operate at what Murray and Male (2005:126) have called the “second order” level of teaching; in this study the data suggest that this was most clearly understood by those who had a strong sense of professional identity as a teacher educator, whereas those in the weaker identity group did not articulate this with as much clarity.

According to Britzman (2000), there is no real consensus about the knowledge base of teacher educators, however, the shift in emphasis in Institution B, which now requires a doctorate as a minimal credential for teacher educators, would suggest that, at least in certain quarters in the UAE, there may be a tendency to
place a higher value on theoretical knowledge. It was noted above that the stronger identity group of teacher educators in this study rejected the simple dichotomy of theory versus practice in their approach to teacher education, and they also expressed a strong belief in the need to make their work both contextually and culturally relevant.

6.3.2 Professionalism, ethics and emotions
Another feature that emerges in the data is a commitment to professionalism and ethics and the importance of instilling a sense of these professional values in student teachers. The participants who identified most strongly as teacher educators had certain standards that they felt must be upheld, and expressed themselves in terms of a deeply held sense of moral purpose. Davey (2013:117) points out that teachers tend to get personally involved in their jobs in ways that many other professional groups perhaps do not. In professions such as the law or medicine, objectivity is seen as a desirable trait, but this does not seem to be the case in teaching where there is more of a connection between the professional and the personal aspects of a teacher’s identity. Hargreaves (1998:835) writes on the same subject:

    Good teaching is [...] not just a matter of knowing one’s subject, being efficient, having the correct competencies or learning the right techniques [...] Emotions are at the heart of teaching.

In this study, the affective dimensions of the teacher educators’ professional identities emerged throughout the data. It could be said that the individuals in the strong identity group all had a caring orientation towards their students that goes beyond simply supporting them pedagogically, but extends into all aspects of personal and professional growth, teaching them professionalism, challenging them to extend themselves professionally and, ultimately, having
the goal of helping them to become independent. The ethic of care was strongly evident in the practice of these teacher educators, and they all spoke enthusiastically of their pride in the achievements of their students from which they derived a great sense of personal, as well as professional, satisfaction and fulfilment.

However, it is worth noting that the affective connection to their work was not always characterised by positive emotions and the caring orientation can sometimes come with a high cost, as for example in the case of Kylie who, as discussed earlier, seems to be suffering, if not exactly a professional identity crisis, certainly an uncomfortable degree of self-doubt and dissatisfaction, and in the case of Jane who mentioned that her close relations with students have provoked criticism from her current supervisor. Constanti and Gibbs (2004 cited in Davey, 2013:129) argue that intangible qualities of emotions such as caring are often deemed of little value by policy makers and can thus prove problematic for individuals, particularly in times of change and reform when issues of power, agency and resistance come to the fore. As discussed in section 3.4.1.4, Zembylas (2003) has identified emotions as linked to matters of interest and values which may expand or limit possibilities for action, and which can leave individuals feeling vulnerable to pressures which threaten their sense of professional self. DAY and KINGTON (2008) suggest that how teachers manage the tensions inherent in times of educational reforms seems to be a key factor in the stability of their professional identity. In this study, all of the strong identity group expressed frustration about the impact of the external reforms on their work, but they exhibited varying abilities to cope with the changing situation. A key source of frustration appeared to be a lack of clarity on the part of the education authorities about what they require from teacher education
programmes, and it is an obvious conclusion that better liaison between the various levels of the education sector in the UAE is required if the reform agenda is to succeed.

6.4 Belonging as a teacher educator
It was noted above, that teacher educators develop their professional identity through both formal and informal learning processes; however, it could also be added, that the place, or situation, in which this learning happens is also important. With the sole exception of Joanna, the teacher educators who work, or have formerly worked, in Institution A, exhibited a strong sense of what Gee (2000:103-105) calls “the Affinity-identity (A-Identity)” or what Wenger (1998:149) calls “community membership”. The team in Institution A had formed a close-knit community that, over time and through a shared “Discourse-Identity (D-Identity)” (Gee ibid.), was committed to a particular form of practice. The team worked closely together with the common goal of providing ongoing opportunities to enable their students to grow professionally; in other words it could be said that the team functioned as a genuine community of practice (Wenger ibid.) and the educators in that team shared social, or collective, aspects of their professional identity. Indeed this small, individual college team expressed a strong sense of belonging to a wider programme team spread across various branches of the institution, and close liaison, contact and coordination were a feature of their work both in college, and at the wider institutional level. By contrast, Joanna, as a newcomer, did not feel any sense of ‘belonging’ in that community, nor did Maryellen or Amanda express any sense of community or solidarity with co-workers in their particular institution.
6.4.1 Individual institutional experiences
An important feature of the collective identity expressed by the strong identity group was a sense of ownership of the programme in Institution A; each participant felt they had a solid overview of every aspect of the programme and had been involved at each level in the design and decision-making about content and delivery. The original model for the programme was based on that of a western university, but over time it had evolved as an ongoing collaboration between colleagues based on observation, reflection, trial and error, resulting in a kind of ‘hybrid’ model which the team felt was very much suited to the particular needs of the context. The sense of pride in the quality and ‘fit’ of the programme and a sincere belief in its value was very much in evidence, despite the apparent rejection of programme graduates by ADEC. This contrasts with the experience, articulated by Amanda, in Institution B, where content is still broadly imposed by the imported curriculum but then individually interpreted by lecturers according to their personal orientations with, apparently, little in the way of coordination or collaboration. Clearly the situation in both institutions is, therefore, problematic: on the one hand there is a team who are proud of their work but find it rejected by the authorities and, on the other hand, there are (at least some) individuals in another institution who are struggling to understand the place and fit of particular courses, and are unclear as to the overall purpose or coherence of what they are teaching.

The prevailing model in the UAE of ‘importing’ curriculum from other contexts has been termed “policy borrowing” (Phillips and Ochs 2003, 2004); this occurs, for example, at times of systemic collapse, internal dissatisfaction and negative external evaluation which, as the discussion in chapter two has illustrated, are all conditions currently present in the UAE. Phillips and Ochs (2004:773) offer a
four-stage model of how this process works: “cross-national attraction, decision-making, implementation and finally indigenization or internalization”. One might speculate that the BEd programme in Institution A has reached the stage of indigenization whilst that of Institution B is still undergoing the implementation stage. It is certainly the case that the strong identity group in Institution A all hold a sincere belief that the modified curriculum has been moulded to suit the specific context and believe it to be of value, in other words, indigenized.

However, if this BEd programme has indeed reached the final stage in Phillips and Ochs’ model, then one must question why it has now, seemingly, been rejected by the local education authorities. One possible explanation for this is provided by Aydarova (2012:284) who is critical of the Phillips/Ochs model on the grounds that it takes insufficient account of the role played by “significant actors’ interpretations of the local culture, context, and students’ abilities […] in modifying, reducing, or substituting the transferred curriculum”. Aydarova asserts that when the personnel on the ground charged with implementing a new curriculum are not themselves part of the local context, or when the local context constrains their ability to implement changes, “indigenization is limited and superficial. It reduces rather than enriches the transferred curriculum” (297). Writing about the same area, Steiner-Khamsi (2002 cited in Aydarova, 2012) has claimed that what is finally implemented on the ground following a “borrowing” may actually bear little resemblance to the original model. This raises intriguing questions about the case of Institution A; is ADEC’s apparent rejection of programme graduates linked to a perception that the modified curriculum has moved too far away from the original western model? If this is the case then why do graduates of the same programme in other emirates continue to be employed as teachers whilst those in Abu Dhabi
are not? Are there perhaps other, unknown, political factors which have prompted the rejection of these graduates? These are questions which are beyond the scope of this present study but ones which surely warrant further investigation. The question of ‘borrowed’ curricula is clearly an important area which I shall return to in my recommendations for possible areas for further research, before that however, I shall turn to a consideration of some of the limitations of this research.

6.5 Limitations of the study
An obvious limitation of this study is that it is, by necessity, modest in scope and is thus informed by the views of a relatively small number of participants and limited only to their views. The views and perspectives of the novice teachers in the two institutions would have added a further dimension to this study, as would the opinions of other stakeholders directly impacted by the work of the teacher educators concerned. A further limitation, once again imposed by the scale of the study, is that interviews and discussions were the only tools used in the data collection process; data from observations and document analysis would no doubt have provided further insights and enrichment to the findings. In addition, further reflection on the data and my interrogation of it, has revealed that my insider position influenced my data collection, and subsequent analysis, more than I had intended, or indeed been aware of at the time. I noted in section 4.9.1 that I believed my shared experiences of particular activities within specific institutional and social settings might be advantageous in enabling a deeper exploration of the ways in which our professional identities are constructed. However, with the benefit of hindsight, I can now see that I failed to fully address the issue of the role of the cultural context in the shaping of professional identities. Although I did address the impacts of the contextual
realities linked to the ongoing reforms, I confined myself to what could be considered as ‘mechanical’ issues and problems which might arise in any context undergoing a radical overhaul of its education systems, thus I failed to address or interrogate the more unspoken issues related to the cultural context of the UAE. Most expatriate employees who have spent any length of time in the UAE quickly become aware that certain topics are not the subject of open discussion in that context where there is a perception that to do so might give rise to “explosive and potentially job-threatening conflict” (Hudson 2013:8).

Indeed Hudson’s (2013) study of a group of western expatriates employed in higher education institutions in the UAE, revealed in the data “a dominant discourse of fear related to issues of power, religion, gender and money” (ibid.7). It is certainly true that, since the Arab Spring uprisings of 2011, the UAE authorities have invoked increasingly repressive laws to prosecute those, both Emirati and non-Emirati, critical of the ruling families, the government or, in fact, any state institution (HRW World Report 2015: UAE).

In this study, I believe my own familiarity with the context interacted with that of the research participants leading to a situation where information and shared understandings were taken for granted. My insider knowledge unwittingly led me to a measure of self-censorship which Hudson (2013:15) maintains is prevalent amongst educators, both Arab and non-Arab in the Middle East.

Therefore I, as researcher did not adequately address and interrogate the more unspoken, and perhaps controversial, issues related to the context of the UAE.

Nevertheless, I believe the study has been worthwhile for a number of reasons, not least being that, despite its shortcomings, it has offered some insights into the nature of the professional identity of a relatively unknown, yet very
important, group of professionals engaged in teacher education in the UAE at a
time of considerable change and development in that country and it has thus
opened the door for further discussion of this group. Some interesting findings
have emerged which have led me to make a number of recommendations
which I outline in the section that follows.

6.6 Implications and recommendations arising from this study
The findings of this study suggest a number of implications. The first, and
perhaps most obvious one, is that the recruitment of teacher educators is an
area which requires scrutiny. I would recommend that institutions need to work
on the establishment of a well-thought out and thorough recruitment process for
teacher educators as it is clearly unsatisfactory to leave such an important area
to chance. The recruitment of teacher educators should not focus exclusively on
academic credentials, as has become increasingly the case in Institution B, nor
on simply having personnel – *any personnel* – on hand to ‘plug’ a staffing gap
as has sometimes been the case in both institutions. I would suggest that those
recruited to do teacher education need to have credible academic credentials
as well as practitioner experience, but they also need to have a professional
disposition towards teacher education and a commitment to it, coupled with a
commitment to regular self-development and reflection.

It emerged in this study that the teacher educators with the strongest sense of
professional identity benefitted, in that respect, from working in a team of like-
-minded individuals who were committed to a common goal and whose working
environment empowered them to actively engage in professional development
activities which they perceived as worthwhile. The implication of this is that
institutions should strive to develop expansive learning environments which
promote best professional practice. There is a need to foster the development
of communities of practice that can not only enhance the strategic capabilities of the institution, but can also help to create expansive learning environments in which valuable and positive learning experiences, both formal and informal, are facilitated. This would necessitate a review of institutionally provided professional development opportunities, as well as encouraging programme teams to work together as a collaborative unit.

This study has shown that in the UAE, in common with many other contexts, educators often take on the mantle of teacher education with little or no prior preparation for the role. Scotland (2013: 35) has pointed out that becoming a member of a new discourse community almost inevitably requires modification of professional identity. Therefore, a programme which would support educators to transition from teachers to teacher educators would be a valuable addition to the professional landscape and would address a clear need in the profession. I would envisage the development of professional learning communities of peers as being at the core of such a programme. The importance of informal, collaborative learning has been explored in the literature in other disciplines (e.g. Armour & Yelling 2007), and has also been a feature of the data in this study, particularly with regard to the experiences of teacher educators in Institution A. Formalising the informal collaborative networks that exist in most institutions should be a priority. In addition to a review of institutionally provided PD activity, as noted above, this could be achieved by establishing a regular time period when team members can come together to identify and share professional concerns and successes. Armour and Yelling (ibid) have noted that logistical issues such as lack of time and resourcing for this type of collaborative activity can be a serious threat which institutions must take account of. In this study the data revealed that participants appreciated the opportunity to pursue
professional development in areas that they themselves had identified and which they perceived as directly relevant to their work. By contrast, institutionally imposed PD was seen as serving the agendas of others and was not well received. Clemens et al (2012) report on a series of Professional Learning Projects initiated and conducted by school-based teacher educators in Australia. These projects fostered connections and professional networks amongst teacher educators which provided them with “a more intimate space in which to share their frustrations, vulnerabilities and insights; and, in hindsight, these networks offered potential to more explicitly take up issues related to the experiences of ‘becoming’ teacher educators”. Peer-mentoring, team teaching, developmental peer observation and workshops could be usefully incorporated into a development programme for teacher educators and indeed the data in this study has shown that when such activities formed a regular feature of the work in Institution A, team members appreciated the opportunities they afforded and strongly identified with their role as teacher educators.

A further implication arising from this study, is that closer liaison and cooperation is obviously needed between tertiary institutions and the governing education bodies in the UAE. The lack of liaison and collaboration between governing bodies such as ADEC, the respective ministries of Education and Higher Education and the tertiary colleges has clearly created some confusion which, at the very least, is unhelpful. The tertiary providers of teacher education need to be kept informed of the various developments and innovations happening at ministry level so that they can meet the needs of the education system and target teacher development accordingly. For example, graduates from the first six cohorts from Institution A have apparently been successfully integrated into the school system (Clarke, 2006; 2008) but Abu Dhabi-based
graduates from the last three years have not been accepted by the authorities. I have speculated why this might be the case, for example there could be some, as yet, unknown political reason behind this change of heart from ADEC. An alternative explanation is that the authorities perceive the programme to be so far removed from its original model that it no longer meets the needs on the ground. However, if that is the case then surely a more prudent approach would be to discuss this with the teacher educators concerned, in an effort to resolve whatever perceived issues have arisen, rather than simply leaving them completely in the dark about their sudden ‘fall from grace’. To apparently abandon, wholesale, a degree programme that has been in place for twelve years, appears to be something of a ‘baby and bathtub’ situation which risks wasting both the expertise and experience of the teacher educators involved, as well as damaging the career hopes and expectations of the young novice teachers who graduate with seemingly no possibility of employment in their chosen profession.

6.7 Possible further areas for research
This research has illustrated that the professional identity of those who are deeply committed to teacher education, whilst resembling that of a committed teacher, in fact moves beyond this to incorporate other aspects which acknowledge that their work involves more than just teaching. Given that one does not simply qualify to become a teacher educator, further research into what it means to do this particular job could usefully continue to examine career trajectories and the personal and professional motivations and dispositions which lead individuals to be drawn to teacher education. Such information would contribute to a ‘teacher educator profile’ which could support future recruitment. Other related areas, such as the kinds of professional
development activities which can best support the work of teacher educators, would also be a potentially valuable area for study.

One should not overlook the fact that the work of teacher education involves not only the educators themselves, but also the novice teachers they work with, as well as the teacher education curriculum which forms the basis of the professional qualification that institutions are offering. For example, speculation about the unexplained rejection of the recent Abu Dhabi BEd graduates has highlighted that there is also a clear need for a research agenda to track and monitor the progress of new teachers who have graduated; if they have entered the profession there is a need to know how they are progressing, equally if they have not entered the profession, there is a need to know why this is the case. However, perhaps the most unexpected area for further research that has arisen from this study is the question of “policy-borrowing”, indeed in the case of the UAE this seems to be one of the most urgent areas for further research since the transfer of educational models from other contexts appears to have permeated the educational system in that country at all levels. How these transferred educational models are interpreted and implemented on the ground, what struggles and tensions may be inherent in this, and how these models impact on the various stakeholders involved - teacher educators, teachers, students and their families, policy makers and so on – are all rich areas for further study.

**6.8 Concluding remarks**

I hoped when embarking on this study of teacher educators in the UAE to shed some light on what might differentiate teacher educators from their teacher colleagues, and thus provide some insights about who should do teacher education and how it can best be done. I acknowledge that this is a small-scale
study involving only eight participants and as such it is somewhat limited. Nevertheless, I hope that I have succeeded in shedding some light on the area and have opened the way for an important discussion which needs to take place if the UAE is to succeed in its ambitious reform strategy and produce a generation of young people educated to meet the needs of a rapidly changing society in the 21st century. As an educator, I believe strongly in the need to continuously seek opportunities for professional development and improvement, and identify strongly with the profession of teacher educator. My own journey thus far into the field has led me towards a personal theory of the value of reflection and the need to take a realistic and contextually aware approach with students, I still have much to learn but it would seem that at least some of the participants in this study share similar views. In talking to these eight participants, I have learned that teachers join the profession at different stages of development and from varied backgrounds. I have listened closely to these eight individuals and I believe some of them have advanced a considerable way into their journey as teacher educators, whilst others are not as far down their personal roads and do not yet identify themselves strongly as teacher educators. I hope that I have provided some insight as to what circumstances and conditions might facilitate valuable and positive learning opportunities for teacher educators, no matter at what stage they happen to find themselves on their personal roads.
## Appendix 1 Biographical information about the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Kylie</th>
<th>Jane</th>
<th>May</th>
<th>Rose</th>
<th>Joanna</th>
<th>Sally</th>
<th>Amanda</th>
<th>Maryellen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Institutional affiliation</strong></td>
<td>Currently Institution A (10+ years in total); brief 2 year interlude in Institution B.</td>
<td>Institution A</td>
<td>Institution A</td>
<td>Institution A</td>
<td>Currently Institution B (2 years); formerly Institution A, 10 years)</td>
<td>Institution B</td>
<td>Institution B</td>
<td>Institution B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching experience</strong></td>
<td>30+ years in total, 12 years in teacher education</td>
<td>20+ years in total, 12 years in teacher education</td>
<td>18+ years in total, 5 years in teacher education</td>
<td>20+ years in total, 7 years in teacher education</td>
<td>15 years in total, 4 months in teacher education</td>
<td>25 years in total, 12 years in teacher education</td>
<td>18 years in total, 2 years in teacher education</td>
<td>25 years in total, 3 years in teacher education in UAE, 1 year in teacher education (“training”) in another context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Qualifications</strong></td>
<td>Home country QTS (secondary level), EFL qualifications, MA</td>
<td>EFL qualifications, MA, Doctoral candidate</td>
<td>Home country QTS (primary ed.), EFL qualifications, MA, PhD</td>
<td>Home country QTS (primary ed.), EFL qualifications, MA, Doctoral candidate</td>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Home country QTS (secondary level), EFL qualifications, MA, Doctoral candidate</td>
<td>MA, EFL qualifications, Doctoral candidate</td>
<td>MA, EFL qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Additional remarks</strong></td>
<td>Shows familiarity with the professional discourses of teacher education</td>
<td>Shows familiarity with the professional discourses of teacher education</td>
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Table 3 Biographical information about participants
Kylie

Kylie is a very experienced educator of some thirty years, who originally trained as a secondary school teacher of English and history in her own country before moving first to UK and then to various Arabic speaking countries as a teacher of EFL and a CELTA/DELTA trainer. She has been in the UAE for almost twenty years and has worked in teacher education there for around twelve years, firstly in institution A, then moving briefly to institution B before moving back to institution A where she is currently working. Like a number of the participants in this study, her route into teacher education was a serendipitous accident; she maintains she has always had an interest in teacher education and was in the right place at the right time when the programme in Institution A opened. Although internal transfers were apparently difficult at that point, Kylie’s background of CELTA and DELTA training meant that her application to join the new programme was successful.

Kylie talks of the early beginnings of the programme as a time of great energy and professional growth. She says: “When the programme was new, there was a lot of different discussion between people. I felt I was developing a lot” and contrasts this with the current state of affairs as she sees it; she feels the programme is “stale and hasn’t moved in years”. She talks with regret, even anger, of a past that is no longer part of the current context: “It was exciting to be part of [working with students with a real mission] that’s been taken away, so it makes me feel jaded as an educator, also makes me feel very angry on [students’] behalf. I’m training teachers for no particular purpose”. She goes so far as to predict a bleak future for the programme, declaring “it will move to a less academic programme and probably not such a rigorous programme […] I can see in the future that it will be dumbed down, so I’m not seeing a rosy future
really”. She has reached a point in her professional life where she questions why she is continuing in her current position: “my role is teacher education of people for the future, supposedly in primary schools in the UAE but I know there aren’t jobs and I know that so how do I justify myself carrying on doing this? And then I thought, ok, but the degree has integrity even if they are not able to teach through this process of what they go through, learning responsibility, learning to be independent, they’re transferable skills, learning to be professional […] and I know that because a lot of students have been highly successful in banking and other areas […] that’s how I sell it myself, you know, that’s how I sleep at night. [...] now from next year, if you ask me that question, I don’t know, I think it could be a time of change again for me then because I’ll think the degree is no longer something special that will help students in their future”.

Kylie talks of frustrations in her professional life caused by aspects of both the wider context of the UAE and the micro context of the college she works in. Of the UAE she says: “I’m more experienced, I have a much greater knowledge of the situation in the UAE which is changing all the time, but I am also more jaded”. In terms of the micro context of the college she feels the small team in which she works has become increasingly marginalised from the wider college community; due to recent organisational changes at the college, she describes her team as working “in a box on our own” and is experiencing “a real feeling of displacement”. Despite this, however, she describes relationships within her own immediate team as positive and mutually supportive: “I’m lucky here in that the small team we’ve got, we do discuss, so we actually provide our own professional development”.

186
Kylie enjoys good relationships with her students and casts herself in the role of nurturer and supporter as she works with them, and mentors them to develop themselves “to be the best teacher that they can be”. She expresses a measure of self-doubt in her capacities as a teacher educator now that the students have access to the foreign ‘licenced teachers’ in schools. She says: “…but now they [the students] are with [the licensed] teachers who know the class, who are trained teachers, I’ve begun to question my role, to think well who am I to come in and say what should happen in this class.” She also reports feeling a certain amount of resentment when these new personnel appear to make assumptions which she, from the perspective of almost 20 years in the UAE, believes to be erroneous and unfounded: “I don’t like it when we arrive in a school with year 3 students who are quite able, and the current private partnership person, who has just arrived in the country, assumes that the students know nothing, sees an Emirati student and has all these ideas about them. I think that makes me quite defensive […] then I turn into champion of the Emirati students because it annoys me that these assumptions are made that the students may know nothing”

Jane

Jane works in Institution A and has been part of the Bachelor of Education programme there from the beginning; she is also an experienced educator of over twenty years standing. She applied to Institution A for an English teaching job and, by her own admission, had “no interest in teacher education”; she was, however, placed directly in the teacher education programme “for political reasons” to fill a gap in programme staffing at a time when inter-departmental poaching of staff which would have permitted an internal transfer (e.g.
potentially of someone interested in making the transition into teacher education) was frowned upon. However, she says that as soon as she started her new job, she “loved it straight away”. She describes a troubled educational history at secondary school - “I had a really bad experience at school, it was just rubbish.” She reports that she left school at the earliest possible opportunity, at the age of fifteen, and with no qualifications. She talks of the strong influence of her early home life with its “working class mentality” (sic). Her parents, although not university educated, held “good jobs” and, therefore, their own experience led them to discount the value of further or higher education qualifications for their daughter. It was only after a few years that Jane realised she “had made a really bad mistake” and, initially, joined a local technical college to do a secretarial qualification, followed by A Levels and then enrolling on a Higher National Diploma (HND) course. However, these early attempts to get educational qualifications stalled after a few months and Jane set off travelling overseas doing odd jobs for a few years. This was then followed by a further attempt to get a degree qualification in her early twenties which once again stalled as she dropped out of a university in UK to resume travelling again. These early false starts still figure heavily in Jane’s current world, she talks of how, over the years, she has “battled with myself, to improve myself” and how these early experiences influence her own parenting (and indeed teaching) style, even many years later: “that’s why I am the way I am with my kids. I mean they just don’t finish school(ing) until they leave university, it’s not even an option. Gap year doesn’t even come into it. Once you’ve got your degree, you can do what you like, but you will NOT finish til then. They’ve grown up with that”.
A pivotal turning point in Jane’s narrative came in her mid-twenties when, despite having no qualifications, she secured work overseas teaching EFL to children. She says: “somebody got me some work teaching kids, and I felt like a fraud. I did it and I got good money but I felt like a fraud and I said I can’t do this without knowing what I am doing. So I did a Cert and I did really well on the Cert and then I started working at the British Council, and what I learned at the British Council, I just can’t explain to you, I worked with real professionals. I went to every PD session that they put on, I did short in-service courses, I observed other teachers, I was really pro-active in my own personal development.” Jane goes on to describe how she then got a TEFL diploma, followed by a Master’s degree and is now currently a doctoral candidate.

However, the memories of her early experiences linger, and impact her professional activities even to this day; she says: “I’ve always had this fear and feeling that I’m a fraud because I left school at fifteen, so I’ve done everything, I’m always over the top in trying to prove myself, that I know what I am talking about I suppose.”

When speaking of her work in the BEd programme, it is clear that Jane feels some frustration that the early, pioneering days of the programme have now passed. She talks with regret that the regular programme reviews which used to take place in meetings between staff teaching the programme across all the colleges where it is run, no longer take place, she says this lack of review and forward movement “upsets” her. Despite this, she appreciates the support and collegiality of her co-workers in her immediate team and describes a positive working atmosphere of shared purpose. When talking about her relationship with her students she describes a close, even “personal” relationship whereby she strives to get to know each of them as an individual; she says that because
of her own negative experiences in education, she is always prepared to give
students her time and has, in fact, come in for some criticism for this. Her
immediate supervisor, she reports, does not like her closeness to students,
although Jane maintains that “there’s a line you know, the students don’t cross
that line. We’ve got a respectful professional relationship”. A further source of
tension at the intersection between the social and the contextual spaces
concerns the wider political context of the college and the educational reforms
in general. Jane is clearly aware of the tensions, but does not allow them to
weigh too heavily on her mind. She says: “in terms of the political side [...]there
can be tension with the people who run things because they’re following an
agenda and all we really care about is the students and their development [...] but I’ve actually learned to shut it out and concentrate on who’s important [...] shut down, because otherwise, I’m mouthy and I just end up making myself the problem”.

May

May has been an educator for eighteen years. She spent the last five years as a
teacher educator in Institution A. Before moving to the Middle East, May trained
as a primary school teacher in her own country where she taught for ten years.
When she moved to the Middle East, it was initially as a primary school teacher
before branching out into language teaching as well as generalist primary
teaching. She completed a Master’s degree in Literacy and Language
Education and then went on to complete a doctoral degree focussing on
effective teacher education for literacy teaching in the UAE context. May is the
only participant in this research to have already completed her doctorate. Her
route into teacher education at Institution A was a deliberate career move for
which she undertook rigorous “self-preparation” and advance planning. She says “I bought several books on methods of teacher education […] and believe it or not I summarised them”. She describes herself as “a teacher at heart” but one who was drawn specifically to teacher education because her own experiences as a student teacher, and later a teacher, had led her to believe that there exists a deficit, or gap, between student teachers’ experiences at college, in the “ivory tower”, and the realities of classroom teaching. She characterises her own experiences with teacher educators from the perspective of a student teacher as being a case of “Do as I say, not as I do” and she believes she has much to contribute to the field in this regard. She says: “There was a big gap in college lecturing and particularly teacher education, lecturers and […] teacher educators have the content knowledge and tend to be content focused but not necessarily great deliverers or very good teachers, so I felt this was something I could contribute to because I felt it would challenge me to be the best I could be”. Looking to the future, May sees herself working on methodology and effective delivery training programmes for tertiary lecturers which have been newly introduced in her home country.

May values many of the professional development opportunities that have been afforded to her in the UAE; she completed her PhD as the recipient of a prestigious local scholarship and she appreciated the challenging and professional nature of the BEd programme in its earlier years. She says: “when I joined first, there was quite a bit of professional development across the six colleges because the then Dean of Education […] who set up the programme to begin with was very proactive with the idea of getting faculty across all the […] BEd programmes together and that was excellent”. However, when key players moved on, in this case the aforementioned Dean, May describes the
ongoing targeted PD opportunities as “kind of dribbled away”. Professional development imposed to serve an institutional rather than an individual or programme agenda continued, however, but was not as welcome. Of institutionally imposed PD May says: “there’s a very fine line between being pushed and being forced to do professional development and actually empower(ing) teacher educators to actually want to attend conferences, so maybe if they were allowed to choose, in an area that they are really interested in themselves [it would be better]”.

May is a strong believer in tailoring curriculum to suit a particular context and is critical of what she perceives as attempts to shoehorn course content from other contexts into courses within the UAE. She describes her commitment to providing contextually appropriate instruction using an instructional approach with students whereby she might introduce a particular theory or methodological technique and then invite students to discuss whether or not it is appropriate for the UAE context.

May describes positive relationships with both colleagues and students, although she recognises that the transient nature of the mainly expatriate workforce in the UAE is both “a friend and a foe” in terms of a professional working environment. Friend in the sense that educators from many different backgrounds coming together in one place makes for an interesting diversity; foe, in the sense that (relatively) rapid turnover of personnel creates challenges in consistency and continuity of programme delivery. The continuing erosion of professional development opportunities in the BEd programme and the perceived lowering of quality and standards has led May to make the decision
to leave Institution A at the end of the academic year in order to pursue opportunities elsewhere

May’s past experiences and educational background have led her to a point in her professional life where she is very comfortable and confident in what she is doing. She says: “I really love what I do, I love my job as a teacher educator [...] I’m constantly looking for new challenges”. She says she is both comfortable and “very confident” in her professional role and, she believes that having experience of primary school teaching as well as teacher education together with the full range of professional qualifications permits her to describe herself as “authentic”.

Rose

Rose trained as a generalist primary school teacher in her own country where she taught for twelve years before coming to the UAE, originally as an EFL teacher and then, after three semesters working part time on the BEd programme in institution A as an English teacher, she was finally accepted into the role of full time teacher educator which she has done for the past seven years. Her route into teacher education was, therefore, purposeful; she was rejected for a role on the BEd twice before succeeding at her third attempt. She persevered in her attempts to join the programme as a fully-fledged teacher educator because she was dissatisfied as an EFL teacher and believed her primary teaching background gave her something to offer. She perceived that the BEd offered professional opportunities that she considered to be “really exciting and very inviting”. She very much enjoys her work, and after a period of ‘learning on the job’ and ‘finding her feet’, now prefers the role to that of ordinary classroom teaching. She is clear about her motivations and appears to
have a sense of a mission, she says: “what drives me is that […] I will be part of both professional and personal development of the students and that I don’t have all the answers but hopefully I will be empowering them to find the answers for themselves”.

She is aware of the external forces at play which are preventing graduates of the programme from getting teaching jobs, however, she appears to have a pragmatic coping mechanism which allows her to retain her sense of job satisfaction. She says: “my philosophy and way of dealing with things is to say that personally and truthfully I believe teaching is a great profession and so preparing future teachers for teaching, whenever that happens, is still a worthwhile occupation, so that keeps me focussed. Also knowing that of course not only are students equipped academically, and over the years we have seen great personal growth, that whether or not they enter the teaching profession is not seen as such a negative, its more about their growth and opportunities for them in their country for the future. So while, unfortunately the emphasis has changed somewhat from being a teacher in the government system, there are still opportunities and other employment issues that keep me motivated in terms of preparing them for the future, not necessarily classroom teaching.” Despite retaining her optimism and enthusiasm for the job, Rose acknowledges that the BEd programme is no longer in its heyday as a “flagship programme” and that resourcing and funding for the course has been eroded which causes her some concern.

Rose has positive relationships with colleagues in her team and believes they share a common set of professional values and sense of purpose. However, Rose is critical of institutionally imposed professional development which
moves beyond her programme needs to serve the wider institutional agenda and is “dictated to [us] from on high”. With regard to her students, she positions herself as a supporter, “not quite […] a friend but befriending, being there for students in terms of not just their academic development but also as they grow as individuals”. She also sees herself as very much part of a team of both students and fellow teacher educators, working towards a shared goal with each party assuming various roles in the enterprise.

Joanna

Joanna is the final team member in Institution A. Joanna has only been in the role for four months and unlike the others, she is not a full-time team member but an hourly employed adjunct. She has been teaching EFL for around fifteen years. She was educated in a European country where language teacher credentialing is considered a by-product of a Masters (or ‘Magister’) level qualification focusing on English philology and she acknowledges that her goal at University was simply to learn English, not to become a teacher; teaching English is just something “that happened […] actually it was an accident” as it became a means to earn a living whilst travelling. Although reflecting on the past, she says, is not something she usually does, in the case of her decision to begin teaching English, she feels no regrets, believing it to have been a “good path in my life”; having said that, however, she goes on to say “but I don’t think of myself as a teacher, that’s not my identity, that’s not who I am really”.

Joanna found herself thrust into the BEd programme “by sheer accident”, when EFL courses she was originally hired to teach folded unexpectedly and she was offered the opportunity to work with education students; her attitude was “well,
why not? I’ll try it and see what it is about”. She acknowledges she had no prior preparation for the role but she “didn’t think that would matter […] I mean maybe a little bit, I was thinking about the theory. First I would have to see what the course looks like, what it is. But you know I always look at every situation as a positive challenge. I felt well I can always learn myself and I love learning, so no it really wasn’t an issue”. After almost a semester in the role, she has been offered the opportunity to continue for a further semester and has accepted this offer. She explains that she enjoys the freedom that this new role has afforded her. She comments specifically on her role in her students’ recent teaching practicum; she says “I think for me the most appealing would be again that I can work with students in a different context and it’s not just like a disciplinarian, you know, standing there with a stick over the student ‘oh you have to learn this’, but it’s more context specific, more job oriented, it has more tangible tasks, you know”. As a student; she says “I never thought I would be a teacher myself and the reason for this is because I never liked education, I never liked being a student myself, I never liked my teacher. I was a rebellious kid myself, I didn’t like [name of her country] education system which was very strict, it was based on rote learning and memorisation, and it didn’t suit me as a learner, it wasn’t who I was, so I grew up rebelling the system, and I just wanted to learn English”.

Joanna’s dislike of formal classroom education and her poor view of teaching as a profession recurs on two or three occasions in her conversation; she says she doesn’t believe the classroom is a place where learning takes place. When explaining her views about her professional self and her job, she speaks in the following terms: “I don’t want to think of myself as a teacher or as an educator, because for me it is a person who is not very successful […] I don’t think of
myself as an educator, I wouldn’t call myself an educator [….] I don’t call myself that, for me labelling yourself as an educator, or educational professional means nothing. It really means nothing, when I say this is the action and this is the practice, the noun itself, teacher educator, has a pejorative meaning”.

Joanna talks favourably about her experience of practicum schools and says she was “really shocked to see how efficient and fun they were, I was really shocked, it was a great experience”. She does not seem to share the same positive views about the college environment, she reports that “the limitations of the college are pretty strict…you can’t do this, you can’t do that”. She perceives the BEd courses she has been given to teach as “a little outdated [….] these are outdated courses and they haven’t been updated and I can see these courses are disorganised and messy and chaotic”.

From the social perspective Joanna believes “there hasn’t been much support, except for very occasional discussions and talks with my colleagues and supervisor which hasn’t happened that often really, so I was basically on my own”. By contrast, Joanna reports warm relations with her students and considers that she has an “excellent rapport with Arab female students”. She has an empathetic stance towards them and talks of a kind of sense of solidarity thinking “Wow, they’re going to do the same thing that I am doing, is it good, is it bad? I don’t go there, I don’t evaluate, judge – I look beyond that, but sure there’s an inner understanding and I guess I am happy that they’ve been given that alternative, it’s not necessarily what they would choose but they’ve been given the choice which makes a difference”.
Sally

Sally is currently working in Institution B but was formerly a founding BEd team member in Institution A and most, but not all, of her discussion seems to centre on her experiences there rather than on Institution B. As well as being an experienced teacher educator of some twelve years, Sally also holds qualified teacher status in her own country. She originally trained as a teacher of history before entering EFL teaching to enable her to travel overseas. She was originally employed in Institution A as an English teacher but when the opportunity arose to join the new programme she “found out how to get into that programme because that’s where I thought I would get more job satisfaction and that has proved to be the case”. Thus her route into teacher education was both a targeted career move and a serendipitous accident; she reports that she had found her previous work as a teacher of history more interesting and challenging than that of working in EFL, so she was looking for more fulfilment in her work when the BEd opportunity came along and she was able to engineer a transfer despite the difficulties of internal transfers at that time.

When she first started working on the BEd she felt confident of her abilities to cope with the content knowledge required in the role but she reports: “what I didn’t understand when I started, was how students learn to be teachers and that’s the part that I think you learn as you go along, because I don’t think there is actually anything that prepares you to be a teacher educator […] but through trial and error, you then come to your ideas about what actually makes an effective teacher educator”. She is careful to point out the intersection of the particular and unique context of the UAE on this process of learning on the job and she makes the point that dealing with second language speakers and, at the same time, working in an area of huge change and reform have shaped her
perceptions of herself as teacher educator. She says: “there’s lots of things to learn, but I felt that I was able to learn all those things, I mean I didn’t at any point feel that I was out of my depth”.

In her day to day practice, Sally takes her responsibilities as a role model very seriously: “when you are a teacher educator everything you teach is related to developing their identity as a teacher, so even the way you walk into the class and say good morning to them is a teaching and learning opportunity about how to interact with students so the role of a teacher educator in the classroom, it’s more complex, more demanding […] you are a role model which I think in this atmosphere of education reform is crucial because every interaction you have with a student is an opportunity to model good practice. The students pick up a lot from interaction with you and I think that’s really important, you represent the profession and hopefully you represent best practice.” Sally talks about her early expectations of herself and the role and how she has changed and developed her views over time: “now I think I’ve got a much bigger picture, you know starting from one course. And you know it is so disappointing, I fell into the trap of teaching students something and then going into the class and you expect to see it and you think, why aren’t I seeing it? But of course you know as a teacher that what you teach is not necessarily what students learn. The first time I went on teaching practice and saw the students in action in the classroom I thought ‘Oh no! OK radical rethink!’ “. From those early beginnings Sally describes how, through a process of targeted reading and reflection and discussion with colleagues she came to have more “realistic expectations of how students do evolve over a four year degree”.

From a social perspective, Sally values the support and collegiality of her team colleagues; she considers being part of a good team to be a form of professional development as the informal discussions about work that take place on a daily basis are helpful in working through issues and coming up with solutions to problems and she is appreciative of the professional development opportunities afforded to the BEd team in the early days of the programme in Institution A. Sally contrasts the ‘social’ PD she mentions with institutionally imposed PD as something “often nobody wants to do at the time nobody wants to do it and really those are rather wasted, and I really feel quite strongly about this, actually letting teachers – leaving them alone - and letting them work in teams and providing an atmosphere where they can share ideas actually results in a lot more PD, real PD than sitting in some lecture hall”.

Sally shares an anecdote about meeting former students who are now in leading positions in schools she visits with current students. She expresses her sense of satisfaction from seeing the professional and ongoing growth of former students: “you know there is something lovely about being a teacher educator and passing the baton on, that is very rewarding and seeing people now [.....] I mean I think as far as teaching goes it just doesn’t get any more rewarding than that”.

For Sally, “the students are at the centre of the teaching and learning enterprise, not the curriculum”. She says: “I want my student teachers to feel they are engaged in this bigger thing than teaching English or teaching maths or teaching science, so that kind of mission that they are learning this for a specific purpose and the purpose is a big part of our community and a big part of a society and a culture”. For this reason she prefers a humanistic approach to
teacher education which takes the student teacher herself as the starting point. She indicates her disagreement with the curriculum approach in Institution B where “people are so concerned with putting in heavy content knowledge they’ve got to learn this and they’ve got to know that’, far away from teaching and forgetting that actually the students are at the centre of the curriculum”. Sally strongly believes that teacher education should begin by helping student teachers explore their own beliefs and experiences rather than the heavy theoretical content which she feels is a feature of Institution B and she supports this belief by referring to her own development as a teacher: “what I know doesn’t work is you teach them theory and they put it into practice. 100% I am convinced that does not work [....] I was a teacher quite a long time and I didn’t have any theory, and looking back, I was an ok teacher, when I started studying theory it did inform my teaching but when I studied it, I had a framework, I had a schema. I had experience which I could then plot the theory on and it made sense”. She is also critical of the atomistic, discrete elements approach taken in Institution B and contrasts this unfavourably with the more holistic approach to curriculum adopted in Institution A: “we were in the very lucky situation (in Institution A) that we all had involvement in the teacher education programme, had a very good idea of the whole overview of the programme, so when you’ve all been responsible or involved in designing different elements you see how it all hangs together when you’re teaching one course you can make links to what they’ve done before and what they do after whereas when you’re just teaching one little course you might not know what the students are doing”.

201
Amanda

Amanda’s professional history has led her somewhat accidentally to the role of teacher educator and this is a role she herself acknowledges she is still transitioning into. Amanda works in Institution B where she originally taught English in different departments of the college before being made responsible for the teaching and development of BEd curriculum content courses as well as practicum mentoring; she has fulfilled these latter roles for approximately two years so she is still relatively inexperienced in the job of teacher educator, although she has been teaching for approximately eighteen years. Amanda holds a Bachelor’s degree in Fine Art and her first experience of teaching was preparing high school students in her own country to enter art college; although unqualified as teacher, she nevertheless enjoyed the experience and viewed the option of branching out in EFL teaching as a possible way of combining a desire to travel with her enjoyment of teaching. She thus accepted an offer of a job at a language school in the Far East having been offered on-site training to do the job. However, the promised training never materialised, she tells the story thus: “but they didn’t offer any training, threw you into the class, the first day I arrived, like I well and truly arrived, you know, I was in my class and I had to figure it out, how to teach. From that experience of being thrown in there you learn a lot in your first year”. Prompted by this early experience and the sense of helplessness and confusion it engendered, Amanda opted to do a DELTA qualification by distance learning followed shortly after by a Master’s degree in TESOL in the USA. Following her Master’s degree she returned to the Far East to teach English for approximately ten years before coming to the UAE. In addition to working in Institution B she is also a doctoral candidate with a UK university.
In terms of entering into the role of teacher educator, Amanda’s shift from teacher of EFL to BEd content teacher was, as noted above, accidental; the role was thrust upon her and was, at least initially, not entirely welcomed. She says: “when I was asked to teach this course I didn’t feel that necessarily I was the person trained with the adequate coursework in phonology to teach this, I had a half course in phonology, not a full course in phonology in my Masters, so I kind of felt pushed, or invited depending on your mood on the day, to teach this course with someone who was SUPPOSEDLY to be the person to guide me through and help me learn through this process of becoming a phonology teacher”. Amanda feels unsupported in her role and feels that the college lacks a unified community of practice. She says: “I think we’re missing a whole level of experienced managers in the sense of knowing what’s going on in the schools and being able to help us to help the students […..] I wish that there were other colleagues who could help me be better”. In addition, she is openly critical of the administrative sector of the college, she says: “I emphatically feel that the administration should help see what this task is about, I feel that in many cases there’s an active, some kind of, I don’t know if its subconscious or not, but there’s some kind of sabotage going on I feel from the changing administrative guard”.

She comments about the wider context of the UAE in the following way: “politically I have a temporary contract so any mistake I make, I could be out so you’re very careful of being kind of moral, ethical according to a different set of values that you may guide yourself by. You want to be more attuned to what are the governing values in place in the students’ world. […..] the students are quite articulate and will seek out means to make sure that their voices are heard and accounted for so if they are not happy with something about the curriculum they
will find means to communicate that. If you don’t listen to them, if you don’t act on them, if you don’t show that you’re in tune, that you’re having a dialogue with them they will find a way to trump which is kind of shocking at first”.

Amanda is experiencing some difficulties in achieving a work/life balance and her professional life intersects with and impacts upon her personal life. She describes the physical and emotional toll of her work and the coping strategies she has adopted to deal with it: “this job is really demanding. In (name of Far Eastern country) I felt the demand was like really putting in long hours and here I feel it is actually a really big, huge, social and emotional demand. After a day at work I’m really tired and I’m conscious of what it would mean to be burnt out here and that it’s so easy to do and you’d be left on your own. So it really is a huge responsibility, to make sure that you try and stay healthy, emotionally, physically and all that. I actually do a lot to take care of myself […] the job is so demanding, for instance I do yoga, I do a breathing and meditation course, I also do a spin class to kind of vent the stresses and just channel all that, yeah to get rid of it”. Despite the stress Amanda feels, she is looking to the future and hopes to channel her UAE experiences in a future career. She says: “I am taking care of myself in the long term in the sense that, because my doctorate is studying this context, I have a vested interest in this place and what’s going on and so I realise engaging with these issues is part of my intellectual, but also my emotional development as a person. I think what I learn from here could actually be meaningful to another context so from an emic and an etic perspective having had the experience here in this intercultural place and then to try and make sense of it, to have this experience and then share it with people say in (name of home country) so they could understand this. If it was some kind of intercultural programme I think that my experience here could
ultimately be meaningful in another context, so I try to see that it’s not just for Abu Dhabi, it’s for me and for another place.”

Amanda focuses her attention on the ‘product’ aspect of her work with the curriculum documentation shaping her practice with the students. She says: “my perception of what they need to know is shaped by the shape of the curriculum, the curriculum documents, the specifications that ADEC says the curriculum is and what I see from the practicum that they are going to go into, having access to that world and using that as shaping what I think they need to know. So the curriculum has content there, has some skills there and then it’s trying to kind of, not embody, not personalize but try to make that tangible, discussable in the classroom.”

Although she is acting as a teacher educator, Amanda does not define herself in terms of her job; indeed her role as a doctoral candidate seems to be more of a pivotal point for her professionally; she says “you know I’m very much a doctoral student [...]”, and goes so far as to reject the idea of being a teacher educator. She says: “I feel it would be kind of arrogant to say that you are a teacher educator. I feel that word has some kind of enlightenment or post enlightenment feeling of like, you are an all knowing kind of leader and a wise person and I feel like I’m just one, A role in trying to bring people along in a community of learners”. Amanda seems to regard herself as simply one among many who contribute to the teacher education of the BEd students in Institution B
Maryellen

Maryellen also works in institution B where she has been for the past four years; for the past three years she has been involved in the BEd courses and teaching practicum. Maryellen has been an educator for twenty five years, most of that time has been spent in her home country teaching academic English in undergraduate programmes, however, she also spent a year working on a teacher training programme in a Central Asian country where the brief was to retrain former teachers of Russian to become teachers of English. Her entry into teacher education in the UAE was accidental in the sense that she was originally employed as an English teacher but, because of a shortage of staff at Institution B, the previous experience in Central Asia led to her being given BEd courses to each.

Mary’s experience in Central Asia with “seasoned teachers” was a positive one; she says they “needed exposure to maybe newer techniques and methodologies and they were extremely gung ho, I mean really motivated to expand their repertoire and learn new things, so I found training instructors extremely rewarding”. She contrasts this experience rather unfavourably with her work with her current undergraduate student teachers “who may or may not know why they are in class”. She returns to this later in her conversation saying: “I think working at the teacher training college with students who are really just taking up space because their family told them they had to come to this place, it’s very difficult to increase motivation or get the students excited about something [....] the students that I work with here in the UAE, I think have barely more knowledge than the students they will be teaching in K through 5” She
goes on to remark: “you know we have to remember the language ability and the fact they have really zero previous knowledge of education”.

Maryellen views her job as being about conveying very concrete and practical information to the student teachers. She talks of her experience with the seasoned teachers in Central Asia who already had their “bag of tricks” which simply needed refreshing and updating. Of her role with the young Emirati student teachers she feels her own limitations because she lacks a primary school background; she says: “the thing that is most difficult for me is that I don’t have my bag of tricks, I mean at least from a teacher’s point of view in teaching primary. So I think that had I had experience of teaching in primary school I would be able to give more examples and real life situations and little case studies. [...]Learning the theory and stuff and explaining those isn’t hard, it’s the other stuff that I think I fall a little short on”. Maryellen views teaching as a technical and practical activity which develops over time, she herself has become “more competent through the years” through repeated practice. She is clear that learning from colleagues has been a feature of her professional development over time: “I have to admit I’m a bit of a slacker in terms of reading the latest journals and things like that [...]and I think you know my teaching philosophy probably hasn’t changed that much over the last twenty years, but you know it HAS changed because you kind of listen to different people and try new things, so I think my current way of teaching right now is informed by a lot of things. You know I still hear my old professors from twenty, twenty five years ago explaining the bilabial fricative sounds of Russian, to you know my current colleagues who I pop in and watch their classes, so it’s kind of a mixed bag".
Maryellen offers further insights into her relationships with her students when asked how she copes with what she sees as the challenging nature of the student body: “well I used to just bitch about it [sic], not to them obviously, but just think, ‘Oh my God! ‘ You know! But now I’m actually trying to find ways to adjust, but there are still just big gaps of general stuff, so every opportunity I get when I see that a couple of students are staring at me blankly if I mention a phrase like, for example, gap year, I’ll stop for ten minutes and talk about it with them. So, you know, coping with it is, I don’t know, just trying to feed them, feed them, make them interested in different things beyond their phones”.

Maryellen acknowledges that she initially felt unconfident in the teacher educator role: ”when I first started I thought oh I can’t do that, I always thought it had to be somebody with all sorts of letters after their names but then it dawned on me that the best teacher trainers are the ones that have a lot of classroom experience”. She openly states that she adheres most closely to an apprenticeship model of teacher development; she is therefore, the technician, or the master teacher, who ‘dips into’ her toolbag as different classroom situations warrant it and she is keen to pass on “practical things” to her students: “I think a lot can be gleaned from watching someone who’s professional, somebody who’s really a seasoned teacher.”
Appendix 2 Sample extracts from tapescripts

Extract 1: Rose (Institution A)

ME: ok…erm…what could you do …what could make your life easier, your job easier…. what sort of institutional support or personal professional development could you undertake that would support you in your role..?

R: At a general level..? erm the best thing that’s happened for me recently in terms of my professional development is being left alone to decide what is right for me …

ME: Is that a recent innovation?

R: Very recent… very very recent.. and a lot to do with the organisation of the institution, and the responsibility of chairs, and the amount of work that they’ve had to do, so it is something that has evolved but I don’t think it was intentional at a higher level… but instead of professional development being dictated to from on high in terms of what you will attend and won’t attend and what you need and IT support and new IT programs etc etc that don’t necessarily enhance teaching and learning that is based on what happens in my classroom, and based on what I think the needs of my students are and where there might be gaps in my professional development that I then go pursuing what I think is needed and that’s done in collaboration and consultation with the chair but actually driven by me

ME:…. and what sort of areas have you identified?
R: Ok so I’ve recently taught the curriculum course….have never taught it before so a lot of my professional development was done informally with my colleague who had taught it before, looking at curriculum philosophical underpinnings different types of curriculum etc, but erm, more useful was actually working with people who are on the ground implementing the new government ….the new school model and how they’ve done that and how it’s interpreted and what it means and biliteracy etc. so it’s been done very informally but based on a need to know basis and basic exploration and experimentation in inverted commas in the classroom, what to do with that knowledge and how to share that and how to expose the students to current practices. So that would be one example, another example would be something a bit more formal, kind of going back to school and looking at things for myself as in part time education that I am interested in e. g. leadership and management being a bit of an issue for in trying to make sense of leadership and management in (Institution A) and actually studying that in a little bit more depth from a theoretical perspective..

Extract 2 May (Institution A)

ME: So er what are the main influences that inform your decisions and your pedagogy?

M: Erm let me see…the main influences… I suppose there’d be a wide variety of influences. The first would be primary school teaching pedagogy going back to how I was trained myself in (name of home country) secondly would be erm readings err I keep up to date with research and conferences and erm yeah reer research on literacy education which is I suppose my area of most interest
people that are gurus in that field would be an influence on me. Teacher education experts from around the world like Korthagen who has the Realistic model of teacher education he would be an influence on my thinking the likes of Kathy Bailey, David Nunan  erm let me see  erm Russell er…. so the big names in teacher education would be an influence on how I would approach my teacher education methods. I’d say I have quite a hybrid, I suppose eclectic style really I wouldn’t be rigid in my approach whatever would be the best fit for a particular lesson or course I would try…other influences  erm so the big names in teacher education would be an influence on how I would approach my teacher education methods.

ME: What would you consider the balance between the theory and the practice? What would be an ideal for you?

M: I think both are very necessary. I think they’re interrelated and interdependent because you can’t have one without the other… I think a skills based approach, one that is highly practical, needs a little bit of background and theory and then a theoretical approach without the practice is also not not  erm a full model for me, so for me a balance between a theory practice and maybe I’d add in reflection would be important, and when I say reflection, self-reflection on the part of the teacher educators and reflection on your teaching methods and promoting reflection within the course and amongst the student teachers challenging them….

ME: And how would you do that?

M: Well  erm I think at the end of each class or at the beginning linking to the lesson before…questioning what’s important for students what’s important in a particular context, especially here in a Middle Eastern context where adopting predominantly first language theories and practices from around the world and implementing them into a second language or foreign language Middle Eastern context. So,  erm reflecting on how a particular theory or practice that is
introduced is actually applicable, manageable and feasible in this particular context what could you add what could you take away what bits are useful and if it’s not useful then coming up with other ideas that may be more feasible so I’d say a realistic contextualized practical approach

ME: Which would look like...?

M: Which would look like a combination of introducing a new topic, say theories of say different approaches to reading, so you have shared reading, guided reading, silent reading...introducing them...what are they....so what is something, the concept...then advantages disadvantages of them, how it looks in a real classroom maybe using vodcasts or modelling an example of a lesson you yourself and then maybe a problem based activity focused around well how could you implement that into a UAE or a Middle Eastern context. For example guided reading as an approach.....one thing I found was that while it is a first language approach and very useful in maybe private schools... here or in other countries in government schools where English is taught sometimes as one subject per day, guided reading is not an applicable approach at all because er first of all they may not have the resources, secondly if they are prescribed if they have to teach a particular book for English in that one hour it’s not realistic to have five or six groups in your class on different levels, it would be something that would be extra or additional so that is an example of an approach that could be introduced as part of a reading theory practice methodology course in a teacher education classroom but in practice then in the UAE context it may not be the most suitable and discussing why it may or may not because you know student teachers in the beginning, they... if you don’t challenge them... they’ll just say ok guided reading yeah ok let’s do that whatever ..but if you don’t get them to see how it might work it mightn’t work
and challenge them to see well would it actually be practical or realistic in your situation? I think challenging them is important.

**Extract 3 Amanda (Institution B)**

ME: So the content you mention, the content base of being a teacher erm how confident are you in your ability to guide those students towards the skills needed to teach kg, grades 1,2 and 3?

A: I’m confident in the sense that I am one source of influence among many and I feel like for one I’m doing no harm, and I think I’m playing my part to help in that so I feel that as one influence among many its er…not a negative influence, I feel good about my engagement and my effort and I feel that they are receiving and respecting the role of that and the content and I feel there is a kind of buy in on behalf of the students, so I feel that’s my feedback that it’s, the way of proceeding, has been ok and that I will grow and develop to be better in that or more sensitive er…but I’m not too critical on myself in terms of…that I think I’m doing my best you know.

ME: What have been the major influences on you that inform your own practice as a teacher educator?

A: (long pause)…..my 1st thought is my MA TESOL which was at (name of institution). I feel that the values that I learned there about what it means to be a teacher from asasa whole person and the whole reflective and experiential approach to teaching and learning made me feel you could have a relationship as an empathetic other, so there was the emphasis on the intercultural dynamic which I think is the most important thing …other other…erm important influences are the fact that my mother was a teacher and my grandmother was a teacher so there’s this…kind of historical sort of …erm…..positioning er…with
me in a lineage of other women doing this and then I feel another influence is my experience in this context and that context, that’s important, so I learn from what I have done. Another influence is the kind of professional engagement I do with the TESOL Arabia conferences I give or papers I try to write and my educational doctorate, learning and then talking with people like for instance (name) that would be another part, or other people in my work environment that kind of professional talking is an influence, talking with the students is another influence.

Extract 4 Maryellen (Institution B)

ME: …and do you see your role changing in different areas of the program different duties that you perform?

M: Well sure…because for instance if I’m mentoring and I’m watching somebody as a student teacher I’m going to already have, I’m going to have something to work with already in terms of giving feedback so yeah it really depends on the situation, it depends on the teacher, for example instructors who are doing retraining for example when I was in (name of country) these were all certified Russian language teachers and from one day to the next they were told they were going to be English teachers, so they had the experience and they had the you know they had their bag of tricks they just needed that change, so yeah I definitely think it depends on the audience..

ME: Do you have a bag of tricks?

M: Well yeah…I’ve got a couple of things..a couple of things in my back pocket you know …..I mean from my classroom, not necessarily for teacher training, but yeah a couple that come out (laughs) every once in a while..
ME: …and do you pass those on to the future teachers..?

M: Yeah I do sure I do… sure I do. I mean here’s…I'll give you one example..

ME: OK

M: Well I have in terms of teacher training I’ve worked more often with non-native speakers of English than with native speakers of English, and that in itself is different you know, working with Master’s students is going to be different from working with people who are not only thinking about the education philosophies, but also their language skills, oh how can I figure out what I was going to say?…Oh a lot of teachers unfortunately have this fear and this lack of confidence when it comes to their speaking ability especially nowadays, some of them are extremely fearful that their students will know more English coming into the classroom than they do and so I really have to focus ..I really ask them to focus on what they can use erm to their advantage like for instance Arabic teachers who teach English I think are extremely lucky because they already have, I mean they’ve got those two systems in their brain and they can easily if they try, I mean if they go for it , if they start analysing the language, contrastive analysis, similarities, differences, they can really use that to good end in helping the students understand , whereas I can’t do that so instead of trying to be as native sounding as possible and let’s use slang in the classroom and let’s try to have a British or US or Canadian accent…erm…focussing on and really using the things they already have at their disposal. So I really try to focus in on that and tell them that just because English is not your first language absolutely does not make you a lesser instructor, so that ‘s one of the points I try to drive home with non-native speakers…. teachers
Appendix 4 Samples of data coding

Figure 5 Early stages of coding 1

Figure 6 Early stages of coding 2
## Sociality (being + doing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Jane</th>
<th>Amanda</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibilities</td>
<td>TP + content courses&lt;br&gt;Student: “mentor”, “evaluator”, “supporter”</td>
<td>TP mentor, content courses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles</td>
<td>Student: “mentor”, “evaluator”, “supporter”</td>
<td>Helping students “bridge the language gap”&lt;br&gt;“deepening content knowledge”&lt;br&gt;“co-writer of curriculum documents”&lt;br&gt;“interpreter of curriculum documents”&lt;br&gt;“materials writer”&lt;br&gt;“curriculum developer”&lt;br&gt;“older sister/mother figure”&lt;br&gt;“fellow female”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional knowledge base</td>
<td>Familiar with professional discourse of teacher education,&lt;br&gt;Learning from experience,&lt;br&gt;Learn from others (Community of Practice) + significant mentors&lt;br&gt;Extensive self-study</td>
<td>Not familiar with professional discourse of teacher education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional beliefs &amp; influences</td>
<td>On job: “not a spouter of information”&lt;br&gt;“each student is an individual”&lt;br&gt;“reflection is important”&lt;br&gt;TP is paramount&lt;br&gt;Realistic teacher education&lt;br&gt;Learn from others (Community of Practice) + significant mentors&lt;br&gt;Good education is invaluable&lt;br&gt;Reflection is important&lt;br&gt;Teacher development is a long process</td>
<td>“what they need to know is shaped by the curriculum”&lt;br&gt;“self-reflection is important”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional activities</td>
<td>Continuous PD&lt;br&gt;Doctoral candidate (teacher education)</td>
<td>Doctoral candidate (bilingualism)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Working in good team&lt;br&gt;Relationships&lt;br&gt;Professionalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likes/dislikes</td>
<td>“I love my job”&lt;br&gt;“I love watching students grow and develop”&lt;br&gt;Dislikes: programme marginalisation</td>
<td>Dislikes “shifting sands”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successes</td>
<td>“I’m doing a good job” - confirmed by seeing students in action</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxieties</td>
<td>Future of Bed programme&lt;br&gt;Fearful of possible promotion to management role i.e. out of classroom</td>
<td>Lack of self-confidence – “I’m a good hardworking individual who I feel has the heart in the right place but I am limited in some ways, I wish there were other colleagues who could help me better”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges</td>
<td>Reacting to requirements of new school model&lt;br&gt;Frustrated by local politics</td>
<td>“shifting sands”&lt;br&gt;Very demanding job (physically + emotionally)&lt;br&gt;Dealing with college administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 Comparing participants in sociality dimension
### Sociality (being/doing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multiple roles</strong></td>
<td>Multiple roles: mentor, supporter, nurturer, evaluator, role model, knowledge giver, coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tension between evaluator/mentor role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TP as most important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflective practice important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students should find out for themselves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theory/practice balance needed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students at centre of enterprise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Take a whole person approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching as a moral endeavour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic rigour – valued</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Professionalism important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Critical thinking important</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“passing the baton” – contributing to students’ development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Complex job</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal values</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 Developing themes and categories in sociality dimension
Appendix 4  Ethics Forms
Certificate of ethical research approval

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guidelines/ and view the School’s statement 011 the GSE student access on-line documents.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter).

DO NOT COMPLETE BY HAND

Your name: Christine Thorne

Your student no: 570036552

Return address for this certificate: c/o Emirates College of Advanced Education, PO Box 126662, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates

Degree/Programme of Study: ED.D. TESOL

Project Supervisor(s): Dr Jill Cadorath & Dr Susan Riley

Your email address: thorne_christine@hotmail.com

Tel: +971 025018528 (w) or +971 507740012 (m)

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my thesis (delete whichever is inappropriate) to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed: Christine Thorne. date: 22 April 2011.

NB For Masters dissertations, which are marked blind, this first page must not be included in your work. It can be kept for your records.
Certificate of ethical research approval

Your student no: 570036552

Title of your project:
An investigation into the development of the professional identity of teacher educators

Brief description of your research project:
The exploratory study will use semi-guided interviews and follow up interviews to gather data with the aim of investigating how two groups of English language teacher educators perceive their role and how their professional identity as teacher educators has developed. The first group are new to the role of teacher educator whilst the second group have a number of years of experience in the role.

Changes in our thinking about the nature of teaching and learning have led to a shift in the professional role of teachers. Teachers are no longer considered as simply deliverers or transmitters of learning but are required to coach and develop the learning processes in students. It follows that if these changes have produced a shift altering the role of the teacher, then the role of teacher educator must also be redefined. However, despite the growing body of literature about teachers’ professional identity and development, relatively little has been written about that of teacher educators. This study would aim to begin to address this gap in the literature.

I will be following the Code of Ethics and Conduct set out by the SERA (2004). Issues regarding respect, confidentiality, informed consent, safe guarding will be carefully considered as detailed below.

Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):
The study will not involve children. Participants will be 10-12 adult teacher educators.

Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:

a) informed consent: Where children in schools are involved this includes both headteachers and parents). Copy(ies) of your consent form(s) you will be using must accompany this document. A blank consent form can be downloaded from the GSE student access on-line documents:

I will be using the attached blank consent form for all the research participants to sign prior to the research. This was downloaded from the Exeter University website (see attached). Informed consent will be an ongoing process throughout the research. Participants will be reminded that they have the right to withdraw from the research at any given time and that data related to them will be destroyed.

b) anonymity and confidentiality

All participants will be informed that the data they provide will be kept indefinitely in a secure location. The thesis will contain no details which might reveal either the identity of individual participants - pseudonyms will be used. Separate permission will be sought in the future if any of the data is to be used for publications.

Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

Data will be gathered by semi-guided interview the location and timing of which is to be determined in advance by the participants themselves. The interviews will be transcribed and analysed using a grounded theory approach. This will lead to follow up methods being included in the methodology design. Information will also be coded to ensure anonymity. This will remain anonymous in the write up of the research. Transcripts of the data will be given to participants prior to analysis, for the purpose of member checking.

Prior to the interviews the participants will be informed that the recordings will be kept in a secure location and in
both the transcription and write up process no participant identities or nationalities will be included. They will also be informed that data gathered as part of the follow-up process will be dealt with in the same fashion whether this involves hard copy notes from focus groups, data from surveys or recordings.

Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project (e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires or special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.):

Records of the data collected (including transcripts and any audio recordings) will be stored in a secure and safe place. Electronic information will only be accessed by myself as researcher with my username and password. This information will be stored on a secure system with recognised virus protection. Electronic and paper information will be locked in a secure desk in my place of residence. Collected written information will be destroyed by shredding and securely disposing when it is no longer required.

Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

This is a particularly sensitive area of research and therefore informed consent and right to withdraw will be emphasised and strictly adhered to.

This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School’s Research Support Office for the Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor.

This project has been approved for the period: April 2011 until: September 2012

By (above mentioned supervisor’s signature): J. Cadworth date: 2/5/11

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference: D 2011 62

Signed: T.C. date: 9/05/2011
Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee
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