Exploring EFL Teachers' Views Regarding Their CPD Activities and Challenges at One of The Saudi Arabian Universities

Submitted by Abdullah Matar AlShahrani to the University of Exeter as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education in July 2017

This thesis is available for Library use on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

I certify that all material in this thesis which is not my own work has been identified and that no material has previously been submitted and approved for the award of a degree by this or any other University.

Signature: ..........................................................
ABSTRACT

This interpretive research study explores how English-language teachers at a Saudi Arabian university viewed continuing professional development (CPD). The aims were to achieve a proper understanding of the CPD which these teachers currently received and a recognition of their views regarding their professional development (PD), to discover what forms of CPD they did and did not engage in and to give voice to these teachers by encouraging them to express their views about PD as a fundamental aspect of their work. The study also addresses issues related to the PD of teachers of English in Saudi Arabia such as the nature of the challenges that they and other teachers face in their attempts to engage in CPD, the selection and initiation of professional development activities, areas where PD is needed and the benefits of PD, based on the views and suggestions of the teachers. The exploratory design involves a qualitative research method, namely one-to-one semi-structured interviews. The participants, 23 male English-language teachers on the preparatory year programme (PYP) at a Saudi Arabian university, were found to value CPD as providing lifelong benefits. The findings also reveal that most of the teachers were aware of the importance of PD and the need for it. However, participants expressed general dissatisfaction that teachers’ voices were not listened to in connection with their CPD opportunities and that the planning of their own CPD did not adequately value their personal input, with inevitably negative consequences for their commitment and motivation. The study also identifies the existence of many barriers to satisfactory CPD provision for teachers, such as lack of autonomy, insufficient time after work to pursue CPD, workloads that are deemed to be excessive, unsupportive
working conditions and inadequate provision of CPD activities that participants considered relevant. Teachers were found to experience CPD as being policed and top down within a wider culture of compliance at the university under study, leading them to feel professionally compromised and lacking in voice and autonomy. A major theme is the dominance of the needs of the university over those of individual teachers, reflected in the gap between the CPD provided and these individual needs as perceived by the teachers themselves. The study makes recommendations for improving the CPD experience of such teachers and concludes with the most significant implications for the context of study, at the institutional level, for the recruiting agencies, for the Ministry of Education and other governmental bodies, for the teachers themselves and for associations of teachers. A number of recommendations for CPD in general and within the Saudi setting are proposed, along with a number of steps to be taken by the PYP to help raise institutional awareness of successful CPD and to encourage teachers to engage with it more profitably.
DEDICATION

This Academic work is dedicated to my Mother &

Father,

My beloved wife- Maha

and my two sons

Fahad and Nawaf,

and my two daughters

Leen and Wasan

for all their unfailing love, support and inspiration.
Acknowledgements

In the Name of Allah, the Most Beneficent, the Most Merciful

“Praise be to Allah, to Whom belong all things in the heavens and on earth: to Him be Praise in the Hereafter: and He is Full of Wisdom, acquainted with all things” (36:1, Holy Quran).

This study could not have been completed without the support and guidance of some very special people. I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Salah Troudi for his continuous support, guidance and encouragement, who made a great effort to support me and provide me with insightful feedback. He was also very patient whenever I faced difficulties with my study. I am also indebted to my second supervisor Dr. Fran Martin for her professional and helpful guidance. I am grateful to all of the study participants for their valuable time and willingness to share their views.

My thankfulness also goes to all of my tutors in the TESOL department at the University of Exeter, especially, Dr. Sara Rich and Dr. Susan Riley for their friendly environment. They were generously caring whenever I faced difficulties with my study throughout the PhD programme.

The support staff at St. Luke’s campus in numerous offices, especially those working in the Print Unit, the programme office, and the library. I should thank them for their supportive assistance and continuous help.
I would like also to thank my colleagues and my friends whom I have utmost respect.

My special gratitude to my wife who was an active supporter and stimulating throughout the production of this work.
### Table of contents

**CHAPTER ONE**................................................................................................................................. 13

**INTRODUCTION**................................................................................................................................. 13

1.1 Introduction.................................................................................................................................. 13

1.2 Personal purpose and rationale ................................................................................................. 16

1.3 The context of Saudi Arabia and KSU..................................................................................... 20

1.4 Aims of the study......................................................................................................................... 24

1.5 Research questions..................................................................................................................... 26

1.6 Organisation of chapters............................................................................................................. 27

**CHAPTER TWO**................................................................................................................................. 29

**CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND**........................................................................................................... 29

2.1 Introduction................................................................................................................................ 29

2.2 Education in Saudi Arabia ....................................................................................................... 30

2.2.1 Objectives of English education in Saudi Arabia .................................................................. 32

2.2.2 Higher education in the KSA ............................................................................................... 33

2.3 The Preparatory Year English Language Programme at KSU .............................................. 35

2.4 English teachers in Saudi Arabia .............................................................................................. 38

2.4.1 The role of EFL teachers in the preparatory year English programme .40

2.4.2 The importance of teacher education and professional development for

English teachers in Saudi Arabia........................................................................................................ 42

2.5 CPD activities for EFL teachers at King Saud University ....................................................... 46

2.7 Recruitment arrangements for foreign teachers ........................................................................ 53

2.8 Immigration and visa conditions for foreign teachers ............................................................ 55

2.9 Conclusion ................................................................................................................................ 57

**CHAPTER THREE**.............................................................................................................................. 59

**LITERATURE REVIEW** ...................................................................................................................... 59

3.1 Introduction................................................................................................................................ 59

3.2 Defining CPD ............................................................................................................................... 60

3.2.1 The purposes of professional development.......................................................................... 63

3.3 What teachers themselves think is the nature and purpose of CPD ..................................... 70

3.3 Professional knowledge in TESOL/TEFL and implications for CPD .............................. 72

3.3.1 The concept of pedagogical content knowledge ................................................................ 76

3.3.2 Wider aspects of TPK .......................................................................................................... 82

3.4 Models of teacher CPD .............................................................................................................. 86

3.4.1 The training model................................................................................................................ 87

3.4.2 The deficit model................................................................................................................... 88

3.4.3 The cascade model................................................................................................................ 89

3.4.4 The standards-based model ................................................................................................. 90

3.4.5 The coaching/mentoring model ............................................................................................ 91

3.4.6 The community of practice model ....................................................................................... 92

3.4.7 The action research model ................................................................................................... 93

3.4.8 The transformative model .................................................................................................. 94
CHAPTER SIX

6.0 Introduction .................................................................................................................. 240

6.1 Participants’ understanding of CPD ................................................................. 240
   6.1.1 The general nature of CPD ................................................................. 240
   6.1.2 Goals and purposes ........................................................................... 242
   6.1.3 Models of CPD.................................................................................. 244
   6.1.4 Differences among teachers .............................................................. 247
   6.1.5 The nature of the CPD provided ....................................................... 249

6.2 The dominance of institutional needs over individual needs .................. 251
   6.2.1 The gap between CPD provision and teachers’ perceived individual needs ................................................................. 251
   6.2.2 Alienation arising from the institutional culture with respect to CPD and to English teaching ................................................................. 254
   6.2.3 Teachers’ responses to the institution by engaging in their own forms of CPD .................................................................................. 255

6.3 Teachers’ concern with the ultimate goal of CPD as maximising students’ learning potential ................................................................. 257
   6.3.1 Relevance to the classroom: Putting theory into practice ............... 258
   6.3.2 Suitability for the classroom: Cultural appropriateness ............... 259

6.4 Teachers’ involvement in CPD decision-making .................................... 260
   6.4.1 “If nobody listens, why should I speak?” ........................................ 260
   6.4.2 Effects on commitment ..................................................................... 262
6.4.3 Arguments concerning teachers’ involvement in making decisions ................................................................. 264
6.5 The effects of contextual challenges on CPD and job satisfaction ........ 267
  6.5.1 Issues related to pay and holidays .................................................. 267
  6.5.2 Job security ............................................................................ 271
  6.5.3 High turnover effects ................................................................. 276
6.6 Recruitment of teaching staff ......................................................... 277
6.7 Cultural issues ........................................................................... 283
6.8 Conclusion ................................................................................. 287

CHAPTER SEVEN ........................................................................ 289

CONCLUSION .............................................................................. 289
  7.1 Introduction .............................................................................. 289
  7.2 The research questions revisited ................................................... 289
  7.2.1 RQ1 ..................................................................................... 290
  7.2.2 RQ2 ..................................................................................... 290
  7.2.3 RQ3 ..................................................................................... 291
  7.2.4 RQ4 ..................................................................................... 294
  7.3 Wider themes represented in the results: Contributions of the study ... 295
  7.3.1 CPD as training sessions versus other activities ......................... 296
  7.3.2 CPD as meeting the needs of employers versus teachers ............. 297
  7.3.3 CPD as threatened by contextual problems of foreign versus local teachers ......................................................... 299
  7.3.4 CPD as teachers’ assimilation to themselves as a community of practice versus the institution as a community of practice ................. 300
  7.4 Recommendations and implications for CPD in the study context ...... 302
  7.4.1 Implications at the institutional level ............................................. 303
  7.4.2 Implications for the recruitment agencies .................................... 312
  7.4.3 Implications for the MoE and other government bodies ................ 315
  7.4.4 Implications for the teachers themselves .................................... 316
  7.4.5 Implications for associations of teachers .................................... 317
  7.5 Limitations of the study .............................................................. 318
  7.6 Future research .......................................................................... 320
  7.7 Envoi: A personal research journey ............................................. 322

Appendices ....................................................................................... 328
Appendix (A) ..................................................................................... 328
Appendix (B) ..................................................................................... 331
Appendix (C) ..................................................................................... 332
Appendix (D) ..................................................................................... 333
Appendix (E) ..................................................................................... 336
Appendix (F) ..................................................................................... 363
Appendix (G) ..................................................................................... 369
Appendix (H) ..................................................................................... 373
Appendix (I) ..................................................................................... 376

Bibliography ..................................................................................... 377
List of Acronyms

BANA: British, Australasia, and North American

CEA: The Commission on English Language Program Accreditation

CELTA: Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults

CPD: Continuing Professional Development

DDL: Data-driven Learning

DELTA: Cambridge Diploma of English Language Teaching to Adults

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EIL: English as an International Language

ELF: English as a Lingua Franca

ELT = English language teaching

ELTs’ = English language teachers’

IATEFL: International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

IELTS: The international English language testing system

KSAALT: The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Association of Language Teachers

KSU: King Saud University

LTHE: Learning and Teaching in Higher Education

MHE: the Ministry of Higher Education

NESTS: Native English Speaking Teachers

NNESTS: Non-Native English Speaking Teachers

PCK: Pedagogical content knowledge
PRESET: Pre-service teacher training
PYP: The preparatory year programme
RSNF: Royal Saudi Naval Forces
TESOL: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language
TLA: Teacher language awareness
TPD: Teacher professional development
TPK: Teachers’ professional knowledge
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This thesis will explore the nature of continuing professional development (CPD) in the preparatory year at a Saudi Arabian university and report on research into the views about their CPD of the English teachers involved. The term CPD is used provisionally to denote any activity engaged in by teachers in service, with the deliberate purpose of teacher improvement. The fuller meaning of the term is to be discussed in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3). This introductory chapter offers an outline account of CPD in general and in the context of the present study, sets out the purpose and rationale of the study from a personal viewpoint, describes the context in which the study took place, declares its aims and lists the research questions which it seeks to answer. It ends with an account of the organisation of the thesis.

Throughout the world, in the field of education in general and in the teaching profession in particular, CPD is a never ending cycle of activities and is essential if teachers and institutions are to effectively respond to the complex and swiftly changing demands of today’s world. Indeed, research in the field of teacher learning shows that the CPD of teachers is essential to improving the quality of education (Fullan, 2007; Darling-Hammond 2006; 2010; (Corte, Brok, Kamp, & Bergen, 2013).

Teachers rely on specialised knowledge to perform their duties to a professional standard. In the exercise of their duties, they must be sure
always to hold themselves accountable to the highest possible standards, addressing their students’ and their own changing learning needs. To meet these very specific needs, teachers must themselves be involved in a continuing, lifelong learning journey; in other words, it is not sufficient for them simply to be on the receiving end of training programmes. Barth (1990, p. 49) expresses the view that “probably nothing within a school has more impact on students in terms of skills development, self-confidence or classroom behaviour than the personal and professional growth of their teachers”.

Teachers are not the only ones who benefit from professional development, for it can also play a vital role in enhancing their students’ level of achievement through a transfer of the training they have received to their classroom practices. The teacher acts as a mediator and the effectiveness of innovations very much depends on the teacher making proper use of them. The teacher is at the centre of the learning process and it follows from this that learning depends first and foremost on the quality of the teacher (Psacharopoulos & Sanyal, 2007). Thus, if children are to achieve the levels demanded by the high standards adopted by states and districts, teachers will have to help them to do so. Teachers are necessarily at the centre of any process of reform, for they must carry out the demands of reform in the classroom (Cuban, 1990). As a result, teachers’ professional development is a major focus of systemic reform initiatives (Corcoran, 1995; Corcoran, Shields, & Zucker, 1998; (Garet, Birman, Porter, Desimone, & Herman, 1999).

Professional development is a key to the success of the individual teacher, of all learners and of the wider institutional community, according to the
argument made by Joyce and Showers (2002). Drawing his readers’ attention to the professionalism initiative as instigated in the mid-1980s, when policy makers identified the teacher as the fundamental element in the students’ learning process, Ron Brandt (1993, p. 234) contends that “the quality of students depends on the quality of instruction, and the quality of instruction depends on their teachers”, which in turn depends on the quality of the CPD that these teachers receive.

Drake and Roe (1999) make the observation that throughout the past several decades, in many countries, professional development and many other related activities have been used as vehicles to boost the performance of teachers. For this reason, the concept of professional development cannot be ignored in any teaching situation. There have been many studies that have reported poor results of educational practices related to the teaching of English in Saudi Arabia (Intakhab, 2011) and these often appear to simply be a consequence of poorly designed or badly implemented CPD.

Given the general importance of CPD, there is therefore a continuing need to study and understand it as it occurs in a myriad of different contexts around the world. If we do not know what CPD occurs and are ignorant of teachers’ views on it, we will not be in a position to see what changes may need to be made in order to improve its efficacy. One such context is that of preparatory year English teaching in Saudi Arabia, which is what our study is concerned with. To our knowledge, very little research has been directed to CPD in this specific context.
Furthermore, some research that has been conducted in Saudi Arabia has shown that the in-service training, supervision and professional development applied to teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) have not been keeping pace with the latest methodologies. This points to the urgent need for Saudi Arabia to improve its initial teacher education and its professional development programmes for EFL teachers throughout their careers (Al-Seghayer, 2014). While Al-Seghayer’s study is valuable, however, it does not focus to any great extent on the CPD of those teachers working on EFL courses in the preparatory year. It is therefore timely for just such a study as the present one, which does focus on this context, to be conducted.

1.2 Personal purpose and rationale

To help the reader to understand the underpinnings of dealing with the topic of this study, I believe that an overview of my personal profile in this regard would be of interest. My previous experience in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) makes me interested in the area of professional development for EFL teachers. The story started in 1996, when I joined the English Language Department of the College of Arts of King Saud University (KSU) in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia, the site of this study, as a Saudi English language learner. Four years later, in September 2000, I found myself teaching my first language class at the Education and Training Centre of the Saudi Electricity Company in Riyadh, as a new graduate just out of university with no qualifications, experience or training as a language teacher. That terrifying and stressful experience brought home to me the importance of training and professional development both to prepare teachers for teaching
and to help them develop while actually teaching. Fortunately, I was able to rely on the valuable help of two of my colleagues, Omar and John, both of whom were already experienced as EFL teachers. Thanks to their support, for which I shall always remain grateful, after much splashing, I started to swim.

A year later I left the Education and Training Centre and moved on to the English Language School of the Royal Saudi Naval Forces as a commissioned officer. For the next two years, from 2001 to 2003, I worked first as an EFL and then as a senior officer teacher. During these years, I did not see any evidence of externally provided professional development that would have been able to enhance teacher performance, excluding the CPD carried out by the teacher himself/herself.

A couple of years later, upon being appointed to the position of director of training and administration at the same institution, I took the initiative of recommending and introducing some CPD activities for the school and teachers alike. Nevertheless, from my experience, the design of the curriculum was one of the major obstacles to the successful implementation of CPD, in that it left too little time for the provision of CPD and because of the teaching methods incorporated in the curriculum itself (AlShahrani 2010). I endeavoured to give voice to my teachers by encouraging them to express their views about the curriculum and their professional development, which I saw as being crucial to their work. In spite of my efforts to communicate their views to the people in charge of curriculum development and professional development at the higher level, no action was taken with regard to these attempts and the curriculum materials remained without modifications, while
the teachers’ professional development continued to suffer from a climate of neglect.

Perhaps another reason for me being interested in this area is that I was motivated to further my personal and professional self-development by undertaking the Doctor of Education (EdD) programme in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL), specifically designed to enable the academic and professional development of experienced professionals in education and the field of TESOL. I therefore embarked on this ‘professional doctorate’, which was based on five taught modules, namely The Nature of Educational Research, Doing and Using Educational Research, Critical Issues in Teaching English, Curriculum Issues in TESOL and Language Education, Leadership and Management in Education, followed by the writing of a thesis. However, in response to my employer’s amended requirements, having completed all of the above modules, I transferred from the EdD programme to a PhD programme. As is clear from the above account, my own story is one of continuing teacher development and I am basically pursuing my commitment to continuing professional development and personal growth.

In 2009, I was promoted and moved to the position of head of the English language department at one of the undergraduate military colleges in Saudi Arabia. At the end of the year, after about 10 years of engaging in English language teaching (ELT) and the management of EFL teachers, I was offered a job as a training manager at KSU, the institution from which I had graduated.
My current employer, a Saudi military college, uses the same recruiting company that is contracted to engage EFL teachers for employment at KSU and this shared arrangement provides the basis for cooperation between the two institutions. In my new role at KSU I had the chance to talk to some of the teachers who were working at this reputable academic institution on the preparatory year programme. During informal discussions with some experienced EFL teachers, I noticed that some expressed dissatisfaction, disappointment and frustration concerning their current professional development (PD) activities. This is despite the fact that, for example, the EFL teachers had to undergo an induction week claimed to be part of a PD scheme, that teachers were observed by senior members of staff to evaluate their teaching and that they were graded accordingly, a process which was also regarded by the institution as constituting a form of PD.

During my personal and professional collaboration with these teachers I gained the impression that many of them had established some sort of resistance towards most of the activities that the institution itself regarded as forms of CPD. Furthermore, my impression was that for whatever reason, the EFL teachers rarely if ever engaged in self-motivated CPD activities such as observing each other’s classes in a friendly way in order to exchange tips and observations, reflecting on their own classes, perhaps videoing them or keeping a teacher’s reflective journal, for example. In other words, these EFL teachers’ conception of CPD appeared to be that of a service provided to them and which they should wait passively to receive, rather than a set of activities which they themselves could participate in creating and in which
they could choose to engage; this distinction is fundamental to the present study and will therefore be discussed throughout this thesis.

Since I had experienced some frustrations earlier in my career in respect of a perceived lack of interest in my initiatives on the part of the higher management, I consciously chose to undertake the current research in the place where I had received my first undergraduate learning (KSU) and the institution which I hope will be my next professional destination. My aims in undertaking this research were both to discover what forms of CPD these teachers really did and did not engage in and also to give voice to these teachers by encouraging them to express their views about PD as a fundamental aspect of their work.

The context of this research is one which I share and have experienced, as an undergraduate and prospective English language teacher and which I thus feel myself to have a personal investment in. From my point of view, my research is therefore of great personal importance, in addition to making a valid contribution to the current body of knowledge and understanding of what is becoming an increasingly important area of education; finally, I believe that it has the potential to be of significant value to the institution in which the study is set. I have always believed that CPD is one of the key tools for one’s personal growth and for the improved effectiveness of one’s career.

1.3 The context of Saudi Arabia and KSU

During earlier years, higher education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) witnessed a period of extremely strong growth which has affected all aspects
of educational development and extended to all of the Kingdoms’ provinces and governorates; the number of government universities has reached 24, together with 10 private universities and colleges (MHE, 2012).

As a consequence, as a matter of absolute necessity, important and indispensable steps have been taken by the Ministry of Higher Education (MHE) to advance and develop universities, in particular their methodological and practical aspects, so as to attain higher levels of international competitiveness. In particular, with the increasing awareness of the importance of the English language in the education sector in general and in higher education in particular, and with increasing efforts to deliver some undergraduate majors other than English taught through the medium of English, the MHE has introduced a new course, called the Preparatory Year Programme (PYP), to be taught in all of the universities of Saudi Arabia. Amongst other things, this one-year programme, on which students embark prior to starting on their majors, focuses on trying to raise the often low level of English possessed by school leavers to the much higher level which they would need as the basis for academic study through English. This preparatory year of intensive English teaching, which is taken by undergraduates in Saudi universities before they join their colleges and start on their majors, thus aims to prepare the newly admitted students for university life and undergraduate study. In particular, it seeks to develop their skills in English, thus enabling them to study and communicate in English throughout their undergraduate years, as well as strengthening their understanding of basic mathematical concepts and developing their analytical and critical thinking abilities through the methodical solution of mathematical problems. It is intended to prepare
them for academic endeavour, helping them to develop effective learning styles and to select an appropriate field of study. The MHE expects to equip students with the necessary academic skills in English, maths, computer studies and study skills, so that they will be equipped to succeed in competitive and challenging academic programmes after entry into the colleges where they pursue their majors.

At the beginning of the academic year of 2012/2013, the English Language Department of King Saud University’s Preparatory Year Deanship (KSU-PY) received about 4000 students on the Male Campus. In order to teach these students English there are some 319 EFL members of the teaching faculty, as to be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2.

One of the results of this search for greater efficiency promoted by the MHE has been that the English Department of KSU-PY now recognises the significance of CPD as a way of improving teachers’ skills and performance. This can be seen in partnerships between KSU-PY and a number of international institutions to train EFL teachers and improve their performance, as well as promoting curriculum development. However, curriculum development in itself is not really CPD. On the contrary, changes to the curriculum may mean that CPD is needed to help existing teachers to become competent at teaching the new curriculum. It can also be argued that if teachers are involved in developing the new curriculum, this involvement could be seen as having some CPD value. Although KSU-PY acknowledges that professional development is crucial for individuals and institutions alike, it
nonetheless remains a problematic notion and its importance is all too often downplayed (Zohiry 2011).

In the context of the present research, a further factor to consider is that KSU-PY is endeavouring to receive accreditation from the Commission on English Language Program Accreditation (CEA), an agency based in the United States of America (USA) which supplies accreditation for language courses worldwide. This again entails that KSU-PY wants to promote teachers’ professionalism and excellence in the field of English language teaching and administration, so as to attain widely recognised standards. One way of doing this is through effective teacher CPD. The CEA uses widely-held standards and also fosters continuous programme development through a rigorous process of regular self-assessment and peer evaluation by institutions.

At the national level, the KSU also has to meet standards set by the National Commission for Assessment and Academic Accreditation. This has as one of its aims to evaluate the academic performance of the teaching staff and departmental programmes, comparing these with the performance of teachers and departments in international educational institutions.

A further reason for KSU-PY wanting to raise the standards of performance of its teachers, implying teacher CPD, is that it also wishes to receive accreditation from well recognised international institutions such as the CEA and to achieve partnership with such bodies. In 2010, some of these institutions requested KSU-PY to encourage PD among all teachers from different disciplines working in KSU-PY as a mandatory requirement. As a result, the institutional aim is to enable KSU-PY faculty members in general
and KSU-PY EFL teachers in particular to meet the challenges in their fields of education.

1.4 Aims of the study

Despite the current emphasis on CPD at KSU and its crucial role in education in general, EFL teachers’ CPD at KSU remains a relatively unexplored field. Heavy investments have been made in CPD, but it is nevertheless still difficult to evaluate and analyse the outcomes of these investments, due to a lack of consensus on what these outcomes are and how they should be examined. Therefore, the present research study aims to address this gap in knowledge.

The purpose of the study reported in this thesis is thus to explore the CPD of language teachers employed to teach English in the KSU-PY. Achieving a proper understanding of the CPD which these teachers currently receive and a recognition of their views regarding their professional development, which is the scope of this research, would facilitate the taking of future steps to enhance their CPD. This would have the effect of improving teachers’ pedagogical knowledge and so in turn help them to improve the performance of their students in the classroom, as well as fostering the teachers’ personal and professional growth. I further aspire through this research to inform and influence policies in the institution where I work and in the country of which I am a citizen, so as to create a better CPD culture within higher education in the KSA (D'Andrea & Gosling, 2005).

Troudi (2005, p. 118) highlights an essential concern of teachers’ CPD: “If any element is to be the core of a teacher education programme, it should be the
teacher’s view(s) of what language education is about and what he/she considers teaching to be”. I share this analysis and in this study I am therefore specifically interested in teachers’ views about PD, along with their preferences for different types of CPD and the factors which impact on their preferences. The study also explores teachers’ suggestions for improving PD in their context.

An exploratory, constructivist, study such as this, implemented through in-depth interviews, would seem to be necessary so that the teachers who participate in it can articulate their views and so that their voices can be heard. Through accessing the teachers’ viewpoint, this study also has elements of the critical research paradigm, as one of its aims is to raise awareness. I intend my work to challenge the way CPD is viewed by the university authorities and by the MHE; I expect it to do this by showing these bodies what the teachers themselves think and have to say about it. I also hope to have raised and sharpened awareness of CPD among participating teachers through their engagement in the interview process, which will have obliged them to reflect critically on the topic.

As I shall show in Chapter 2, very little is known and understood about teachers’ views on their professional development, or indeed about what they actually think CPD is. Although CPD is implemented in many educational institutions in the Gulf in general and Saudi Arabia in particular, it would appear that very limited research has been undertaken in this area. Therefore, the current study was carried out as an attempt to fill in such a gap in
knowledge and to contribute to this area of research by exploring the EFL teachers’ views about CPD.

1.5 Research questions

Given these aims, I therefore initially formulated four provisional research questions. After the exploration of the literature in Chapter 3, they underwent further revision in the light of my growing awareness of what the research would actually involve. For the sake of consistency, I present here the four research questions in their final form as re-examined in the introduction to Chapter 4, rather than in their initial form, which reflected the simplistic view with which I begin the enquiry.

1. What do EFL teachers working in the preparatory year English programme at a Saudi Arabian university understand by the term ‘continuing professional development’?

2. What continuing professional development activities are currently in place, which do the teachers actually engage in and what are their views of them?

3. In the view of these teachers, what is the nature of the challenges that they and other teachers face in their attempts to engage in continuing professional development?

4. What suggestions do teachers have on how they can best be helped to continue to develop?
The final section of this chapter, which follows, explains the organisation of the remaining chapters of the thesis.

1.6 Organisation of chapters

This chapter has offered a brief introduction to the present study, its rationale and aims.

Chapter 2 describes the contextual background to the study, beginning with the Saudi educational system and the role of English in higher education, then describing the Preparatory Year English Programme at King Saud University. It considers the importance of CPD for the PYP EFL teachers and touches on the difficulties that they face in regard to recruitment agencies and obtaining visas.

Chapter 3 comprises a review of the literature pertinent to CPD, especially as related to TEFL. It sets the study within the conceptual framework of CPD and of professional knowledge in teaching, especially of English. It compares a number of theoretical models of CPD and their application, concluding with an examination of CPD activities and their effectiveness.

Chapter 4 details the design adopted for the study, placing this within its ontological, epistemological and methodological context. It describes the participants, explains the methods used to collect and analyse the data, then addresses the trustworthiness of the research and the ethical considerations guiding it.
Chapter 5 reports the findings in detail and interprets them in a way that allows answers to be offered to each of the four research questions set out in Chapter 1.

Chapter 6 discusses these findings in light of the contextual facts presented in Chapters 1 and 2 and of the literature reviewed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 7 concludes the thesis by reviewing the major findings with respect to the research questions. It then summarises the discussion in terms of a small number of meta-themes, highlighting the contribution of the present study, before considering the implications to be drawn and making some practical recommendations. After an examination of limitations and a few suggestions for future research, it ends with personal reflections.
CHAPTER TWO

CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides background information on the context in which this study was carried out. This is needed both in order to better understand the motivation for the research and the formulation of its aims and research questions, and so as to be able to better interpret the data that were gathered and thus to derive useful findings from their analysis. The chapter begins by presenting basic information about the Saudi educational system, especially the role of English education, with a particular focus on higher education. After this, the professional situation of English teachers in Saudi Arabia will be described, especially in connection with foreign teachers in higher education. Next, there is an outline of the Preparatory Year English Language Programme (hereafter PYP) at the King Saud University, where this study was conducted, an account of the current countrywide issue of student under-achievement in English and discussion of the consequent importance of the CPD of EFL teachers. This leads to a description of the CPD provided to EFL teachers on the PYP. The chapter ends by giving consideration to some wider contextual matters of relevance to foreign teachers: recruitment agencies and visa issues.

I should state at this point that some of the areas covered in this study are ones that I knew something about in advance of beginning the present research (based on previous studies and on my general knowledge of the
country and the institution, such as visa problems, accommodation issues, the existence and contents of the induction week and the PD workshops/sessions, as well as the existence and nature of the buzz observations), while there are others that came to my attention only later, through the process of gathering data for this study, such as the teachers’ views on all of the above matters, their perceptions of problems and their opinions as to potential solutions.

2.2 Education in Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia has been a very heavy investor in education since its inception: a supreme government committee for educational policy was established in 1963 and is now the highest authority supervising education in the Kingdom (World Bank, 2008). Government expenditure on education tripled from 1970 to 2000 and in 2004 it made up more than a quarter (27.6%) of all public expenditure, which would include healthcare, infrastructure, security, military and so on. This trend was impacted neither by economic growth nor by the price of oil (ibid.). This shows that education has always been taken seriously in Saudi Arabia.

Although the Saudi Arabian education system is only sixty years old, it has evolved rapidly in terms of the quality and quantity of the provision that is made. This is reflected in the numbers of pupils and of schools, and in academic outcomes, with the exception of English. Infrastructural support for educational development at multiple levels has been provided by the government and this support is reflected in the free provision of buildings, facilities, tuition, books and transport for the population. This ranges from
primary schools through to the end of secondary schooling and beyond, to the higher education level and the postgraduate stage. Free education is offered both to Saudi citizens and to non-Saudi residents in all public educational institutions below the university level (El-Sanabary, 1994).

Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is centrally run by the Ministry of Education (MoE), including the former responsibilities of the Ministry of Higher Education, now subsumed within the MoE since the recent merging of the two ministries. Notwithstanding this merger, education in Saudi Arabia, as in most of the world, is divided into two main stages: general and higher. The former involves the three school stages of primary, intermediate and secondary, while the latter refers to education at tertiary level, comprised of university education at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels, special and adult education, as well as vocational education. At all levels of higher education, students receive financial support from the government in the form of an allowance of around £160 per month, in addition to free tuition.

The environment of education, in accordance with the wider cultural background in Saudi Arabia, is gender-segregated at all levels. Women are separated from men in most public domains such as offices, banks, transport systems and educational settings. This is reflected in gender-specific entrances, exit points and designated internal areas within institutions. The principle and practice of gender separation are carried through to the domain of research, so in order for me as a male researcher to be able to personally gather the data required for this study, it was necessary for me to limit my activities to the male campus of the chosen university. The research is therefore concerned exclusively with the views of male participants.
2.2.1 Objectives of English education in Saudi Arabia

The teaching of English in Saudi schools is connected to the national and international functions of this language. Most Saudis do not actually need English at all for the requirements of daily life in the KSA, but it is essential for those who aspire to jobs in certain sectors. Indeed, the English language is widely used in healthcare, industry, business and many other fields. It is particularly useful for Saudis when communicating with non-Arabic speakers (Habbash, 2011) and is essential to the conduct of international business and educational collaboration. English is the lingua franca of international relations and indispensable for the effective importation of foreign technology and its dissemination across the country. Strong international trading relations between the Kingdom and certain other countries, in particular the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, South Africa, New Zealand and Australia, provide a powerful practical need for effective English language education in the native population. The KSA’s strong commitment to the World Trade Organisation highlights the priority assigned by the government to international relations (Alfahadi, 2012).

Indeed, English literacy is regarded by many Saudi citizens as a key to economic development, and employers actively seek multilingual employees with a professional standard of English fluency. Since English language skills are synonymous with career progression locally and internationally, they are prioritised by many of the aspiring native population. English also helps interaction with non-Arabic speaking Muslims who come to perform the Hajj.
ordinance. Furthermore, English is perceived to be closely associated with modern life, work, business, higher education, science and technology.

Saudi Arabia understands that English is the common international language for education, business, industry and commerce. Saudis are motivated for their children to learn English, because they believe that it will help them in their career paths in the foreseeable future, as many of them will inevitably travel abroad for business and to pursue their higher studies.

2.2.2 Higher education in the KSA

Since its establishment in 1975, the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education has offered generous financial funding, allowing for the formation of a number of new universities and colleges. At its inception, there were in the whole country only three public universities, namely King Saud University (established in 1957), King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (opened in 1963) and King Abdulaziz University (set up in 1967). Eight universities in total were founded between 1952 and 2004. When King Abdullah bin Abdulaziz Al Saud ascended the throne on August 1, 2005, there was a perceive need for more public universities. King Abdullah therefore commissioned the opening of a further thirteen such institutions. At the commencement of April 2014, he ordered the formation of three further universities in Jeddah, Bisha and Hafr Al-Baten, bringing the total number of public universities in the country to twenty-eight (Arab News, April 2, 2014). In addition, there are nine private universities, and press reports indicate that the construction of campuses across the country is persistent and widespread (see, for example, Saudi Gazette, December 3, 2013; IFCL Media, July 23, 2013). Furthermore, in an
effort to meet the educational needs of the swiftly growing Saudi population, at least ten universities are anticipated to be opened within the next four years (Arab News, April 3, 2014). A full list of Saudi universities, with the dates of their foundation and their locations, is to be found in Appendix A, which cites the world data on education (UNESCO IBE. 2006/2007).

In addition to these universities, there exist technical colleges and companies which provide education and training, such as TQ and the American online educational institute Laureate. The context of the present study, however, is restricted to higher educational institutions in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia that are intended for the education of Saudi and non-Saudi national males and females and which are fully funded by the government and administered by the MoE. The private universities and colleges are based on generous support and special care provided by the government to handle different economic activities, and are jointly supervised and supported by their own administrations and the MoE.

Although Higher Education in Saudi Arabia follows Islamic traditions and customs, it is grounded in the structures of the American education system, with two-year associate degrees, four-year bachelor’s degrees, followed by a two-year master’s degree. The universities offer both undergraduate programmes (up to and including diplomas and bachelor’s degrees) and postgraduate (master’s degrees and doctorates) in various scientific and humanities specialisms. In addition, they also offer community services. The aim of these institutions is to help the Government accomplish its development plans and to be part of a national development scheme which recognises the impact of increased globalisation and technology on
competition between nations. The blueprint of this scheme has been reliant on the education system. It aims to provide an education which maximises the growth and potential of all Saudi citizens so that Saudi Arabia will be able to engage positively with its competitors on the 21st century international stage as an equal partner (Ministry of Higher Education, 2010).

The English language clearly needs to play a key role in such an enterprise and there are two key signs of the official desire to promote the teaching of English at the tertiary level in Saudi Arabia. One of these is the increasing use of that language as the medium of instruction in many higher education institutions, for a range of subjects other than English itself. The other sign of the promotion by the authorities of tertiary-level English teaching is the introduction some years ago of a preparatory year between school and the start of undergraduate majors, which most students are required to take regardless of their major and of its language of instruction, and which is heavily focused on the improvement of students’ ability to read, write, speak and understand English. The following section explains how this policy has been implemented at King Saud University.

2.3 The Preparatory Year English Language Programme at KSU

The PYP has been introduced to enhance the skills of students in the year before they embark on their undergraduate majors. At King Saud University, the programme serves three tracks, Humanities, Science and Engineering, with the aims of assisting the new students’ transition from high school to university, of familiarising these students with the distinctive academic fields
at the university and of assimilating them into the university setting before they have to make a decision on what their future disciplines of study are to be. Additionally, it is intended to provide intensive training courses as an attempt to put students on the right track for their professional careers. English language (depending on the university and institute) is a compulsory subject in the higher education preparatory year and constitutes a large part of the syllabus, occupying 50% of the course (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 20).

Passing the PYP courses successfully is a prerequisite for advancing to the following first year of college and for continuing one's studies in the chosen discipline. The PYP continues for the two terms of a full academic year, i.e. from September to June, with the option of an additional summer term during which the students are offered the chance to retake any failed subjects, thus enabling them to pass the full programme and proceed to their specialisms in accordance with the standards set by each college.

The main language of instruction (in most of the tracks at KSU) at university level is English; the medical field is typically taught in English too. Some private higher education institutions use English exclusively.

The English component of the PYP is obligatory for all students, regardless of the tracks which they intend to follow later, and is meant to provide a bridge between the students' high school English and their university needs. It aims to further develop Saudi students' English proficiency from an often quite low school leaving level and to promote their communication skills to the standard of the degree-level course they will be taking (in English), e.g. in science,
computing, marketing, finance or accountancy. The key objective, then, is to improve their abilities in reading comprehension, writing and spoken English to the level required in order to be able to follow first year university courses delivered in English. It is intended to be both a general English and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programme.

During the PYP, basic mathematics is reviewed to consolidate students’ core skills and to introduce mathematical terminology in English. The Computer Department also delivers computer studies in English. Furthermore, students undertake two hours a week of physical education to help them to remain fit and healthy.

The PYP is run separately by the Preparatory Year Deanship, within which there are three departments, these being the English Language Department (quite separate from the Department of English in which English major bachelor’s degrees are taught), the Basic Sciences Department and the Self-development Skills Department. Each of these departments is further subdivided into a number of different units. In the case of the English Language Department, it comprises five units: the PD Unit, the Curriculum Unit, the Research and Development Unit, the Quality Assurance Unit, the Testing Unit and the Academic Affairs Unit. The managers of these five units all report to the chair of the department, who also assigns some teachers as coordinators, each responsible for a group of 10 teachers and for the achievement and progress of their students. Coordinators communicate weekly with the university, facilitating classroom observations. They also liaise with other units in the English Language Department to ensure that e-learning tools are used effectively to enhance student learning in English; finally, they
contribute to regular developmental team meetings focused on raising achievement and progress.

2.4 English teachers in Saudi Arabia

In the KSA, teaching qualifications are required in order to be employed within the education sector. Teaching members of the faculty must hold a bachelor's, master's or PhD level degree in their specialist subject. All members of the teaching staff within the higher education sector in the KSA are designated as ‘lecturers’, whereas those teaching on PYP courses are called teachers. This is clearly defined in the lecturer (faculty) handbook of King Saud University and King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals (2009) (see Appendix B).

Typically, lecturers in Saudi Universities teach undergraduate courses depending on their subject specialism and professional experience. According to the staff hierarchy, a holder of a bachelor’s degree can teach introduction-level courses to undergraduates, while PhD holders can teach across course levels, including postgraduate studies. Lecturers who are qualified at master’s level are permitted to teach undergraduate courses only. While pre-service teacher training (PRESET) qualifications are not formally required to work within the Saudi higher education sector, it is often preferred that lecturers should hold such a qualification, to ensure that they have pedagogical skills in addition to subject expertise. There are few Saudi nationals working as lecturers in the university sector, with most posts filled by non-Saudi nationalities.
Turning now to the English teachers, contract expatriate teachers have been brought in to work within the higher education sector, with reliance on recruitment companies, in order to contribute to delivering English literacy in Saudi Arabian universities. The government has invested heavily in such initiatives, to ensure that the next generation of educated Saudis will be literate in the English language, enabling them to communicate in a global language that is of universal value for trade and commerce.

English language teachers employed in the PYP are expected to possess a master’s degree in TEFL, TESOL or applied linguistics. In reality, they tend to vary considerably in their qualifications. Some will have an appropriate MA or PhD, while others have practical teaching qualifications such as the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) or the Cambridge Diploma of English Language Teaching to Adults (DELTA). However, there are some who do not have the minimum qualifications to be English teachers. The researcher is aware that there are concerns about quality and standards in the sector as a whole. Indeed, in the case of KSU, the university authorities are aware that the subcontractors are providing teachers who do not appear to have the desired skills or qualifications and I embarked on this study in the expectation that it would throw light on the possible effects of this lack of basic qualifications on the type of CPD that the university provides to PYP teachers.

The majority of PYP English teachers come from what Kachru (1985) defines as “countries of the Inner Circle” (i.e. the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand), with a few other coming from Egypt, Jordan and Sudan (Al-Awad, 2002). These recruits therefore join a
multinational teaching faculty at the university. More details of the teachers who participated in this study are given in Section 4.6 of Chapter 4.

Contract expatriate teachers in Saudi Arabia face many challenges and responsibilities in their attempts to assimilate and integrate into the region and its way of life. They must adapt to a different culture and to local classroom and teaching conventions. There is also a need to build understanding and rapport between foreign members of staff and the local management, in order for them to be able to work together and operate effectively. It is part of the focus of the present study to illuminate the effects on teachers of the fact that local managers often have a very different guiding philosophy with regard to the teaching of English, specifically in the area of what constitutes suitable CPD for English teachers.

Other contextual matters that affect foreign teachers, concerning recruitment agencies and visa issues, which may be relevant to their responses in this study, are taken up in Sections 2.7 and 2.8 below.

2.4.1 The role of EFL teachers in the preparatory year English programme

The PYP teachers are expected to support the curriculum decided by the university and to seek to advance the English language skills of students. They teach 25 hours of English language per week for a full academic year. The roles and responsibilities of the EFL teachers stretch further than just teaching, in that they are also expected to offer additional support and guidance to students outside of classroom teaching hours. However, they do not participate in key areas such as the design of the syllabus, the choice of
textbooks or decisions as to the mode of formal assessment of the course components.

The role of teachers in the programme is to teach the students the English language, either generically or to cover the specific requirements of a particular specialism. In this university, as stated earlier, there are three sections, Humanities, Science and Engineering, in which students may follow their degree studies; regardless of this choice, all of them must study English in the preparatory year. The university has chosen and tested course textbooks used in the West, i.e. *Headway* for general English and *Q: Skills for Success* for general EAP. When language becomes more specific to the subjects studied, the teacher must use his/her initiative to teach the classes in a way that benefits the students. Other universities in the KSA, while following an essentially similar pattern of PYP English teaching, have made different choices of textbooks and other materials.

The PYP students at KSU are classified according to their level and by their discipline (Humanities, Science or Engineering), based on an English placement test, after which the teacher is given the task of helping the class to become more proficient in English. Although it could be argued that it is in theory something that the university authorities should tell the students, it is in practice considered part of the professional responsibility of the teachers to explain to them that there is a need for them to study English intensively, because it is the international language of many trades and of global commerce. Indeed, many Saudi students will leave their home country to study abroad and some will travel for business purposes. In addition, when they enter the vocational or commercial world they may have to interact with
expatriates in their own country, which makes language and communication skills important for all people working in Saudi Arabia.

2.4.2 The importance of teacher education and professional development for English teachers in Saudi Arabia

Policy makers in the field of higher education in the MoE are of the opinion that the professionals lecturing within the KSA are not appropriately trained in their areas of specialism, such as ELT, EFL and TESOL. Therefore, it is inevitable that the university authorities in particular and MoE officials in general pay attention to the nature and effectiveness of teacher development programmes or CPD.

This issue is especially prominent in Saudi Arabia, since there is a widespread perception that despite government objectives, investment and the requirement for students to spend a full year on the PYP, the level of English proficiency achieved by undergraduates in the Kingdom is not adequate and cannot be compared favourably against the internationally accepted standard. This unfavourable assessment is supported by world surveys of English achievement (First, 2016) which show Saudi Arabia to be quite low in global rankings, even in comparison with other Arab countries such as the United Arab Emirates (UAE) or Egypt. It is also a common experience of teachers that after six years of studying English in school, many students are unable to produce simple written passages in the language or to take meaningful part in a basic conversation (Al-Nasser, 2015). This suggests difficulties with learning the language both receptively and productively.
A string of academic studies of the size of Saudi learners’ English vocabulary supports the above negative evaluation of the existing situation. A recent example is a study which found that students on entry to Saudi universities knew on average around 2000-3000 words of English (Al-Masrai & Milton, 2012). While this is an improvement over the numbers reported by earlier studies, it is still very far short of the 8000 words of English vocabulary needed to have a chance of understanding authentic English texts of a general nature. Indeed, the worrying extent of the problem facing Saudi universities is brought into sharp focus by the realisation that the size of lexicon needed is much higher again if specialist subject texts need to be read, as would be the case for students taking various science or humanities majors through the medium of English. These concerns would be alleviated if it were the case that students tended to make up for their initial deficit by acquiring a significantly expanded vocabulary during their studies, but Al-Masrai & Milton (2012) found that even English majors on graduation had still only reached a total of about 5000 words.

There are many plausible explanations for this situation, including possible shortcomings in the textbooks which embody the syllabus, lack of practical training of English teachers and weaknesses in the school assessment system which allows students to pass their exams with little actual knowledge of English, then to continue through a system where failing English is in any case not a barrier to progression (Alenezi, 2016). Some studies have shown a disparity between the teaching style and content offered by the PYP on one hand and the occupational and academic needs of students on the other. For example, (Al-Hazmi, 2005, p. 52) states that this “discrepancy is reflected in
the English textbooks of all levels”. Alenezi (2016) performed an extensive analysis of reading texts in secondary school textbooks and in PYP textbooks, compared with some texts that students actually had to read in the first year of a major taught in English. He found that the former did not introduce sufficient vocabulary for students, even if they learnt all of it, to be likely to be able to acquire the 5000 words of vocabulary needed to cross the threshold for entry to the PYP. The PYP textbooks used at the Northern Borders University, where Alenezi conducted his study, failed to extend that vocabulary very much and offered very little academic vocabulary. Therefore, even the total vocabulary that students would have been exposed to (let alone learnt) prior to the first year of their majors fell far short of the size of lexicon that they needed for the texts which they then had to read, making it virtually impossible for most of the students concerned to read these texts with any useful degree of comprehension.

A continuing problem for the PYP is that acceptance of a student by a university to enter the PYP is not generally subject to demonstrating any particular threshold English level, so many students arrive at university with a very low level of English. Their teachers, however gifted, dedicated and hard-working they may be, then inevitably find it impossible within one year to raise such students to a minimum level of English competence that would allow them to function effectively in an academic major taught through English, equivalent to a Common European Framework of Reference standard of at least B1 (Paper TOEFL 500, IELTS 4.5/5). Hence, regardless of the ideal objectives, much PYP teaching in Saudi universities is of basic general English, sometimes using textbooks that are at a lower level than those used
at secondary school (Alenezi, 2016), since anything else would be too difficult for the students with whom the staff have to deal. Consequently, many students do not achieve the threshold level of English required to function in their English medium majors. Not only will such deficiencies in language skills affect students individually in their academic and commercial careers; they will also have macro-level implications for the economy and international trade relations of the country as a whole. Ultimately, the poor level of English proficiency and expertise has been identified as a significant barrier to the progress and development of the KSA.

In this context, and given that high quality language education is a national priority, it is clear that one key component (but certainly not the only one) must be a foundation of highly capable teaching staff able to develop English proficiency effectively in students. Although, as noted above, there is no requirement for a teacher in the KSA to have undergone initial training in the practical aspects of teaching, as opposed to having simply gained an academic qualification in the subject to be taught, teachers in Saudi Arabia in general, and in higher institutions in particular, are nevertheless encouraged and indeed obliged to participate in CPD, which is the subject of the present study. Most institutions have arrangements to develop staff via professional development.

A further issue for many universities in the KSA, including KSU, is a desire to achieve international accreditation. This puts pressure on the sections responsible for quality assurance in these universities to provide evidence of how quality is ensured, and one way of doing this is by focusing on institutionally provided CPD. KSU is no exception and it is probably for this
reason that the Quality Unit has issued instructions that CPD for teachers is a mandatory requirement.

The nature and definition of CPD is to be discussed in Chapter 3, but it may be stated provisionally at this point that the provision of such activities has a twin purpose, i.e. to keep the teachers updated and engaged with students and management, and to help them to draw the best out of themselves and others. All universities in the KSA can be said to deem professional development to be very important for all lecturers, but the various institutions adopt different approaches to it. At the university where this research was conducted, KSU, the main provision consists of a mandatory induction week, some other CPD weeks, monthly or more frequent professional development sessions and workshops, and unannounced observations of teaching six times or more per year. Additional CPD provision is also available from PD providers external to the university. These resources are to be described more fully below. Furthermore, although informal activities are not the prime focus of this study, it must be borne in mind that teachers are of course always able to pursue their own informal self-development through activities such as reflection on lessons just given, journal keeping, self-observation, informal peer observation, self-organised workshops, action research and informal exchange of ideas with peers and students, among others.

2.5 CPD activities for EFL teachers at King Saud University

According to the official policy of the university, KSU faculty members are required to employ the best teaching practices and focus on continuous improvement. This is expected to be achieved through the various forms of
CPD offered within the institution that employs the teaching staff. Such internal CPD for the PYP English teachers is offered by the management at this university. However, it seems that there is no published vision for this endeavour within the English Language Department.

The management of CPD at KSU is as follows. There is a committee that is responsible for this department, which consists of both teachers and professional development tutors. The university’s PYP English Language Department has a dedicated PD unit committed to the CPD of its teachers. The PD unit consists of professional development committees headed by a manager, lead teachers and coordinators, who are expected to collaborate with teachers to support, encourage and enhance their professional career growth in accordance with institutional goals and interests. The teachers report to teacher coordinators, each of these being responsible for a number of teachers, usually between 15 and 20. These coordinators are assumed to be more experienced than normal teachers, which actually does not add any financial value. They do not teach, but can be required to cover for absent teachers. Trainers from Oxford University Press have visited KSU to coach teacher coordinators about the textbooks used on the PYP.

Thus, the PD unit offers a variety of activities for teachers that are meant to sharpen their teaching skills. The PYP provides professional development activities, some of which are organised every semester, while others are provided in an ad hoc manner. Sometimes, the CPD can take place outside the university premises, such as at a hotel, but usually it is on campus. Teachers are sometimes presented with a certificate detailing
the workshops that they have attended and the ones that they have delivered, adding to the enrichment of their English Language teaching CVs.

The following paragraphs describe more fully all the types of CPD made available to PYP English teachers at KSU, most of which it is mandatory for teachers to attend. It is obvious that some of the universities within the jurisdiction of the MHE, including KSU-PY, provide some activities that they claim as CPD for EFL teachers, particularly for new teachers. One of these so-called PD programmes involves each teacher being observed once per semester by lead teachers or coordinators from the same department. The observation process involves three stages: pre-observation, observation and post-observation. Lessons are graded on a Likert scale without any feedback being given by the observer or anything that would help with PD. I will discuss these activities in detail in Chapter 2, along with the roles and responsibilities of teachers employed in KSU-PY.

However, some of the PYP teachers are involved in external PD initiatives, illustrative examples being the TESOL Arabia Conference, the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Association of Language Teachers (KSAALT) and other workshops. In fact, through my experience and observation in this institution and through my relationship with some members of the KSU-PYP management, I had already observed before this study began that there seemed to be a common neglect of institutional PD activities and that teachers, both native and non-native, seemed instead to have a preference for involvement in non-institutional PD activities.
2.5.1 The induction week

At the beginning of each academic year, an orientation programme is arranged for both new and continuing faculty members on the English teaching staff. This programme, which lasts for a week, is referred to as Induction Week, suggesting that it includes meaningful PD activities. The induction week programme comprises an account of arrangements for professional development, how the academic administration is organised, a description of the curriculum framework, advice on dealing with Saudi learners, arrangements for performance management, introductions to the textbooks *Headway* and *Q: Skills for Success* and textbook training, an account of the available education technology and an explanation of the methods used for assessment. Notably, I have identified teachers who after having worked for some time at the university still had not yet attended the induction week.

2.5.2 The PD weeks

All teachers are required to attend at least one PD Week per academic year. The PD weeks are different from the induction week and scheduled once a semester: one in January and one in March, in the mid-semester holiday week. They focus on areas which the PD unit deems relevant to the PYP, such as role plays, and may include debates on aspects of teaching or second language learning.
Attendance at all plenary sessions is mandatory and teachers are expected to attend all PD workshops. All plenary sessions take place in the main auditoriums.

2.5.3 Monthly PD sessions and workshops

A few CPD sessions are run during each month and it is mandatory for PYP English teachers to attend all of them. The PYP PD unit at the university does not offer the option of which sessions to attend, but selects the sessions for its teachers. The monthly sessions at KSU include updates on new developments, peer networking, discussions on set topics and practice issues.

These sessions may be led by internal staff members who are judged by the PD unit to have the expertise to teach their colleagues the relevant topics. The university is also proactive in inviting quality tutors from outside to provide sessions. They may bring in a recognised name from abroad, or a textbook author who will deliver an account of his or her experiences and relevant teaching techniques.

2.5.4 Mandatory lesson observation

Along with the aforementioned forms of CPD, the PYP administration considers evaluative observation to be a part of the PYP scheme of CPD. The official view is that this is done to help teachers to improve their teaching of English at the university by enabling them to obtain direct support from their lead teachers, coordinators or the PD unit manager. However, any negative feedback from these assessments can be recorded and may result in
disciplinary action being taken in the form of the sending of a warning letter, downgrading a teacher’s salary or adjusting his or her contract, resulting in it not being renewed at the end of each year. There are two kinds of such observation, namely, the informal unannounced buzz observation, which lasts for 10 minutes and of which there are three or four in each semester for each teacher, and the formal scheduled observation, which continues for an hour.

Although, as to be discussed in Chapter 3, this sort of activity would not be regarded by some experts as CPD at all, but as assessment or evaluation of the teacher’s performance, I have decided to include it in the scope of this study, because the institution itself treats these observations as a form of CPD.

2.5.5 Conferences

Once or twice a year, staff may be required to attend a conference that has been organised by a person or body external to the university, but which the KSU management decides that it is appropriate to require teachers to attend, where there would be a number of speakers from different ranges of expertise. Such speakers often pack the event with entertaining educational activities, to show teachers how to make the classroom an interesting and enjoyable place of learning. However, such conferences are mostly for the higher management.

2.6 CPD provision outside the university

The following paragraphs list only the leading organisations which I am aware of, within or very close to the KSA and which provide workshops, courses and
information relevant to KSU PYP teachers’ CPD. They are therefore in principle available to KSU English teachers to exploit if they choose. I have made no attempt to list all of the relevant worldwide organisations, websites or TV channels which are available.

2.6.1 TESOL Arabia

TESOL Arabia is a not-for-profit teachers’ organisation dedicated to the CPD of its members, who are generally based in the UAE, elsewhere in the Gulf region and in other countries around the world. TESOL Arabia is an affiliate of TESOL International and of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL). It is led by volunteers elected from among its members and is financially supported by the subscriptions of its membership and by the proceeds of its publications and of the international conference that it holds each year. Apart from this annual conference, it also hosts a variety of occasional workshops and special interest group meetings, most of which are held in the KSA or in nearby Gulf countries.

2.6.2 KSAALT

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia Association of Language Teachers is a non-profit professional association for English language educators in Saudi Arabia and is the local affiliate of IATEFL, TESOL International and TESOL Arabia. KSAALT’s objectives are promoting the professional development of its members and supporting English language education across Saudi Arabia. KSAALT TESOL was founded in 2006 by dedicated teachers. It is intended to engage English language teachers in the Kingdom with interactive
professional development and to this end it organises workshops, an annual conference and other smaller conferences.

2.6.3 The British Council

The British Council, which is the United Kingdom’s international organisation for educational opportunities and cultural relations, has offices in Riyadh, Jeddah and Al Khobar from which it promotes educational courses as well as international relations with the KSA. Amongst its functions is to organise teacher training workshops for English language teachers and to run accredited courses like the DELTA distance programme and the CELTA course, along with other short customised courses demanded by specific institutions. It also promotes e-learning to assist English language teaching professionals in the classroom.

2.7 Recruitment arrangements for foreign teachers

Typically, there are two ways of being hired for work in Saudi Arabian educational institutions. The first for the teacher to be hired directly by the employing university college, while in the second case, he or she is recruited on the employer’s behalf by a recruitment agency. The latter route is much more popular among universities in the KSA, more than 86% of which contract with an agency to supply English teachers. Three such agencies deal with the recruitment of a majority of higher education teachers in the country. These key agencies are Education Experts, Al-Hussan and ICEAT.

These companies not only recruit on behalf of the university, but are also responsible for all maintenance and affairs of their staff in the case of foreign
English teachers. There is a direct link between the university and each company, with the latter acting as an intermediary between the university and its staff members. The aim is to ensure that both parties are able to operate efficiently.

Such companies usually win contracts with universities and colleges to recruit ELT teachers from Inner Circle countries, particularly the UK and the USA. What is interesting is that while local employers (both agencies and universities) claim to be in favour of the government’s policy of Saudisation, by which public bodies are directed to employ a higher proportion of Saudi nationals and to reduce concomitantly their recruitment of expatriates, the job advertisements placed by the universities and by the agencies show evidence of an apparent desire to fill ELT teaching posts exclusively with British and American native speakers of English (see Appendix C). It should also be stated that these agencies have a poor reputation in the industry for employment relations.

At the time of the study, King Saud University had been continuously recruiting via agencies such as these for some years, yet it appeared always to be chronically short staffed. Recently, from my experience with this institution, it became clear to me that KSU had directed a recruiting team to go to the United States to hire native speakers of English to work on the PYP at the university. The same procedure is being implemented by these subcontractors. This is possibly connected with the fact that the university had also invited a team representing the American Commission on English
Language Program Accreditation to evaluate the university’s PYP English programme.

2.8 Immigration and visa conditions for foreign teachers

In order to enter the KSA to work, foreign teachers need either a work visit visa, as explained below, or a 90-day temporary work visa granted at the time of initial hiring, which permits them to enter Saudi Arabia and begin teaching. Some work visit visas only allow one entry; others permit multiple entries. As for PYP teachers, because being granted a work visa can be a very complicated process and it is difficult to obtain this type of visa to enter the KSA, contractors opt to obtain work visit visas (otherwise known as business visas) for their teachers. Work visit visas are valid for three months at a time, with 90-day renewal. These can be renewed three times while the holder is in Saudi Arabia and after the third renewal has expired (in other words, after a total of 12 months since arrival) the holder has to leave the country. Some of the teacher recruitment agencies in fact keep teachers in the country on a string of four consecutive three-monthly work visit visas. Those which adopt this policy do so because some of these companies do not have the necessary quota of residence permits, as companies are encouraged by the Ministry of Labour and Social Development to take on Saudi nationals where possible. This ‘encouragement’ can be quite robust, and the number of work visas issued to a company or renewed are restricted in order to comply with a quota of local intake. Therefore, some teachers find themselves relying on two-week extensions to their work visit visas granted by the Ministry of Labour
and Social Development, which is very disruptive to their security of employment and to their everyday lives.

Once an expatriate has successfully entered the country, depending on his or her visa type, he/she needs a so-called ‘exit and re-entry visa’ to leave and return to the country. This will inevitably represent an inconvenience to some international teachers, especially in case of an emergency when such a teacher needs to leave the country urgently.

There are two categories of the exit and re-entry visa: single and multiple. A single exit and re-entry visa is valid only for one use, i.e. for the holder to leave the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia within 30 days of the date of stamping and for that person to return before the final date indicated on the visa. Once an expatriate returns to the Kingdom on a single exit and re-entry visa, that visa is then invalid and s/he has to obtain a new one for his/her next journey out of the country. The alternative is a multiple exit and re-entry visa, which is valid for travelling in and out of the Kingdom a number of times within the period of validity, i.e. six months from the date of first exit. In both cases, single and multiple visas operate to serve the needs of international visitors to the Kingdom and not for people who come to spend a long time in a particular employment. The advantage of the multiple exit and re-entry category is that once an expatriate has the passport and the ticket in his/her hands, s/he is free to leave the Kingdom and to return within the validity period, but a major drawback is that this is still a shorter period than the duration of a normal academic year. In addition, the consent of the sponsor must be granted. In other words, the expatriate’s sponsor can in effect decide when his worker
can leave and re-enter the country during the term of a contract of employment.

Moreover, if teachers want to go to Dubai, for example, they have to do all the paperwork themselves, they have to pay for their exit and re-entry visa, then they have to go to the relevant agency to hand in all of the paperwork and their residence permit. Only then will the agency print out and stamp their visas and give their passports back to them, as teachers’ passports are standardly kept by their agencies upon their arrival in the KSA. This is a lengthy and complex procedure that will take several hours just for a visa to visit a neighbouring country, however briefly, and to return to the country that teacher is already in.

2.9 Conclusion

In this chapter I have argued that although Saudi Arabia values the English language and has invested heavily in the teaching of English to its school and university students, the levels of achievement of Saudi students are not as high as they need to be to meet Saudi government expectations in today’s world. Part of the solution to this is seen to be good CPD of English teachers, the provision of which has been described in the context of the preliminary year programme at King Saud University, where this study is set. I have also described some of the special work-related conditions that foreign teachers of English are obliged to fulfil in the Saudi context.

It is safe to conclude that quite apart from the wider interest of this study for the world of CPD research, it is timely to conduct such a study in the particular context of the teaching of English as a foreign language in the public
universities of Saudi Arabia. As described in Chapter 1, part of its aim is to illuminate the attitudes of PYP teachers to the CPD that they are provided with, the challenges they encounter and the improvements that they would like to see. This will surely provide valuable results which will have implications for stakeholders such as policy makers at this and other universities and at the Ministry of Education; indeed, it is hoped that it may guide them to improve their approach to the CPD of teachers at the PYP level. This in turn should impact beneficially on the quality of the instruction that is delivered by these teachers and so ultimately improve the levels of proficiency in English achieved by KSA university students.

The next chapter presents a review of the pertinent literature.
CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature in the field of continuing professional development (CPD). Although its main focus is of course on TESOL/TEFL, wider reference will be made, where it is useful, to texts concerned with CPD in other domains. CPD is, after all, a concept with quite general application across professions and other occupations (Houle, 1981). Although CPD in different areas of work is often discussed separately, I believe that there is benefit to be gained from sharing ideas about CPD between different kinds of practitioners.

The present account starts with a conceptual framework of CPD which situates the study and sets the context for the investigation by defining CPD and exploring its purpose. The chapter next discusses professional knowledge in TESOL, followed by an examination of teachers’ professional knowledge. There is then a discussion of the integration of theory and practice, along with various relevant models and approaches presented in the academic literature. The chapter concludes by examining activities associated with CPD and the characteristics of effective professional development.
3.2 Defining CPD

The term ‘continuing professional development’ is used by experts to describe a set of activities that are intended to improve individual knowledge, skills and practice (Day, 1999). It should be noted here that it is often used interchangeably with the term ‘professional development’ (PD). There is a minority definition to be found which regards CPD as complementary to formal training, e.g.:

Continuing professional development differs from in-service training in that it is often unplanned, and it takes place unconsciously as well as consciously. It has an institutional as well as a personal dimension. It can be triggered by both top-down and bottom-up forces but it seems to flourish when there is joined-up thinking at all levels and among all stakeholders within a system. (Gulyamova et al., 2014, p. 60)

In this thesis, however, I adopt the all-embracing definition of CPD outlined below.

Friedman et al. (2000, p. 3) found that the definition of CPD most commonly cited by professional bodies in the United Kingdom was that offered by the Construction Industry Council:

The systematic maintenance, improvement and broadening of knowledge and skills, and the development of personal qualities necessary for execution of professional and technical duties throughout the practitioner’s working life.
Although not specifically about teachers, this definition is useful, because it again refers to knowledge and skills and their maintenance and improvement. It also allows for other personal qualities to be involved, however, and draws attention to the long term nature of CPD.

Teacher CPD specifically refers to “all the activities in which teachers engage during the course of a career which are designed to enhance their work” (Day & Sachs, 2004, p. 3). Another similar definition of ‘teacher professional development’ (TPD) is that it denotes any activity that expands the knowledge, skills and understanding of teachers and their efficiency in their teaching context (DfEE, 2001b, p. 3). Indeed, in its report *Learning and Teaching: A Strategy for Professional Development*, the DfEE (2001) defines CPD in more detail as:

...activities that increase the skills, knowledge and understanding of teachers, and their effectiveness in schools and also promotes continuous reflection and re-examination of professional learning. This includes, but goes well beyond, training courses and a wide variety of other on and off-the-job activities. (p. 71)

This definition draws attention to two important aspects of CPD. First, it hints at the breadth of types of CPD activity. Any examination of CPD must consider the content of the processes by which the professional development occurs and the contexts in which it takes place (Fielding & Schalock, 1985; Ganser, 2000). This will be considered in more detail later in this chapter. Secondly, it refers to some aspects of the teacher that are affected, other than knowledge and skills, such as reflection. In his definition of CPD, Freeman
(1989, p. 40) also states that it encompasses “aspects of a teacher’s teaching that stem from an attitude towards teaching and awareness”, implying again the role of teacher thinking between the input of a CPD activity and the output in the teacher’s changed teaching practices.

Other sources refer to teachers’ beliefs and feelings being changed by CPD (e.g. Kazempour & Amirshokoohi, 2014a; 2014b). An important implication is that, since it deals with personal characteristics such as attitude, belief and feeling, CPD is not about correcting mistakes but more a matter of raising awareness (see section 4 for fuller coverage of the nature of teacher knowledge and belief). The degree to which the practices of CPD in fact conform to such definitions is however debatable, and will be explored further within this thesis.

A rare study conducted in Saudi Arabia identifies the following attributes of CPD as needing to be recognised: “teachers’ attitudes, philosophical change, technology-oriented attitude, skill-oriented teaching/learning [and] human resource development” (Intakhab, 2011, p. 1584). This recognises again that there are beliefs and attitudes, as well as skills, that can be changed by CPD, although it does not refer to the affective dimension.

Just as beliefs and attitudes can take a long time to develop, it follows that they may take a long time to change (Al Shahrani, 2010). This is emphasised, for example, by the definition of CPD as “a long-term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession” (Villegas-Reimers, 2003, p. 12). Thus, CPD can be seen as a way of remaining up to date in one’s field.
Furthermore, it is noticeable that none of the definitions that have been cited so far in this chapter specify who initiates the activities or process: it may be something that a professional practitioner such as a teacher may achieve with or without formal training. However, in reality the shape of CPD will be determined by a number of internal influences, such as the particular interests and motivations of individual teachers, their pre-service training (if any) and external influences, such as the dictates of official educational inspection services and professional memberships.

It is a challenge for both facilitators of and participants in any CPD to make the most of the resources and time allocated so that these opportunities contribute meaningfully to the complex whole of a teacher’s life. Hayes (2014) states that CPD is “a multi-faceted, lifelong experience, which can take place inside or outside the workplace and which often moves beyond the professional and into the realm of a teacher’s personal life too” (p. 5).

3.2.1 The purposes of professional development

Another common way of characterising CPD is by reference to its purposes, goals functions and effects. To illuminate the variety of functions of CPD found within a broader professional context, Friedman et al. (2000, cited in Friedman & Phillips, 2004, p. 362) identify a number of competing functions or purposes claimed for CPD that are evident in the promotional CPD literature of UK professional associations:

- *lifelong learning* for professionals;
- a means of *personal development*;
• a means for individual professionals to ensure a measure of control and security in the often precarious modern workplace;
• a means of assuring a wary public that professionals are indeed up-to-date, given the rapid pace of technological advancement;
• a means whereby professional associations can verify that the standards of their professionals are being upheld; and
• a means for employers to recruit and retain a competent, adaptable workforce.

The present study is concerned with such very general lists as they apply to teachers, so for the purposes of this thesis, ‘employers’ embraces a wide range of stakeholders including ministries, local education authorities in a district, headteachers and, in higher education where the current study is located, university and department level heads, managers, deans and so forth (see Chapter 2).

In the above list, an important general distinction can be seen to be made. Friedman and Phillips (2004) claim that CPD involves approaches to professional learning that will promote development, support individuals and create an environment where professionals are reflective, flexible and independent. This view, as reflected in the first two goals above, sounds quite teacher centred in terms of whose benefit it is for, and indeed who initiates, chooses or conducts the CPD. However, it conflicts with notions of CPD as having regulatory purposes, serving agencies other than the teacher as employee, such as those expressed in the remaining goals. If CPD takes the form of employers training professionals to meet the requirements of
particular work roles and to guarantee individual professional competence, then it is unclear how far the teachers’ concerns are central to the agenda, and indeed how much room there will be for teacher reflectiveness and independence in the activities that they are engaged in (Friedman & Phillips, 2004).

In this respect, then, Friedman and Phillips (2004) argue that CPD is an ambiguous and contested concept. Despite the widespread promotion of CPD via the programmes and policies of professional bodies in the UK and elsewhere, this ambiguity persists. For example, contributors to the literature, both academic and practitioner oriented, disagree on how to define CPD in terms of its goals and agents. There is also disagreement among professionals in this field, amounting to confusion regarding the agency and purpose of CPD, as Friedman and Phillips (2004) found by interviewing 12 employers and 18 of their employees, augmenting their empirical data by running focus groups where 40 other professionals discussed the concept of CPD and its value. They conclude that professionals tended to have a limited perspective of CPD, regarding it as a form of training, as a way of being updated, or as a means of supporting their careers. On the other hand, professional associations had a far more extensive perspective, seeing CPD as an important contributor to lifelong learning and personal development, as a way of establishing the public’s confidence in the competence of professional associations, as a professional measure of an individual’s competency, as a way of building an adaptable and efficient workforce for employers and as a method of attaining security in one’s career. The confusion and ambiguity referred to above were compounded by these
various claims often being made simultaneously. Hence, there appears to be a need to establish more widely agreed definitions of CPD purposes. It should be noted that the above discussion refers mainly to the UK context and to CPD across a wide range of professions, not specifically teaching, let alone the teaching of English as a foreign or second language. Nevertheless, it can be extended in principle to areas that are relevant to the present research study, such as TESOL and TEFL. In those areas, it has also been recognised that CPD needs to be supported by the implementation of agreed professional standards and procedures (Friedman & Phillips, 2004).

Later sections of this chapter will examine further the dichotomy between CPD which is top down or authority centred and that which is bottom up or teacher centred. Meanwhile, it may be noted at this point that views of the purpose of CPD may be currently shifting from the more teacher-driven ones implied in the first two bullet points above, and as promoted by Wallace (1991), for example, to those driven by external and/or higher agencies, such as in the other four points.

In particular, CPD organised on some standardised basis, independent of particular teachers, is now often regarded as an essential aspect of it (Friedman & Phillips, 2004). One reason is the escalation in the number of factors which can contribute to the attainment of ambitious learning targets by students across the world, including technological advances, new assessment approaches and new procedures to monitor and measure the quality of course delivery. It has been observed that teachers are often relied on to implement such reforms within the classroom (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Spillane,
In today’s rapidly changing world, it is therefore vital that teachers keep their knowledge abreast of changes in schools and institutions, in relation to the curriculum, technologies, theories and approaches. There is no doubt that it is teachers who really bring about educational reform (Kazempour & Amirshokoo, 2014a), but in order to do so they need good CPD to inform them of the latest educational practices and to enable them to apply these. According to Kazempour and Amirshokoo (2014a, p. 855), “The success of science education reform initiatives depends considerably on the teachers.” Blandford (2003) explains in detail how the acquisition of new knowledge and skills will help teachers professionally and bring numerous beneficial practices into the schools and organisations in which they work. It has further been claimed that the success of this implementation will require extensive teacher training and professional development, which would need to be conceived, designed and delivered from the top down (Ball & Cohen, 1999b; Putnam & Borko, 2000).

Furthermore, across a wide range of different professions, including teaching, engineering, nursing and architecture, it is recognised that the effective raising of standards of performance requires the adoption of evidence-based practices (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001; Penz & Bassendowsk, 2006). In teaching, this would normally mean that it is claimed that the teaching methods and practices that teachers adopt should be ones proven by proper research to be effective. Since research in this context usually means research done by professional researchers, however, this favours what Wallace (1991) calls the applied science model of training teachers, and the findings of such research are normally made known to
teachers through types of CPD delivered top down, via training courses or workshops given by ‘experts’. This has the undesirable effect of downgrading or disregarding concerns and purposes coming bottom up from teachers, or CPD activities such as their personal reflection or action research.

Following this trend, increasing investments of time, money and resources are being made to improve top down CPD policies and procedures in many professional contexts (Ball & Cohen, 1999b; Borko, 2004), including that of education in Saudi Arabia. In that country, as we have seen in Chapter 2, educational reform can be characterised as top down, in that teachers have little power to determine either its direction or implementation. Similarly, CPD is extensively regarded as something provided from the top by the authorities down to teachers, rather than being centred on the teachers themselves. The danger in this approach, as expressed by (Intakhab, 2011, p. 1584), is that it may produce a cohort of teachers with “stuffed brains”, rather than “trained minds”.

Thus, whilst CPD tended to be voluntary and teacher driven until around 1995, its application has since become the focus of intense pressure from the relevant authorities, which impacts upon teachers, learners, institutions and wider society (Craft, 2002). However, some core defining features of CPD continue unchanged, such as that teachers’ learning, like that of their students, should be a continuous process (Sammons, Hillman, & Mortimore, 1995). It is ideas about the purpose of the CPD, and who is seen as rightfully in charge of the process, that have changed.
Nevertheless, Craft (2002) presents a top down view of CPD which shows that it can still be sensitive to teacher concerns, listing a number of purposes which employers (head teachers, department heads, ministries etc.) might see it as having (p. 9):

- To improve the job performance skills of the whole staff or groups of staff.
- To improve the job performance skills of an individual teacher.
- To extend the experience of an individual teacher for career development or promotion purposes.
- To develop the professional knowledge and understanding of an individual teacher.
- To extend the personal or general education of an individual.
- To make staff feel valued.
- To promote job satisfaction.
- To develop an enhanced view of the job.
- To enable teachers to anticipate and prepare for change.
- To clarify the whole school or department’s policy.

Here, although the implication is that it is the authorities that are in control of the content and delivery of the CPD, the list of purposes contains many items (e.g. bullets 3-7) which put benefits for the teacher centre stage; it is not a list which predominantly focuses on getting teachers to conform to teaching practices dictated from above. In this respect, it contrasts with the list of (Friedman, Davis, & Phillips, 2000). which has been reviewed above. While the involvement of employers in CPD is nowadays often emphasised (by e.g.
Craft, 2002; Friedman & Phillips, 2004), CPD can still be framed with sensitivity to its impact upon individual beneficiaries, who in the present case are teachers, and through them on their students.

What tends to be lacking in recent views of the nature, purposes, goals and agencies of CPD, then, seems to be the involvement of teachers in decisions about its nature and what should be delivered through it, teachers’ choice in what CPD to engage in, and their involvement in doing their own CPD activities (e.g. reflection, action research, casual arrangements with peers for mutual observation and the like). Therefore, the pleas of some, including (Loughran & Gunstone, 1997), that CPD should be regarded as a process of mutual support and encouragement, have largely not been heeded. Too often nowadays, CPD is something that is imposed upon teachers, which, as was explained in Chapter 2, is the case in the context of the present research.

3.3 What teachers themselves think is the nature and purpose of CPD

This review of how CPD and its purposes and goals are defined has so far focused on what has been said about it by the various authorities such as scholarly researchers, experts, government agencies, professional bodies and so forth. A relatively neglected dimension of this, however, is that of what the teachers themselves think CPD and its purposes are or should be. This is valuable to know for a number of reasons.

First, of course, the views of teachers and practitioners may differ widely from those of the higher authorities. Consequently, where it is the higher authorities that are largely in control of the CPD, this sort of mismatch may create
conditions for the failure of teachers to engage with or benefit from CPD to the full.

Secondly, teachers’ beliefs about how to teach, and the impact of those beliefs on how they actually do teach (in other words, their instructional practices), have now been the target of a considerable body of research (Borg, 2003; 2015; Hos & Kekec, 2014). Recent work on teachers’ beliefs provides interpretation of such complex issues as the relationship between their stated beliefs and their classroom practices. Researchers often compare previous beliefs and currently perceived classroom practices so as to illuminate the factors that create differences between the two (e.g. Borg, 2015; Hos & Kekec, 2014). There is also considerable work on whether or not, and how, teacher training may impact those beliefs, although the main focus has been on the role of PRESET rather than INSET. Nevertheless, relatively little is still known at the antecedent level about what beliefs teachers hold about CPD, or indeed about the impact of these beliefs on their engagement with CPD, that is to say, their CPD practices. Yet this is a prerequisite for understanding the role of CPD in teachers’ changes in beliefs and practices related to teaching.

It was noted above that Friedman and Phillips (2004) conducted a survey about CPD in which professional practitioners (termed employees) as well as their superiors were included. This research was, however, distant from the concerns of the present study, in terms both of the professions represented and of the location of the survey. In a piece of research work much closer in both respects to the context of the survey reported in this thesis, Raza (2010) conducted a study of the views of CPD among expatriate EFL teachers.
working on foundation English programmes at universities in the neighbouring UAE. As discussed at greater length in Section 3.9, in face-to-face individual interviews and focus group sessions, many participants gave responses indicating that they regarded CPD as part of their lifelong professional evolution.

3.3 Professional knowledge in TESOL/TEFL and implications for CPD

Since all concepts of CPD include the idea that teachers’ professional knowledge (TPK) develops or changes in some sense, it is necessary to consider the nature of that knowledge in more detail. This section also addresses other features of a teacher that may change with CPD, which were introduced in Section 3.3, such as teachers’ skills, practices, attitudes and beliefs.

Just like any other profession, teaching (including TESOL) is organised and based upon relevant qualifications, licences and certificates, which may or may not entail pre-service training that ensures that the teacher has some basic TPK, underpinned by the principled dedication of its practitioners to achieving high quality performance (Khan, 2011). This is followed by CPD to develop and update that TPK while the teacher teaches. However, TESOL is a profession whose practitioners understand the pedagogical knowledge base in different ways, depending on their different traditions.

Verloop, Van Driel, and Meijer (2001, p. 441), for example, define teacher knowledge as comprising “all profession-related insights which are potentially relevant to a teacher’s activities”. They argue that this knowledge base should
include teachers’ practical knowledge, alongside formal propositional knowledge. Others regard TPK as a deeper set of knowledge and skills which should be identified by rigorous means, rather than by reference to tradition; in particular, it has been argued that the concept of evidence-based practice should be applied to teaching (Shulman & Sparks, 1992; Standards, 1989), meaning that TPK should be knowledge about how to teach, based firmly on research. Thus, several views of professional knowledge (PK) exist and connect with ideas about teacher CPD in TESOL (Friedman & Phillips, 2004).

In the realm of education, including TESOL, PK has experienced a paradigmatic shift; the concept is no longer understood in behaviourist terms, as a set of skills or actions that teachers perform (their practices), being seen instead as a cognitive entity, conceptualised as what they know and/or believe. While some scholars emphasise teacher knowledge, others focus on teacher beliefs: the key difference is that knowledge is of something which is judged independently to be true or correct, while a belief may be in something true or not (Borg, 2003) or an attitude.

Many believe that to make this shift, research in TESOL needs to break with traditional social science fields. Much of the current discussion revolves around the so-called quiet revolution in TESOL teacher education (Johnson, 2000), which, it is argued, should focus on what teachers know and believe, as well as how this knowledge shapes practices and/or the course of professional development. This development in TESOL is consistent with the recognition that “teachers … are central to understanding and improving English language teaching” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 401).
Troudi (2005, p. 3) reports that in the last two decades, an increasing number of research studies in TESOL have been based on a social constructivist view of language research that allows readers to hear teachers’ voices and views on the nature of teaching and how they learn to teach in different social contexts.

Reporting their investigation of teacher knowledge, Verloop et al. (2001) argue that the shift that has taken place in the dominant view of TPK and teacher learning (CPD) is the parallel of an equivalent shift of interest with respect to student knowledge and learning. Since the 1960s, language learners have been seen as acquiring a mental construct rather than a set of behaviours, similarly, teachers are now seen as acquiring not teaching behaviour, but rather “the cognitions and beliefs underlying that behavior, based on ideas about the interaction between them” (p. 442). As a consequence, teacher knowledge has to be reconceptualised to include cognitions and beliefs, not just visible skills and practices.

Verloop et al. (2001) also draw attention to the non-universality of TPK:

The most challenging question with respect to teacher professionality is no longer how we can best provide teachers with insights developed elsewhere, but how the process of ‘dialogue with the situation’ takes place in a teaching context, which insights are developed in this context, and how these insights relate to insights from other sources. (pp. 442-443)
In other words, this view includes the idea that there is no universal TPK which can be delivered to teachers by some single international form of CPD course or workshop. Rather, while there is possibly a component of insights (knowledge, beliefs, attitudes etc.) that applies across situations, there is also a component that is context specific. Such a view, of course, rather goes against the evidence-based practice approach to TPK cited above, since the latter tends to assume that scientific research will supply universal answers concerning how teachers should teach, which can be delivered through uniform training, as exemplified by Wallace’s (1991) applied science model. It is also a view with a long history in education, and context-specific TPK is just what CPD in the form of reflective, action research and peer involvement activities will develop, according to Wallace’s (1991) craft and reflective models.

More than twenty years ago, Shulman (1986a, p. 25) identified a “missing paradigm” in educational research and sought to bridge the gap between the cognitive comprehension of subject matter content by teachers and the relationship of this comprehension with teachers’ instruction of students. In effect, this points to the connection within TPK between teacher knowledge and beliefs on the one hand, and teacher practices and performance on the other, which for Shulman (1987) would create a proper knowledge base for teaching.

A further consequence of viewing teacher learning and CPD as a cognitive process is the importance that it gives to teachers’ personal thoughts and beliefs, because “teachers are active, thinking decision makers who make
instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” (Borg, 2003, p. 81).

Views about the nature of TPK have implications for what CPD activities are deemed appropriate. TPK seen as knowledge and skills which are universally valid might favour top down CPD in the form of training courses and workshops, whereas TPK seen as teachers’ individual beliefs and attitudes local to a particular context, by contrast, favours CPD activities which encourage teachers to express their personal thoughts and beliefs in order to improve their impact upon classroom performance. This can be achieved through methods such as self-monitoring, journal writing and analytical reflection on crucial moments and experiences (Borg, 2003, p. 81).

3.3.1 The concept of pedagogical content knowledge

This subsection now considers in more detail the views of Shulman and others who have reconceptualised TPK as pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). In doing so, they also highlight teacher language awareness (TLA) and its relationship with the second language (L2) teacher’s professional knowledge. One example of such a reconceptualisation is taken from the general education literature (Richards & Farrell, 2005) and another from the applied linguistics literature (Tsui, 2003). The key idea is that language teachers should have knowledge not just of the language being taught (i.e. the subject-matter content of the teaching) but also of the nature of the processes of teaching, learning and using language (Turner-Bisset, 1999, 2001). Although nowadays it might seem obvious that TPK should include
both of these elements, it is worth pointing out that even today, in many
countries such as the KSA, it is still possible for teachers of English as an L2
to be certified as able to teach with only knowledge of the first type (i.e. a BA
in English language) and no preservice training (PRESET) devoted to the
latter. Elyas and Picard (2010) claims that subject matter content is the critical
aspect of a teacher’s professional knowledge base. Therefore, although his
approach varies somewhat across various papers, his focus remains on
content knowledge and its relationship with pedagogical knowledge, leading
him to coin the term ‘pedagogical content knowledge’ (PCK). This amalgam of
content and pedagogy constitutes the unique knowledge of professional
teachers (Shulman, 1987), which they may develop through CPD.

The idea that PCK involves knowledge of processes as well as facts is well
illustrated by a recent study by Kazempour and Amirshokoohi (2014b). This
involved science teachers in a situation where a change in the official syllabus
meant that there would be more emphasis on teaching students to ‘do’
science in secondary class, rather than on them simply learning facts about it;
in other words, enquiry-based teaching/learning. Many science teachers
themselves needed to be trained in this approach to teaching and even in this
approach to doing science. The solution adopted involved what the authors
call ‘contextual learning experiences’, where teachers attended a two-week
summer school and were immersed in this kind of activity themselves. An
analogy in language teaching is seen in the attempt in some quarters to
introduce data-driven learning (DDL) into the language class. This is, in
essence, enquiry-based learning, where learners study language corpus
materials and try to identify the patterns or rules in the data, rather than simply
being told the rules in the form of facts, as in traditional teaching. Many
glanguage teachers would be unfamiliar with this approach to teaching and
indeed may themselves simply have learnt the rules of English as facts from a
grammar book, rather than by this form of discovery, so would need training in
DDL.

Despite the fact that Shulman categorises content knowledge and knowledge
of learners as separate components, it can be argued that PCK links the two
closely together. Furthermore, Shulman (1987, p. 8) describes PCK as
representing “the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of
how particular topics, problems, or issues are organised, represented, and
adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for
instruction.” The intersection of all of these elements is crucial to the teacher’s
ability to change content knowledge (or belief) into pedagogical forms that are
both strong and yet adapted to the different skills and backgrounds of different
students (Shulman, 1987). Shulman’s (1987) proposed model presents the
different aspects of the professional knowledge base of teaching as “boxes
floating on a page” (Shulman, 1986a, 1986b, 1987); in other words, the
nature of the various types of knowledge and their interrelations were unclear
and required more research. Since then, PCK has developed into one of the
most widely discussed and generally recognised educational constructs. The
Shulman model has stimulated debate on the domains of teacher knowledge
and their relationships, generating extended ideas of PCK such as those
suggested by (Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987, p. 113).
For the purposes of the present study, the implication of Shulman’s idea is that TPK cannot be delivered or learned through CPD entirely from outside, as a simple ‘one size fits all’ body of content. The teacher must work on integrating such knowledge with local contextual knowledge of the learners and other aspects of the teaching situation to produce PCK. This can be achieved through CPD in the form of workshops where there is a genuine interaction between teachers and instructors, and through constructive reflection in which teachers try to link day to day experiences with more detached knowledge.

More recently, Turner-Bisset (1999; 2001) has offered a knowledge-based model of teaching as a profession, written partly in response to the UK government’s promotion of a competence-based paradigm of teaching Lederman and Gess-Newsome (1999) and as an attempt to make improvements to Shulman’s idea of PCK. This model suggests a reconceptualisation of PCK whereby teaching rests upon eleven knowledge bases that work in combination, with PCK as the “overarching knowledge base” which subsumes them (Turner-Bisset, 1999, p. 47). Furthermore, the model envisages a variety of interrelations among the constituent knowledge bases. For instance, syntactic knowledge, as well as substantive knowledge (see Schwab, 1978) and beliefs regarding the subject, can be regarded as parts of subject matter knowledge (DfEE, 1998). Turner-Bisset believes that PCK, encompassing all eleven critical components of expert teaching, can be compared to the nine tenths of an iceberg lying beneath the ocean surface, while those areas of teaching that can be observed can be compared to the one tenth that is visible above the waves (Turner-Bisset, 2001).
Turner-Bisset (2001) also recognises that individual teachers’ ability to combine the various types of knowledge will be limited by education and experience. For example, a non-native speaker with a degree in English, beginning a career in TESOL, may have excellent knowledge of the subject but not of individual learners’ needs or classroom techniques and will have very limited general pedagogical understanding. An inexperienced native speaker teacher will have some of the same shortcomings, whereas an experienced primary school teacher without an English degree will be relatively weak in knowledge of the subject but will have a far superior understanding of learners and the process of learning, as well as better general pedagogical knowledge and a wider set of teacher and learner models. The relevance to CPD is that (Turner-Bisset, 1999) claims that these initial weaknesses in individual teachers’ knowledge bases can be overcome during the course of their careers, so that areas in which they were once deficient can become fully developed aspects of their PCK amalgam. It follows that those responsible for designing and delivering TPD can usefully employ the Turner-Bisset model when developing CPD activities. The same argument applies to the work of Freeman (2002) and Tsui (2003) on PCK.

Freeman (2002) also studied aspects of PCK and concluded that suitable aspects of the content needed to be learned by teachers and that this was essentially a linguistic task. “The teacher engages her students, and the students engage one another, with the content of the lesson through language” (Freeman 2002, p. 6). In TESOL, extra difficulties arise from the combination of first language (L1) and L2 in the classroom in at least three different ways, depending on the linguistic knowledge of the teacher, details of
the first language of the student and the language interactions that take place in the classroom (Freeman, 2002).

On the other hand, while agreeing that in TESOL, L1 and L2 complexities can arise from the example discussed by Freeman because of complications in these areas of knowledge, Tsui (2003) argues that this is not a justification for dismissing PCK as an impractical model of the knowledge relevant to language teaching. Rather, the potential conflicts at the interface that Freeman identifies can be dealt with if the teacher has adequate language awareness. Therefore, instead of being reasons for dismissing the relevance that PCK has to the field of teaching language, these actually become arguments in favour of its inclusion, provided that they are understood to include language awareness. Interestingly, Tsui (2003) discusses PCK in terms of it being one fully integrated unit and she uses the example of an experienced L2 teacher who is able to teach grammar effectively because of the deep knowledge he or she possesses in four areas. These are identified as: knowledge of English in terms of the teaching and learning of language, knowledge of how to organise learning, knowledge of other curricula and knowledge that is related to the interests of students Turner-Bisset (2001, p. 125).

Also of relevance is a study of TPK conducted in Egypt by (Tsui, 2003, pp. 200-201), who surveyed 236 experienced EFL teachers, held semi-structured interviews with 14 of them and used stimulated recall in classroom observation. The research revealed that six core areas of teacher knowledge could be constructed from participants’ responses: subject matter, pedagogy,
students, classroom learning environment, curriculum and self. As for sources of knowledge, the results showed that TPK arose from experience and from many sources that would be regarded for the purposes of the present research as types of CPD: teacher education, university study in the subject department, expert advice, student and peer feedback, and in-service training. The study recommends that teachers should be aware of the role of reflection and personal qualities that are essential for the development of their knowledge and practice. Again, this is of value to those developing TPD, particularly in the Middle East.

3.3.2 Wider aspects of TPK

As has been seen above, subject and content knowledge are far from the only relevant components of TPK. Many sources Abdelhafez (2010) also highlight the importance of the inclusion of pedagogical knowledge, defined as all of the teaching knowledge that the teacher has obtained, including knowledge of teaching aims, processes and strategies (Breen, 1991; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Markee, 1997; Richards, 1998). Furthermore, it is argued that teaching is not concerned with the application of abstract rules, but rather with informed decisions being made upon the basis of teachers’ knowledge, understanding, educational values and opinions (Feiman-Nemser & Floden, 1984; Shulman, 1986b, 1987). Hence, TPK may be extended to include the attitudes and beliefs which the teacher holds, and these may also be altered through CPD.

A further dimension of TPK concerns the skills which teachers use in everyday classroom teaching. In order to perform effectively, it is necessary for teachers to integrate their skills with knowledge in areas such as the
teaching of the curriculum and assessment of the learning progress made by their students. In particular, the skills and knowledge of teachers should be focused primarily upon the students, so that each student’s understanding and abilities are recognised, then addressed appropriately. Hence, importance must be accorded to performative knowledge of skills, as well as declarative knowledge of subject content, and both must be addressed via CPD in an integrated way.

Many people also believe that the practices of teachers should be informed by theories, because it is the theoretical foundation that can underpin sound practical professional development. In other words, teachers must refer to their theoretical knowledge so that practical efficiency can be achieved by combining curriculum competency, teaching and assessment. Importantly, this integration enables the teacher to make principled, day to day decisions in practice. The implication again is that teachers’ knowledge of new theoretical ideas in TESOL needs constant updating through CPD. A further implication is that practice and theory are not to be regarded as separate entities in CPD. Their integration is central to attaining general effectiveness in the standards of teachers’ development and their learning processes (Gewirtz, Cribb, Mahony, & Hextall, 2006).

Perhaps one final area of knowledge and skill which I believe should be seen as falling within a teacher’s TPK, although it is less often recognised as such, is that related to CPD itself. Scholars like (Garratt, 2012) have long promoted the view that teachers not only need all those skills and types of knowledge related to teaching, as discussed above, but they also need skills and
knowledge related to their own PD. This includes particularly to teachers’ capacity to show an awareness of their own teaching and to be reflective, to their competence in doing action research, to their ability to make use of their fellow teachers as a peer resource in furthering their PD and so forth, all of which are related to their own CPD, rather than directly to their teaching. Wallace (1991). The implication is that it is not sufficient for their initial teacher training and later CPD to develop TESOL teachers’ mastery of all of the content and pedagogical aspects of TESOL itself; rather, some would say that it is even more important for them to learn a body of knowledge and skills related to PD, so that they can themselves direct and perform their own development throughout their career.

This connects with an important issue, which is that of teacher needs. Much of the discussion of TPK and PCK focuses on the totality of what a teacher needs to know, either universally, or for some specific teaching context, in order to teach successfully. Often the implication is made that whatever form CPD takes, it has to cover all of that. However, we understand from research on student needs that there is a distinction between what have been termed ‘needs’ and ‘lacks’ (Abdelhafez, 2010; Huchinson & Waters, 1987). Instruction in the classroom should focus not on the totality of what a student needs to know, but rather on those areas of needs that he/she does not know already, in other words his lacks. With respect to our concern with CPD the same is true. Teachers at any point in their career do not usually require CPD covering every aspect of what they need to know in order to teach successfully, but only those areas where they have lacks. Some would therefore argue that TPD should focus on teachers’ needs only in the sense of lacks (or what
some would judgmentally call weaknesses in their knowledge) and should do so as accurately as is practicable, since there is no point in teachers learning what they already know.

This raises the question of whose responsibility it is to identify any such shortcomings in professional performance and to use that information to guide the provision of CPD. Higher authorities may not always be very good at doing this and may just set up PRESET or CPD training courses to deliver content based on what they think the teachers need to know, regardless of what the teachers themselves could tell them, if asked, about what they already know, which would allow those responsible to determine what the teachers actually lack. Among the concepts of CPD, however, is the bottom up idea that teachers accept increased responsibility and autonomy for their own TPK. This means that teachers should be more willing and able to act on their own initiative, by identifying their own particular needs or shortcomings, monitoring these and ensuring that their needs are fully met (Huchinson & Waters, 1987), whether through courses and workshops provided by higher authorities which they choose to attend, or through their own reflection, online study, action research or other types of self-development CPD. This is, however, at odds with the increasingly prominent top down view of CPD as described in Section 3.3.1 and as exists in the setting of this study, as set out in Chapter 2, Section 2.4, where it is employers or other bodies that decide what the teacher lacks and requires CPD to supply.

At this point it would be useful to consider some early work on two concepts of particular importance to CPD: needs and motivation. In the mid-20th century,
humanistic psychologists drew on the ideas of (Timperley, 2008) to develop theories of individual motivation, focusing on the concepts of self-actualisation (Hull, 1943) and the hierarchy of needs (Rogers, 1951). Their theories concern individuals’ capabilities and mental processes, and the effect on behaviour of personal and environmental variables. For (Maslow, 1954), motivation arises from individual aspiration to improved standards. Rogers (1951) adopts the concepts of need satisfaction and drive reduction from Maslow (1954), emphasising people’s desire to satisfy various needs and wants (Hull, 1943). Maslow’s hierarchy of needs will be discussed further in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.1.2.

3.4 Models of teacher CPD

The following subsections summarise in turn eight alternative models of CPD and discuss in further detail issues such as the content of CPD, its delivery and the incompatibility of teacher autonomy with top down approaches. Despite the lack of literature that discusses CPD models by comparative means (Zafar Khan, 2011), it has been possible to identify eight categories into which CPD models, as applied to the teaching profession, can be divided. Each of these categories or models is then critically examined before a way is suggested to rank them on a continuum.

The term ‘model of CPD’ is used here to refer to an overall approach to CPD which includes particular choices made about a number of key aspects of it, some of which have already been discussed separately. The key aspects may include a general ‘philosophy’ of the nature of CPD, the purpose of the CPD,
who it is that is in charge of selecting and delivering it, the role in it of the teacher, what sorts of TPK it attempts to transmit and the types of CPD activities that are typical of it. Another aspect suggested by (Hoban, 2002) is the context where CPD is engaged in, tentatively divided into academic contexts, institutional contexts and practice (the classroom context), to which may be added other informal contexts (e.g. staff room or home) where the teacher may engage in CPD activities such as professional discussion and reading, other than at work. It should be noted that no claim is made here that the set of CPD models that are summarised below is in any sense exhaustive, nor indeed that the labels assigned to them or the categories in which they are placed are necessarily mutually exclusive.

3.4.1 The training model

The most popular CPD model in Saudi Arabia and neighbouring countries (as was explained in Chapter 2) is the training model, whereby an ‘expert’ determines and delivers an agenda without consultation with teachers, typically through courses and workshops. Eraut (1994) asserts that new knowledge can thus be delivered efficiently; however, since it is usually delivered at a site away from the classroom, this approach has been criticised for its disconnection from the teacher’s workplace. This model, similar to the imposition of teacher development plans that are based upon set standards, tends to lead teachers to attain those particular skills that have been established as necessary by experts or employers. Therefore, it could be described as highly centralised, yielding teacher development that is standardised and coherent.
3.4.2 The deficit model

The deficit model of CPD has been developed within the field of performance management to tackle what are seen as deficiencies in the performance of teachers. In this approach, an assessor (not the teacher) identifies teachers’ deficiencies and weaknesses, then recommends the necessary remedy (Dadds, 2001). One criticism is that initial requirements (needs or lacks) may well be unclear, partly because it is uncertain who should determine expectations for effective teacher performance.

What is clear is that like the training model, the deficit model involves imposition from the top down. It can be said to have the advantage that it does not provide training which is the same for all, based on supposed needs, but makes an attempt to identify and target individual teachers’ specific lacks or deficits, as discussed in Section 3.4.2. Thus, it may be more effective by not wasting time on what PYP teachers in Saudi Arabia, for example, already know. However, Hoban (2002) express the sceptical suggestion that management and organisational methods may be the real cause of poor teacher performance, rather than the teachers themselves. Therefore, a weakness of the deficit model is that it focuses primarily upon changing the individual’s performance without giving sufficient consideration to changing the collective performance of the school or university where the teacher teaches or of the ministry that sets the syllabus and exams or imposes textbooks.
3.4.3 The cascade model

The cascade model of CPD relies on teachers attending training sessions given by experts, as in the training model, then passing down the acquired knowledge to colleagues. During the recession of the early 1990s, this model was quite widespread in Scotland (Rhodes & Beneicke, 2003), but since then its use in that country has declined. (Marker, 1999) allege that it is knowledge-based and skills-based information that tends to be cascaded, with too little emphasis on values. Similarly, Solomon and Tresman (1999) says that questions related to ‘why’ need to be addressed, instead of just ‘how’ and ‘what.’ Therefore, critics of the model claim that it lends itself to a technical type of teaching, where values and attitudes tend to be overlooked in favour of knowledge and skills.

In most developing countries, economic constraints have led TPD to be neglected in favour of pre-service education, but when TPD is provided, Nieto (2003) asserts that the cascade model is commonly used to transmit knowledge or information quickly and cost-effectively to a large number of teachers. Prince and Barrett (2014) describe an extensive example of this model in India. It is often used in Saudi Arabia, where the present research is set, as and in neighbouring countries, as described in chapter 2, in order that knowledge and skills imparted to a relatively small number of initial trainees can reach a large number of teachers, despite the fact that Saudi Arabia’s strong economy and generous higher education budget make its cost-effectiveness less attractive. However, this cascade or multiplier model of teacher professional development is often seen as “particularly ineffective” (Leu, 2004). Well known risks include the dilution of content quality, changes
to the key pedagogical message along the way and the absence of content which is flexible and relevant for specific contexts at the bottom level of the cascade (Gilpin, 1997; Hayes, 2000). Woodward et al. (2014) interestingly describe how in Bangladesh the cascade model has come to be bypassed, as those at the top of the cascade simply communicate directly with those at the bottom by disseminating their CPD material through the mobile phone network, resulting in an undistorted and more immediate message getting through.

3.4.4 The standards-based model

The standards-based model of CPD seeks to simplify teaching into a framework whereby the development of teachers can be systematically validated, yet it could be argued that teaching cannot be uniform everywhere, as it is also heavily influenced by less simple issues related to context, complexity and morality (Leu, 2004). Furthermore, like the deficit model, the standards model tends to overlook collective factors and those related to the management or the employer, focusing instead on individual teachers’ competencies. The model can also be criticised for taking a behavioural approach to teaching, as the ‘standards’ in which it deals are, in terms of practical implementation, much the same as behavioural competencies (Beyer, 2002). (Kirk, Beveridge, & Smith, 2003) asserts that the model imposes central control and direction over teachers through the imposition of standards, thus failing to credit them with the ability to develop their own critical reflections. On the other hand, the standards-based model could improve teacher dialogue and clarify professional development because of the standardisation of methods. This is what seems to occur in the KSA according
to my own experience and my observation of other teachers in the context of the present research (see Chapter 2, Section 2.4).

The training, deficit, cascade and standards-based models can all be classified as types of applied science model, which Smyth (1991) describes as the traditional and most common model of TPD. The following subsections review models which fall outside this group.

3.4.5 The coaching/mentoring model

The coaching/mentoring model differs from the above top down models and is similar to the craft model Wallace (1991) in that it relies not on a body of information supplied by ‘experts’, but on less academic input from fellow practitioners. The coaching/mentoring model of CPD is characterised by two teachers working together, by talking to each other out of class about teaching, observing each other’s classes and commenting on them. It has been reasoned that coaching tends to focus upon skills, whereas mentoring includes a degree of professional counselling (Wallace, 1991). Similarly, for (Rhodes & Beneicke, 2002), mentoring suggests that one teacher is junior to a more experienced colleague.

Crucial to this model is the idea that learning can be significantly improved through observation and discussion with another teacher within the context of the school or, in the case of the present study, within a university department. While the process can be compared to an apprenticeship, where one teacher is the novice and the other is significantly more experienced, there is sufficient flexibility for a more equitable relationship between the two, conferring the advantage of removing the hierarchical pressure that is usually associated
with working alongside a superior. Clutterbuck (1991) note that when the model takes the form of peer coaching, there is more emphasis on confidentiality, rather than accountability. They also state that both parties (especially the coach/mentor) should have competent communication skills if the model is to be successful. I would argue that this model represents an approach well suited to the context of this study, for three interrelated reasons: the first is that it is built upon the trusting relationships which develop between teachers, the second is that it is designed to be non-competitive and mutually respectful and the third is that it focuses on the continual improvement of all participants' teaching methods.

3.4.6 The community of practice model
The community of practice model is similar to the coaching/mentoring model, except that more than two parties are involved and that confidentiality is not necessarily guaranteed. In his social theory of learning, Rhodes and Beneicke (2002) argues that community learning occurs through the evolving processes and unique interactions of a particular community, not through closely planned events such as training sessions. However, for the community of practice model to be effective, all participants must be aware of the existence of the community. In the context of TESOL in the Middle East, such a community might comprise all of the teachers who belong to some relevant organisation such as TESOL Arabia, or who visit websites such as Dave's ESL Café. Karavas and Papadopoulou (2014) describe how the community of practice has 'gone digital' in Greece in the form of a dedicated online platform for primary school teachers of English as a foreign language. This platform, named 2gather, was developed in connection with an in-service training
programme to implement the introduction of English in the first and second grades of Greek public primary schools. Teachers do not need to wait for such a platform to be supplied from above, of course, but can easily build their own dedicated platforms for communication among members of a community of practice, e.g. by using Facebook special interest group facilities.

In fact, the teachers participating in the present study can be seen to constitute a community within their department. Supporters of the model claim that the richness that comes from the interactions of its participants will add considerable depth to teacher development. Furthermore, Wenger (1998) believes that the community itself should be granted powers, such as having control over setting the agenda.

3.4.7 The action research model

Wenger (1998) explains that in action research, the teachers are themselves researchers whose intention, in the case of TPD, is to improve their teaching practices. The context is each teacher’s own classroom. Supporters of this approach (cited in Day, 1999, p. 34) claim that the results are of greater value when shared within a community, although this is not essential. Weiner (2002) offers the example of Sweden, where a range of political, educational and professional partners were able to co-operate successfully in national education research.

The action research model has been cited as an extreme alternative to the traditional approach to TPD, exemplified by the training, deficit, cascade and standards-based models examined above, in which a passive role is imposed on teachers (Burbank & Kauchak, 2003; Weiner, 2002). It is similar to the
reflective model (Burbank & Kauchak, 2003), since it crucially involves reflection/awareness, as the teacher reflects on his/her teaching experiences, especially those in the classroom, but with the addition of an action. He or she looks for problems, helped by e.g. peer observation or by keeping a diary of what happens in classes, then explores the problem (perhaps by asking the students or other teachers), devises an action intended to resolve the problem (e.g. teaching something in a new way) and gathers evidence of the level of success (e.g. student test scores or feedback). If a particular action turns out not to be a success, the teacher tries another, whereas if it is a success he or she looks for another problem to work on. In this way the teacher can develop continually. In short, the teacher does his or her own CPD by continually thinking about what is happening, using classroom research to self-improve. A benefit is that each teacher develops in a way that precisely fits that teacher's professional context (Wallace, 1991).

3.4.8 The transformative model

The transformative model of CPD is difficult to delimit, because it is defined not by particular CPD activities, in the way that most of those above models are, but by its effects. It can draw upon various elements of the different models discussed above, depending upon the prevailing conditions, integrating these whilst taking account of prevailing agendas and power issues. As Kennedy (2005) observes, it is not in itself so much a model as “the combination of practices and conditions that support a transformative process” (p. 246). In other words, it is anything which, in a particular context for particular teachers, achieves the role of a catalyst in terms of building teacher autonomy and bringing about deep changes. It is, in a way, a
combination of the above models rather than a separate model in itself (Kennedy, 2005).

In this view of CPD, even a ‘transmission’ activity following the training model, like a training session by a visiting expert, can be transformative if it not only informs teachers but also enables them to evaluate and apply whatever it delivers, thus generating new ideas and practices. However, it is far more often that models like action research are claimed to have transformative power (e.g. Banegas et al., 2013). Edwards reports her own personal CPD and how she was ‘transformed’ by her participation in an action research project which not only proved to be a catalyst for her own development but also impacted on her students’ learning (Burns & Edwards, 2014). Wiseman (2014), by contrast, demonstrates the transformative power of the community of practice. The bonds established among participants in a group project led to the sharing of experiences and understandings of practice, creating a sense of possibilities both for project participants and those around them.

The use of action research in a transformative way can be extended to teacher research more broadly. Smith et al. (2014), for instance, describe a project in Chile where teacher-initiated research of a broader sort was implemented. This included research which did not in fact involve an action or intervention, as action research does, but rather careful observation of the teaching environment, or some aspects of it, so as to inform teachers, increasing their awareness and understanding, and perhaps guiding future action. Such teacher research, which Allwright and Hanks (2009) call ‘exploratory practice’, can clearly be a step in the transformative process. Although there were some problems in giving teachers sufficient support for
such unfamiliar activity, there were clearly some valuable outcomes in this study; for example, teachers became more aware that change was in their own hands and those of their students, rather than something to be despaired of or to be delivered only from above.

Just as in language teaching, where a judicious and eclectic combination of teaching methods may be useful, rather than strict adherence just to one (e.g. only the communicative approach or only grammar-translation), so also in CPD a blend of models may be suitable. Brown (1995, p. 17), referring to language teaching, speaks of “making informed choices among the available approaches, … techniques, and exercises in order to adapt to a particular group … in a particular situation for the purposes of most effectively and efficiently helping them to learn…”. These words may be applied just as truthfully to the provision of CPD for language teachers.

3.4.9 Conclusions regarding models of teacher CPD

As suggested at the outset of this review of approaches to teacher CPD, the different models outlined here should not be regarded as independent of one another, since some are compatible with others and could be combined with them (e.g. the training and standards-based models), while others share key characteristics (e.g. peer learning/support in the coaching/mentoring model and the community of practice model). Thus, key characteristics can be extracted so that a framework can be created in order to assist in the analysis and comparison of CPD models. (Kennedy, 2014) follows her review of these models by listing five questions that can be usefully posed to facilitate an analysis of CPD models:
1. What types of knowledge acquisition does the CPD model support, i.e. procedural or propositional? (Compare the discussion of TPK in Section 3.4.2)

2. Is the principal focus on individual or collective development?

3. To what extent is the CPD used as a form of accountability? (Compare the discussion of purposes in Section 3.3.1)

4. What capacity does CPD allow for supporting professional autonomy? (Compare the discussion of bottom up CPD throughout this chapter)

5. Is the fundamental purpose of CPD to provide a means of transmission or to facilitate transformative practice?

For the purposes of the present research, a sixth question should be added:

6. What kinds of CPD activities does the model require or encourage?

We may note that several of these questions (especially numbers 2, 4, 5 and 6), when considered together, suggest the existence of a continuum along which the different models may be located. At one end of the range are those models whose purpose is transmission, such as the training, deficit and cascade models. These often rely on training courses and workshops provided to groups of teachers who themselves play no role in CPD planning. The capacity for professional autonomy increases as one moves to those models whose purpose is transitional and which can support multiple agendas: the coaching/mentoring and community of practice models. Finally, the capacity for individual professional autonomy is greatest under the action research and transformative models, which are teacher driven and rely on activities other than courses and workshops.
As stated in the introduction to this section, I do not claim that the models discussed here are the only ones worthy of consideration. The purpose here was to establish a framework for analysing various models of CPD. Similarly, it is not claimed here that this is the only way to organise models of CPD; it is accepted that alternative approaches could be equally valid. Generally, the framework being proposed here is an attempt to place greater emphasis on issues that are related to purpose and power (Kennedy, 2014, p. 348).

3.5 Instructive versus constructive approaches to CPD

A related way of analysing the models of CPD in a general way is in terms of the instructive–constructive dichotomy. This reflects and supports both the scale on which models can be located, as was described at the end of Section 3.5.9, and the loose distinction that has been made at various times above between CPD that is top down or authority driven and that which is bottom up or teacher driven. This dichotomy is, however, founded more on learning theories than on a critical assessment of purpose and of power.

3.5.1 The instructive approach

The instructive approach is typically seen in CPD and examples are the training model and other transmission models. (Kennedy, 2014) differentiates four categories of such in-service education by their purposes: courses to provide certification for unqualified teachers, to upgrade teachers or to prepare them for new roles, and curriculum-related or refresher courses. Such traditional in-service education or TPD activities are offered in various forms such as workshops, seminars, courses and conferences Greenland (1983). As has been mentioned in Section 3.4.1, these activities have been criticised
as being short term, disjointed, incoherent and especially decontextualised and isolated from actual classroom settings (Schwille, Dembélé, & Schubert, 2007; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Such traditional CPD approaches for teachers, which (Development, 2005; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Vonk, 1995) labels as “adult pull-out programs”, are often seen as being of very little help to enhance teacher performance and as not inevitably having any recognisable impact on teaching. (Kelleher, 2003, p. 751) asserts that “Nothing has promised so much and has been so frustratingly wasteful as the thousands of workshops and conferences that led to no significant change in practice when the teachers returned to their classrooms.”

Furthermore, Fullan (1991, p. 315); (Kelleher, 2003) discuss the persistent superficiality of teacher learning and development:

> Although a good deal of money is spent on staff development in the United States, most is spent on sessions and workshops that are often intellectually superficial, disconnected from deep issues of curriculum and learning, fragmented and noncumulative.

A similar frustration is expressed in the literature with such approaches to CPD in developing countries Ball and Cohen (1999a, pp. 3-4). Of particular relevance to the present study is the official policy currently being pursued in Saudi Arabia, which involves the development and delivery of TPD programmes that firmly follow the instructive approach. It is therefore a particular concern of this study to ascertain teachers’ attitudes to that CPD.
3.5.2 The constructive approach

In response to the criticisms of traditional TPD, a contrasting alternative, the constructive approach, emerged in the 1990s, based on the belief that the human mind is continually searching for meaning and identifying patterns and associations (Leu, 2004; MacNeil, 2004; Schwille et al., 2007; Villegas-Reimers, 2003). This approach holds that learners (including teachers) construct knowledge of their own by deconstructing, interpreting and reconstructing when involved in activities and in social discourse that occurs in a specific situation. That is to say, knowledge is situated in a specific context and within a particular social and cultural environment (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Caine & Caine, 1994; Sylwester, 1995). Thus, “knowledge is situated, being in part a product of the activity, context and culture in which it is developed and used” (Bruner, 1996; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, 1998). The constructivist theory of learning is supported by psychological research which prompts rethinking of what is trained, how it is trained and how learning is measured (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989, p. 32).

As a result of this analysis of learning, an alternative approach to teacher CPD has therefore been offered (Bransford et al., 2000). Bransford, Brown and Cocking (2000) argue that CPD programmes should be learner centred, knowledge centred, assessment centred and community centred, so as to maximise teacher education and enhancement. They hold that “the principles of learning and their implications for designing the learning environment apply equally to child and adult learning” (ibid, p. 27). (Collinson & Ono, 2001; Hiebert, Gallimore, & Stigler, 2002) similarly advocates a new perspective on CPD that is characterised as follows:
• Based on constructivism, so that teachers are treated as active learners Villegas-Reimers (2003);

• Perceived as a long term process, recognising that teachers learn over time;

• Perceived as a process within a specific setting, unlike traditional TPD opportunities that did not link ‘staff training’ to real classroom experiences;

• Closely related to school (or in our case tertiary level) reform;

• Conceived as a collaborative process;

• Involving teachers as reflective practitioners.

The constructive approach thus operates more from the bottom up and is represented by the action research, transformative, community of practice and coaching/mentoring models which were reviewed in Section 3.5.

3.5.3 Comparison of the two approaches

(McLaughlin & Zarrow, 2001) summarises the differences between the instructive and constructive approaches to TPD, as set out in Table 3.1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructive Approaches</th>
<th>Constructive Approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 3.1: Instructive vs constructive CPD
• The goal is teachers who are competent in following rigid and prescribed classroom routines.
• Teachers are “trained” to follow patterns.
• Passive learning model.
• Cascade model – large centralised workshops or programmes.
• “Expert” driven.
• Little inclusion of “teacher knowledge” and realities of classrooms.
• Positivist base.

• The goal is teachers who are reflective practitioners who can make informed professional choices.
• Teachers are prepared to be empowered professionals.
• Active and participatory learning model.
• School-based model in which all teachers participate.
• Teacher facilitated (with support materials).
• Central importance of “teacher knowledge” and realities of classrooms.
• Constructivist base.

3.6 CPD activities

The above sections have offered some examples of CPD activities. Since the present study focuses on such activities and especially on teachers’ views of them, I shall summarise here the range of types found. Like Hayes (2014), I take a broad view, regarding as CPD both official training courses for hundreds of teachers and small-scale individual teacher initiatives alike. Teachers may engage in many different forms of PD during their career, including institutional, top down, or structured activities like courses and workshops and teacher-initiated, informal and bottom up developmental ways of learning like reflection and action research Leu (2004, p. 6). For convenience, they are classified here into subsections on a variety of dimensions.

3.6.1 Individual and institutional CPD

CPD should meet the objectives of the institution, as well as teachers’ needs, and since the performance of a department tends to be directly linked to
individual teachers' performance, employers will try to attain a good combination of both (Hayes, 2014; Richards & Farrell, 2005).

3.6.1.1 The individual perspective

Professionalism should take into account and incorporate both oneself and one's institution, since “Being a professional means taking responsibility for identifying and attempting to meet the professional development needs of oneself and one’s institution” (Richards & Farrell, 2005). However, when evaluating the goals of individual teachers, it can be argued that these are focused upon improving their professional knowledge, including the latest developments in practice as well as in theory. Teachers are motivated to improve their skills at teaching because this will give them confidence in the classroom and help them to get the best results they can from their students. They may also seek personal empowerment through an improved understanding of schools’ values and beliefs.

An examination of teachers’ personal development from the individual perspective should address a number of areas (Craft, 2002, p. 11) as follows.

Knowledge of subject-matter: There is an increasing focus upon TESOL from the perspective of the teacher’s knowledge of how to acquire a second language. This includes phonology, developing a curriculum, the grammatical structure of English and effective methods of testing.

Pedagogical expertise: This refers to learning new skills, such as how to teach students of different backgrounds and abilities effectively, then mastering these new teaching skills.
**Self-awareness:** It is important for teachers to recognise and understand their own strengths, weaknesses, personal values and individual capabilities.

**Awareness of students:** They should also acquire a deeper knowledge and understanding of the personal challenges facing students, including the application of different approaches depending upon the students’ difficulties, problems and needs.

**Knowledge of curriculum and materials:** This means improving one’s understanding and implementation of the curriculum, including variations and alternatives.

**Career advancement:** This area covers the attainment of the experience, knowledge and skills that can lead to promotion and personal advancement.

Although formal learning can take place, much knowledge in higher education is encultured (e.g., Richards & Farrell, 2005) and thus is attained via social interaction between colleagues. The attainment of this knowledge occurs in many informal modes, involving experience (Blackler, 1995). (Eraut, 1994) warns that lecturers can be provoked into dissatisfaction if the major source of professional development, namely informal learning, is ignored.

### 3.6.1.2 The institutional perspective

Since teacher training tends to provide only the basic preparation required to start a teaching career, courses tend to be too general and theoretical to be really useful in practice Becher (1999). Teachers often find that they learn on the job most of what they actually need. However, these individual activities, while essential, can be unsatisfactory to meet the scope of needs that a
framework of CPD can meet; for example, individual learning may not take adequate account of institutional or student needs. Thus, a framework CPD grounded mostly on informal learning risks covering only one form of need, or the needs of one particular group. Teachers should be guided to learn and improve themselves within their communities of practice (Head & Taylor, 1997).

Furthermore, teachers’ qualifications, skills and knowledge may become outdated or irrelevant as time passes; changing requirements and the imposition of more challenging tasks can leave teachers without adequate training in skills such as supervisory and mentoring work, preparing entrance exams and taking on new areas of responsibility. The most practical way for schools to respond to this dilemma is to retrain teachers with the skills and knowledge needed. Yet, whilst this training may be labelled *staff development* or *in-service training*, it will in reality be directed towards improving the performance of the school (Bamber, 2009). This means that any personal development which the teachers acquire will tend to be coincidental and not prioritised in the agenda.

### 3.6.2 Collaborative and other-directed learning

This classification concerns not so much whose CPD needs are met, as how those needs are met.

#### 3.6.2.1 Collaborative learning

It has generally been thought that teaching is an individualistic career, so teachers have often been expected to take a high degree of responsibility for their own personal development. However, it has been found, for example by
(Guskey, 2000) that the most successful organisations are those that actively promote, implement and value teamwork. Collaboration among teachers can benefit both individuals and institutions alike, especially in relation to mentoring and the sharing of skills and solutions. Therefore, for the successful implementation of collaborative learning, the institution should be regarded as a learning community. This means that a range of responsibilities and duties should be shared between teachers in order to encourage a culture of positive co-operation and the exchange of experience, support and critical feedback (Selwyn, 2011).

Collaborative learning also means that teachers participate in group activities that are based upon problem solving and shared objectives. This working and learning together will expose teachers to a range of different roles, such as being the team trainer or team leader, and it is these experiences attained through co-operation that can assist in teacher development. Teaching, for some educationalists, is a lonely practice occurring in an isolated classroom (Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015). When teachers work in a lonely manner, the feedback is missed (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Thus, ongoing collaboration amongst teachers is an essential element when executing policies and approaches introduced via professional development. This collaboration should take place among a group of peers (Kazempour & Amirshokoohi, 2014b).

3.6.2.2 Self-directed learning

In recent years, there has been a significant move from ‘outsider’ to ‘insider’ approaches. Under the outsider approach, experts provide a range of theories
and knowledge which teachers are expected to implement, each according to his or her particular situation. By contrast, the insider approach is where teachers are encouraged to evaluate their local teaching environment, then develop their personal skills and knowledge accordingly. Such self-directed learning requires teachers to assume a strong measure of personal responsibility for their own development and learning.

The move towards self-directed learning can be viewed as part of a wider transition from authoritarian organisational structures towards forms of teacher development that are essentially participatory and far more democratic in structure. As part of this new approach there is a greater acceptance of action-based and experiential learning. Teachers are given more responsibility for their own professional development, rather than relying on supervisors and managers to impose this from above.

The implementation of self-directed learning can be seen as involving the following elements:

*Inquiry* involves asking questions about one’s practices, then finding the information required to answer them.

*Self-appraisal* is using evidence from various sources including oneself in order to critically reflect upon one’s teaching and development, then to identify personal strengths and weaknesses.

*Personal experience* provides an important stimulus and foundation for teachers’ learning.

*Personal construction* is where the learner constructs meaning.
In contextualised learning, a certain context or social setting can be created in order to develop the learning process.

Planning and managing entails setting goals for both the short term and the long term, then establishing the strategies to meet these goals.

Table 3.2 lists a variety of methods and activities available for teachers to consider and implement with respect to self-directed learning. As discussed above, these can be individual, working alongside a colleague, or as part of a group.
Table 3.2: Activities for teacher development, classified by who usually provides or creates the activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual</th>
<th>One-to-one local collaborator</th>
<th>Group of local collaborators (community of practice)</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>External agency/resource</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-monitoring / observing</td>
<td>Receiving peer coaching / mentoring</td>
<td>Doing action research involving a team</td>
<td>Attending departmental course or workshop</td>
<td>Attending conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing reflective journal or keeping a portfolio</td>
<td>Receiving peer observation</td>
<td>Engaging with informal peer support group</td>
<td>Engaging with official teacher support group</td>
<td>Attending outside training course / workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflecting on critical incidents</td>
<td>Exchanging ideas in the staffroom</td>
<td>Attending informal peer workshop / discussion</td>
<td>Receiving observation by superior</td>
<td>Giving paper at conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing action research</td>
<td>Engaging in team teaching with a peer</td>
<td>Doing supervised teaching practice</td>
<td></td>
<td>Taking relevant MA or PhD course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eliciting and exploiting feedback from students and parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reading pedagogical literature online</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Engaging in online educational discussions / blogging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Writing article for journal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Selwyn, 2011) notes that self-directed learning, where the teacher takes the main responsibility for personal learning, is a concept central to teacher development, a view generally supported by Mann (2005). However, she goes on to argue that teachers must consider the employment context, especially as their place of employment may already have its own programme in place for teacher development. Therefore, it could be reasoned that there are two
significant and interacting aspects of CPD: the formal / informal and self-directed / other-directed dichotomies.

Self-directed CPD is thus part of a general process, yet it is essentially based upon the idea of teachers taking responsibility for the identification and implementation of needs that are both personal and institutional. Indeed, although many institutions will have their own means of providing CPD, these are unlikely to fully account for the personal considerations of CPD, which include variations in the teachers’ culture, their geographical location, the level of their development, the stage of their career and the institutional context. Because teachers have such variations in their personal needs and development processes, self-directed CPD enables them to set their own goals and control the management of their own development (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991).

3.6.2.3 Other-directed CPD

(Richards & Farrell, 2005) state that other-directed CPD can be thought of as comprising group-based activities, where teachers are enabled to work and learn in an environment of shared goals and participation. Since such learning is based upon the requirements of the institution and the context, there must be careful planning and monitoring.

In the university in Saudi Arabia where the present study is set, an attempt was made to develop a sense of co-operation through the organisation of seminars and workshops. However, in order to maximise attendance, these were made compulsory, which made them very unpopular with teachers. This unpopularity was compounded by the fact that these sessions were usually
timetabled during the lunch break. This has had the effect of turning teachers towards external events, because these are mostly timetabled at weekends, meaning that teachers can learn in a leisurely style with colleagues, away from a formal setting. Some of the group-based activities included coaching by peers, as well as peer observations, team-building skills and mentoring. There were also discussions, which could be informal or highly focused, and participation in learning communities that could be formal or informal.

Richards and Farrell (2005) argue that as long as collaborative activities are not focused on the evaluation of performance, they offer outstanding opportunities for interaction where teachers can exchange ideas, reflect on their methods of teaching, discuss their worries and concerns, and receive feedback Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, and Fan (2001). Interestingly, whilst such activities can establish relationships of trust and support that benefit teacher development, it seems that the introduction of performance evaluation often has a negative effect on teacher development.

On the other hand, where faculty members are employed (such as on the PYP in the university that is the setting of the present study), particular CPD activities are expected to relate to certain issues of teaching and learning. In such instances, CPD can become directed by the institution, with the expectation that it will be linked to performance evaluation. Even mentoring, team building, peer coaching and peer observation can be directed by an institution to meet its own particular concerns. For example, in the PYP unit of the participating university, as was explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, institutional expectations include workplace activities such as attending events
organised by professional organisations, continuing membership of such organisations and even writing for ELT journals and other publications. In fact, these types of activities are included in performance evaluations in order to suggest that the teachers are actively engaged in personal development. By contrast, activities such as informal conversations and blogging are not considered by institutions, so this context is a topic of discussion between teachers.

Therefore, it has been argued that collaborative activities should be regarded as a follow-up to training, where teachers will be continually involved in establishing teacher communities which allow engagement and the study of their profession (Bailey et al., 2001). This will benefit the institution, because the general knowledge and teamwork skills of its teachers will be improved, whilst in-service training and its associated costs can be reduced (Bailey et al., 2001).

3.6.3 Towards an inclusive CPD perspective

Having discussed different types of CPD models and activities, it can be concluded that an inclusive, culturally sensitive and appropriate CPD framework would encourage higher education staff to take a measured, informed approach to reflective, informal learning. Therefore, (Richards & Farrell, 2005) recommends a broad-based, flexible and integrated approach, to organise and provide contextually structured CPD opportunities that recognise the different learning styles and needs of both individuals and institutions. She argues that within such a framework, members of staff can move back and forth in a cycle of related reflection applied to job activities.
3.7 Characteristics of effective CPD

This section presents the findings of a thorough review of the literature, focusing on the characteristic features of effective CPD for teachers. Many contributors suggest that traditional approaches such as the training model or the instructive approach, involving attending conferences or short workshops, for example, might raise teachers’ awareness or interest in expanding their knowledge and skills. However, such approaches to professional development seem inadequate to promote learning that would essentially change what or how teachers teach. Nevertheless, the PD offered to many teachers remains in the form of ‘one-shot’ workshops where teachers are required to learn passively about topics that are not necessarily relevant to their teaching, predetermined by the ‘experts’ delivering them Bamber (2009). Such fragmented, short term training sessions have been shown by research to be ineffective (Garet et al., 1999; Kennedy, 2005). By contrast, studies such as that of Kazempour and Amirshokoohi (2014a) show that short courses well integrated with the classroom needs of teachers (e.g. implementing a syllabus change) can be highly successful.

Professional development should be recurrent and take place over a span of time which permits for development, implementation and feedback (Stewart, 2014). Kazempour and Amirshokoohi (2014b) recognise long-term, research-based PD experiences as a critical feature of professional development. When CPD activities occur over a length of time, teachers will be given the opportunity to “investigate, test, and improve upon” the ideas offered (Stewart, 2014). Given that the success of efforts to improve student learning depends on efforts to improve the quality of teaching (Psacharopoulos & Sanyal, 2007),
then CPD, to be effective, has to be a thoughtful activity guided by clear goals and objectives. This means that the action research model and the constructive approach are appropriate, whereas asking teachers to attend occasional seminars, lectures or workshops is likely to fail, because these sessions lack continuity and lucidity, and are often not directed by clear and relevant objectives. Guskey (2000) argues that such activities barely contribute to developing teachers professionally:

> Viewing professional development as special events that occur on 3 or 4 days of the school year severely restricts educators’ opportunities to learn. But if they view professional development as an ongoing, job-embedded process, every day presents a variety of learning opportunities … The challenge is to take advantage of these opportunities, to make them available, to make them purposeful, and to use them appropriately. (p. 19)

Bull (1994, cited in Wichadee, 2011, p. 14) suggests, from the overall school improvement perspective, five collective principles for effective professional development:

1. It is school-based. One of the advantages of this approach is that it gets teachers involved in the design and implementation of their own professional development activities, which can be essential to the success of those activities.

2. It uses coaching and other follow-up procedures. It is found that single training sessions with no follow-up are ineffective.
3. It is collaborative. Self-development requires the cooperation of others. Setting the activities which isolate teachers from their peers should be avoided. In this sense, successful development works best as a collaborative endeavour.

4. It is embedded in the daily lives of teachers, providing for continuous growth. That is, continuous learning opportunities need to become part of teachers’ everyday working lives and part of every school’s institutional priorities.

5. It focuses on student learning and is evaluated at least in part on that basis. Therefore, professional development should be judged primarily by its effects on students. The best way to judge the effects of this development is to conduct some sort of evaluation beyond the standard five-point scale questionnaire used after so many in-service sessions.

An environment of encouraging CPD can be effective, and professional learning can be possible, only when institutions recognise that each individual teacher has his or her own particular professional life experiences and that every teacher will accordingly have different learning needs (Guskey, 2000). In order for CPD to be effective, it should be relevant to teachers, go beyond theory and clearly identify certain approaches and techniques so that the teachers can try them out, in a supportive environment, as occurred, for example, in the summer school course reported by Kazempour and Amirshokoohi (2014a; 2014b), albeit in the domain of science rather than language teaching.
Moreover, it must clearly recognise and determine intended outcomes, take into consideration the prior knowledge and expertise of teachers, adopt the most successful teaching and learning approaches, and incorporate appropriate evaluation from the beginning.

For CPD to be effective, it is essential that educators participate actively in enhanced activities so that both student and teacher learning are improved. (Keay, 2006) argue that for this to ensue, engagement in effective TPD is necessary but not sufficient. Teachers must alter their practice radically to ensure better results for learners Friedman and Phillips (2004). This means not only participating in CPD but also ensuring that teachers revise and alter their professional practice accordingly. A variety of research recognises the notion that all practice is acquired in a certain way and that learning by the teacher is both individual and collective (James, 2005).

One extensive and relatively rigorous study of PD effectiveness in relation to teachers’ learning focused on teachers of mathematics and science in the USA (James & Jule, 2005). It suggested two main dimensions for effective CPD: core features and structural features. The three core features were: 1) focus on content knowledge (for example, mathematics or English); 2) opportunities for active learning (for example, to observe and be observed, practice delivery, lead discussion) and 3) a level of coherence (for example, communication among teachers integrating experiences consistent with teachers’ goals and standards in the context of teaching). The three structural features were: 1) duration in terms of both time span and total contact hours over which the activity takes place; 2) the form of activities (for example,
workshops, mentoring, networking, resource-centre or college courses) and 3) collective *participation* of teachers from the same professional culture, whose shared experiences can provide collegial discussion. Such large-scale projects indicate how effective CPD can impact teachers’ knowledge and practices, because these studies involved teachers who had been exposed to a wide variety of professional development activities (Garet et al., 2001). However, what might limit these studies is that the breadth of the programmes limits the depth of questions that could be asked of teachers about changes in practices.

Moreover, this large-scale project was mainly intended for a North American audience and it would have been more valuable if it had been more international, covering a range of countries (Garet et al., 2001; Supovitz & Turner, 2000), especially in the Middle East region, where the current study is set.

### 3.8 Teacher attitudes and motivation with respect to CPD engagement

As has been established in the above sections, much has been written by experts about the different types and purposes of CPD, and the various claims made for its effectiveness have been subject to more or less rigorous criticism. Amid this, a relatively neglected topic is that of what the teachers themselves actually prefer. This relative neglect has led me to choose this as the focus of the present study, along with the allied topics of what difficulties these teachers experience with CPD and what changes they would like to any CPD currently provided. While evidence from teachers’ reports does not
constitute a full account of how effective CPD is, it is certainly one important strand, as shown by studies such as that of (Kazempour & Amirshokoohi, 2014a; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007).

Research has shown that teachers tend to prefer CPD components such as INSET activities that institutions provide on site or via CPD providers which operate both externally and internally (Garet et al., 2001). Such activities usually include workshops, short courses, seminars, conferences and subscriptions to professional bodies and journals (Keay, 2006). On the other hand, a number of studies have found a growing interest among teachers in engagement in both collaborative and less formal learning activities. These include experience-based learning and reflecting on the engagement of such activities (Karagiorgi & Symeou, 2008; Sandholtz, 2002), the discussion and writing of self-reports by teachers as a form of reflective learning (Beaty, 1998; Flores, 2005), engagement in study groups as a form of collaborative learning (Burchell, Dyson, & Rees, 2002) and collaborative research undertaken by teachers (Arbaugh, 2003).

(Campbell & Jacques, 2004) also report that electronic networking is of increasing interest to teachers, suggesting that it helps them to exchange thoughts, ideas and experiences Symeou (2006). Such activities have been claimed to assist teachers in their personal learning and development because of the focus upon collective reflections (Flores, 2005; Keay, 2006). It can be argued that collaborative activities will succeed only if teachers work in an environment that has a supportive professional culture (Burchell et al., 2002). It has also been claimed that teachers will tend to participate in
workplace CPD because they are usually interested in personal development, especially when their careers have reached the mid-way stage (Goddard & Chatterton, 1999). Many also have a personal interest in the accreditation associated with INSET courses and the ensuing personal benefits (Keay, 2006). Additional personal rewards derived from CPD include financial benefits, improved status and intellectual challenge and development (Robson, 2006). However, the practical implementation of any CPD elements will depend upon factors such as the availability of time and money (Connelly & McMahon, 2007).

The above studies are mostly distant from the present one in that they are not concerned specifically with TESOL teachers and are not set in contexts close to that of the present study; indeed, I have been able to identify relatively few relevant studies set in Saudi Arabia or the Gulf region.

In a study set in Hong Kong, (Karagiorgi & Symeou, 2008) found that 71% of English teachers considered it useful to write reflective lesson reports. However, the authors also report eliciting some negative comments, such as that journals are time consuming, that the activity is artificial unless the teacher is a regular writer, that comments are unfocused, that the exercise is initially interesting but ultimately tedious and that the resulting texts are difficult to analyse and to interpret.

In Oman, which shares a land border with Saudi Arabia, a study was conducted by (Richards & Ho, 1998) to investigate the PD system of the Omani Ministry of Education. The participating teachers expressed generally positive attitudes towards the INSET PD, although there were some who
made more critical comments, such as this: “When we have looked at professional development as it was delivered previously, there was high emphasis on reading from papers, delivering papers, a lecture format; we have never ever agreed with that format of professional development, preferring a model where we have people working in groups” (ibid, p. 50).

In a more recent study also set in Oman, Rich, Monteith, Al-Sinani, Al-Jardani, and Al-Amri (2014) delivered a nine-month CPD project consisting of three online modules to 200 primary and secondary teachers throughout the country, many of them in distant geographical locations. A collaboration between the Ministry of Education and the British Council, the course was the first of its kind in Oman to prepare teachers for the Cambridge Teaching Knowledge Test, which they took at the end of the nine months. Although the course delivered was deemed suited to the needs of the intended group of teachers and offered opportunities to improve their classroom practice, there were numerous logistical challenges, mostly concerning the need for multi-site/multi-country support mechanisms for the teachers. Feedback from participating teachers was positive, however, and they requested more CPD courses of this type. The researchers used interviews and focus groups, whose results reveal that the teachers’ major challenge bore no relation to the course itself but lay in the difficulty more than half of them had in accessing the internet at home. Another issue was balancing teachers’ everyday workload with the additional demands of the course. In this pilot project, the researchers were unable to determine the extent to which the CPD courses affected classroom practice, nor did they scrutinize the development of online
collaborative communities of practice “which are important for sustainability” (Hayes, 2014, p. 12), but they are intending to do so in future iterations.

Closest to the research area and context of the present study, in a survey of expatriate EFL teachers working on foundation English programmes at universities in the UAE, Al-Hinai (2007) used face-to-face individual and focus group interviews to determine participant’s views of CPD. With respect to the kinds of activities involved, the teachers are reported as saying that they valued participation in activities that provided opportunities for dialogue and collaboration. Thus, they did not see a purely top down form of CPD as appropriate. Indeed, participants expressed their feelings of not having a voice and being insufficiently empowered in their current CPD context. The study recommends that teachers and CPD suppliers should work in tandem and endeavour to create teacher learning communities within the context of practice. However, this may be problematic, given that teachers have little or no empowerment in most Gulf states. This last point can be seen as equally relevant to the context of the present research, since, as was explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, the Saudi education system gives very little empowerment to teachers, if indeed it gives any at all.

Teachers regularly make various decisions that are based on their knowledge, which supports the idea that they are autonomous learners and thus professional. The extent of teachers’ autonomy has varied over time and hence is still an area for discussion amongst researchers (Raza, 2010). According to (McCulloch, Helsby, & Knight, 2000), teacher autonomy is “the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s
own teaching” (p.3). Another way of putting this is that autonomy represents the freedom of the profession to determine what is best for the teachers. This makes it particularly interesting for the present study to determine how the teachers participating in it define CPD and its purposes, and how they view the CPD available in their context.

3.9 Conclusion
This chapter has presented a comprehensive review of key topics in the field of research on CPD. It has considered the definition of CPD as applied to teachers and established that while some features, such as the contention that it is a process of lifelong teacher learning, are generally agreed, there are at the same time various conflicting views on its purposes or goals, especially whether its function is to serve the needs of the teacher or to satisfy those of the higher authorities. The chapter has looked in detail at the different kinds of professional knowledge which CPD may promote among teachers. Eight general models of CPD were reviewed and were placed on an approximate scale from top down or authority centred, concerned with transmission of information to teachers, to bottom up or teacher centred, concerned with the transformation of teachers; this categorisation was found to be one which matched closely a distinction in learning theory between instructive and constructive learning. The chapter has also reviewed key activities commonly occurring in CPD around the world, ranging from those done individually by a teacher, such as reflection, through collaborative ones, such as peer observation or teacher support groups, and those provided by the teacher’s institution, such as induction courses, to those available in the outside world, such as training courses at other institutions. Finally, a review was presented
of research on the effectiveness of different types of CPD and on teachers’ attitudes to them.

Overall, this broad review of the relevant literature allows the identification of a number of areas where relatively little is known not only concerning the situation in the context of the present study but also more generally about the world of CPD research. Two of these gaps in knowledge are of particular interest to the present study, the first of them being a general ignorance of what teachers themselves think that CPD is in principle and of what they consider its importance to be. While much has been written by experts about these issues, what is missing is the perceptions of the teachers themselves. In order to be in a position to understand better how learners in language classes proceed with their task of learning the language in question, it has long been recognised (Aoki, 2002) that it is useful and indeed indispensable to explore what can be known of what the learners themselves perceive the nature of language learning to be. In light of the fact that this recognition has illuminated research into language learning for a number of decades, it may be considered surprising and disappointing that as discussed in Section 3.3.2, a parallel approach has not been very prominent in work on the process of teacher learning or CPD.

The second key area where knowledge appears to be lacking and research appears to be limited is that of teachers’ attitudes to the CPD that they actually encounter or are engaged in, including what challenges they report facing and what improvements they would like to see being made. Once again, it is quite common to ask language learners about these matters with
respect to the teaching they receive, especially as part of a programme evaluation (e.g. by Horwitz, 1999). In this case as in that of teachers’ understanding of the nature of CPD, the literature review (Section 3.9) has shown that this has not been as extensively studied as it might be at the level of teachers’ attitudes to the CPD that is available to them. While I do not claim that such information is sufficient for a proper evaluation of the CPD at any institution such as KSU-PY, I do feel that it constitutes an important type of evidence that should form part of the basis for such an evaluation.

Before turning to the empirical data gathered in this study, presented in Chapter 5, the next chapter explains the methodological choices that were made.
CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction
This chapter discusses the research methodology followed in the present study. It reviews the research design that was chosen in consideration of the research questions, together with the selected paradigm and the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions underlying the research. Next, it provides a detailed account of the participants, of the methods of data collection and of the data analysis procedures. Issues of the trustworthiness of this study are also discussed and ethical considerations guiding the research are highlighted.

4.2 Overall nature of the research
As stated in the introductory chapter, the current study aims to explore the CPD experiences of EFL teachers working in the preparatory year English language programme at King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. It covers what they think CPD is, the CPD options available to them, the challenges affecting their CPD programme and its constituent activities, the benefits to them of CPD and the accompanying issues, as perceived by the participants themselves. The methods chosen, to be presented in this chapter, were specifically chosen for their suitability to provide the study with adequate valid data in order to answer the following research questions:
1. What do EFL teachers working in the preparatory year English programme at a Saudi Arabian university understand by the term ‘continuing professional development’?

2. What continuing professional development activities are currently in place, which do the teachers actually engage in and what are their views of them?

3. In the view of these teachers, what is the nature of the challenges that they and other teachers face in their attempts to engage in continuing professional development?

4. What suggestions do teachers have on how they can best be helped to continue to develop?

Whilst these research questions were identified in Chapter 1, and their importance demonstrated in Chapters 2 and 3, they are restated here at the beginning of the design and methodology chapter to inform the discussion of the appropriateness of the paradigms and methods chosen.

Overall, the current research is an exploratory study employing qualitative data gathering (e.g. Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005) within the interpretive paradigm. The study is designed to explore the phenomenon of EFL teachers’ views regarding CPD, and what CPD they report engaging in. An examination of the above research questions makes it evident that the phenomena to be explored lend themselves to the selected methodology. Experts such as (Creswell, 2009) widely consider an exploratory and qualitative approach to be the most suitable one for exploring teacher’s views. More generally, it can be said that exploratory research is the most appropriate approach for a study
aiming to “investigate a phenomenon or general condition, through qualitative interviews” (Creswell, 2014). The following sections provide fuller support for the choices of design and method made for this study.

4.3 Research paradigms: Theoretical and philosophical assumptions

Research, including educational research, is informed by certain philosophies and assumptions, often referred to as paradigms. These embody the assumptions which researchers must make about the nature of reality (ontology) and of human knowledge (epistemology) (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 152). In order to choose an appropriate methodology for any piece of research, it is essential for the researcher to begin by making himself or herself familiar with the nature and significance of such assumptions.

As is argued in the literature (Crotty, 1998), the paradigmatic standpoint that researchers adopt has fundamental implications for their work. Therefore, it seems logical, at this stage, to discuss what is meant by a paradigm and to explain some key paradigmatic stances and their implications for the current study of EFL teachers’ views about CPD and related issues.

Kuhn (see Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Mertens, 2009) states that the term paradigm denotes “an integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological approach and tools”. Alternatively, a paradigm can be defined simply as “an overall theoretical research perspective” (1962, cited in Flick, 2009, p. 69). This short definition gives a general view of what a paradigm is, but it does not deal with its complex nature. Another alternative definition states that a paradigm is “a
set of assumptions about the social world, and about what constitutes proper techniques and topics for enquiry” (Ernest, 1994, p. 19). This would seem to be more convincing for the purposes of the current study, since such assumptions are the logical starting points that will direct and enlighten any social science researcher as he or she conducts a study and cautiously creates an appropriate understanding of reality.

In the next sections, I shall present a brief account of the interpretive paradigm and its main philosophical assumptions, in contrast with other paradigms, demonstrating its relevance to the current study.

4.4 The research paradigm for the current study

This section seeks to shed some light on the interpretive paradigm, with a discussion of its nature in relation to the three key areas of any paradigm relevant to research: the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions that the researcher must make and acknowledge. The purpose is to demonstrate why interpretivism is the paradigm adopted for the current study, in contrast with the positivist or other paradigms.

4.4.1 The interpretivist paradigm

The interpretive research paradigm, which is also known as constructionism, is anti-positivist, humanistic and akin to naturalism. It arose as a response to the positivist paradigm and “looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world” (Punch, 1998, p. 28). Those who adopt this paradigm thereby in effect reject the view held by positivist researchers, since positivism essentially deals with humans as if they were natural objects just like any other. From an interpretive standpoint, “human
beings cannot be the objects of science” (Crotty, 1998, p. 67). Furthermore, interpretivism allows that there are constructed multiple realities; thus it rejects the positivist view that there is only one objective reality. Its adherents adopt the belief that reality is dependent on the meanings of the people who constitute the particular society under investigation and that such a socially constructed reality is ungoverned by any natural laws, causal or otherwise (Anderson & Biddle, 1991).

Interpretive researchers, unlike positivist ones, argue that accepting simple cause and effect relationships is inappropriate in the social sciences. For this reason, they aim instead to explore individuals’ perceptions and views of events, share their understandings and by these means develop insights into the phenomenon being observed as it exists within its context (Pring, 2000, p. 56).

There are several criticisms that have been voiced against the interpretive paradigm. (Bryman, 2012; Carr & Kemmis, 1983; Grix, 2004) and Bryman (2012) state that because of its rejection of the notion of causal relationships as applied to the social sciences, it makes it difficult for interpretive researchers to explore important social problems and experiences that could lead to social change or social conflict Denzin and Lincoln (2000). It can also be difficult, for even the most experienced researchers, to avoid being subjective and impressionistic, because they cannot put aside their humanity throughout the research process.

Notwithstanding these criticisms, I believe that the paradigm also has crucial strengths which it is essential to recognise. A major strength of the interpretive
approach is the richness and depth that it encourages in the explorations which are conducted and the descriptions which are written, these being fundamental to the aims of the current study. In setting out to explore the views of teachers about CPD, I am necessarily seeking depth and richness in the data. I have chosen the interpretive research paradigm as being the one which, more than any other paradigm, suits my purpose in studying perceptions of CPD in Saudi Arabia. In short, I have concluded that the interpretivist view, with its interpretation of the world as a meaningful complex of views, purposes and motives, is closer to the requirements of my own research than any of the alternative paradigmatic stances.

The next subsections contrast interpretivism with these other paradigms by examining in more detail the three key areas on which any paradigm must hold a position (ontology, epistemology and methodology), starting with ontology.

4.4.2 Ontology

The term ‘ontology’ has been defined in one formulation as “the study of being. It is concerned with ‘what is’, with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such” (Carr & Kemmis, 1983). Another possible definition of ontology as “a theory of existence concerning the status of the world and what populates it” (Crotty, 2003, p. 10).

In educational research, the literature shows that there are primarily two positions with respect to ontology. First, there is realism, which suggests that reality is an object that exists outside the mind (Ernest, 1994, p. 20), and which is the view of the positivist paradigm. Second, there is interpretivism,
also referred to as constructionism. This rejects the positivist and realist assumption that reality is ‘out there’ and assumes to the contrary that reality is constructed by people.

Positivist educational researchers who follow the realist approach assume that a single reality does exist out there in the world (Crotty, 1998) and that it is driven by permanently valid natural laws (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Their view is that human beings can be studied just like any other object of scientific enquiry in a world which exists independently, regardless of one’s knowledge (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

In comparison, interpretive researchers contend that reality is constructed and interpreted by people and by social and cultural structures and that it produces shared constructions (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; Crotty, 2003; Grix, 2004). They do not subscribe to the assumption that reality is ‘out there’ in the same form for all observers. Interpretivists further view themselves as part of the research instruments used to investigate the phenomena under discussion, something which is of course very true of interviewing, a data gathering procedure which the present study relies on (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Radnor, 2002a).

Put another way, whilst researchers who take the positivist and realist approach endeavour to reveal the laws that govern human behaviour from a top down perspective, interpretivist researchers emphasise social reality from a bottom up perspective, according to how people perceive the world (Cohen et al., 2007; Crotty, 2003; Grix, 2004; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).
I would argue that the ontological assumption appropriate to this current study is the interpretive stance, “where ‘reality’ is totally created or constructed through the negotiation of meanings” (Radnor, 2002a). This study is one which attempts to determine the reality of a phenomenon by seeking information from the viewpoints of various informants (EFL teachers) and then negotiating the meaning with them. Therefore, reality for the purposes of the study does not exist separately from the mind, but rather is totally constructed by the participants in the research.

### 4.4.3 Epistemology

According to (Pring, 2000, p. 55), the term ‘epistemology’ can be defined as denoting “the part of philosophy that deals with knowledge”. The term is derived from the Greek words *episteme* (knowledge) and *logos* (reason) (Wehmeier, 2007). Another good definition of epistemology is that it is the chosen “way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know” (Grix, 2004, p. 63). Crotty (2003) further states that it concerns the nature of knowledge and that it seeks and questions the sources of this knowledge.

In educational research, there is a range of epistemological views. The objectivist view corresponds to realism in ontology, holding that one true body of knowledge exists and is there to be discovered by the researcher, which is the positivist stance. Therefore, from a positivist point of view, the researcher’s role is simply that of an observer of social reality, without any interaction with the object or objects being researched (Cohen et al, 2007). By contrast, constructionist epistemology opposes the objectivist view, holding that meaning does not exist independently of human consciousness, but “comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities in our
world” (Crotty, 1998, p. 8). Subjectivism contradicts both objectivism and constructionism by making the assertion that meaning does not involve the object at all, neither does it come out of interaction between the subject and the object; instead, it holds that meaning is achieved entirely by the imposition of the subject’s view of the object or of the world. Ernest (1994) suggests that two general types of epistemological stances can be found, namely the absolutist and fallibilist perspectives. The former, on the one hand, regards truth as an object that can be reached (positivism), while the latter, on the other hand, emphasises the uncertainty of knowledge (interpretivism).

My work adopts a constructionist stance rather than a subjectivist or objectivist epistemology. In the present study, I have attempted to construct meaning through the interpretation of the teachers’ views using semi-structured interviews. I have endeavoured to attain a meaningful reality through my engagement as researcher (the subject) with the participating teachers (the object). In other words, a better understanding of the relevant CPD reality is constructed through understanding and investigating participants’ perceptions of CPD, which in turn is done by exploring their experiences. Thus, I believe that reality and meaning exist in the participants’ minds and need to be constructed by me as researcher on the basis of their responses when they are interrogated about their experiences of and attitudes towards CPD.

4.4.4 Methodology

As stated by Crotty (1998, p. 7), methodology should be identified as “the research design that shapes our choice and use of particular methods and links them to the desired outcomes”. Methodology can be either quantitative
or qualitative. In quantitative research, the data are represented in the form of numbers, whereas in qualitative research they are not so represented, but are expressed otherwise, normally in the form of words. However, this distinction is not exclusively binary, in that for some time now, “there have been moves towards a détente, and an increased interest in the combination of the two approaches” (Crotty, 1998, p. 3).

The positivist paradigm is predominantly associated with quantitative methodology and positivist research takes one of two basic forms, being either experimental or non-experimental. As to the interpretive paradigm, this is more usually associated with qualitative research, although it is also quite possible for some non-experimental quantitative data to be gathered in interpretive research. Interpretive researchers would, however, typically gather data on a wide range of potentially relevant and interesting variables, in exploratory mode, rather than focusing on just a few variables specially selected in advance, as positivists normally do. Positivist researchers know what they are looking for in a way that interpretive researchers often do not. Furthermore, while quantitative research in the positivist paradigm tends to involve strict random sampling from populations, followed by generalisation of results to the populations sampled, research in the interpretive paradigm usually involves non-random sampling done on other bases, with no claim being made that the findings will necessarily be generalisable beyond the specific context studied (Bryman, 2012).

By contrast, the interpretive paradigm includes a wide range of more specific research methods with different names and characteristics, but broadly sharing the beliefs described above, such as phenomenology, ethnography,
grounded theory, case study, historical and documentary research and ethnomethodology. They all favour qualitative methodology and hence adopt a wide range of instruments, including observation (e.g. participant- and non-participant), open-ended questionnaires, document and text or conversation analysis, observation, diaries, think aloud reporting, focus groups and of course interviews (either semi-structured or unstructured) (Creswell, 2012).

With regard to data analysis, these instruments all primarily produce data in the form of what is said, or pictures or videos of actions that are observed. Interpretive researchers do not rely on statistical analysis in the technical way that practitioners of the positivist paradigm do, although it is common to do some counting, e.g. of how many times something was observed, or of how many people made a similar point about something in interview responses. Apart from these exceptions, qualitative researchers in the interpretive paradigm mainly analyse the data that they have collected in terms of description, categorisation and interpretation, in order to access the insights which were described above as the hallmark of the interpretive approach (Creswell, 2009; Dornyei, 2007; Cohen et al, 2007). This qualitative analysis is often a far longer, more intensive and more delicate activity than is involved in the statistical analysis of quantitative data.

In order to ensure the quality of quantitative research, checks on reliability and validity are commonly made. There are two kinds of validity which the designer of a quantitative study will seek to ensure, namely internal and external validity. The former is concerned with whether the study will give a truthful description of the subject or the examined phenomenon through the acquired data, whereas the latter is concerned with whether it is possible to
generalise the results beyond the specific research context (Bryman, 2008; Cohen et al, 2007).

Validity and reliability are really two ways of thinking about the quality of research, and quality is something that any qualitative researcher should also be concerned about whilst designing a study and analysing the resultant data (Punch, 1998, p. 2). Lincoln & Guba (1985, p. 290) ask the following question: “How can an inquirer persuade his or her audiences that the research findings of an inquiry are worth paying attention to?” To respond to this question, Healy and Perry (2000) affirm that the quality of a study in each paradigm should be judged in its own paradigm’s terms. For example, while the concepts of reliability and validity refer to essential components of quality in quantitative research, those responsible for qualitative research often use any of a wide range of terms such as trustworthiness, credibility, neutrality, conformability, consistency, dependability, applicability or transferability to label essential criteria for quality (Patton, 2002).

One way of ensuring quality is by employing triangulation, meaning the use of more than one method of data collection, and this is becoming more frequent in interpretive research. The purpose of adopting triangulation is to improve the quality of an enquiry and to reduce the chances that the findings will be biased or will be seen to be biased. For example, in qualitative research, a researcher can combine interviews with observation and questionnaires (Grix, 2004; Creswell, 2009; Bryman, 2008). Indeed, Crotty (1998) asserts that research can be both qualitative and quantitative “without this being in any way problematic” (p. 15).
To ensure quality in qualitative research within the interpretive paradigm, it is essential to make an assessment of ‘trustworthiness’. Seale (1999, p. 266) affirms that the “trustworthiness of a research report lies at the heart of issues conventionally discussed as validity and reliability”. When evaluating a qualitative study, Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 250) opine that the “usual canons of ‘good science’… require redefinition in order to fit the realities of qualitative research”. Stenbacka (2001) further claims that since reliability concerns measurements, then it has no significance in qualitative research. She maintains that the issue of reliability is an inappropriate consideration in the evaluation of quality of qualitative research. As a result, if it is used, then the “consequence is rather that the study is no good” (ibid, p. 552).

In the current study, then, I was informed by the interpretive paradigm, using qualitative methods, in order to understand CPD by exploring the participants’ experiences and opinions. I have used semi-structured interviews as the instrument to collect my data, then subjected these data only to qualitative analysis, such as transcribing and coding. In general, since the broader interpretivist philosophical view of this research is based on meaning negotiation and construction, I argue that this research is an exploratory and descriptive case study in which I employ qualitative methods to understand, describe and analyse teachers’ perceptions.

4.4.5 Limitations of the methodology adopted

Despite my intention to conduct a good interpretative study incorporating as many as possible of the desirable features outlined above, I was not able in
practice to conduct the data gathering in as rich a way as I would ideally have liked. One obvious limitation of the research was my use of only one method, namely semi-structured interviews, to collect data from the participants. Various qualitative researchers (e.g. Creswell and Clark, 2010; Borg, 2006; 2012; Barnard & Burns, 2012) favour the use of more than one method of data collection, so as to gain the benefits of triangulation set out above. Therefore, I considered the possibility of conducting a questionnaire survey, but decided that it would not produce data of the kind and depth that I needed. Observation of examples of CPD sessions provided by the institution might have added a valuable dimension, but in the end it was the views of the teachers that I was interested in. Hence, in order to meet the aims of the present exploratory study, interviews were seen an appropriate choice of research method and afforded the study participants a chance to explain their views and experiences in as much detail as they wished (Troudi & Alwan, 2010). Indeed, some variation was introduced into the interviews, in that while the interviews proper were conducted in the traditional one-to-one manner, there was also some use of informal interviewing, more in the style of the focus group, where several teachers discussed issues together. Although in a sense only one instrument was used, I believe that I chose the right one in interviews, as they can often yield richer information about participants than other qualitative instruments (Denzin & Lincoln, 2017).

A second limitation was that I interviewed only teachers, not other stakeholders in their CPD, such as trainers, supervisors, inspectors or relevant administrative officials at various levels in the university or the Ministry. I recognise that this would have been desirable in order to obtain
evidence of multiple viewpoints on the issues that emerged, thus providing the rich data that is supposed to be characteristic of qualitative interpretative research. As it is, I have direct evidence for just one side of the story. However, within the scope of a PhD it was not felt to be possible to spread the information-gathering net so wide. Furthermore, I believed that it was the teachers’ voices that had hitherto not yet been properly heard, so what was of paramount importance was to devote my research attention primarily to them.

4.5 Gaining access to the institution to begin the research

To obtain permission to access participants in the institution in order to conduct semi-structured interviews, I first communicated with two of my colleagues, both working on the PYP at King Saud University, who helped by posting requests for voluntary participation in my study. Permission was then sought to gain access by submitting consent forms to the administration of the university. Once access to the institution had been granted to commence my fieldwork, I then contacted the group of potential participants (see Section 4.6). I next emailed all interested participants advising them of my research topic, the significance of their participation in this research, the valuable contribution that they could make by giving up a little of their time and my contact details for further enquiries.

It is worth noting, as explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.2 that KSU has both male and female staff and students. However, the genders are accommodated on two physically separate campuses, in conformity with the legal requirement in Saudi Arabia that the mixing of the genders is not permitted within the educational system. In other words, the females and
males, both staff and students, are segregated from one another. As a result, it is not permissible for male researchers to conduct interviews with women (Ramazani, 1985; Falah & Nagel, 2005).

Despite the rigorous application of these strict rules, I attempted to gain access to females by requesting an American participant’s wife who was employed on the female campus to act on my behalf and conduct interviews with some female teachers, as suggested by Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007, p. 353). She showed an initial interest in engaging with the study and acting as a second interviewer. However, three days later I was notified that the female campus coordinator had refused permission for the interviews to be conducted. These difficult conditions that I encountered obliged me to recruit only male teachers to participate in the study.

4.6 Study participants

The participants were chosen in a purposeful way, as is typical of qualitative research in the interpretive paradigm. Such purposeful sampling in the present study was designed to make sure of accessing the full range of types of teacher found in the research context. Having said that, accessibility also played a part (Silverman, 2001), in that some teachers whom I wanted to include in the study declined to participate.

The participants were all male teachers of the English language preparatory year programme at King Saud University. As explained in Chapter 2, these teachers help preparatory year students at KSU to develop mandatory English language communication skills as a prerequisite to joining their English medium university studies. The present study focuses on twenty-three male
native and non-native speakers of English working as English language teachers, with teaching experience ranging from one to more than 26 years. Their experience in university PYP teaching varied between one semester and six years. They thus represent a range of teaching and cultural backgrounds as well as different prior experience and working contexts. These expatriate teachers came from countries such as the United States of America, The United Kingdom, Australia, Pakistan, Egypt, South Africa, Canada, Sudan and Syria. Each one of them held a university degree, CELTA, DELTA or a higher academic qualification in the field of ELT.

Table 4.1 provides a concise description of the profile of research participants.

**Table 4.1: Participants’ characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Country of origin</th>
<th>Time in KSA</th>
<th>Time at KSU</th>
<th>Qualifications relevant to English teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>8 years</td>
<td>18 months</td>
<td>Qualified teacher certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bob</td>
<td>America</td>
<td>10 years</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>Bachelor’s, Master’s and PhD in Art Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tony</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>CELTA, DELTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>10 years</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>BA in law, CELTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fayez</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>14 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>MA in teaching Arabic as a foreign language and PhD in applied linguistics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>8 months</td>
<td>BA in American studies, PhD in media studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hatim</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>BA in English language and linguistics, MA in linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gary</td>
<td>America</td>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>TEFL with CELTA equivalent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigel</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>17 months</td>
<td>Graduate diploma in law, CELTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>Nationality</td>
<td>Years</td>
<td>Months</td>
<td>Qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kevin</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>BA in tourism and economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ali</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Degree in chemistry, CELTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albert</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>MA in TEFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>America</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>PhD, master's in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harry</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>BA in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tom</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>BA in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Majed</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>BA in English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roger</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>MA in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faisal</td>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>BA, CELTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patrick</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Master's degree in chiropractic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deniz</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Bachelor’s and CELTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adam</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>BA, MA, PhD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdurrahman</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>BA, CELTA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.7 The interviews**

This section presents an explanation of the interview method, including the rationale for its use, followed by a full account of the materials, piloting, procedure and data analysis.

**4.7.1 Rationale for use of semi-structured interviews**

The main aim of the study was to explore in depth teachers’ views and experiences of CPD in their own words and to understand their personal accounts and views of the CPD phenomenon. Among all of the instruments
that might have been used in this interpretive qualitative research, the data
collection method that was actually relied upon was face-to-face, semi-
structured, in-depth interviews. It was decided to depend almost exclusively
on this method of gathering data for a number of reasons, including its widely
recognised advantages, especially the following.

One prominent advantage favouring the use of face-to-face interviews is that
a researcher can immediately check that he or she has understand the
meaning of what the interviewees say (Kvale, 2009) and ask follow up
questions if needed. The interviewee can also straight away resolve any
problem he has by talking to the researcher. Another advantage is that the
researcher can immediately tell if he or she is not getting useful responses to
a question and respond by asking questions in a different way or by using
additional prompts to remedy the situation. Furthermore, taking part in an
interview is normally less demanding for the participant than completing a
written questionnaire, in that most of the work falls on the interviewer. As
Radnor (1994, p. 13) states, the interview “is an active encounter in which
someone seeking information is supplied with it by another”. Semi-structured
interviews in particular allow the exploration of the participants’ experience
more freely. This method allows them to articulate their unique views in their
own words about the complex issue at hand (in this case, their experience of
CPD), more easily and freely than they would be able to do in fully structured
interviews, or indeed in questionnaires, where the only questions asked are
specific and predetermined (Kvale, 2009; Yin, 2011).
Fontana and Frey (2000, p. 645; cited in Creswell, 2012) describe semi-structured interviews as “one of the most powerful ways in which we try to understand our fellow human beings”. In semi-structured interviews, it is the researcher who decides what questions are to be asked and whether to ask the interviewee to elaborate on his or her responses (Esterberg, 2002; Kvale, 2009). However, the interviewee also has the freedom to digress in ways which may turn out to be unexpected and informative for the researcher. Due to the complexity of teacher education in general and CPD in particular and their related sociocultural context (Robson, 2002; Rossman & Rallis, 2003), semi-structured interviews were deemed especially convenient in this study, since they maintain the focus of the dialogue while allowing the researcher to remain alert to any unexpected opportunities for fruitful digression.

Glesne and Peshkin (1992) note that qualitative researchers should accept and indeed welcome the uncertainty of interviews and be ready to accommodate the difficulties that this type of research entails. For instance, it is the researcher who chooses to discontinue gathering data when reaching a point of saturation. This is basically because there is no limit to the volume of data to be collected (Radnor, 2002).

Interviews, like all instruments, do have a number of potential disadvantages, however. First, in common with other self-report instruments, they rely on the interviewees having a good memory for the relevant experiences and events that the interviewer is asking them to talk about. Similarly, this method relies on the interviewees being honest in their responses and not just saying what
they think the interviewer wants to hear, or what they may think makes themselves appear in the best light, even if not true.

Both of these problems are alleviated if interviews are conducted with groups rather than individuals. First, this means that interviewees may be able to prompt each other to remember things which, alone, they would not be able to recall. Second, when an interviewee knows his peers are listening, he may be less inclined to embellish or underreport what actually occurred. Although group interviews were not in the original design, a number of opportunities arose to discuss the research topic in communal areas such as a staffroom or canteen. I was able to take advantage of these chances to engage with teachers in informal group discussions and took notes. There is an account of how they were used in Section 4.7.3.

Finally it should be noted that for the interviewer, interviews are particularly challenging because among all of the instruments used in social science research, this is the only one that depends uniquely for its success on the researcher’s ability to perform in real time during its administration. All other instruments involve the researcher preparing something in advance but not being in interactive control of the data gathering, as it occurs, in such a central way. It is all too easy for an interviewer to limit the success of the interview through the adoption of an unconscious manner, a way of speaking, the lack of an ability to spot straight away when the talk is wandering too far off target, or an inability to decide during the flow of conversation that this is a moment where a follow up question is really needed.
4.7.2 The interview questions

The semi-structured interview used in the present study consisted of a set of 26 questions supported by some additional probes and prompts which were designed to help the elicitation of a full and satisfactory picture (Richards, 2001) (see Appendix D for the interview schedule).

I began each interview by asking a number of questions intended to elicit background information about the participant, including his teaching experience and qualifications. The information thus obtained is tabulated above in Table 4.1. This represented a relatively easy set of questions to help get the interviewee settled before embarking on the focal questions of the interview.

Next, the 26 main interview questions were designed to elicit responses relevant to each of the research questions (Johnson, 2006). The first was designed to obtain information to help in answering RQ1:

*What does the term ‘continuing professional development’ mean to you?*

This was followed by:

*Can you give an example of PD in general?*

Later came this question:

*What do you think about the PD scheme or plan that is employed at your workplace here, frankly speaking?*
This third question relates to the latter part of RQ2. Information to answer the first part of RQ2 was not asked about directly but left to emerge from the totality of other responses.

Later questions were designed to elicit information that would help in answering RQ3:

*What challenges do you face in doing or pursuing your PD or professional development?*

*Were there any factors that impacted your involvement and participation?*

Finally, RQ4 was addressed by asking these two questions:

*What recommendations can you provide with respect to the teacher’s role in PD intended for your own professional growth?*

and

*What suggestions can you offer to the management or the individual managers to improve PD here?*

The above are just examples of key questions. Each of them was usually followed up by a number of often unscheduled questions, depending on the direction in which the first responses to the general questions went. For example, in answer to the question about any factors that had impacted on his involvement or participation, one teacher responded:

*Yes, I… like I told you, I play rugby, you know I was, there was two PD workshops, one in January, one in March, and I had to do the one in*
March. I couldn’t attend it at all, so there is a whole week of that PD workshops that I didn’t attend, cause I had surgery on my knee, you know, I didn’t attend it.

I followed up on this initial response with a series of eleven impromptu questions and answers, starting with:

What about the January one?

Then, referring to the CPD managers in the university, I asked:

How did they act on this?

This line of questioning eventually led to the understanding that this initially not very interesting kind of challenge to CPD had in fact revealed a great deal about the attitudes of the management to teachers with this sort of problem, i.e. one related purely to their health.

Thus, although I went into the interviews with a list of prepared questions, I had no hesitation in departing from the confines of this list as seemed necessary or appropriate to clarify something that I was not sure of having fully understood, or to pursue an interesting but unanticipated point.

The schedule of interview questions included prompts and probes to encourage the participants to talk about the topic (CPD) without restriction or fear (Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002) and to obtain richer responses (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). These were used only when an interviewee did not spontaneously answer a question fully. For instance, one interview question was:
What areas of teacher knowledge are essential for the English language teacher?

In some cases, the interviewee struggled to answer or produced an insubstantial response, giving me as interviewer the impression that perhaps this was due to the interviewee not having a well-developed concept of teacher knowledge. I would therefore present the following prompt list for this topic, which I had held in reserve:

**Right, If I can give you some examples of this it would be that there are certain areas of teacher knowledge, for example cultural knowledge, content knowledge, subject matter knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, by which I mean the rate that you teach and the class management and the self-knowledge as well and so on. So which one of these do you think teachers should have before coming, in order to teach in this specific context?**

4.7.2.1 Piloting of the interview questions

After designing the first version of the interview and before starting the data collection process, I followed the suggestion of Dörnyei (Best & Kahn, 1989) to conduct a pilot interview with three teachers in Saudi Arabia, all of whom worked in the same context as that of the main study, i.e. the PYP at King Saud University. These teachers were selected purposively on the basis that they were knowledgeable in the research methodology employed in this study. I took this step in order to evaluate the interview questions in terms of ambiguity and content, to avoid any redundancy of questions and to pilot the use of the recorder (Dörnyei, 2007). Hence, I needed to select participants...
whom I could reasonably expect to be able to provide useful feedback and to suggest any areas for improvement that might occur to them.

In the event, these pilot interviews proved to be very helpful in highlighting some weaknesses in the framework and consideration of the feedback provided by the participants resulted in my making minor changes to the wording of the interview questions for the main study.

A discussion with my thesis supervisors followed and resulted in the regrouping of a few similar questions in the interview schedule.

4.7.3 Interview data collection procedures

On receipt of the approval to access the university and having established by email the set of teachers willing to participate and suitable for my sample, I flew to Saudi Arabia at the end of March 2013. Upon my arrival at the university, which is located in the west of Riyadh, I set up interview appointments with those potential participants who had responded to my invitations. I then conducted the actual one-on-one, face-to-face interviews with the teachers throughout the four weeks of April 2013. I scheduled each of these to last between 50 and 70 minutes.

To prepare for my interview schedule in advance and encourage more participants to engage, I coordinated with two of my colleagues who worked in the same context. This was consistent with the following valuable advice from the literature on educational research: “Interviews lead to a high response rate because researchers schedule the interviews in advance and sample participants typically feel obligated to complete the interview” (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992).
It is worth stating that there were some teachers among the participants in this study whose first language was Arabic. The interviews were, however, all conducted in English, as they preferred. This is in line with the literature, which advocates that it is ideal to collect data from respondents in the language which is considered most comfortable for them (Creswell, 2012, p. 384).

I conducted all of the interviews myself, in a room provided for the purpose on the KSU male campus, and made audio recordings of all of them. No payments or rewards were given or offered to participants for taking part.

I began each of the interviews by reminding the participating teacher of his ethical rights, which had been explained to all potential participants in advance by email, and of the terms of the informed consent which he had previously given in writing. I assured all participants that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions, in order to make them feel more comfortable when speaking. The literature on conducting qualitative research stresses the importance of assuring participants that there is no right response to the interview questions and that “they cannot be wrong” (see Pavlenko, 2007; Price, 2002; Rossman & Rallis, 2003).

In order to gain optimum information about the experience and opinions of the teachers concerning CPD, I continued interviewing each of them until I believed that the interview had reached the point of data saturation, meaning that any further questioning would fail to elicit any new information. (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992, p. 32) explain this concept by stating that “to fully understand the phenomenon of interest, ideally, we continue ... to gather information until
we reach the saturation point, when newly collected data is redundant with previously collected data”. Having reached this point in any given interview, I drew it to a close by thanking the interviewee for participating in the study.

It is also worth mentioning that while taking a break between the scheduled interviews, I would normally go to the teachers’ lounge in the Active Learning Zone (ALZ) and engage in informal conversations with any teachers and supervisors present whilst they were resting between classes, having sought their permission to conduct such conversations. Teachers and supervisors would join in relevant discussions (as an informal focus group) and I took advantage of this to obtain more data. I took notes to provide a written record of whatever data might emerge during the conversation that I judged to be relevant to my research topic. This type of data collection is referred to in the literature on conducting social science research as an informal interview. It is an approach which is considered to be a valuable technique for following up the research topic from the participants’ standpoint (Ruane, 2005).

4.7.4 Analysis of interview data

The great majority of the data consisted of recordings of the one-to-one interviews. Some experts claim that concurrent data collection and analysis is useful in attaining more depth in a study, as the researcher is able to follow up issues brought up by the data from earlier interviews by asking additional questions in later ones (Ruane, 2005). Thus, I initially attempted to transcribe data from the recorded individual interviews as soon as possible after the interview, after which the transcription had to be checked for accuracy. However, I found that the limited time available for data collection prevented
me from continuing with this procedure. Indeed, it might be argued that to carry on with it would have been potentially harmful to the credibility of the research, since it is reported that some other experts assert that such simultaneous data collection and analysis can lead to the researcher becoming biased when collecting more data (Holliday, 2007; Radnor, 2002b).

A feature of qualitative research is that there is no single method of data analysis that one can follow. From the literature, I found variation in terms of methodology, with different methods used to analyse data for different phenomena. Indeed, Holloway and Todres (Maxwell, 2012) comment that qualitative approaches are extremely varied, complex and nuanced, while other contributors to the literature observe that there is not just one right method of data analysis (Holloway & Todres, 2003). Nonetheless, there exist general guidelines which suggest how qualitative researchers can engage systematically and reflectively in analysing their data. As a first step in my qualitative data analysis, in order to interpret the interview data gathered during this study in a way that would lead readers of this thesis to truly understand the participating teachers’ experiences of CPD, I generally followed the account of Radnor (2001), who provides a systematic guide to the analysis of such data.

Qualitative data are usually descriptive in nature and thus both voluminous and messy (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). The corpus of interview data collected in the current study was extensive, running to more than 245,000 words. I was initially daunted by the sheer mass of information that I was confronted with when data collection ended, so I responded by embarking on a process of
reducing it to a manageable size, as Ritchie and Lewis (2003) recommend. They advise researchers that this reduction exercise should proceed continually throughout the analysis; this indeed happened in this study, as I engaged in a cycle of editing, summarising the data, coding, finding themes and patterns, then conceptualising and explaining. The process of coding involved choosing certain words, sentences or paragraphs that appeared to capture the major views or thoughts voiced by the participants (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

After collecting my interview data, I organised it into one audio file for each participant and spent some time familiarising myself with the data by listening and re-listening to the interviews a number of times and reviewing the notes I had taken of conversations with those participants who had not wished to be recorded and the ones based on informal discussions with teachers in the breaks. This was done in order to engage with my data and make extracts from them come to mind readily as I proceeded with analysis later. I thought of my corpus of data as something to embrace and get to know better. Thus I needed to become intimate with the material and with the participants (Patton, 2002).

Next, the recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim using the Express Scribe application (Appendix E). I then put the text into a Microsoft Word document, formatted it and ran a spelling check. After all this had been done, I listened to the tape again to made sure that there were no words missing in the final draft by filling in any gaps where I had missed some words.

Having completed the transcriptions, I then read and reread them, both to
check that they made sense and to increase my familiarity with them (Creswell, 2012). At this point, I identified some instances where the recording was not clear or where there was some other reason why I was unable to understand what a speaker had said. I resolved any such instances by sending an email to the interviewee concerned, asking him to clarify what he had said. I also took the opportunity at this point to exclude from the corpus any chunks of each transcript which I considered irrelevant to the research at hand.

Next, I entered all of the transcribed data and notes into MAXQDA 11, a software programme designed to assist with the management and analysis of qualitative data (Weitzman, 2000). I saved my documents in rich text format (that is to say, with the <.rtf> file extension in Word) and imported them in that form into MAXQDA. I read through the data again to get a sense of the whole, then I went through them again, using the coloured coding/comment facility on the left side of each text to record my initial interpretations. Figure 4.1 gives an impression of this and shows how the software (bottom left) keeps track of the developing hierarchy of codes and the number of times each has been used. I attempted to identify topics (e.g. internal or institutional factors, external or non-institutional factors and personal factors) and to assign each topic an identifiable code. It is important in coding to decide “what counts as a pattern/theme” that “captures something important about the data in relation to the research question” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 82). I then identified the categories and subcategories, which I later summarised and classified in tables (Radnor, 2002). Categories and subcategories were generated from the coded data. I ensured that all of the codes were interrelated, meaningful
and located under suitable categories, carefully considering internal consistency.

Figure 4.1: Screenshot of MAXQDA during the initial coding stage

As I worked on this, I developed a coding that emerged from what the interviewees had said. Principally, I worked as if I were using a highlighter and a pen on hard copy. MAXQDA has the additional value, however, that I was able not only to mark text segments judged to contain a separate idea, but also to categorise them concurrently. Once the initial tabulation of codes and categories had been constructed, more reading assisted me in assigning “code content to topic categories” (Radnor, 2002c, p. 72), by labelling the main quotes and writing the code name next to the text with the category number. I used the electronic colour coding/comment facility in MAXQDA, highlighting the codes throughout as I read, then copied the extracts and included them under the tabulated codes and categories to complete the
coding sheet. After this, I generated fully coded transcripts. Throughout this stage, I copied and pasted the topics and quotes from the master sheet into a new template representing the initial codes identified from interviews. I concluded this step by confirming the themes and categories, writing statements that described my personal interpretations and summarising the findings within each category (see Appendix F).

I often also used the Memo function within MAXQDA to note some ideas or questions that came to my mind. For example, I read a segment of text and asked myself what the underlying meaning of the passage might be, then I assigned a code label to denote this meaning. I created new codes by right clicking in the code system. I highlighted the text segment in the text browser, then dragged and dropped the text into the code and vice versa.

As I progressed, going through each text multiple times, I refined my coding patterns by looking for redundant codes and by grouping similar codes together into larger themes. This step involved looking for themes, which meant grouping lower level categories that were appropriate to establish them. I ensured that the requisite internal homogeneity of the themes was maintained by confirming that all of the categories in each theme were interrelated and meaningful (Patton, 2002). Similarly, in order to avoid repetition, some overlapping themes were combined together to make the analysis of the data more rigorous (Tuckett, 2005).

After this, as the “final step of the refining process”, I read the quotes again to identify “different subtleties of meaning” (Radnor, 2002a, p. 88). I reviewed the coded segments to gain familiarity with the different variations of each idea
within the developing themes. At times, I renamed, reorganised and combined some codes as needed.

After coding all of the documents, I used various facilities in MAXQDA to summarise and display in different ways the data and the coding at a particular point in time, thus assisting revisions. During this process, I used certain qualitative data analysis strategies recommended in the literature (Tutty, Grinnell, & Rothery, 1996). A key step was to activate all of the documents with respect to a single code. In this way, all of the interview extracts supporting one theme or topic could be seen and reviewed together in the Retrieved Segments window, as shown in Figure 4.2. I was then able to readily compare how particular participants responded with respect to one unique theme or topic.

Thus, I worked either in the retrieved segments window (for a better overview of the content of one code) or in the coded segments window (to have a better overview of a particular interviewee as a whole), depending on what I wanted to explore.
Overall, participants’ responses to the semistructured interview questions and prompts were coded and analysed using exploratory content analysis. Coding progressed judiciously by a combination of the bottom up (data driven) and top down (RQ driven) approaches, resulting in the emergence of themes that were categorised, codified and then compared with the whole set of data using a constant comparison method which required me to read and reread within and across the participants’ responses (Robson, 2002). This method of data analysis supported by MAXQDA helped me to analyse the large corpus of data logically and sequentially in terms of coding, ascertaining categories and themes, creating thematic charts, ordering the topics and themes, interweaving the data and the interpretive commentaries to extract findings that were both illuminating and convincing.

4.8 Trustworthiness and credibility

Following the discussion of the quality of research in Section 4.4.4 and bearing in mind that in qualitative research, while trustworthiness can never be totally guaranteed, it should at least be striven for (Guba & Lincoln, 1989), I was at pains to confront issues of the quality of my data and their analysis. I addressed what are known as ‘authenticity criteria’ (Guba & Lincoln, 1989 & 1994; Schwandt, 2001), aiming to ensure credibility, allow transferability, meet the need for dependability and achieve confirmability. In this regard, the following subsections explain what precautions I have taken to enhance the four aforementioned criteria.
4.8.1 Credibility

In order to establish credibility in the current study, I took certain steps from the very beginning. First, as a researcher, I developed familiarity with the culture of the participating institution at an early stage, before the first data collection took place. This was achieved via consultation of some appropriate documents from the PD unit about what it provided and by preliminary visits to the unit itself. Moreover, my previous experience of this specific context (when I had studied there as a student) and of some of the teaching staff helped me to familiarise myself with it for the purposes of the present study. Many experts (Lalik & Potts, 2001) recommend prolonged engagement between the researcher and the participants so that the former gains a sufficient understanding of the context and to establish a relationship of trust between them.

Second, I achieved credibility through participant feedback or 'member checking' (Guba and Lincoln, 1989), which I carried out by e-mailing the written transcripts to the study participants to clear up any areas of misunderstanding. This involved asking them deeper questions not just about the words spoken but also about what they meant; in other words, I presented them with my analyses and interpretations of what they had said, explaining the themes and issues I that I had identified, then sought to establish whether they agreed with what I was saying about what they had said. In this way, I managed to understand things from the perspective of the various participants and to provide a more credible account of these perspectives. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), member checking is “the most crucial technique for establishing credibility” (p. 314).
4.8.2 Transferability

Transferability in qualitative research refers to whether the findings of a study can be useful in other similar contexts or settings (Punch, 1998). It is the equivalent of external validity in quantitative research, which “is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations” (Merriam, 1998, p. 39, cited in Shenton, 2004).

To allow transferability, three features of a study are crucial: (a) theoretical sampling; (b) thick descriptions of context and (c) the degree of abstraction of the concepts in the data analysis (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Punch, 1998). In the present case, it can be said that the study sample, although limited to people who were willing to participate, contained a similar mix of teachers to those to be found working on PYPs in universities across the KSA, if not further afield. The relevant context is described fully in Chapter 2 and much further detail emerges with the results in later chapters. Scrutiny of this material would make it relatively easy for someone in another context, within or even beyond the KSA, to judge how similar their own context was and thus to determine the likelihood of the transferability of the findings. Finally, as will emerge in the following chapters, many of the themes and concepts that were identified as relevant to the data are surely at a level of generality that makes them relevant in many contexts other than the one in which the present study is set.

4.8.3 Dependability

Schwandt (2001, p. 258) describes dependability as “the process of the enquiry and the inquirer’s responsibility for ensuring that the process of the
inquiry was logical, traceable, and documented”. In the present case I feel that this methodology chapter has done much to ensure that the process of the investigation does indeed have all of these three characteristics. I have not only described in detail what I did but also justified it by relating it to relevant theories and concepts of research.

Lincoln and Guba further emphasise the intimate relations between credibility and dependability, arguing that in practice, a validation of the former confirms the latter. One feature of a study which enhances both is the use of ‘overlapping methods’, or triangulation, also recognised as ‘parallel mixed analysis’ (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 128). In our study, I relied primarily on one instrument, although a small amount of data was also gathered from informal focus group-style discussions. This demonstrated agreement of what emerged from these instruments with what was said in the interviews.

Primarily, this study has relied on member-checking as a main validating technique to improve the trustworthiness of the inquiry, as indicated above. Furthermore, I consider that by choosing teachers with a wide range of multicultural backgrounds I have achieved a measure of triangulation in terms of the diversity of participants investigated (Denzin, cited in Maxwell, 1996).

Finally, the study enjoys the benefit of a certain degree of analytical triangulation in that my supervisor and my fellow PhD students have had the chance to comment on my project at various stages in ways that I benefited from. For example, I received valuable feedback from these sources on the research plan, on the interview questions and on the data analysis at various stages.
4.8.4 Confirmability

The concept of confirmability is for the qualitative researcher equivalent to the quantitative researcher’s concern for objectivity (Shenton, 2004). Some procedures had to be followed in the present research to warrant as far as possible that the results of the study were the product of the involvement and experiences of the informants, rather than of the preferences of the researcher. Triangulation, especially member-checking, can play a role in supporting such confirmability and I have explained above how I have used this mechanism to reduce any effect of researcher bias. In this manner, I aimed to achieve confirmability by depending predominantly on the participants’ statements.

In a related endeavour to ensure confirmability, I recognised my role as a participant observer; I did my best to pursue my enquiries in an unprejudiced and non-judgmental way. For example, during the interviews I was at pains to accept equally both the negative and positive views that were voiced by participants.

4.9 Ethical considerations

Research ethics is an important issue that has to be dealt with carefully in any empirical research study. Ethics essentially constitute a code of conduct followed in order to ensure that the consequences of participating in a study do not harm the participants in any way or violate their human rights (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

Sieber (1993, p. 14) explains that “ethics has to do with the application of moral principles to prevent harming or wronging others, to promote the good,
to be respectful and to be fair”. Wallen and Fraenkel (2001, p. 22-3) specifically mention three ethical issues that need consideration in qualitative research: protecting participants from harm, ensuring the confidentiality of research data and avoiding the knowing deception of research participants. In this study, I was careful to take each of these issues into consideration in order to safeguard the wellbeing of the research participants.

First, I carefully studied the University of Exeter’s regulations and guidelines on research ethics, which follow the ethical guidelines of the British Educational Research Association, and I adhered to them accordingly. Second, I completed an application for ethical research approval and submitted it to the College of Social Sciences and International Studies at the University of Exeter. The form was signed by my doctoral supervisor and was then approved by the chair of the Graduate School of Education’s Ethics Committee (see Appendix G). Not until after I had been granted the requested ethical approval did I start the process of seeking the permission of the relevant authorities in the KSA to begin the fieldwork.

Next, I put into practice the ethical requirements for carrying out research. First of all, in advance of the data collection process, I sent an email to each of the research participants containing a description of the study, assurances with respect to confidentiality and a statement of their right to discontinue their participation at any time, for whatever reason and without consequences of any kind for them. Those people to whom I sent such emails included those with whom I later had informal discussions in the University’s Active Learning Zone. Those teachers who wished to participate then signed a hard copy of
the University of Exeter research consent form. I also informed all of the participants about the secondary use of research data (BERA, 2004). Finally, I assured them that the data gathered during their interviews, both formal and informal, would be used for research purposes only.

The confidentiality of the participants was maintained throughout the study, first of all by the simple mechanism of using pseudonyms for the teachers rather than identifying them by name. In the context of the current study I felt that it was especially important to take care over this issue, since teachers might in interview voice negative opinions about aspects of the university for which they worked; if the individual teachers could be identified, this could potentially lead to them coming to harm if the university authorities were to react negatively in some way to such individual expressions of opinion among the teaching staff.

It was also important to protect the privacy and confidentiality of the teachers during the interviews themselves, so that they would feel able to communicate freely with me as a researcher in a friendly environment where they felt safe and comfortable. For this reason, the individual interviews with the teachers were held in a special meeting room conveniently situated on the male campus of KSU, where there was no chance of being interrupted or overheard. Most of the teachers were comfortable with their voices being recorded, but some of them expressed certain reservations and told me that they preferred to converse without being recorded. Their reluctance for the interviews to be audio recorded appeared to arise from a fear of reprisals by the university authorities if the teacher said something negative; in these
cases, I did not insist upon making an audio recording but instead recorded their responses in writing by taking contemporaneous notes. I followed this procedure in accordance with the assertion in the research methodology literature that it is essential in ethical research to accommodate oneself to the concerns of participants over confidentiality so that they will feel free to communicate their opinions without fear of retribution (Huefner, 2003).

4.10 Chapter summary

In this chapter I first described the ontological, epistemological and methodological distinctions among positivistic, predominantly quantitative research and interpretive, predominantly qualitative research, then explained why I had selected the latter paradigm as the methodological framework of the present study.

Having thus established the basis on which the study was conducted, I went on to provide profiles of the 23 main participants in the study, then justified and described in detail the construction, piloting, administration and data analysis procedures associated with the main data collection instrument, a set of individual, face-to-face semistructured interviews. The chapter concluded with an explanation of the four ways in which I sought to ensure the trustworthiness of the study and of how I dealt with the ethical issues that arose, especially that of the confidentiality of the data provided by the participants.
CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and interprets the findings of the current study. It has five main sections.

The first of these major sections focuses on participants’ understanding of CPD in general: how they would define it; the importance and value they attached to being able to access CPD; and finally whose responsibility they thought it was to ensure that CPD took place. The second section specifically explores the provision of CPD in the context of the university concerned and teachers’ views of it, focusing on the centrally run CPD programme, the use of observation as a CPD tool and the provision of internal CPD opportunities vis-à-vis the provision of support for staff wishing to access external training. The third section considers the reported challenges facing teachers in their attempts to engage in CPD. Four main challenges were identified as a result of the data analysis: cultural challenges, the quality of CPD provision, the lack of access to CPD and opportunities to pursue it, and the work conditions faced by foreign EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia. The fourth section focuses on how best EFL teachers can be helped to continue to develop professionally. Four main subthemes emerged from the data analysis: consulting and obtaining feedback from staff on CPD provision, addressing issues of quality of the available CPD, encouraging and supporting staff to attend external CPD or training events and developing a CPD culture. The last section draws
conclusions and offers responses to the four research questions that were posed in the introductory chapter of this thesis.

In accordance with the usual practices of qualitative research, excerpts from interviewees’ responses are cited in order to support the interpretation of the data and to clarify the participants’ opinions. These excerpts from the transcribed recordings of interviews have been modified by the removal of repetitions and fillers such as ‘errr’, making the text more easily readable while leaving the substantive meanings unaffected. To meet the ethical requirement of anonymity, participants are referred to by pseudonyms.

5.1 Understanding of CPD

This part of the chapter attempts to answer the first research question: *What do EFL teachers working in the preparatory year English programme at a Saudi Arabian university understand by the term ‘continuing professional development’?* It draws on my coding of responses within the following themes: how participants defined CPD, their perceptions of the possible goals of CPD that motivated them to take part in it, the importance and value they attached to being able to access CPD, the areas on which they thought CPD should focus, and finally whose responsibility they considered it to be to ensure that CPD would take place. These are grouped and illustrated in Table 5.1.
Table 5.1: Understanding of CPD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Understanding of CPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitions of CPD and its goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building on existing professional skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD as self-actualisation and career development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeping professional teaching staff up to date</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three forms of learning that can occur in CPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD as continuous learning and a lifelong commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The significance of CPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional or individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance evaluation as CPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance evaluation as professional development: Observer vs. observed and the issue of nativism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer observation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occurrence of and attitudes to external CPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality in external CPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International conferences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.1.1 Definitions of CPD and its goals**

This section sheds light on the varied definitions of CPD as perceived by the study participants. CPD for them meant different things, such as building on existing professional skills, providing self-development and career development, keeping professional teaching staff up to date, a form of learning that enables the sharing of best practice, a form of continuous learning and a lifelong commitment. Each of these views is discussed in more detail in the following subsections, with supporting extracts from the interviews.

**5.1.1.1 Building on existing professional skills**

Data analysis indicates that participants’ conceptions of CPD differed, although notwithstanding this variety, most of them had in common that it was perceived as constituting a form of professional learning. Within this overarching definition, a number of strong themes emerged, including that
CPD is a form of learning that allows professionals to continually develop and build on existing professional skills. For example, James, a teacher interviewee, said:

*Professional development for me is adding to my existing professional knowledge skills, showing me new ways of teaching, new ways of presenting material perhaps, so that my students benefit.*

This shows that James had a basic understanding of CPD, which he appears to have defined in terms of external influencing factors rather than from internal reflection. He also regarded these external sources as primarily affecting his classroom teaching, as opposed to understanding CPD as a means to attain other kinds of professional objectives (e.g. those discussed in Section 5.1.1.2).

Others, including Mike, indicated that CPD is intended to improve teachers’ “skill bank”, by “building on existing skills” and helping participants in “acquiring new ones”. Bob added that CPD enables teachers to become “the best they can be in their profession”.

**5.1.1.2 CPD as self-actualisation and career development**

Some interviewees discussed CPD in terms of career improvement:

*it’s qualifying me … to get a job in another institution … around the world …. (Tom)*.

This illustrates how CPD was seen by some participants as linked to career progression, allowing teachers to augment their qualifications while “learning
skills and gaining approaches that one can take to other jobs” (Nigel). This will be discussed in the next chapter.

Self-actualisation is also a key part of CPD and to some extent of career development, although for some people self-esteem may be more important than any other factor. Self-actualisation is reflected in Bob’s statement that CPD enables teachers to become “the best they can be in their profession”. Indeed, CPD was also seen not only as a vehicle for teachers to fulfil their own potential, but as entailing a sense of moral obligation “to be as good a teacher as possible” (Harry).

According to the hierarchy of needs hypothesised by Maslow (1954), self-actualisation is at the very peak of the pyramid, because it represents the need for individuals to fulfil their personal potential. It is also the case, as mentioned in Chapter 3, Section 3.4, that these basic needs are time bound, so a need may be essential at a certain time but not at another. Here, some teachers at least seemed to see CPD as a means to achieve self-actualisation, not just as necessary to fulfil job obligations and so continue in employment. Such teachers appeared to feel that they belonged in the classroom, which they perceived as their territory; thus, they would do whatever helped their students, irrespective of administrative policies. Because of this, they met their needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation. According to Maslow (1972), self-actualisation is becoming what one is capable of becoming and the goal of learning is self-actualisation.
Harry was typical of interviewees holding this view, as exemplified by his statement that for him, CPD meant self-actualisation, while Roger offered the following extended metaphor:

_Self-actualisation is ... development in myself, self-reflection, continuous development. It’s a bit like a caterpillar, where you are travelling along and you gain ... experience in ... that part of the journey and then you bring your legs up ... You just sort of take stock, you regroup before you move on again to the next area of experience and then you bring your legs up again. You absorb, you get the energy and then you move on again in a new direction._

In fact, the interview data indicate that there is always more to learn from reflecting on one’s own practice. As it was eloquently put by Albert in his interview, “the more you know, the more you realise you don’t know. You can also use reflective teaching as a means to evaluate your own practices to see what works and what doesn’t.”

Thus, teachers including Roger and Albert saw self-reflection as part of learning in general and CPD in particular. Overall, the interviewees were split almost equally between those who regarded CPD as based upon internal processes and personal reflection, versus those who saw it as primarily external.

Maslow’s (1954) notion of peak experiences and Csikszentmihalyi and Kleiber (1991) flow theory both refer to the happiest state that an individual can attain through self-actualisation. The processes by which teachers interact with their students, their motivational sources, their expression of their experiences of
teaching and their contribution to their students’ learning are examples of how teachers may acquire such satisfaction and happiness. With regard to this self-actualisation, Deniz articulated a strong belief in the ‘caring’ aspect of education, in contrast to other teachers who expressed views that appeared to be largely centred on themselves. He said, “I enjoy seeing these [students] every day and I have some feelings towards them and I want to contribute to their learning and help them.”

5.1.1.3 Keeping professional teaching staff up to date

Participants such as Tom and Albert also understood CPD as a form of learning that serves to keep professional teaching staff abreast of the latest developments in the field:

*Well, it means a few things. First of all, it means a teacher who is constantly upgrading himself to be continuously qualified or to be continuing modernising syllabi* (Tom).

*It means that if you are a professional in … teaching [or an]other field, you need to stay up to date and also if you take a real interest in your profession and do it properly you want to keep developing and so you keep doing things to improve your professionalism* (Albert).

Thus, most interviewees appeared to understand CPD as a new learning experience which would allow them to develop skills related to their needs in the immediate context of their work and then to apply these newly developed skills to their broader development as teachers. This is also obvious from the
following comment, which can be seen as self-centred or individualist rather than communitarian:

In terms of preference, the continuous development that I am personally interested in is just ensuring that I am kept up to date in areas that matter to me (Fayez).

Therefore, whilst methods in ELT as a profession develop differently from local syllabus requirements, participants saw it as fitting that the CPD provision enabled them to stay up to date with these developments.

5.1.1.4 Three forms of learning that can occur in CPD

Participants’ understanding of CPD may be divided into three categories, depending on whether they saw it (1) as primarily involving transmission from other teachers as an external source of skills and knowledge, (2) as a process of ‘give and take’ between peers or (3) as not involving teacher sharing but individual self-development. These views are exemplified by the words of Majed, Ben and Gary respectively:

Professional development means somebody that is really professional and conveys his experience to you. I need a successful [and experienced] teacher, who has discovered … everything himself and is showing me his experience so it really happens that you see the fruits (Majed).

What is going on in teaching development and then share ideas with other teachers… to see how we can teach and then what is going on in
teaching, you know, assist one another, establish a community of practice (Ben).

Continue to develop and grow as a professional. You are going to get new training, new experiences, exposure to new ideas, because we all come from different backgrounds, and are trained to teach in one way (Gary).

Excerpts from the above conversations reveal how most of interviewees valued communities of practice in the wider community and within institutions as part of their own CPD, believing that these communities would benefit them by exposing them to the knowledge and expertise of other teachers (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Lieberman, 1996).

5.1.1.5 CPD as continuous learning and a lifelong commitment

Data analysis indicates that there was among the participating teachers a general understanding of CPD as a form of continuous learning, as the name indicates; therefore, it should be systematic, as Adam indicated by saying, “I am a life learner. I believe in lifelong learning.” It should also be a lifelong commitment, according to the contributions made by others including Majed, Ben and Gary. This view is consistent with the assertion that “if a love of lifelong learning is to grow, then every institution must be a learning organisation” (Day, 1992, p. 2).

5.1.2 The significance of CPD

The overwhelming majority of participants asserted that CPD was important or very important. Their main reasons for doing so were related to their own
sense of achievement, to a desire to be well regarded by other teachers, to the benefit of being able to list courses on a CV and to its value in allowing them to reflect on their own practice:

   *It’s important as a measure of my own success or failure, how I see myself and then of course in terms of peers ... I suppose a CV is important...* (Roger).

Many saw CPD as necessary in order to keep abreast of technology, curricula and new developments in teaching (see also Section 5.1.1.3).

   *The means by which we teach change all the time. The internet, ... computers and education are developing at a rapid rate. You have to keep up with it or else it’s time to retire. ... The curricula and syllabi are also changing all the time and a teacher should be a student of the game. In my opinion, a teacher should be learning all the time, just like students, so PD is very important* (Tom).

CPD also allows fresh ideas to emerge and provides intellectual stimulation; thus, Faisal described it as being “as important as water to teachers”. It is apparent that most participants considered CPD to be of great importance. For example, Adam, a prime example of a self-developer, referred to CPD as “extremely important”:

   *I’ve spent twenty-six years in education and I’ve been constantly developing myself. I’m formally qualified at bachelor, master’s and doctorate level. I’ve done many other courses on the side as well,*
some because I want to and some although I don’t, because I have to, so I’m very, very engaged in professional development.

As for Majed, he perceived CPD as refreshing his ideas:

*It really means a lot, because … you need to refresh your ideas every now and then. We forget things, even if we know. I did the CELTA in 2010 and it was great.*

All participants accepted the need for teachers to continuously develop their practice. However, it was mentioned that CPD can take place through the teacher’s own experience and need not necessarily be provided (solely) through “*formalised arrangements*” (Majed).

5.1.3 Accountability for CPD provision

A number of views emerged from the interview data as to who should provide CPD opportunities. There was a general understanding that both the employer and the employee had roles to play in CPD provision.

5.1.3.1 Institutional or individual

Many teachers seemed to view CPD as training that should be provided from outside. Some, however, explicitly voiced the idea that the primary source of CPD should be within the teacher, with some initial help from the institution:

*I think the main priority lies with the teachers themselves. You have to come prepared into an environment. You can’t just arrive with no idea of what’s coming, but … here we did have the induction week [with] a presentation on the Saudi learner, and what we should do and what we should expect, and that did help. Also, they sent out the cultural*
sensitivity guide to make sure this is not covered or talked about, so …

I think it has to be a 50/50 thing, individual and from the institution (Patrick).

Another teacher, Tom, agreed that both institution and individual should be involved in different ways, with the former providing serious support: “Everybody, the people around you, where you’re living of course, here in the PYP school, more experienced teachers and managers should provide CPD programmes.” At the individual level, Tom suggested that increasing knowledge of local culture, especially for non-Saudis, should be the teacher’s own responsibility:

I should be involved in increasing my cultural knowledge. If I go … to a mall or to a fort I think there’s an onus on me to increase my cultural knowledge as I make my way around the Kingdom, so everybody should have a hand in it.

On the one hand, the employer was seen to have a responsibility to provide CPD opportunities directly or to support staff in accessing these opportunities externally. On the other hand, the employees themselves were seen as responsible for pursuing their own development, especially in the area of culture:

I don’t think the responsibility lies in one party. Everyone has to of course. The teacher must take on the responsibility to learn about the culture, the external culture and the small culture (Mike).
Other teachers raised the notion that there was or should be an obligation in respect of CPD on recruitment agencies as well as on employers and on the teacher himself:

You should read yourself. I don’t think it’s just one party, a combination of recruitment agencies or the employers. I like to ask: what is the culture like at your institution … if I’m looking to go there, because you need to fit into the culture as well (Adam).

5.1.3.2 Performance evaluation as CPD

Performance accountability was considered an important part of the teacher’s role at the participating university and indeed as a form of CPD. Therefore, the university operates a system of performance management assessment (PMA) implemented through classroom observations by senior English Department EFL staff, i.e. by lead teachers, coordinators or managers. The observations discussed here are those specifically of EFL teachers. The observers would sit in and observe a class for around ten minutes, two to four times each term, then fill out an evaluation form (Appendix H). These observations, known as buzz observations, are part of the university’s CPD strategy and run by the PD unit. Gary explained that lead teachers, coordinators or managers would “walk in randomly [unannounced] and make sure teachers are following the syllabus and doing what they need to be doing. It’s basically just a snapshot of two minutes.”

Although PMA affected whether teachers’ contracts would be renewed at the end of each year, it was seen as being supposed to provide teaching staff with valuable feedback to improve their practice. Hatim, for example, seemed
to endorse the view that PMA observation had CPD value despite its evaluative nature.

*We have some observations which help teachers to improve their teaching skills, for example to find … the weak points...* (Hatim).

Faisal even seems to have accepted evaluation as a form of support:

*Coordinators can check the class any time and observe teachers while they’re teaching, and then at the end of the observation the coordinator will let teachers know what are, for example, the weaknesses they have, what are the strong points, the ones that they did very well, so I think this will help a lot to support teachers* (Faisal).

Many teachers, by contrast with the above favourable view, saw the observations as intrusive and punitive, rather than amicable and constructive. Harry, for instance, claimed that they focused on “*pretty basic elementary things*” such as whether rules and administrative requirements were being followed, rather than being directed towards any sort of evaluation of the quality of teaching.

*When they buzz, what they are looking for is a basic set of fundamental things, especially are they keeping the records properly, that type of thing. Are they using the electronic equipment? Is it switched on? .... And they only stay for about eight to ten minutes, so it’s just a quick check … Are the students in the room? Is there teaching going on? Are they just watching a movie or something?* (Albert).
Gary reported that observers would ask: “What are you doing, where are you?” He described this as a “police force thing”. Similarly, buzz observation was negatively perceived by some other participants as ‘policing’ and raising doubts about their teaching performance, rather than an element of CPD. For example:

I guess that observation, that whole performance appraisal, is a kind of PD, [but] the problem is it’s not presented as trying to develop the teachers. It’s more a policing, that’s where it loses its value (Adam).

Albert also complained that buzz observations were much too frequent, causing “constant interruptions”; they should occur “once or twice [in a year] instead of six times”.

Given these limitations, it is unsurprising that Patrick criticised buzz observation as demotivating:

The buzz observations are a bit disruptive and it seems mostly for the administration to make sure we are not stepping over any lines, or that we are taking the attendance and that sort of crap, and I think it’s just more demotivating than anything else.

Patrick also complained of negative effects on the lesson itself and on his students:

Well, for the students, their cell phones go away, so it helps us sometimes, but it is a distraction in the classroom. Because as soon as they leave, what do we talk about for the next 10 minutes? What’s
happened. Then we [always] go off topic. Who was that guy? What did he write down? What is he going to say about us?

Thus, the students would feel that they were also being observed, despite the observation being directed solely at the teacher. Patrick also appeared to believe that he was getting no useful feedback from the observations, leading him to wonder how it could possibly have any CPD value. His experience appears to conflict with that described above by Faisal, a contrast that will be discussed in Chapter 6, with the support of evidence from the data.

It is precisely because of their formulaic and bureaucratic nature that some teaching staff viewed observations as an oppressive form of policing rather than as a developmental tool, as most participants did. Nonetheless, some teachers also saw these observations as regrettably necessary, since certain teachers were underperforming. Tom put it like this:

*Most of the teachers here are doing their job, but some of them aren’t. I’ve had line managers and other teachers confide in me that some teachers go to class and do nothing. Some of them don’t even go to class, [or] there’s no lesson plan. This has forced the management to buzz observe, to go in unannounced to class and see what the teachers are doing and check and see if they have a proper plan or lesson outline. …. It’s a necessary evil brought about by a small unprofessional number of people not doing their jobs.*

Some participants therefore felt that these observations did serve a purpose in ensuring a minimum level of teacher performance, especially among those recruited by subcontractors to teach on the PYP, who were unqualified and
unprofessional, according to some other teachers. John, for example, spoke of “a presentation given at the beginning of this semester” which had reported that 45% of teachers “were below expectations” in terms of attendance. Ben agreed with this statistic and related it to recruitment:

The university knows that the subcontractors are not providing the teachers they should, given the wages. The salaries are good here, and yet the quality of the teachers [is] not. You’ve got this 45%, just under half, that are not very good, but it’s affecting the PD policy.

These reports of unqualified subcontracted teachers raise the question of how they can be expected to do their job properly and what the university can do with the other teachers, whose skills, knowledge and performance are barely adequate, to get them to teach properly.

To sum up, classroom observation on the PYP was found to be limited to top down evaluative observation, which is not primarily focused on helping teachers to develop but rather on enforcing a policy that does not allow for teachers to make any contribution to the overall day to day running of their preparatory programme. This could prove to be frustrating and disorientating in a cross-cultural setting where variable preconceptions, attitudes and values all affect the eventual outcome of this type of observation procedure, as stated in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.4.
5.1.3.3 Performance evaluation as professional development: Observer vs. observed and the issue of nativism

The feelings of frustration and disorientation were aggravated by teachers’ perceptions of being somewhat humiliated by the fact that they were being observed by senior EFL colleagues whom they perceived to be less qualified than themselves.

For the PMA thing, now I see a lot of value in observing and feedback and all of that is good, but when the observer is far less qualified than the observed, that creates discomfort. When the observer isn’t even a native English speaker, observing a native English speaker teaching English, sometimes that discomfort is too much for some people (Adam).

Teachers who were unhappy about being observed by a non-native English speaking member of staff seemed to be unaware of the concept of World Englishes and, to some extent, of related issues such as the ownership of English.

Roger also complained that expatriates who were not native speaking (monolingual) EFL teachers were able to observe his classes. Such foreigners, often working in Saudi Arabia on renewable contracts, were usually “poorly paid and [lacking] Western standards of professionalism.”

It is noticeable from comments recurring throughout some teachers’ interview responses that this concept of native speakerism was rooted in the beliefs not only of some employers in the EFL context, but also of some PYP teachers.
Therefore, it appears that Roger was prioritising nationals of English speaking countries over non-native ones. This issue will be discussed in greater depth in Chapter 6.

Roger explained in some detail his objection to the presence in his classroom of observers whom he perceived as less well qualified than himself:

*I have now very little respect [if] somebody who can’t speak English very well, … who knows very little about teaching anyway probably, is going to judge me and my years of experience in different places. … I know I am a good teacher. I have years of experience. I can learn like anyone else, no problem. I like learning. As I have said, continuous assessment is my learning, self-actualising, but I haven’t seen many people that I could respect as being able to pass good judgement on anyone really and I think that feeling is kind of shared across the professional teaching body [among] people that I would talk to. It’s a prevailing sentiment. We don’t take it seriously.*

Albert used an interesting metaphor to illustrate the widespread dissatisfaction with such observers:

*A lot of people complained about the people who were going to observe them because they were less qualified and less skilled than they were. Why was this person observing me? Teaching your grandmother to suck eggs (Albert).*

Deniz agreed with the two teachers above and added that some teaching staff felt targeted by frequent class observations and feared that buzz observations
would be used as a punitive measure, regardless of their teaching experience or previous results:

\[\text{What's the point? Imagine I have fives and fours in my observations, now suddenly I have a one. ... What is going to happen? Are you going to forget about all those years?}\]

The perceived judgemental and punitive nature of the buzz observations appears to have had the effect of making them a way of policing the teaching staff, even if they were in part meant to be a development tool. Some of the participants did not appear to mind being policed, because they saw this as a requirement to ensure adequate performance, while others, by contrast, evidently found it humiliating, especially as the observations caused disruption and had no positive impact on improving practice.

5.1.3.4 Peer observation

Whatever their views of the buzz observations conducted by the senior staff, there was one type of observation that many participating teachers valued more than others, as they made clear by referring to its value when they had experienced it in some other place where they had taught. This was peer observation, which is where a colleague comes in to watch another teacher's lesson (or part of one). This can enhance teaching by the mechanism whereby the expression of a non-judgmental view about the lesson by another person prompts the observed teacher to reflect on his or her own teaching (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Participants considered this type of observation to be the most valuable because it provided a way of learning from one’s
colleagues. Roger, for example, described peer observation as “a very useful exercise, a useful addition”.

These participants’ perception of their colleagues as constituting a beneficial source of learning may be seen in contrast to the generally negative impression of classroom observations. It must be borne in mind that these findings demonstrate the willingness of PYP staff to improve as ELT professionals and their support of their profession. However, as demonstrated above, the teachers valued CPD and as such it is suggested that it might improve staff morale and engagement with CPD if the development elements were separate from the evaluative or punitive ones. Where this is not entirely possible, it is suggested that staff be given an “opportunity to respond to buzz observation feedback” (Adam). The importance of consulting staff and of involving them in the development of a CPD programme is considered in detail in Section 5.4.

5.1.4 Occurrence of and attitudes to external CPD
Some teachers were found to be involved in external CPD initiatives, where activities took place outside the institution. Some participants had taken or were currently taking MA, PhD or other formal academic courses, while others, for example, were using online tools like Facebook groups or Dave’s ESL Cafe to chat informally with other teachers and share ideas. International guest speakers and other visitors were also sometimes invited to give presentations during internal sessions. The following subsections address this kind of CPD.
5.1.4.1 Quality in external CPD

Adam said that he approved of peer presentations and of “bringing in experts”, but suggested that they might be “more carefully selected so it’s relevant to what we are doing”. He was also concerned that “the quality of presenters, especially the external ones” was sometimes “disappointing”, but accepted that this could not always be prevented. As explored in Section 5.3.1.6, a number of participants raised the issue of quality control with respect to CPD provision in general. Here, it is worth noting that some interviewees appreciated the provision of support for staff to access external training. Majed, for example, spoke positively of having attended a CELTA course where he was shown useful techniques and invited to discuss them and try them with colleagues on the course while being monitored: “and later they had me do the same thing with my students and they were evaluating me, and it was really fun and I learned a lot from that.”

5.1.4.2 International conferences

Among the most favoured types of CPD were presentations at conferences as well as at smaller events. There was, however, frustration and discouragement among long serving faculty members, who complained that the university did not provide them with financial support or leave of absence to make presentations at international conferences. These members of staff became so demotivated by this experience of refusal (Reeve, 2009) that they no longer engaged in any professional development activities; in other words, they stated in their interviews that did not go to conferences any more. Mike, for example, felt “disappointed and frustrated" when the university refused to
send him to a conference; “as a result I decided I will not worry any more”. Albert recalled that Qatar University, where he had worked, gave grants and time off to all teachers for an international TESOL conference, “but not at this institution”. Gary suggested that the university should help with organising visas and cover part of the cost of attending the TESOL Arabia Conference in Dubai, “because we know it is going to improve teachers and we want to encourage people to do these things”. Robert agreed that employers should offer to meet half of the cost of all external CPD activities.

Harry offered the alternative view that international conferences were of little benefit to older teachers such as himself. However, many PYP teachers were keen to go, whether to make presentations themselves or to attend presentations by other contributors, which they believed would help them to improve their EFL skills and knowledge. Indeed, some interviewees said that they had seized the opportunity to travel abroad and present papers at international conferences. For example, Robert had attended a TESOL conference in Dallas and was unsure whether he would be reimbursed.

I presented a case, so it would be very valuable for the accreditation process … I was willing to go there at my own expense to do the workshop as long as I got the leave.

It can be inferred that the university approved this teacher’s leave just for the sake of obtaining accreditation, which most universities want nowadays. This practice values not teachers but accreditation, which might not always assist teachers’ CPD.
5.2 Current CPD activities delivered by KSU-PY and teacher attitudes to them

This second section of the chapter answers the second research question: *What continuing professional development activities are currently in place, which do the teachers actually engage in and what are teachers’ views of them?* The response to this question supplements the account in Chapter 2 of what we knew in advance about the CPD provision by drawing on the teacher-coded responses under the general theme of the nature of provision of CPD both within the university and externally. It further tackles the major theme of teacher attitudes to CPD provision, with particular focus on the institutionally run CPD programme, the use by university management of observation as a CPD tool and the provision of internal CPD opportunities vis-à-vis the provision of support for staff wishing to access external training, as illustrated in Table 5.2.

**Table 5.2: CPD activities delivered by KSU-PY and teacher attitudes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPD opportunities provided to PYP English language teachers and teachers’ views of them</th>
<th>Accreditation compliance and compulsory CPD attendance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In-house CPD events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appropriateness of the university’s CPD venue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Perceived value of CPD sessions and workshops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Induction week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relevance to the classroom: Theory and practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The institution’s failure to involve teachers in deciding what CPD it should provide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.2.1 CPD opportunities provided to PYP English language teachers and teachers’ views of them**

As described in Chapter 2, there are at least three strands to the university’s CPD provision: the weekly workshops or sessions and CPD week, the
induction week, and observations by lead teachers from the PD unit, considered in more detail in Section 5.3.1.5, which are also regarded as part of the university’s CPD strategy. However, although around the world CPD observations are usually carried out informally by peers, it should be clarified at this stage that teachers in the context of the present research often understood observations to mean the formal and judgemental observations conducted by inspectors.

Before examining the regular internal CPD sessions, I shall discuss the accreditation compliance that the university was attempting to attain and the compulsory CPD attendance that it imposed on the teaching staff.

5.2.1.1 Accreditation compliance and compulsory CPD attendance

As was explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.2, the management of the Quality Unit at KSU has made it mandatory for all teachers to attend CPD, to participate in CPD weeks and to comply with the buzz observation sessions, as part of the university’s measures in support of its seeking of international accreditation. John stated in interview that there were “usually six or seven compulsory one-hour sessions each semester”, while Patrick offered the opinion that PD should be “entirely voluntary”. These comments and other interview data make it clear that making CPD compulsory and linking it to PMA created an environment in which CPD had become a chore. Teachers participated because they had to, rather than for the importance that they perceived to be inherent in their own personal and professional development. Many interviewees saw accreditation compliance as a major reason for the way the programme was run:
It is top down, I think it could be more two-way and [in] the whole programme there’s too much emphasis on compliance. You can tell that … they keep doing things for accreditation, not for the intrinsic value of things, and I think often the PD thing is about ticking boxes rather than … the end results … what people [get] from it (Mike).

It should be noted that seeking accreditation, through formal recognition, may be regarded as contradictory to the CPD concept of teachers identifying their own professional needs and evaluating how these should be met. Bearing this in mind, John, an accreditation coordinator, explained that the university had made CPD mandatory to meet a certain criterion for obtaining accreditation from an American institution, a situation which Patrick criticised for its negative consequences:

I can understand why they say you have to attend … to meet certain criteria, … but I do think if you force professional development on somebody there is a certain attitude towards it which can be negative.

Adam was among other interviewees who felt that whatever the intrinsic benefits of the CPD sessions, coercing teachers to attend was likely to make them uninterested in CPD or even resistant to it. The threat of punishment for absence would make attendance joyless and unrewarding. Indeed, compulsion contributed to a perception of CPD as aiming not to enable teacher development but to control teachers. This was exacerbated by teachers’ perceived lack of input to the CPD programme. In addition to being unclear as to the strategic objectives of the CPD programme, participants did not feel that they had the opportunity to identify the areas where they might
require CPD, nor to offer feedback on the current CPD provision or to engage in dialogue with management to set mutually beneficial objectives.

5.2.1.2 In-house CPD events

Among the in-house CPD events that interviewees had participated in were workshops and sessions that were perceived by some to be immediately applicable to their teaching or the projects that they were involved in designing. For instance, as Tom and Faisal explained,

> It's not perfect but it's a good one and there are a lot of opportunities for me, which I have taken to improve as a teacher. The CPD here has improved me as a classroom teacher at my job here and it's qualifying me … to get a job in another institution … around the world (Tom).

> [The] staff are able to contribute towards the central CPD programme by delivering their own presentations. As such, many of the CPD sessions on offer are delivered internally by lead teachers or other teachers as in-house CPD events (Faisal).

It transpired that attendance at such sessions was not in fact obligatory for all English teachers, since those delivering at least one session themselves were excused:

> If you give a PD workshop, you don't have to attend any, which kind of defeats the purpose of having PD. If I am not going to benefit from anybody else's knowledge, all I have to do is just give a presentation, then I am exempted from any PD. That doesn't really make much sense to me (James).
There are several plausible explanations for this policy. It may be that while the university authorities saw a value in attendance at CPD events, they placed a greater value on benefiting from internally provided input to these events. Alternatively, they may have judged that for a teacher who gives a PD workshop, his or her preparation for that event will constitute a form of PD in itself. A final possible justification would be the argument that if someone is experienced enough to prepare and deliver a PD session, this constitutes evidence that their own level of professional development is ipso facto sufficiently elevated for that teacher to be exempt from automatic compulsory attendance.

None of the above arguments seems entirely convincing, however, and they do nothing to dispel the impression that the university had established a CPD system which might be regarded as superficial, since it did not take adequate account of teachers’ developmental needs. An analysis of the findings implies the need for an overhaul of the system in order to grant the teachers greater flexibility and responsibility for their professional development. The evidence suggests that the university did not see its CPD as providing value for the teachers and teaching, but rather as an administrative requirement to be fulfilled. This would be consistent with the earlier interpretation of its motivation as being related more to international accreditation than to a belief in the intrinsic value of CPD.

Indeed, elaborating on the implications of the university’s policy of exemption from CPD attendance, some teachers suggested that the institution was not interested in developing teachers, but only in the day to day running of its operations. It was quite a common view among teachers that the CPD
programme did not help them to progress and develop, being more concerned with process than with product. Thus, John described it as “not creative”, but “mostly about processes and procedures to follow. It’s quite regimented… and I can understand why.”

Others seemed satisfied with the questionable compromise between CPD to help teachers and CPD just to fulfil management requirements:

_They expect me to attend at least three PD sessions per semester. I attend more like five or six. … I think what they expect from me is to try to do the best job I can and try to improve as a teacher. So far I have encountered almost entirely reasonable expectations_ (Tom).

All participants appeared to perceive CPD as a commitment which the institution expected them to take seriously and consider part of their job, whatever the content might be. They were also aware of minimum attendance requirements. As will be further explored elsewhere, mandatory attendance at CPD events was directly linked to the university’s assessment of staff performance; therefore, attendance was a well-established institutional expectation. However, the institution’s PD objectives were not entirely clear to the participants; for example, Adam said: “I don’t know what they expect in terms of my professional growth.”

A more positive perception was the following:

_The formal requirement is … to attend a certain number of workshops each semester and also go to a PD week at some point during the academic year, either January or March. I think there’s also a kind of_
unspoken expectation that you develop as a teacher. They certainly encourage you, which is good, to study on your own and read on your own and share resources amongst yourselves as teachers [and] help each other out ... (Mike).

This interview response is important, since it emphasises that taking responsibility for one’s own professional development is part of CPD which can be achieved through cooperation with one’s peers. Mike also explained that such informal CPD, as opposed to formal and external training, had recently been introduced by a new manager who wanted to identify ways of getting the best out of his teachers; he was seeking to establish it as a permanent aspect of teacher’s duties and to be recorded in a CPD log for personal reinforcement.

5.2.1.3 Appropriateness of the university’s CPD venue

One theme that emerged from the interview data was a perception that the venue for CPD presentations, the university’s Active Learning Zone was inappropriate because of repeated interruptions:

> When they have a [CPD] presentation in the ALZ, it’s chaos, because students can come in there, teachers can come in there to check their boxes. This is really chaotic (James).

5.2.1.4 Perceived value of CPD sessions and workshops

This subsection considers interviewees’ perceptions of the content and format of CPD sessions. Among the weekly in-house CPD events that interviewees had participated in, there were some sessions on teaching English that they
perceived to be immediately applicable to their teaching, such as classroom management, or to projects that they were involved in designing. Other activities that were highlighted were assistance in developing an approach to work that is reflective, increasing knowledge and skills through the use of resources, plus learning and sharing from one's peers.

Topics that interviewees considered useful and relevant to their teaching included “teaching language, reading and teaching study skills” (Deniz), “classroom management” and “developing teaching materials” (Faisal), “teaching methods such as the grammar translation method and the communicative method” (Patrick), “lesson planning” (Patrick), “teaching punctuation and phonetics” (Kelly and Roger) and “operating the online learning tools” provided at the university (Adam). Some participants saw CPD in these areas not just as a reflection of teachers’ professional development needs, but also as a response to the needs of students; Kelly noted that students often came to classes poorly prepared but “with a big smile on their face” as if to say “I am here, fill me up”.

In addition to these positive comments, a number of criticisms were made of content, presentation and format. First, there were a number of areas which participants felt to be inadequately covered, including teaching students with learning difficulties and balancing knowledge of subject matter with pedagogical knowledge. Another complaint often made by interviewees was that the topics chosen were irrelevant to the concerns of teachers. Thus, Gary objected that too much time was spent on theoretical linguistics, which he considered of no value to language learning. Topics were sometimes described as being chosen and imposed from the top down by the
management of the PD unit, which appears vague and suggests decision makers who are out of touch with the practical application of CPD. A bureaucracy often exists where outside providers are brought in without consultation with the teachers themselves. Such problems are likely to arise when teachers are not properly involved in selecting CPD topics relevant to their needs.

A related criticism concerned the overall rationale and syllabus of the CPD programme, whereby external service providers were brought in by unaccountable senior management to repeat a fixed programme over and over again:

It’s built for a factory, not for human beings. It’s based on the premise that people will stay one or two years only, and it’s one size fits all. So even if you are a returner and you’ve done the same training the year before, you still do it (John).

Another participant (Ben) complained that only some of the workshops were “competently delivered.” One aspect of delivery criticised by a number of interviewees was the tendency for presenters to simply read PowerPoint slides aloud. The format of the sessions was also questioned. Patrick noted an important distinction:

Some of the weekly sessions may be considered as workshops insofar as they are more interactive and the audience is asked to contribute via small group discussions, whereas others may be delivered like a lecture, without that degree of interaction.
For James, the lecture format was too often applied, so that teachers attending such sessions were expected to remain passive instead of participating actively. He felt that so-called workshops were provided simply to tick the relevant boxes and were therefore ineffective. He also complained that some were “just so incredibly complicated that nobody understands them.”

These criticisms raise the issue of who trains the educators, which is especially relevant with respect to the outside providers. The lack of management accountability and communication further compounds this issue. Another participant, Roger, reported that a presenter had told his audience “to buy a kazoo in order to develop the right kind of pitch and tone. You try doing music in a class in Saudi …. It’s nonsense the stuff that we are offered.” In addition to the incompetency that is regularly associated with the provision of universal training, such comments draw attention to the fact that training is often not in alignment with cultural and religious expectations such as avoiding the inclusion of music. Again, this suggests a lack of professional standards being achieved by senior management and the providers of training, including outside contractors.

There were thus both positive and negative perceptions of the value of the PYP CPD sessions at KSU. Overall, interviewees were qualified in their praise for this form of CPD, as exemplified by Tom’s assessment, cited in Section 5.2.1.2: “It’s not perfect but it’s a good one.”
5.2.1.5 Induction week

When EFL teachers arrive at the PYP unit at the beginning of the academic year, they attend an induction week, during which a variety of events are held to orient and welcome new teachers. Aspects of CPD are included, with some emphasis on the requirement for teachers to work flexibly with each other in order to learn from one another and develop professionally. However, the primary aims of the induction week are to inform new arrivals of the institution’s history, to describe the roles of the different departments and to outline the duties and expectations of the teachers. Nevertheless, the institution considers this to be a CPD week.

Roger described it as “awful” to have to “sit through an hour of people congratulating themselves about how good their department is … It’s not professional development.” Others pointed out that even experienced members of staff had to attend the same induction sessions year after year, which caused resistance and clearly illustrates how this practice by management negatively affected their PD experience.

Some interviewees conceded that the induction had some CPD elements, but were critical of the accuracy of the content. Roger and Majed both felt that their long experience of the country allowed them to see the weakness of culturally-based materials delivered by people with little knowledge of Saudi Arabia. For Majed, real life in the country was far more varied than the accounts given in CPD sessions, which were “just theory”. Comments such as these offer a perspective that opposes the concepts of universalism and essentialism. In other words, a ‘one size fits all’ strategy is not appropriate in
the modern era, especially as members of the new generation of Saudis now have significantly more understanding of other cultures and other ways of doing things. Travelling abroad, globalisation and the growth of the internet have contributed greatly to the development of such an understanding among today’s Saudi citizens.

Finally, there were echoes of the views of the weekly CPD; participants believed that the management saw induction as a required exercise rather than something with a genuine pedagogical purpose:

Management here does not care whether it [induction week] is sufficient or not (Albert).

It’s from a negative perspective, it’s like what’s not allowed, not what works, and again it’s going back to this whole regimented mentality here, to deal with the poorer teachers (John).

5.2.1.6 Relevance to the classroom: Theory and practice

During the interviews, teachers explicitly stated a need for CPD that was relevant to the classroom. Many felt that the CPD programme was too theoretical and therefore of limited practical relevance:

I have attended many PD workshops here, but unfortunately most of the topics are not something that we can relate to [the classroom] ... For example, we just attended a workshop recently and it was ... very well presented, good information, but how do we translate that … to the classroom? That was the component that was missing (James).

This lack of relevance made teachers reluctant to take part in the CPD programme. It is obvious that these teachers wanted and needed something
more closely related to their classroom practice, rather than to theory. Sharply and artificially divorcing practice from theory has been a prominent aspect of CPD as delivered to PYP EFL teachers at KSU. Learning theory and knowledge that are not directly relevant to what and how teachers are going to teach may not contribute to professional growth. In a related criticism, John talked of receiving “big instructions” such as “you must keep them in till the very end” or “they mustn’t have their mobiles on”, which did not amount to practical training in classroom management.

While these interview responses highlight the perceived irrelevance of many CPD sessions to the classroom and to teachers’ needs, there was also a recognition of some more relevant ones. Thus, Patrick remarked that “it is really interesting to walk away with something that can be used in my classroom.”

5.2.2 The institution’s failure to involve teachers in making decisions about what CPD it should provide

In response to interview questions on teachers’ involvement in deciding the form and content of CPD provided by the institution, participants stated that they were not happy about not being involved. Most declared that they had not been asked to voice their views on the current CPD programme since its introduction, and the same applied to the current year. Rather, as described in Chapter 2, Section 2.5, the CPD sessions, their topics, nature, frequency, times etc. were decided by the management of the PD unit. Adam stated that teachers had “not had any input in this as far as I know, as I haven’t been involved in it.” Importantly, he added that there was “no type of evaluation of such sessions.” Thus, those who provided the sessions were apparently not
interested in how useful they would be perceived to be by the audience at which they were aimed.

One typical response made clear the perceived value of involving teachers:

*Teachers are not properly involved in the English department’s operation and decision making processes. When the heads include the teachers in the decision making, it boosts morale* (Mike).

There was evidence of some involvement, but only of a few senior employees:

*Only the ELD [English Language Department] head of PYP and his senior staff [make] decisions. Teachers in most cases are just told what to do without consulting us on our own CPD* (Nigel).

The above excerpts show evidence of an important subtheme: that participants described the failure by the management to ensure that decisions were made collaboratively as lowering their morale. Furthermore, this failure to share involvement and responsibility appeared to extend beyond decisions about CPD sessions to decisions about most things that concerned teachers, such as the syllabus, choice of textbooks, etc. It can be clearly seen that teachers felt marginalised. However, this is probably not directly related to CPD itself or to the PYP unit, but merely reflects the nature of this institutional environment.

If teachers were involved in decision making, they might feel valued and needed, not only for their classroom and CPD activities, but also beyond the goals set. Leithwood and Riehl (2003, p. 4) postulate that “responsibility is shared to maximise ownership and accountability”. Thus, teachers can work together to create a team atmosphere and to achieve the goals of the
organisation, regardless of its nature and uniqueness. It can also be deduced that teachers wanted to feel valued as professionals and to take part in making decisions related directly to their teaching. Such a leadership style is described as coaching, which “boosts not just employees’ capabilities but also their self-confidence, helping them function both more autonomously and at a higher performance level” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 62). Therefore, teachers believed that contributing to making decisions on relevant issues, as individuals or in teams, could protect their department from low morale.

Finally, what follows from low morale is likely to be a lack of commitment. As one teacher said, “My commitment has declined as I don’t feel that I have the room to take part in the decision making process.” This constitutes yet further damage done by the lack of involvement of the teachers in making decisions about matters that directly concern them, since lack of commitment is likely to impact directly on the classroom performance of all members of the teaching staff and so on the success of the actual teaching of English.

A contrasting view was, however, expressed by one of the participants, who addressed the question of commitment, morale and responsibility for making decisions from the perspective of “our heads, coordinators and lead teachers”, arguing that they were right to consider the needs of the students before those of the teachers and that by doing so, they might “not please everyone”, although he assessed teachers’ morale in the department to be “not too bad”. This interviewee did concede that “involving teachers in CPD related matters would be very positive”, but what is significant here is the apparently reasonable justification given by this teacher for the argument in favour of a
predominantly top down structure of decision making and its relatively minor effect on commitment, bearing in mind the cultural context of an institutional system in which such a top down approach is commonly taken.

5.3 Challenges teachers see as facing them in doing CPD

Teachers identified several factors as constituting challenges to their engagement in CPD. Therefore, this section attempts to answer the third research question, as to the nature of the challenges that PYP teachers perceived themselves as facing in their attempts to engage in CPD. Table 5.3 illustrates the three main themes emerging from the data on this topic: internal or institutional factors, external or non-institutional factors and personal factors. Each of these themes is discussed in turn below.

Table 5.3: CPD challenges reported as facing PYP teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges teachers see as facing them in doing CPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal or institutional factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional CPD culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD-related reduction in holidays and remuneration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top-down approach and centralised control of CPD and of teaching in general</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced standards of perfection and excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD as an instrument for policing and scapegoating of teaching staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of institutional CPD provision and professionalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional impact on wider CPD access and opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional policies on contracts and related issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External or non-institutional factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa issues and implications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher fatique due to living in the KSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The recruitment agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal factors: Age</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3.1 Internal or institutional factors

The participating teachers perceived the majority of obstacles to their engagement in CPD as being situated at the institutional level. These obstacles included the university’s whole approach to CPD (its CPD culture),
the nature of the CPD provided and the facilitation of CPD beyond the university. Other factors in the hands of the university which were seen to play a role included the prescribed teaching syllabus and teachers' job contracts. All of these emerged as affecting teachers’ desire to engage in institutionally provided CPD and/or their ability to do so.

5.3.1.1 Institutional CPD culture

As noted above, teachers perceived the institutional culture as inappropriately dominated by basic concerns of management, teacher evaluation and accreditation compliance, instead of focusing non-judgmentally on teacher development and pedagogical issues. This, combined with the top down approach, was seen to present the greatest challenge to teachers’ attempts to engage in the CPD activities provided.

Although the university invited distinguished external speakers to present CPD sessions, many EFL teachers participating in the research considered that it had failed to create a suitable environment for their professional development:

There isn’t a climate of professional learning here, where people are happy to do it. The last PD week there was a little bit more of a positive mood but again every day, everything was a plenary, it was compulsory, therefore it was all controlled (Adam).

As noted in Section 5.2.1.1, participants were particularly critical of mandatory attendance at CPD sessions and the link to PMA, which they saw as serving the institution’s desire for international accreditation rather than teachers’ CPD
needs. John, an accreditation coordinator, explained why CPD was mandatory:

*My role is basically to coordinate responses from the English programme so that it gets international accreditation from an American institution and this is why teachers must sign in for CPD sessions.*

Whatever the justification, coercing teachers to attend CPD sessions by threatening to punish non-attendance appears to have caused resistance among teachers, who lacked any pleasure or interest in those CPD sessions. There was also evidence of a sense of injustice that any teacher who missed a session while providing classroom cover for an absent colleague had to attend another CPD session instead. The element of compulsion contributed to a sense that CPD as provided by KSU was intended not to enable teacher development but to control teachers. This feeling was exacerbated by the teachers’ perceived lack of input to the CPD programme. As already mentioned, participants were unclear as to the strategic objectives of the CPD programme. Furthermore, they felt that they had no say in identifying the areas where they might require CPD, nor the opportunity to give feedback on the current CPD provision or to discuss mutually beneficial objectives with management.

**5.3.1.2 CPD related reduction in holidays and remuneration**

Another institutional factor relates to the turning of holidays into professional development sessions. Of the two half term institutional CPD weeks each year, teachers were allowed to take one as holiday, but had to attend PD sessions during the other. Interview data indicate that this was generally
perceived as unwelcome, inconvenient and unproductive, especially for the more experienced teachers:

*We used to have sixty days paid holiday, now we get thirty days … and [although] there are no students you have to come in and … do one week of CPD* (Hatim).

*For someone like me who has been here from the beginning … that’s a holiday taken away from me* (Ben).

Hence, unwanted changes to the provision of CPD are seen to have had an unwanted negative impact on entitlement to holidays and remuneration, resulting in some resistance amongst staff who had suffered a loss of paid holiday.

### 5.3.1.3 Top down approach and centralised control of CPD and of teaching in general

The third institutional factor which teachers identified by their interview responses as affecting their work and lives was the university’s top down approach and centralised control of training and learning, manifested not only in their unilateral control of the CPD sessions and CPD weeks but also in the imposition of certain teaching approaches, together with an unwelcome degree of scrutiny of teachers’ classroom practices. This centralising strategy was also evident in the making of decisions related to CPD provision:

*They once had some surveys as feedback but in fact I just believe they did things because they need to be done and that’s it* (Majed).
Top down. We get told this is what you must do every semester. If you don’t, you will be under review (Patrick).

Teachers also complained of too little contact with managers and too few opportunities to discuss classroom issues. Thus, Harry wished for better communication with “the higher management … or even the middle management … I’d just like to sit and chat.”

The majority of PYP teachers said that their methods of teaching and their desire for change were influenced by the increased rate of monitoring and were now far from good practice. For example, Adam noted “a big gap” between the “top down” “mess” of the PYP and the “good teaching practice” that would go with a “positive institutional culture”.

The excerpts above illustrate the impact that a hierarchical and top down approach to management can have on teachers’ motivation to participate in CPD, as well as their perception of their ability to teach their classes effectively. If teachers feel that they have no say in their professional development, this leads to them to disengage and resist control to gain empowerment:

I go into a PD and there are [teachers who] don’t have enough respect for the presenter to shut their computers, to turn off their phones. What does this tell you about this environment? It could be ways of resisting (Patrick).
5.3.1.4 Reduced standards of perfection and excellence

Teachers articulated their frustration at not being able to meet their professional goals. For example, some felt that their job was made much harder because their students were not engaged or motivated. One teacher said: “Meeting my own high expectations used to [give me] a large amount of job satisfaction.” Obviously, teachers are motivated by their love for the teaching profession if dealing with responsive students, since their job involves dealing with people, which gives this profession a sense of responsibility and of being important. Nonetheless, teachers’ frustration because of loss of control and autonomy has been mentioned in previous research (Rhodes, Nevill, & Allan, 2004).

5.3.1.5 CPD as an instrument for policing and scapegoating of teaching staff

Allied to this lack of autonomy both in determining what sort of CPD should be provided by the KSU-PY and in deciding on the syllabus, textbooks and teaching methods employed for the actual lessons, was many participants’ perception of CPD as serving the institution as a means by which it could police and scapegoat its teaching staff. Roger felt that the PD department had identified the teachers “as a soft target [who] must be blamed.” Other teachers believed that they were treated as scapegoats when assessed on the basis of observation by less qualified people, then blamed and punished. They were also unfairly held responsible for students’ failures, according to Patrick, who complained that it was seen as “the teacher’s fault if something goes wrong in the students’ education.” Instead, he believed that the problem should be
seen as one of motivation, which was lacking because neither the students nor their parents had to pay for the PYP courses. On the same point, James argued that students should be seen as responsible for their own success; responsibility “should come from the bottom, but it has to be a personal motivation to want to come to school.”

The excerpts above point towards a local approach to education unique to the context of the study, where the responsibility for student learning was seen to lie with the teacher, rather than with the learners themselves. In this context, poor attendance at institutional CPD events and/or a perceived lack of commitment to this provision was seen as another way in which teachers could be blamed for students’ unsatisfactory levels of achievement. In fact, as previously noted, some participants (including James and Patrick) felt that students wielded considerably more power and control in the classroom than the teachers themselves, who, as discussed in Sections 5.1.3.2 and 5.1.3.3, were subject to ‘policing’ by classroom observers. A criticism of the inspection regime pertinent to the present theme is that it was seen as not constructive and as reflecting the institution’s general culture. According to Roger, observation is intrinsically beneficial, but was being “used as a weapon here”. For him, the use of the assessment terms ‘good’ and ‘inadequate’ indicated a judgemental attitude. Instead of an objective evaluation of “professional expertise or … professional attainment within the classroom, they use ‘inadequate’, which is a moral kind of judgement on whether your character is fitting in terms of being a teacher.”

Another teacher, Tom, also complained of a PYP environment that was critical, judgemental and expecting failure:
Our dress codes are looked at and so on. I know we are in a conservative culture and a conservative place, but the whole tenor of the forms that are used are censorious and judgemental and expecting failures, … as opposed to expecting, encouraging, looking at the expertise which is available, which is there...

There is a sense in which teachers saw themselves as not trusted and therefore not given the autonomy necessary to develop their own teaching practices. As a result, instead of being “experienced as a growing opportunity” (Adam), CPD further “demotivates staff” (Patrick).

5.3.1.6 The quality of institutional CPD provision and professionalism

The varied quality of the actual CPD provision was also considered a challenge in terms of its effect on the motivation for staff to take part in the centrally provided CPD programme. This includes the content of CPD sessions, the quality of the speakers and trainers, as well as the administration and management of the programme. One of the aspects that participants found frustrating with respect to the content of current CPD provision was their inability to apply this new knowledge. They saw this as perhaps resulting from overly theoretical content, as this response by Harry shows:

I don’t like too much theory. I just tend to like help, you know, tips about how to teach something better, something more practical. I like the pragmatic stuff. (Harry)
James stated that he would be happy to attend a presentation of academic material, such as a report of a PhD study, but that it must be presented as such, so that teachers were not frustrated by the realisation that what they were learning could not be directly applied to the classroom:

[If] somebody is presenting data from some type of research project… and … I know it is not intended to be something for the class… I certainly would be interested .... But if it’s sold as something that is going to be helping me in the classroom and then I go and it’s not helping me in my classroom, then I am frustrated.

More succinctly, Majed said that he needed “something to benefit from … to use with my students”, while Tom complained that the CPD on offer would not “make a better English teacher out of me and is not interesting.” These data indicate that participants were disappointed by CPD material that was not directly applicable in the classroom and that making such training compulsory reduced further their motivation to attend. Alongside this, there was a sense in which more interactive sessions would be better received by participants.

Another common denominator among participants in this study was that the CPD provision, given its lack of applicability, was tokenistic and did not contribute to teachers’ development. Thus, Kevin asserted that institution was “all about check boxes”, rather than ensuring that workshops would “translate to the classroom”, the result being “ineffective” CPD. James stated that teachers, being aware of the poor quality of the training, would also only be attending “so that the check box gets ticked.” All in all, participants expressed the perception that some of the CPD provision as it stood was ineffective,
irrelevant and a waste of time, exacerbated by the expectation that they would attend CPD sessions simply to fulfil minimum requirements, regardless of whether or not they had any real impact on learning and teaching.

5.3.1.7 Institutional impact on wider CPD access and opportunities

The data indicate that teachers with experience of academia or TEFL outside Saudi Arabia were struck by the contrasting situation at the participating university, where their access to teacher learning resources and their opportunities to pursue external training and qualifications were limited. Access to information both within and beyond the institutional boundaries was described as an issue of concern. For example, Adam was unable to attend a workshop in Dallas and could not even “go to a bookshop and buy books … access to the information … is one of the challenges here. … PYP doesn’t even access the online database.” Patrick was also unhappy about internet access:

I want to get online and access journals and nobody has been able to tell me how, and I think for a university that should be like one of the priorities that you have access to information and it seems it is not as available here as it should be.

This, then, is a sign of a teacher wanting to organise his own self-development activities independent of the CPD provided, through reading books, consulting online publications and so on. The teachers were used to overcoming very severe obstacles and dealing with daily hardships, precisely because they operated in a specific context with limited resources for teachers to undertake independent research to support their ongoing learning.
One limiting contextual factor in Saudi Arabia which participants identified was that even simple information about local CPD events was not made available. Gary complained that conferences in Riyadh, for example, were “not publicised. It’s very difficult to hear about these things… This could be improved by the university doing research, compiling a list of events going on in the country and the region.”

For all of the above reasons, Saudi Arabia was seen to be somewhat isolated in terms of staff being able to access learning resources to develop as EFL teachers. At the same time, King Saud University had not, within its own boundaries, developed systems to enable or encourage staff to access information on their own initiative. The employment of non-English speaking staff is likely to be a contributing factor to such issues if they do exist. At the same time, participants were not confident that they would be supported by the institution to pursue external training which they themselves had identified as necessary; Adam stated that the particular challenges to “pursuing … the professional development that I want to do” were “distance, money I suppose, being funded.” He and other participants would value the opportunity to have institutional support when attending external training, including through funding and paid time off, which was not made available to them.

5.3.1.8 Institutional policies on contracts and related issues

The university’s employment policies could also be seen to have an impact on teachers’ willingness to engage in CPD in the first place. Job security appeared to be the foremost concern for many teachers working at this institution. One participant, John, did express an apparent minority view that
job security was “normally OK, apart from people get very worried about buzz observations from the PD department.” Overall, however, the data indicate that participants felt dispensable, given the high turnover of staff within the institution and the precariousness of their contracts of employment:

I think it’s because it’s so big, and you’re just a drifting number in amongst the masses. Who really cares? We often hear of people just leaving and the response is ‘Oh, another one left. Don’t worry, we’ll get another one to replace them.’ It’s awful. You want a high retention rate and it doesn’t seem to exist here (Patrick).

Tom made plain the effect on teachers’ morale of the high turnover, stating that “it really turns to a feeling of insecurity here.” Similarly, the relation of high turnover to job dissatisfaction is illustrated by Adam’s rhetorical questions: “Will I even have a job next week? Am I going to get paid next month? That is not something I should have to think about.”

Analysis of the data therefore reveals the unstable and adverse working conditions in which PYP EFL teachers were called to operate. Many teachers talked about job stability and continuity, last minute contract renewal and their feelings of insecurity, as illustrated by this excerpt:

For job continuity, well it was a disaster … Every year it’s the last day in the last month before the university starts that we know that our contracts are renewed. So … there is no job stability at all here, because … the companies are not stable and … we’ve got the contracts with the companies… (Majed).
There is clear evidence in the interview responses of the importance to teachers of job security and continuity. The precariousness of their employment appears to have led to stress and poor staff retention, both of which have had a detrimental effect on the ability and motivation of teaching staff to engage in meaningful CPD. Therefore, although the interviewees did not specifically state a belief that job insecurity had affected their CPD, it can be reasoned that this is likely to have been the case. This inference would be consistent with Maslow’s (1954) assertion that teachers would have a hierarchy of needs within their professional lives. The attainment of a salary, good working conditions and employment benefits are examples of such needs, followed by the need to feel secure. The present study has also found that the participants expressed a need for such security.

5.3.2 External or non-institutional factors

Analysis of the data indicates that the ability of teaching staff to fully engage with CPD was also adversely affected by stress related to the working conditions for foreign nationals teaching EFL in Saudi Arabia. This section deals with four factors identified as contributing towards this work related stress: visa issues, living conditions, fatigue and the employment agencies.

5.3.2.1 Visa issues and implications

The dominant subtheme emerging from this interview topic was that of visas. Some teachers explained that an important factor limiting travel from Saudi Arabia to CPD events in other countries was the visa system, which is discussed in detail in this section. The instability of employment was found to be exacerbated by the bureaucracy in Saudi Arabia and the destabilising
effect of visa and immigration issues on foreign members of staff. The interview data indicate that the majority of the foreign staff, even those coming to Saudi Arabia to teach for a year or longer, were only able to get a business visa for three months at a time, rather than entering on a work visa and therefore being granted an *iqama*, which is a residence permit valid for one or two years and issued to expatriates entering the KSA on an employment visa. After three renewals, teachers entering on a business visa were required to leave the country in order to obtain a new one. This was also necessary when transferring employment from one contractor within the university to another, according to Deniz, whose new employer promised an iqama but repeatedly sent him to Bahrain to renew his visa.

As discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.8, converting a teacher’s visa into an iqama was found to be difficult or impossible. Nigel was sent to London to obtain a visa so that he could be granted an iqama, but after two weeks it was cancelled. “I paid for my flights, for my visa, for everything and I didn’t get back to Saudi for five weeks and they did not pay me for those five weeks.” Patrick “discovered that this visa just gets extended all the time,” while Albert argued that the companies or agencies which technically employ the teachers whom they supply to the university, as explained in Chapter 2 (Section 2.7), should not “be allowed to bring people out here without giving them iqamas right from the start.” For Ali, the most important aspects of the visa problem were family life and finance:

> [First,] *my wife couldn’t come over to the Kingdom ... and another problem which other teachers are having is sending money back home.*

> *With this type of visa you are not allowed to open a bank account nor*
able to send money abroad … because a lot of money remittance agencies … would not accept the … 90 day visa.”

Teachers without a bank account had to be paid in cash, a demeaning procedure which prompted this sarcastic remark from Patrick: “On payday we stand in a queue and they hand us our money in an envelope. Doesn’t that make you feel great?”

To summarise, the excerpts above reveal the great impact which visa difficulties had on some teachers and their families. It should be noted that this was not within the control of the institution, as it would be the Labour Ministry that established the rules and regulations with respect to the issuing of visas to foreign workers. However, the way teachers are paid as described above is entirely the responsibility of the university. In addition, most of the staff were recruited by agencies, which may have fostered expectations which institutions on the ground did not have the capacity to meet. It is to be expected that such disappointments would impact on teachers’ motivation to pursue CPD, as discussed in Chapter 6 (Section 6.4.2). The following remark made by James is rather telling in this matter: “You can’t separate CPD from any of these other things that are happening”.

5.3.2.2 Living conditions

Another factor beyond the control of the institution which may have had a detrimental impact on the wellbeing of expatriate members of staff was their living conditions. Five or six teachers would often share a house in the poorer areas of the city. Some external suppliers of teachers and institutions would provide quality housing units for teachers on a security-guarded compound.
Most commonly, however, interviewees reported that accommodation standards were very poor, which affected their motivation and ability to work.

*In Saudi, we live in revolting hotels which are really doss houses, horrible places, seedy, cockroach-ridden dumps. … even the best of it provided by the companies is … really dreadful* (Albert).

Others, such as Max, found that lack of cooking facilities “*and having to eat fast food all the time and just survive from day to day*” was demotivating, whereas Tom was satisfied with the hotel accommodation provided for him: “*There is enough in a hotel, I mean I’m not expecting a luxury suite*…”.

On the whole, teachers appeared to be seriously dissatisfied with their accommodation and demotivated by this, the implication being that this will have added to the obstacles to their participation in CPD activities. However, this is also the responsibility of the university, which seems to have failed in assuring the minimum acceptable standard of living conditions for its teachers. This also means that in turn students’ learning experiences were not taken seriously, since bad living conditions would affect teachers’ morale and thus, at least indirectly, their classroom performance.

### 5.3.2.3 Teacher fatigue due to living in the KSA

A final external factor that teachers mentioned was the fatigue that arose from certain aspects of living in a different culture. Simply struggling with unfamiliarity on many levels at once (language, culture, religion, food, geography, climate and so on) was perceived to be very tiring, as Tom explained:
Although everybody’s kind to me here, it is a little bit difficult for a man from the Niagara region in Canada to come out to the desert, especially with a very different culture, and that can make me fatigued sometimes at work.

5.3.2.4 The recruitment agencies

The issues which were covered in Sections 5.3.2.1 and 5.3.2.2 both tangentially involve the recruitment agencies which the university uses as a means to employ foreign staff. Both visa problems and some difficulties with living conditions could probably be ameliorated, if not actually solved, by ensuring that the agencies played a fully developed role. This could take the form of supplying teachers with proper information about these matters prior to arrival, or better still actually helping with them after arrival.

In fact, far from playing such a positive role in making the teachers’ lives more comfortable, it is apparent that the agencies were not always effective even in what would be seen as their core roles, these being the recruitment process itself and, in the Saudi context, handling the payment of the staff whom they had recruited to work at the university. The agencies’ failures in the first respect will be dealt with in Section 5.4.5. With respect to the latter, one teacher complained of waiting three months “for expenses and promised holiday pay” and that errors in payment were “tiring and unnecessary”. Another summed the situation up by referring to the agencies as “incapable subcontractors”.

221
5.3.3 Personal factors: Age

The most significant personal factor to emerge from the interviews was age, which can be seen as a key issue in the field of teaching in this context. Older teachers seemed unenthusiastic, inhibited and not easily inspired in comparison to the younger ones, a finding which is consistent with that of Cameron (2001). Kevin’s explanation for his lack of interest in CPD is representative of the views of a number of his fellow teachers:

*I’m getting old and I’m aware I can’t do as much as I could when I was half my age and then the fatigue factor adds in and I’m very careful not to take on more than I can do, so that’s an impediment.*

John noted the need to consider payback in terms of both time and money, as CPD “would cost me a certain amount of money and I wouldn’t get the time back and life is too short.”

However, one older teacher (aged 68 years) did not see his advanced age as a hindrance to CPD, believing that it was always important to stay up to date:

*“I think it’s important to stay fresh because you build your career, you build it basically on the strength of your capability. PD makes you more capable.”*

In my opinion, age need not be an issue for teachers in general; it may be that in the context of this study, the interviewees did not feel adequately supported. Given that age was found to be a factor in these teachers’ motivation to engage in CPD, teaching and their professional development should be made more attractive, enjoyable and relevant to their context, so that all teachers, irrespective of age, would be happy in the job. The university should also ensure that teachers enjoy adequate CPD workshops so that both
experienced and inexperienced members of staff would benefit and feel motivated as teachers.

5.3.4 Section summary

To summarise this section on the challenges facing teachers in engaging in CPD, most participants did not appear satisfied with the role played by the management of their institution in providing continuous professional development for EFL teachers. Some went further, complaining that the university did nothing to develop their teaching skills. Many justifiably wondered how they could focus on professional development and improvement while being uncertain whether they would still be in employment the next day, because of the as yet unresolved visa problem. Other teachers evaluated the performance of their institution’s administration in providing CPD for EFL teachers as ‘below average’. The next section presents some suggestions which teachers made for improving CPD provision.

5.4 Teachers’ suggestions for best practice in CPD provision

This section reports findings relevant to answering the fourth and final research question: What suggestions do teachers have on how they can best be helped to continue to develop? The data was coded under one major theme of how best the EFL teachers felt they could be helped by the institution to continue to develop and improve. The interview responses (illustrated in Table 5.4) included many interesting suggestions as to what the institution could do better, which are presented in turn under five sub-themes: 1) consulting and obtaining feedback from staff on their CPD provision; 2) addressing the quality of the CPD on offer; 3) encouraging and supporting
staff to attend external CPD; 4) developing a CPD culture and 5) improving initial selection of teachers. Most of these suggestions are naturally consistent with what they reported as challenges to their engagement with the CPD provided, as discussed throughout Section 5.3.

**Figure 5.4: Teachers’ suggestions for best practice in CPD provision**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ suggestions for best practice in CPD provision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consulting staff: listening to teachers’ voices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Mentoring to achieve better levels of professional development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Peer observation of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Needs analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The quality of CPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Making CPD relevant to the classroom and the real world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Better coordination and planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Supporting attendance at external conferences &amp; engaging external experts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Developing a more open and autonomous CPD culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Initial selection of teaching staff</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5.4.1 Consulting staff: listening to teachers’ voices**

It emerges from an analysis of the interview data that the single most important way in which teachers felt that the institution could improve CPD provision was by encouraging staff to establish their own priorities for CPD sessions, then by taking into account their feedback and opinions on the CPD sessions. Interviewees expressed a conviction that when training programmes were being planned, teachers’ and learners’ needs must be considered. James, for example, said:

> *I believe if they choose [to] get input from the teachers, [the management] should first ask teachers: What do you need? And then they address those specific needs in an effective way in … a workshop or a PD presentation.*

Ali complained that the existing feedback arrangements were ineffective:
Every single time I go to workshops I write on the … suggestion sheet [that] I would like to see a CPD session [on how to teach] low level humanities students, but no response!

It is clear from the excerpt above that teaching staff were very keen to engage in CPD sessions if this would address their priorities and needs. This more teacher centred approach to CPD, as indicated by Adam, would require the institution to enter into “a dialogue or communication” with staff and let this inform the CPD programme. Apart from teachers having input into the syllabus of the CPD training sessions and having their voices listened to, it was also suggested that after the sessions they should be able to give feedback that would be taken into account. Tom suggested that general feedback would also be useful:

I think that … at the end of every semester all teachers should write a paragraph where they earnestly state how they feel PD can be improved, but the management should first listen to these teachers.

Another advantage of eliciting teachers’ input would be to avoid the problem, alluded to in Section 5.2.1.1 and elsewhere, of teachers being obliged to attend CPD sessions that they perceived as being of little or no value to them. In Gary’s words, “teachers’ views and opinions need to be considered before making any kind of training obligatory, because the teachers are more aware of their strengths and weaknesses”. Their own judgements as to which activities would be likely to benefit them the most should at least be considered.
5.4.1.1 Mentoring to achieve better levels of professional development

One teacher made a more concrete suggestion about new arrangements: to encourage peer support, experienced teachers should be assigned to mentor new teachers and acquaint them with the institutional culture and working standards.

*It would be wonderful to have senior and experienced teachers who’ve been teaching for a long period of time in this university to mentor and provide further training and offer ideas* (Fayez).

Harry suggested in particular that coordinators and lead teachers, instead of simply monitoring fellow teachers and perpetuating the system, should work as mentors and should also gather feedback from teachers. Indeed, when interviewed, a number of experienced teachers showed their willingness to volunteer, as part of their own CPD, to mentor their less experienced teaching colleagues:

*To be a mentor teacher is very beneficial. In my situation I was a mentor teacher, so for six weeks I was not involved in the cover duty, because I would be busy mentoring. I found doing it has been very helpful for the new arrivals* (Tony).

Some other teachers mentioned that there used to be a mentoring programme which had been discontinued. They suggested that it should start again on a voluntary basis:

*Mentoring could take the form of optional meetings where teachers are allowed to get together to share these types of matters, or it could be*
Just a cultural group setup where people could arrive and share. That’s what I would recommend in such a big institution (Bob).

Thus, a range of suggestions were made for the enhancement of personal relationships among teachers as a form of CPD to support their development. Mentoring would take the form of an experienced colleague being willing and able to act as a confidential partner and guide to another professional, to inspire his development and make it more effective.

5.4.1.2 Peer observation of teaching

Another suggestion from some teachers for an addition to the types of CPD available was the idea that peer observation of teaching (POT) would be useful and relevant to teachers’ professional development and that it would be likely in turn to improve the quality of their teaching. These interviewees expressed positive feelings towards POT while rejecting the idea of being evaluated and assessed by their lead teachers or coordinators; in other words, by the management, as discussed in Section 5.1.3.2 and elsewhere in this chapter. The following excerpts illustrate this positive view of POT:

I see peer observation as useful and relevant to my teaching practice (John).

The observation should be to benefit the teacher, not to check on the teacher necessarily (Adam).

However, others were unsure whether POT would improve their teaching and were reluctant to take part. Gary warned that students in a class being observed “might think that something is going wrong between the teachers.”
This concern is not surprising in light of the existing observation regime for the PYP, which many teachers saw as evaluative and punitive, and which could prevent them from consulting with their peers.

5.4.1.3 Needs analysis

Teachers indicated that in order to improve EFL teaching and to ensure that it was effective, it would be necessary to meet their particular needs when designing the CPD activities. These needs would therefore have to be established by conducting a needs analysis, which would be very likely to include asking teachers what they thought their needs were (see Section 5.4.1). Some interviewees gave examples of their own perceived needs:

“I am interested in leadership, so maybe focusing more on educational leadership and … not too abstract but something that is practical and applicable …” (Hatim).

Tom was among those who expressed a need for additional support from the English Language Department and for enhanced collaboration with colleagues:

“Some of our needs of course are more opportunities for teacher collaboration and more professional support from our department.”

Thus, the institution should systematically evaluate teachers’ individual needs in order to tailor the CPD activities provided to meeting these needs, both individually and collectively. This would be a step towards better teacher engagement, as discussed earlier, to involve teachers more closely in the design and delivery of their CPD activities.
5.4.2 The quality of CPD

It emerged from the interview data that teachers believed that the PD unit should make the quality of CPD a priority. Their suggestions included these: 1) subjecting external speakers to a quality assurance process to ensure that they met the standards expected by staff, 2) ensuring that CPD presentations and workshops had a direct bearing on learning and teaching in the preparation year, so that staff would feel that they could apply the new knowledge directly in the classroom and 3) making sure that CPD provision sat within a long term strategic plan for staff development and was not ad hoc or provided at random. As has already been explored in Sections 5.1.4.1 and 5.3.1.6, the teachers raised a number of issues with respect to the quality of the CPD programme provided. There was a perception among interviewees that provision was tokenistic, amounting to no more than a tick-box exercise. It was evident that lack of interaction, repetition and the inability to apply the knowledge gained directly in the classroom could lead staff to regard CPD as a waste of time.

5.4.2.1 Making CPD relevant to the classroom and the real world

Suggestions were made that the university should ensure that CPD activities were both directly applicable in the classroom and relevant in the sense of connecting to students and their real day to day lives beyond the classroom. Harry expressed a desire for “nitty gritty, everyday classroom activities … rather than anything that is too bookish and theoretical”, while James saw this as making “our job of teaching more interesting or more effective” and Kevin believed that it would help to address the problem of students who “don’t want
to learn." Poor relevance could also be related to the cultural applicability of the CPD being provided:

In CPD sessions we would be given a workshop, then ... in the classroom ... because of cultural sensitivity issues we'd have to eliminate ... half of the PowerPoint presentation (James).

Adam gave the example of CPD sessions on assessment, which were irrelevant and worthless because the teachers had “absolutely no input into the assessment practices, so that was a waste of time”.

By contrast, participants considered CPD that was engaging and applicable in the classroom to be very worthwhile. They saw it as essential to make the effort to transfer theory to practice and to make lessons and topics relevant. CPD sessions become pleasurable when teachers felt that they were meaningful and that they related to their everyday lives and to their students’ needs in direct and practical ways. Interviewees thought that if the CPD providers really understood their day to day teaching reality, they might be prompted to provide more relevant CPD. The buzz observations did not provide an accurate picture. Patrick described the existing observation regime as:

... a fake because as soon as a buzz observer walks in, all illegal activities will stop, and the student’s behaviour will pick up, and mobile phones will be put away. I wish there was a way where they could actually see what it’s like in the classroom every day.
Another teacher, Harry, therefore suggested that managers should “go and teach the classes, act as undercover teachers just for a day, for a week” in order to discover what was happening in reality. In that way they might understand why teachers were unhappy and frustrated with a number of aspects of their work, particularly in their classrooms. Teachers believed that they were not the only ones to blame and felt that they should not be the central focus of responsibility. Therefore, they wanted the management to find better ways of understanding what was actually going on in the classrooms and to find ways to support them in light of this improved understanding.

Faisal, for example, found that the training he had received in his first year for IELTS exams was very valuable, while a number of others suggested that the PD unit should consider delivering CELTA and DELTA courses as part of the CPD provision, because they would be directly relevant to the classroom context. Ali noted that the British Council in Riyadh “is accredited by the University of Cambridge to deliver these courses” and Harry considered the university to be “big enough to support [such courses, which] would be constantly developing the teachers.” Albert assumed that if these courses could be conducted at the university, they would provide good value for the university and for teachers, who would benefit from the training and would pay “a reduced fee, because they would be doing it as a group.”

It should be noted that while it might indeed be useful and appropriate for the university to provide DELTA courses as part of the CPD programme, CELTA could not be treated in this way, as it is intended for career starters, being an initial TEFL qualification for people with little or no previous teaching experience.
5.4.2.2 Better coordination and planning

In addition to the above suggestions, some teachers described the difficulties they faced when attempting to manage various issues related to CPD. They stated that professional development activities needed to be well planned, organised and coordinated in advance with the teachers and foundation programme administration. They contrasted this with the current lack of coordination and organisation, which some saw as amounting to the ad hoc or random provision of CPD, instead of placing it within a long term strategic plan for staff development. Ben felt that there was “no coordination between different units in the department”, while for Max, “PD here is highly disorganised [and] there is no substance to it.” Adam gave the example of teachers being given little or no advance notification of visiting speakers.

Teachers were also evidently frustrated with the allocation of space for PD activities, which needed to be well organised in order to create a professional learning environment. Room booking was made particularly difficult by other departments being allowed to “grab” rooms needed for CPD. One teacher suggested that this was because English teaching had “always been the poor relation within this university.”

In short, teachers rightly called for an adequate level of communication and coordination within and among departments throughout the institution, to avoid such gaps, disorganisation and discrepancies in the organisation and provision of teachers’ professional development.
5.4.3 Supporting attendance at external conferences and engaging external experts

Analysis of the data also indicates that the teaching staff would appreciate opportunities to pursue external opportunities for CPD, which they have themselves identified as beneficial, with the university providing funding and time off. At present, whilst the university would presumably welcome teachers pursuing external opportunities for CPD in their own time and at their own expense, interviewees perceived a lack of support from the university in terms of both time and money. One said that he wished that the institution “would … allow me to go externally to places that I would benefit from professionally such as the TESOL Arabia conference”. The data show that many teachers had a preference for attending lectures, seminars and conferences such as TESOL Arabia, IATEFL and TESOL international conferences, in order to pursue their professional development. Therefore, the suggestion is that attending, for example, TESOL Arabia conferences and the local KSAALT TESOL annual conferences would raise the standard of their professional development to a better level if the institution could fund such development of its staff.
A related suggestion by some teachers was that rather than frequently offering internal CPD sessions presented by local teachers, the university could also invite more external experts, as this would give teachers more opportunities to exchange ideas and benefit from their expertise. According to Roger, “getting somebody from outside rather than employing the same teachers all the time has its advantages”, such as that of exposing teachers to newer perspectives from other experts in the same field.

5.4.4 Developing a more open and autonomous CPD culture

The research findings indicate a need for teachers to be allowed to take control of their own CPD rather than relying upon the university’s provision of external courses and conferences. However, whilst CPD should be based upon the teachers establishing and attaining their personal objectives through sharing, learning and internal reflection, it would be useful if the university were to provide guidance and support in this regard.

As was described at length in Section 5.3, it is also clear that a punitive approach to CPD attendance weakens the motivation of teaching staff to engage meaningfully, productively and wholeheartedly in the events that they do attend. For example, Deniz said that his colleagues tended to go to CPD sessions not because they wanted to, but because they had to. “So, encouraging teachers and creating a CPD culture is a must”. Agreeing, Patrick perceived a lack of both organisational and personal motivation, offering this analysis:

We are constantly being monitored for mistakes instead of being praised for something that we have done well, and that affects your
motivation, so I do think that is one part of professional development where positive reinforcement would be a great thing versus constant negative monitoring.

In common with other interviewees, he suggested that the institution should change its current approach to CPD in order to provide a collegial and supportive environment that would encourage teachers to engage fully in CPD. In fact, all of the suggestions for best practice made in this section should contribute towards building the desired positive CPD culture.

Most interviewees remarked that they would be capable of pursuing their professional growth and continued development if they were giving the opportunity:

*What is funny here is that there was a session on learner autonomy and teacher autonomy but they don’t apply it themselves* (Kevin).

One specific suggestion was that teachers should be allowed some kind of autonomy and freedom in selecting what CPD they saw as being of potential benefit to them, because, as Ben put it, “professional development is something that teachers can themselves take charge of.”

A specific suggestion which emerged from the data in terms of creating a productive CPD culture would be to give staff more support and guidance over their institutional CPD. In order to achieve this, “mandatory attendance … needs to be resolved” (Adam). It may be necessary to allow for more choice within the CPD programme, or make it a voluntary commitment
altogether, perhaps incentivising participation in a positive way rather than a punitive one.

As has been discussed in Section 5.2.1.1 and elsewhere, teachers saw the compulsory aspect of CPD provision as at best unnecessary and at its worst, tending to detract from the developmental objectives of the programme and to weaken the culture of CPD within the institution. In addition, as has been previously mentioned, this cultural reform might require an adjustment to the process of observation. Suggestions by Harry and Roger included observations being less frequent, more informal and less judgemental of teachers’ performance.

In addition, the data point towards the need to establish realistic expectations with respect to CPD. This includes both expectations of staff taking part in CPD and balancing this with their other responsibilities and expectations of the direct impact of CPD on students’ results.

I expect them to be realistic about the situation we’re in; how students have limitations and you can’t expect too much from the students. … [We need] a little more clarity about what exactly we’re supposed to be doing here in terms of teaching English (Harry).

Once again, focusing the CPD on the personal development of staff, rather than on the management of teaching and learning performance, should lead staff to welcome the provision of CPD rather than to resist its imposition.
I think there is a conceptual problem … do they want to simply police us and look at quality control or do they really want to provide professional development for professional teachers? (Roger).

As one of the above interviewees succinctly put it, a collegial approach to CPD, under the leadership of the PD unit, would help to achieve a genuine culture of professional development within the institution.

5.4.5 Initial selection of teaching staff

A final suggestion by teachers was that “to improve CPD, the university … should get better teachers [by improving] its recruitment, hiring and induction procedures. Successful recruitment will make the next steps easier”. This point seems not to be directly related to the enhancement of CPD but to refer to a way of improving the quality of teaching at the university other than through staff CPD. Nonetheless, most of the participating PYP teachers believed that improving the selection of teachers would be the first step towards it. Some of the very important elements in the recruitment process that the university ought to implement, according to Albert, were these:

I think sometimes people sneak in here with almost no qualification at all. To support the PD programme as much as possible, to provide the sort of facilities that PD needs, make sure that qualified applicants are recruited.

The point that this interviewee seems to be making here is that if the university were to ensure that it recruited teachers of a higher standard in the first place, it would thereby go some way to solving the perceived CPD problem, because better qualified teachers would better understand the CPD
materials and would contribute positively to the PD programme. An effective teacher selection system is one that results in improving the hiring process so that the institution no longer finds itself having to impose what amounts to remedial CPD on underqualified teachers. According to one interviewee, almost half of the PYP teachers did not have the minimum qualifications required; hence the following suggestion by John: “Actually, ironically, I think the crux of it is getting the recruitment right.” This is probably related to Tom’s assessment of buzz observations, quoted in Section 5.1.3.2, as “a necessary evil brought about by a small unprofessional number of people not doing their jobs.” If poor teachers were not selected for employment in the first place, there would be less justification for such a punitive approach to observation, assessment and professional development.

On the other hand, it should also be said that some interviewees took the view that the university was already “starting to get a grip on recruitment.”

5.5 Chapter summary
In this chapter I have presented and interpreted data to answer the four research questions. I have analysed EFL teachers’ views regarding the general nature of continuing professional development, the purposes that it serves and its importance for the teachers and for the institution. More specifically, this study has explored the actual CPD experiences of EFL teachers working in the preparatory year English programme at a Saudi university. It has explored the CPD options made available to these teachers by the university, as well as the PD activities that they organise and engage in themselves, independently of what is provided by the authorities. With
reference to the third and fourth research questions, it has examined teachers’ views of the challenges directly or indirectly affecting their engagement with those institutional CPD activities and programmes, the improvements they suggest and a number of related issues as perceived by participants. In the following chapter, I shall discuss all of these findings in relation to the literature.
CHAPTER SIX
DISCUSSION OF THE MAJOR FINDINGS

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the major findings of the study as presented in Chapter 5, from the perspectives of the literature reviewed in Chapter 3 and the contextual background described in Chapters 1 and 2. Throughout the chapter, I will highlight the issues emerging from the data concerning apparent conflicts of interest and understanding between EFL teachers, their working contexts and what is expected from them by their superiors and by the professional development organisations in the region.

6.1 Participants’ understanding of CPD

6.1.1 The general nature of CPD

The interviews showed that the participants saw CPD as a form of continuous learning and a lifelong commitment, consisting of building on existing professional skills. These features are widely seen as core aspects of CPD both by the experts (Chapter 3, Section 3.3) and by teachers in comparable studies (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.2). For instance, Raza (2010) reports these features as being mentioned by teachers in the neighbouring country of the UAE and they are the two features most frequently cited by Iranian teachers in a study by Alibakhshi and Dehvari (2015, p. 33). This indicates that the participants could be said to have at least a basic understanding of the term
CPD, possibly because most of them were experienced teachers with initial training.

This perception is also consistent with the findings of Bolam (2000), who surveyed teachers in a quite different context. It should be noted that professional development is often referred to by the participants in terms of ‘growth’ (Chapter 5, Sections 5.2.1.2, 5.2.1.6 and 5.4.4), so CPD tends to be perceived as a form of professional lifelong learning or development commitment. This is further consistent with the metaphorical representation of CPD proposed by Gravani & John (2005), who suggest that it may be viewed as an unbroken thread, running continuously from the commencement of a teacher’s career until his or her retirement; in other words, it is considered to be the professional equivalent of lifelong learning (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998 cited in Shenton, 2004, p. 65). New developments in TESOL, I believe, should therefore be included not only in preparation for teachers’ formal preservice qualifications, but also in CPD activities which keep teachers up to date with the demands of their specialisation throughout their careers.

A further implication of how the teachers in the present study talked about the basic nature of CPD is that they usually associated it with the improvement of their context related skills. Therefore, as discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.4, where different types of TPK were considered, there is an understanding that CPD, whatever specific form or activities it consists of, must support teachers by enabling them to acquire the skills and tools required to operate effectively within the institutional environment, especially the classroom. The
participating teachers tended to understand this as mostly comprising teaching skills, although some also referred to general cultural knowledge of the context. In other words, they did not widely refer to other features of the teachers’ psychosocial reality which might possibly be developed by CPD, such as their confidence or other feelings, or indeed their social sense of belonging to a community of practice.

The teacher’s knowledge and skills are indeed important components of teacher competence which are changed through CPD, according to the expert conceptions reviewed in Chapter 3, Section 3.4. Hence, the impact of CPD is often considered to show itself in noticeable changes in teaching practices, such as improved teaching methodologies or pedagogies. This can especially take the form of the acquisition of certain practical skills, whose success can be measured in terms of improved student performance. Therefore, the teachers’ understanding indirectly supports the idea that engaging with the CPD may be seen as a method of enhancing the status of the profession as a whole and the improvement of teachers’ professionalism in practice (Candy, 1991).

6.1.2 Goals and purposes

The teachers in the current study further saw CPD as having goals and purposes such as career development, self-actualisation and keeping professional teaching staff up to date (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1). Again, the teachers interviewed by Alibakhshi and Dehvari (2015) are reported to have mentioned two of these, but not career development, possibly due to the different nature of the career structure in Iranian schools. They did, however,
mention learning for pleasure, which the teachers in the present study did not. The expatriate EFL teachers whose views of CPD were elicited by Raza (2010) are reported to have understood it to involve keeping abreast of new developments in the fields of TEFL and TESOL, updating oneself through formal qualifications and gaining specialist knowledge. Hence, they also perceived CPD as contributing to a teacher’s professionalism.

Such purposes are also all familiar in the expert literature on CPD (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1). Self-actualisation, for example, can be linked to the ideas of the hierarchy of needs hypothesised by Maslow (1954). Indeed, self-actualisation is at the very peak of the pyramid, because it represents the need for individuals to fulfil their personal potential. Also, as mentioned in Chapter 3 (Section 3.4.2), these basic needs are time bound, so a need may be essential at a certain time but not at another. Here, some teachers at least seemed to see CPD as a means to achieve self-actualisation, not just as necessary to fulfil job obligations in order to continue in employment. Such teachers appeared to feel that they belonged in the classroom, which they perceived as their territory; thus, they would do whatever helped their students, irrespective of administrative policies. Because of this, they met their needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation. It is germane to recall here that according to Maslow (1972), self-actualisation is becoming what one is capable of becoming and the goal of learning is self-actualisation.

Keeping professional staff up to date, mentioned by some of the teachers in one way or another, is also a prominent general purpose or goal of CPD recognised by the expert literature (Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1). It is crucially
linked to the whole issue of who is responsible for keeping teachers up to date and indeed to some of the models reviewed in Chapter 3. The way in which teachers referred to keeping up to date predominantly implied that they thought that this required some outside training course or equivalent input, rather than being something they themselves did. To a certain extent, this is consistent with studies such as that of Bolam (2000), who found, albeit in a quite different context, that teachers identify CPD primarily with attendance at courses, seminars or workshops. However, in answer to other questions, some of the participants did show evidence of a recognition that CPD could also involve sharing with peers and indeed self-development through reflection (Chapter 5, Section 5.1.1.4) as relevant kinds of activity. Furthermore, when referring to the providers of CPD (Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3.1), while most saw higher agencies including the employing institution as the appropriate providers, some referred to the onus being on the teacher, especially with respect to acquiring relevant cultural knowledge of the context of teaching.

6.1.3 Models of CPD

As noted initially in Chapter 2 and discussed at greater length in Chapter 3, Section 3.5.1, the dominant model of CPD in place in the context of the current study was already well known to be the training model. The present study has confirmed this, but the data relevant to answering the first research question showed that the models implicitly held by the teachers were not always consistent with that. Naturally, teachers’ understandings did not fall neatly into categories supporting just one of the eight models which are described in Chapter 3, Section 3.5. However, they did show evidence of
elements of several of these models. The widespread implication that the institution or other superior authorities were responsible for delivering CPD to the teachers obviously supports the training model, whereas reference to a constant need for updating essentially supports the deficit model and mention by e.g. the interviewee Gary of the need for uniformity echoes the standards-based model.

A model interestingly not explicitly referred to was the cascade model, despite its presence in other comparable situations, as discussed in Chapter 3 (Prince & Barrett, 2014; Woodward, Griffiths, & Solly, 2014). The reason for this may be that in my context the main level at which CPD provision is determined is closely above the teachers in the hierarchy of their specific university, so there is no sequence of intervening layers for it to be potentially cascaded through. It is not the case that CPD policy and provision are decided and delivered centrally by the MoE in Riyadh for the whole country, in which case, as in India for example (Prince & Barrett, 2014), it would potentially cascade down through several layers: first to regions, then to universities within regions, then through the relevant deanships, departments and units within the university until it finally reached the teachers.

Moving away from the top-down models, the community of practice model was explicitly supported by Ben, who actually used the term ‘community of practice’ when talking about sharing between teachers. There was, however, no hint of this being widespread among the teachers, nor for example of teachers engaging in any community of practice mediated through technology of any sort, as described for Greece by Karavas and Papadopoulou (2014).
For instance, as far as could be ascertained, there was no Facebook special interest group or other similar platform set up or used by the teachers for their own intercommunication on any issues.

At the teacher centred, bottom up end of the spectrum, Roger and Albert both endorsed teacher self-reflection as a means of CPD. Indeed, Albert eloquently described the process of evaluating his own practices and seeing what worked and what did not in a way that clearly captured the essence of the action research model, although he did not use that term to label it. Nevertheless, the way in which he talked about it conveyed the impression that for him, this could be seen as transformative in its effects, consistent with the perspectives of Banegas, Pavese, Velázquez, and Vélez (2013) and of Burns and Edwards (2014), as discussed in chapter 3. There is clearly scope in my context to heighten the awareness of teachers like Albert, both about what action research is and its potential for change (see further Chapter 7).

Overall, then, it can be seen that the teachers collectively—and in some cases individually—subscribed to a range of ideas from multiple models, and even in some cases showed signs of recognising the substance, though not of course the name, of the transformative model (Kennedy, 2005). As was described in Chapter 3, Section 3.5.8, Brown (1995) is amongst those who have argued for the benefits of a teacher centred and eclectic approach to CPD. Thus, there are already indications from the data analysed in response to the first of the four research questions that there may have been a clash between some teachers’ more open understanding of CPD and the institution’s rather closed, single model, top down understanding of it. This
leads to consideration of the rich data which the current study obtained on teachers’ attitudes to the CPD that they experienced (providing material for the responses to the second, third and fourth of the research questions), which is reviewed in later sections of this chapter.

6.1.4 Differences among teachers

A further theme which emerged concerning teachers’ understanding of CPD relates to the idea raised in Chapter 3 that it can be seen as consisting of a continuum, along which the different stages of teacher learning are considered to lie. Alternatively, teachers themselves may be perceived as spread along such a continuum, depending upon the stage they have reached in their careers, their understanding of CPD and their individual development needs. Thus, one may expect a relationship between teachers’ understanding of CPD and their length of experience or the amount of prior training they have received. The results of the study indicate that these parameters may be interrelated. Thus, it was found that the interpretations and understanding of CPD manifested by teachers with long experience in the profession, or who had served in a particular institution for a longer period of time, differed from the perceptions of those who were new to the profession or to the university. These findings are in line with those of a study which identified differences in the understanding of CPD amongst EFL teachers depending on whether they were new to the organisation (but not necessarily new to the profession) or had worked there for a relatively long time (Evans, 2002). However, the findings of this study contradict those of another study conducted in the region (Raza, 2010), which found that no differences existed between experienced
and novice teachers with respect to their understanding of professional development.

Teachers new to an institution or with little experience of TEFL tend to have different experiences from those of longer established and more experienced teachers, due to having been employed in a different environment, even if it was within the same sector. Therefore, there is a tendency among such teachers to regard CPD as a means to acquire relevant skills that are required in order to operate effectively at their new place of employment. Senior professionals who have worked for an institution for a longer period, by contrast, may view CPD as providing an opportunity to specialise in a particular area of interest. Alternatively, CPD could be regarded as providing an opportunity for independence from their institutional context, offering good opportunities to work towards realising their plans for the future or career goals.

It therefore becomes evident that the different ways in which teachers understand the nature of CPD depend largely on these teachers’ needs and wants, which may be influenced in turn by their previous workplaces and their background context. In short, the way in which the individual’s view of CPD varies depending on the occupational context illustrates how the processes of teachers’ development are socially situated.

The data also suggest that the teachers who were interviewed for the present study were well aware of the importance of PD. The majority acknowledged having been given various types of professional development opportunities and agreed that they required training and CPD activities. Furthermore, they
recognised that engaging in CPD had advantages both for them and for their students.

Overall, this research has provided evidence of discernible variations in teachers’ perceptions and practices in regard of many CPD activities. Among these variations, study participants offered some contradictory ideas of the nature of CPD, which could be explained as being a result of the institution having failed to provide them with any clear written guidance on this matter. However, any such explanatory guiding document which had been provided by the institution would arguably have served only to limit their view to the top down training model. This would then have driven them even more firmly towards the adoption of the institutional view of what CPD is.

Such variations were found to be present in areas such as teachers’ definitions of CPD (Chapter 5, Section 5.1.1), as well as in their focus upon the area of teaching improvement. Despite the fact that a particular CPD model was imposed on teachers by the institution, it is encouraging that they nevertheless exhibited collectively a range of ideas of the nature of CPD across the whole spectrum of activities and models. It could be argued, however, that it is not unexpected to find such variation in beliefs, since these would ultimately be based upon teachers’ widely differing individual characteristics, such as their training, their qualifications, their past experiences and their personal interpretations.

6.1.5 The nature of the CPD provided

Increasing awareness, as well as familiarisation, can be deemed necessary for the success of all CPD provision (Fidler, 1997). However, this research
shows a lack of programmes which could be described as being designed to raise awareness of the different types of CPD activities. If such a range of types is not promoted adequately within the institutional system, however, the result can be that some CPD activities might be less valued by teachers, or even remain unfamiliar to them. There was also found to be a lack of transparency regarding the criteria by which participants were chosen for various CPD activities held outside the institutional premises. In this regard, teachers expressed a wide range of different perceptions as to how the process of making decisions was related to their own involvement in CPD.

The above discussion reveals the influence that lack of clarity can have upon the CPD that takes place. Importantly, the discussion identifies the requirement for a transparent system whereby the CPD policy and guidelines are set out in written documents, which are then made available to the people concerned. In such a document, the institution should provide a definition of CPD which in fact draws attention to the full range of the existing activities and models. This echoes the idea that there is value in combinations of all the models in a way that suits both the teacher and the institution, as discussed in Chapter 3, Section 3.7.3.
6.2 The dominance of institutional needs over individual needs

In the remaining sections of this chapter I shall discuss the key contextual themes that have emerged from an analysis of the interview responses which were obtained in attempts to answer the three remaining research questions, as presented in Chapter 5 (from Section 5.1.3.2 through to Section 5.4.5). All of the material elicited in connection with the second, third and fourth research questions overlaps in its relevance to them in one way or another, revealing teachers’ attitudes to the existing CPD provided by their superiors and largely imposed by them, and illuminating the participants’ perceptions of the associated challenges and hence what changes they would like to see.

The first of the major themes to be examined here is the dominance of the needs of the university over those of the individual teachers, reflected in the gap between the CPD provided and these individual needs as perceived by the teachers themselves. As I showed in Chapter 3, there is a recognition today by CPD experts that in some way the needs both of teachers and of the institution need to be met (Hayes, 2014). Yet in the present context, teachers often seemed to feel that the balance was tipped too far in favour of the institution.

6.2.1 The gap between CPD provision and teachers’ perceived individual needs

Many teaching professionals see autonomy as an attractive aspect of teaching (Bogler, 2002) and it is considered to provide a “powerful incentive” (Kim & Loadman, 1994, p. 8) for new recruits to enter the teaching profession and to remain working in it. Autonomy can be defined in this context both as
the freedom that teachers enjoy with respect to determining their own CPD (Chapter 3, Section 3.5.9), and as the control that teachers perceive themselves to exercise with respect to their teaching: “over various aspects of their working life, including scheduling, curriculum development, selection of textbooks and planning instruction” (Bogler and Somech, 2004, p. 278). However, the teachers interviewed in the present study appeared to feel that they had almost no autonomy in either of these terms, a deficiency which translated into a sense of disempowerment. This lack of autonomy extended in particular to a concern among teachers that they could neither have any meaningful input into the institution’s functioning in terms of CPD processes nor into key teaching related areas such as the curriculum and materials development (Al-Lamki, 2009).

Even among institutions which are adjudged to pay significant attention to the professional development of their EFL teachers, as KSU-PY does, the ways in which they construe CPD and its practical implementation may well not correspond to what the teachers think they need. This appears to have been the case for the PYP English teachers in the present study, many of whom shared the view that the institutional initiatives were decided arbitrarily and imposed from the top down, and who saw these initiatives as founded on apparently generic institutional goals which they associated with the institution’s authoritarian procedures (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.1). Therefore, the perception among many teachers was that they were peripheral participants in their own CPD, obliged to look on more or less passively from the side lines (St John, 2011, p. 98), because their objectives for learning and their learning activities were habitually established and imposed by others,
leaving them with a perceived lack of autonomy in determining a learning environment and content that they would deem appropriate to their own particular needs.

It also seems apparent that the gap between training provision and the perceived individual needs of teachers, which this study has identified, can be seen to be reflected in the professional development system of the Ministry of Education, which is concerned with teaching at school level. A study by Nabhan (2007) which investigated the quality of educational reform in Saudi Arabia found that the training which was implemented by the Ministry following this reform was unsystematic and that it did not always meet the needs and responsibilities of the trainees.

Evidence from the literature discussed in Chapter 3 (Sections 3.4.2, 3.7.1.2 and 3.7.2.2) suggests that this gap exists more widely and that it is not found only in Middle Eastern countries such as Saudi Arabia. Indeed, similar discrepancies also occur in developed countries with a long history of educational development, including the United Kingdom and the United States. For instance, in an article assessing the impact of changes in policy towards CPD across England and Wales, Bolam (2000) asserts that there exists in the UK, at both national and local school level, a tendency for institutional constraints and requirements to predominate over individual needs in determining which factors are emphasised within the system of CPD provision. He claims that after repeated changes made to British CPD policy throughout the 1980s and 1990s, there remained a significant need for further reform in order to meet teachers’ individual needs. However, he concludes
that it is important for a balance to be achieved in CPD provision between these individual needs on one hand and institutional needs on the other.

6.2.2 Alienation arising from the institutional culture with respect to CPD and to English teaching

The more experienced teachers referred to earlier (in Section 6.1) were found to feel constrained within their institution by the content and delivery of the CPD which the institutional community offered them. Furthermore, they felt restricted by the policy of the university with respect to how they were supposed to function as foundation English teachers within the guidelines and restrictions as set out by the university authorities, which were delivered to them through the CPD provision, particularly the buzz observations. Further evidence of this was the reluctance of the institution to fund attendance at conferences where new ideas on best practice could be encountered which might conflict with the practices promoted through their in-house CPD provision. Furthermore, as was seen in Chapter 2 as well as in Chapter 5, the university does not explicitly support or train teachers in engaging in any forms of self-development of the collaborative or bottom up types that fall within approaches to CPD such as the community of practice or action research models, with the possible exception of one manager mentioned by Mike (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.2). If these models were followed, they might have the effect of generating teaching ideas and practices which would conflict with the institutional view. A significant number of teachers considered that such restrictive views did not give credit to their knowledge and expertise, and that they took insufficient account of their individual development needs or the agenda of the PYP teachers considered as a community of practice.
These findings are consistent with those of prior studies by authors such as Dobson and Conway (2003) and Lane (1985), who identified the existence of tensions and various types of conflict between administrative staff and academics. It has also been noted that teachers elsewhere have tended to be unsympathetic towards the competency-based approach to professional development (see Chapter 3, Sections 3.3.1, 3.4.1 and 3.5.4), such as that which is associated with the training provided in the PYP unit at KSU. This is largely because they have regarded these as having little relevance or direct application to the classroom and as not being geared to addressing teachers’ requirements adequately (Ayres, Dinham & Sawyer, 2000; Dinham, Brennan, Collier, Deece & Mulford, 2000). Very similar comments were made by participants in the present research when they talked, for instance, about the obligatory training sessions covering topics which were too theoretical and not applicable in their lessons (see Section 6.3.1), or which were concerned with issues like teacher autonomy that were in conflict with what the institution actually imposed through other forms of its CPD, such as the buzz observations. Teachers also talked about having attended CPD sessions which were neither welcomed by teachers nor relevant to their classroom practice because they failed to recognise that teachers had no input into the matter under discussion, an example being assessment practices.

6.2.3 Teachers’ responses to the institution by engaging in their own forms of CPD

Because of the institutional culture of CPD that was considered by teachers to be inordinately strongly oriented towards monitoring, policing and controlling their professional development, as well as their actual teaching, and as
inadequate to their developmental needs, there were signs that some of the
teachers could be finding alternatives as part of their autonomous CPD
practices. It became evident that teachers lacked a voice in determining the
way in which CPD was conceived within the institution. For this reason, some
may have been trying to compensate for the inadequacies of the current
institutional CPD programme. At present, however, their comments on types
of CPD activities or models other than the top down ones provided or imposed
by the institution were largely restricted to where they were talking in general
about the definition of the term CPD (Chapter 5, Section 5.1), or what
improvements they would like to see to the CPD that they received (Section
5.4). This therefore currently represents an area of potential rather than actual
CPD activity that the institution might do well to nurture, a suggestion that is
taken up in Chapter 7 (Section 7.4.1). For instance, they discussed the setting
up of professional learning communities or communities of practice as part of
their own CPD in order to develop their professionalism.

Hord (1997) argues that professional learning communities should have five
features: shared and supportive leadership, shared values and vision,
collective learning and application in practice of what is learned, shared
personal practice, and supportive conditions. Hipp and Huffman (2010) also
carried out a number of studies within this theoretical framework and sought
evidence to support the existence of these features. Their findings not only
confirm the existence these five qualities, but also show that collective
learning and application of what has been learned were strongly interrelated
with shared personal practice. A key idea in shared practice is to encourage
collegial relationships among teachers (Louis et al., 1996) such as peer
observations, lesson study and open lessons (Lindahl, 2011). These different strategies are deemed facilitative to the forming and maintenance of such relationships (Malone & Smith, 2010). By engaging in such collaborative activities, teachers benefit from opportunities to obtain meaningful feedback from peers and so learn from each other, as was evident in the interviewees’ views and suggestions.

Isolated references were also made by teachers (as reported in Chapter 5) to other kinds of collaborative or individual CPD either which they believed to fall within the definition of the term or which they would have liked to engage in. Although it was beyond the scope of this study to pursue how far these participants were currently engaging in such activities, it is clear that they represent a potential which is available to be exploited. The types of CPD referred to in this way included peer observation of the genuinely non-judgmental and cooperative type (POT), mentoring, reflection on lessons and action research.

6.3 Teachers’ concern with the ultimate goal of CPD as maximising students’ learning potential

As noted in Chapter 3, especially in the discussion of types of teacher knowledge which CPD should deliver (Section 3.4), considerable emphasis has been placed by experts like Shulman (1986a) on the possible gap between the cognitive comprehension of subject matter by teachers and the relationship of this comprehension with teachers’ actual instruction of students, whose improvement is the primary ultimate goal of teacher CPD. The implication is that all efforts to train teachers should take into account
what it actually means to be an effective teacher in a particular context, difficult as that may be to specify, and how an effective teacher would behave in the classroom as a means of achieving optimal learning amongst the students that he or she teaches (Antoniou, Kyriakides, & Creemers, 2011; Kyriakides, Creemers, & Antoniou, 2009; Last & Chown, 1996).

In general, teachers’ interview responses in the present study were indeed indicative of many such practical and contextual concerns, which are discussed in the following two subsections.

6.3.1 Relevance to the classroom: Putting theory into practice

This research has identified a number of factors as being of particular significance to teachers’ engagement in the CPD provided, including especially the practical relevance of activities and their applicability to the teachers’ actual professional practice in the classroom. As shown earlier, however, there was also some mention of the impact of the CPD which they experienced on other areas such as some of those listed by Craft (2000; cited here in Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1), for example teachers’ job satisfaction.

Teachers appeared to be primarily concerned, however, by the fact that they found the CPD sessions that they attended to be mostly irrelevant, and difficult or impossible to translate into the classroom setting. This critical assessment can be summed up in the word ‘theoretical’ (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.1.6). Nevertheless, apart from it being a requirement to attend, they reported that they would anyway continue attending these sessions because they wanted to encourage their colleagues and to help them in the best way that they were able.
Such complaints of irrelevance echo the findings of Head and Taylor (1997). More recently, the problem has been characterised by referring to teacher training or CPD as often not being ‘ecologically valid’ (Wenger, 1998). This means that it does not reflect the real conditions of the contexts in which the teachers work (Dyer et al., 2004). Such a finding is all the more striking when, as in the present research, the CPD sessions in question are actually taking place in the location where the teachers are teaching, rather than at a distance, such as in another country. There is in a sense an excuse for a workshop or course being not strictly relevant to every teacher in the audience when it is part of an international conference or an MA programme in the UK followed students who intend to teach in Saudi Arabia, for example. When it occurs in CPD sessions hosted in the very institution where the teacher teaches, however, any lack of relevance is difficult to explain or excuse.

Nevertheless, the problem of CPD of the sort provided top down being too theoretical seems even today to be common. Referring to the world situation, regardless of subject, it is reported that “teacher education courses (both pre-service and in-service) are often not fit for purpose” (Manteaw, 2012; Polly & Hannafin, 2011) for this very reason. By contrast, as noted in Chapter 3, there are clear instances where short courses precisely tailored to local needs can be remarkably successful (Kazempour & Amirshokoohi, 2014b).

6.3.2 Suitability for the classroom: Cultural appropriateness

As explained in Chapter 5 (Section 5.4.2.1), lack of applicability of CPD content to the classroom and the students could also relate, for example, to the cultural suitability of the content of the CPD being provided. This was
claimed to render a good proportion of what was presented in CPD sessions as not usable in practice by the teachers in their actual teaching. Once again, this is surprising, since the workshops in question were taking place in the very same cultural context where the teaching was to be done. It would be reasonable to expect that those delivering such PD material would do so with full awareness of the cultural conditions of the local classroom and that any practical suggestions which they made during the CPD sessions would take these conditions duly into account. This matter is revisited in the broader cultural context in Section 6.7 below.

6.4 Teachers' involvement in CPD decision-making

6.4.1 “If nobody listens, why should I speak?”

Much of the data presented throughout Chapter 5 (e.g. in Section 5.2.2) reflect the fact that a clear majority of participants in this study expressed dissatisfaction arising from a perception that their voices were not listened to in connection with their CPD opportunities. Teachers, they complained, “are just told what to do”. In other words, they lacked autonomy both in the matter of the decision as to what types of CPD to engage in and the matter of the choice of content of the CPD programme provided to them by the institution (see Section 6.2). Such a passive role in planning CPD programmes may be seen as causing teachers frustration and disappointment, hence their desire for involvement in making decisions about their CPD, which were expressed explicitly in interviews.

It is evident, as described in Chapter 2 (Section 2.5), that control and the power to make decisions on many issues affecting the PYP lay largely in the
hands of a few people, namely the head of the English Language Department of KSU-PY, unit managers, lead teachers and departmental coordinators. From my point of view, this is common in any educational institution, particularly one as large as the university under study, since there may not always be sufficient time to consult everybody in the department. Furthermore, some of the issues may be purely administrative in nature and therefore not suitable for discussion in the environment of a meeting open to teachers.

However, the case of teachers’ CPD opportunities is evidently different and not subject to this objection. While the reason for restricting decision making was not made explicit in the course of the research, I believe that it may be related to the military nature of the university’s hierarchy, by which I mean that for whatever reason, those who run the university do so in a way that resembles the way in which an army is subject to a chain of command; most of the teaching staff are then seen as civilians, so to speak, and so purely as implementers of decisions taken by that hierarchy. This interpretation is supported by the case of a senior teacher who complained that the weighting between individuals was not well distributed and that the power structure was hierarchically unequal (cf. Qureshi & Bhatti, 2007).

Whatever the cause, the effect of this exclusion from involvement in making decisions would appear to be that all PYP teachers have developed a negative attitude to work, to the overall organisation of the PYP and its CPD, and to the English Language Department in particular. Teacher attitudes and teacher values are significant factors that shape the construction of teacher identities and can be affected by contextual factors (Stutchbury & Woodward,
Previous researchers have found such attitudes to be extremely harmful to the performance of an organisation (Carnegie, 1985; Connors, 2000; Senge, 2000).

### 6.4.2 Effects on commitment

Analysis of the data strongly supports the suggestion that the extent of teachers’ involvement and participation in the making of decisions with respect to their CPD, or indeed their absence, is closely related to the level of morale and commitment among those teachers. In the present study, lack of involvement in key decisions led to low morale and to lack of commitment (Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2). If the authorities’ failure to involve teachers in making decisions did indeed influence their commitment to their work, the further implication is that some KSU-PY English language teachers were very unlikely to go beyond the minimum required of them by the administration in terms of performing either CPD or classroom teaching. An illustrative example is that of the teacher who reported that he used to offer extra weekend lessons to help some students, but had ceased to do so and now even found himself arriving late for lessons, because his morale, which once was high, had been damaged by the belief that his opinions and ideas were ignored whenever he presented them to the administration of the English Language Department. As a result, he left the job a few months later.

This idea of a relationship between teachers’ commitment and involvement in decision making has been widely addressed in the literature; for instance, a study by Wadesango (2011) identifies a positive connection between the involvement of teachers in school and their commitment to critical decision
making. Furthermore, there are theoretical bases for this connection. Jones (Kumaravadivelu, 2012) refers to Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory, which proposes that workers are not motivated by extrinsic factors such as salary, working conditions and job security but by intrinsic ones such as recognition and responsibility. Jones asserts that being empowered to participate in making decisions would contribute to strengthening either or both of these intrinsic motivational factors. It should be noted, however, that as discussed elsewhere, deficiencies were found in the context of the present study in the three extrinsic factors listed above, as well as in recognition and responsibility, which will have made the situation even worse in the present case.

In other words, the findings of the present study support the argument articulated by Graham (1996) that the stronger is the teachers’ psychological identification with their employing organisation, the greater is their sense of commitment to it and to their profession.

This situation may also be conceptualised in terms of the notion of leadership. Positive and effective leaders, who in the present case would be the institutional authorities, should take care of the people responsible for learning, i.e. in this study the teachers, because this would, among other outcomes, tend to improve their chances of success in pursuing the goals of their institution. If this happens, then the final consequence is that all of those involved in the organisation accomplish at higher levels (Florida Gulf Coast University, 2006).
6.4.3 Arguments concerning teachers’ involvement in making decisions

It has emerged from the findings of the study that a number of different areas of activity and administration related more or less directly to the provision, delivery and outcomes of CPD were being referred to in the comments that teachers made about their exclusion from full participation in making decisions, or more widely about a perceived lack of autonomy. The main most significant of these areas seem to be the following: decisions about what types of CPD activities should be provided or encouraged (such as external courses, workshops, mentoring, different types of observation, reflection, action research and so on), decisions about the compulsoriness of specific CPD activities, decisions about the content of CPD provided in the form of workshops or courses and of the topics covered by such provision (e.g. practical elements versus theoretical ones) and decisions directly related to teaching issues such as the syllabus, textbooks, teaching methods or assessment. While the case for some involvement of teachers in making decisions in these areas seems incontrovertible, a range of different arguments might plausibly be presented for and against teachers’ specific involvement in each of these individual areas. The following paragraphs consider a number of such arguments, whether made by the participating teachers themselves, cited from the relevant literature or emerging more generally from my own analysis.

One participant advanced an argument (cited in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2) that administrators were fully justified in placing consideration of student needs above that of teacher needs. This would primarily apply to those decisions which would directly concern teaching itself, rather than the content or
delivery of CPD. Another potential justification for not involving teachers closely in the process of decision making, which could apply to all areas, may relate to the difficulty in recruiting and retaining experienced and highly qualified international teachers (see Section 6.6) who could be relied upon to make sensible decisions. However, it emerges from the interview data that there were many qualified and certified teachers who were not allowed to make choices about CPD or indeed about matters related more directly to their teaching. In any event, the authorities at the levels both of the relevant governmental bodies and of the university would probably regard the role of administrators as not involving any kind of sharing of the responsibility for making decisions; instead, they would see their role as being that of decision makers for the entire organisation, including the teachers, who in turn were employed to assume the role of delivering the teaching materials as decided for them, rather than to share in the making of decisions. A research study by Wadesango (2012) showed that the perceived over-involvement of teachers in decision making can be taken as a sign of the administration’s inability to run a school; it may be that a belief of this kind lies behind the decision making policies of the institution in the present context.

Having said this, however, some participation by the teaching staff in making decisions must surely be appropriate where critical matters that directly influence their teaching work are involved. For instance, there is a case for involving them both in issues related directly to teaching, such as scheduling, the curriculum, the choice of textbooks and the selection of teachers, and also in matters affecting their own CPD (Jones, 1997). I have already noted (in
Section 6.4.2) the potentially dire negative consequence of not ensuring this involvement.

The interview data indicate the need for sound communication between teachers and the middle management or even the higher management. It is clear from the findings that staff members expressed a strong willingness to engage in CPD if its content would address their priorities and needs, but while teachers are excluded from decisions about the topics of workshops and courses provided by the institution this does not happen and indeed cannot be expected to happen. In a study conducted elsewhere, in China, Cheong (2005) obtained similar findings. That study revealed that teachers were very keen to participate in the planning of the whole CPD scheme, rather than leaving it to school heads or government employees. Nonetheless, the actual situation, according to the study, just as in the present context, was that not a single teacher sat on the committee responsible for planning and organising teachers’ CPD activities.

A more recent study in a country neighbouring Saudi Arabia explored the desire of teachers of English in Oman to be responsible for their own CPD (Bogler & Somech, 2004). This showed that teachers’ overall involvement need not be direct, in that decisions might also justifiably be made by the group of people working most closely with them, comprising senior teachers, supervisors and teacher trainers. The rationale offered by (Al-Lamki, 2009) is that such people are likely to be responsive to the teachers’ needs and well appraised of their abilities, skills and situations. In the present context, however, as raised by teachers (Chapter 5, Section 5.4.2.1) and discussed
here in Section 6.3.1, there is doubt as to whether supervisors and trainers who do not themselves engage in classroom teaching do really appreciate the realities of day to day classroom teaching on the PYP.

Thus, allowing teachers to play active roles, directly or indirectly, in the process of planning and selecting at least the content of CPD activities could make them more loyal and supportive of the CPD programme, while also making the CPD more constructive, beneficial and successful (Al-Lamki, 2009).

6.5 The effects of contextual challenges on CPD and job satisfaction

This section deals with wider contextual challenges facing teachers in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia in general and in the context of the present research in particular, examining in what ways and to what extent these challenges have influenced their CPD, job satisfaction, job security and working lives in general. The data show that the low level of some teachers’ morale, including as reflected in their attitudes to CPD, was related not only to their commitment (Section 6.4.2) and to the sense of alienation (Section 6.2.2) arising from their perception of a lack of autonomy and of being excluded from participation in making decisions, but also to other factors affecting their job satisfaction.

6.5.1 Issues related to pay and holidays

One significant aspect of job satisfaction emerging from the data was dissatisfaction with pay, although many of the native speaking EFL teachers did not appear to have been motivated to join the profession by the promise of
high salaries. Nonetheless, teaching salaries are relatively high in Gulf countries, Saudi Arabia being no exception, and other researchers including St John (2011) report that expatriate teachers are attracted to the region by financial considerations. Many such teachers interviewed in the present study appeared content with the pay and the overall employment package, including accommodation, travel and even not being funded to go to conferences, but a number expressed their dissatisfaction with the way that they received their monthly salary from the agency and with various errors and delays in the process.

A further theme which emerged in the findings chapter (Section 5.3.1.2) concerned attitudes to the university’s ruling that some of teachers’ allotted holiday time should be used to schedule a compulsory CPD week. Although at one level this is a further example of what was discussed in Sections 6.2 and 6.4, in other words, an instance of the university imposing its CPD on teachers without any choice or autonomy on their part, nor any involvement in the making of decisions, it goes further than this in that it concerns working conditions and employees’ right to paid time off.

This raises the issue of whether CPD should in fact be regarded as something done as part of a teacher’s work, or rather as reasonably occupying part of their free time. Although it is hard to find explicit discussions about this, it is in the UK clearly regarded as the former. UK state schools, for example, designate for this purpose a number of ‘non-pupil days’ during the term (not the holiday), also known as INSET days and formerly as ‘Baker days’, named after the education minister who introduced them in 1988 (Times Educational...
Supplement, 1997). These days are set aside for the teachers to participate in CPD activities, which the pupils are given a day off. In universities in the UK, members of the teaching staff are nowadays often required to take a postgraduate certificate in higher education, or something similar under another name, run by the university, as part of their paid work. Nottingham Trent University, for example, gives each full time member of its teaching staff an allotment of 200 working hours for the completion of just such a course (https://www4.ntu.ac.uk/cpld/document_uploads/112996.pdf).

Nevertheless, in some countries it is possible to find examples of the alternate practice of expecting teachers to arrange their own CPD in their own time. Kaunas University of Technology in Lithuania, for example, specifies that CPD is a condition of employment, essential for career progression or promotion, yet it also states that it is the responsibility of teachers to arrange and that “disruption of students’ learning caused by CPD of teachers is minimised because usually teachers attend the courses during their free time” (Anon, 2017, p. 36).

The institution in the present study apparently falls between these extremes, in that the required CPD is provided, not left to be arranged by the teachers, but nevertheless has to be taken in their free time. As Table 4.1 shows, the largest number of teachers participating in the study were from the UK, while many others were familiar with a context quite like the UK one described, so it was not unexpected that most of them objected to this aspect of their working conditions at KSU. Indeed, given the unfavourable comparison with conditions of employment elsewhere, it is unsurprising that many teachers highlighted
the appropriation of part of their holiday time for attendance at CPD events as
a serious issue and complained of its counterproductive effect, especially in
the case of those teachers who had come to Saudi Arabia from other
countries and who had family abroad (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.1.2).

In the end, this can be seen as an administrative and legal issue with
profound ramifications for staff morale in general, way beyond engagement
with CPD. Some comments about this issue concerned promises made by the
subcontracting and recruiting agencies as well as the university. One
implication of imposing a “no holiday” rule over a set period is that it could
unlawfully discriminate against certain groups of employees. This may give
rise to individuals having legal claims for an unlawful deduction from their
salary or from their holiday entitlement. Black et al. (2003, p. 89) contend that
teachers need incentives which help to drive content in the direction of
expected knowledge and skills, rather than measures which detract from the
fulfilment of some of their employment rights.

The wider relevance of such an experience is that the more satisfied
employees are, the less likely they are to be alienated, to lack commitment to
their CPD or their teaching, or indeed to leave their employment (Ambrose,
Huston, & Norman, 2005; Lee, 1988; Rosser, 2004). The results of this study
are consistent with those of many others around the world which have
reported that teachers are mostly satisfied by factors intrinsic to teaching,
such as interaction with students, relative professional autonomy and self-
growth, whereas school structures and policy making are often described as
sources of dissatisfaction (Day, 2002; Day et al., 2006; Shann, 1998).
6.5.2 Job security

Analysis of the interview data indicates that teachers underwent a complex process of deconstructing their reasons for suffering from lack of job satisfaction. Their often negative attitudes to participation in CPD activities can be seen to arise, at least in part, from feelings of job insecurity related to job continuity, the renewal of their contracts of employment at the last minute, and the problems in obtaining or renewing visas that were raised by many interviewees (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2.1). These in turn involve a wide range of agencies including the university, the recruitment and employment agencies and the government of Saudi Arabia.

Job security is particularly important for expatriate teachers living far from home in an often fragmented world (D'Andrea & Gosling, 2005). It is consistent with this observation that most interviewees in the present study declared themselves to be worried about their job security, although some seemed confident of their jobs. Security of employment is clearly a vital factor in their institutional working conditions, however, and their interview responses reveal the unstable and confrontational working conditions in which PYP EFL teachers were expected to work. Disturbingly, the interviews also revealed an apparent lack of concern for the poor retention rate at higher levels of the institution (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.1.8).

There are relatively few published studies which have investigated the effect of job security on teachers’ job satisfaction. Nonetheless, it can be said that the current findings are consistent with those of Ololube (2006) and of
Adebayo and Gombakomba (2013), who found that for teachers, job security was a source of job satisfaction.

Figure 6.1 combines the theories of Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1959) in a way that explains the crucial role of job security in satisfaction. In the lower part of the diagram, it can be seen that Maslow places security at the second level of his hierarchy of needs, corresponding to one of Herzberg’s hygiene factors, which together can prevent dissatisfaction. Similarly, it has been argued by Herzberg (1959) that a poor level of job security can cause job dissatisfaction, disillusionment and demotivation, which in turn will surely affect attitudes to engaging in CPD.

Consistent with this, a number of participants, significantly including some with over five years of teaching employment, believed the instability of their jobs to be a strong demotivating factor that created stress and contributed to the poor retention of teachers in the department, all of which had had negative consequences for the capability and motivation of teachers regarding their engagement in CPD (cf. Smerek & Peterson, 2007).
Figure 6.1: Hierarchy of needs/motivation vs hygiene factors. A framework adapted from Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959) and Kaiser (1981)

The majority of participants, indeed, complained that their jobs in the PYP unit were not secure, giving examples of when a contract was not renewed or when teachers had been kept waiting until the end of the month immediately preceding the start of the new university year before being told whether or not their contracts were to be renewed, as mentioned in Chapter 5 (Section 5.3.1.8). Participants stated that teachers could lose their jobs without prior notification, in accordance with the predominant culture of the institution.

One set of factors blamed for this was immigration problems concerning the issuing or renewal of visas and iqamas (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2.1). A
A number of expatriate teachers were deeply concerned that these difficulties and complexities made their security of employment tenuous. It was rightly argued that such worries interfered with their ability to concentrate on career development, because CPD was not something separable from these other factors affecting teacher satisfaction.

A further cause given for the termination of contracts of employment and thus a causal factor underlying poor job security was related to poor standards of work, when teachers were deemed to be unprofessional and ineffective. One issue here was that some teachers reported the perceived unfairness of the management assessing teacher quality through the buzz observations, performed by staff whom the participants considered unqualified to make such an evaluation (Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3.2). Thus, some felt in danger of unfair dismissal because of the unfounded negative assessments arising from an inappropriate evaluation process. A second issue discussed in Chapter 5 (Section 5.4.5) was that certain teachers might look good on paper and perform impressively during interviews, yet in practical reality they were ineffective as teachers in the classroom. The fault here was that the selection process was not always conducted by TEFL specialists. This is often the case in large English preparatory programmes in Saudi Arabia. Thus, recruiters should have a reasonable familiarity with the field of TESOL or TEFL, so that they would know at least minimally what is meant by the ELT profession and so that they could revisit, review and revise the current hiring standards (Johnston, 1999).
Applying a business model to the employment of teachers, with students being regarded as customers, it can be fairly expected that teachers should attain a certain level of quality of service in order for contract renewal to be seen as justifiable. Since, consistent with the rationality of marketisation, the customer is always right, KSU-PY should listen to the students so that it could be determined whether they themselves considered that their learning needs were being met (Alshahrani, 2014). Across higher education, numerous aspects of quality assurance models highlight the importance of the quality of teaching and of teachers’ standards of performance. It is further noted and evident from the data presented in Chapter 5 that the staff handbook issued by the PYP (reference withheld in order to maintain confidentiality) clearly sets out that scrutiny will be applied to those teachers who score consistently low on the teaching survey that the students themselves will complete. Furthermore, termination can be expected to be the result if there is no evidence of improvement. This is something that the teachers complained of as unfairly threatening their job security and thereby their job satisfaction.

Although it has been argued by career specialists such as Rosen and Paul (1998) that job security as once understood should have no place in the modern world and should be regarded as outmoded, the teachers interviewed for this research tended to hold the opinion that job security at the university and in the PYP should be seen as a motivating factor for expatriate teachers. In addition, they were impressed by the fact that the Saudi administration warned people who could be at risk of termination and provided them with a second chance. Indeed, despite their concerns arising from the perception that buzz observations threatened job security by their very nature, some
interviewees were apparently confident about their job security. Many had in fact served for many years on the PYP, thereby implying that there was in reality a reasonable level of job security at the institution.

A further significant factor underlying these issues is the current absence of local competition for the available English teaching jobs. Expatriate EFL teachers assume that the situation where relatively few Saudi nationals are qualified and competing for work as English teachers beyond secondary school level will continue and that this continued shortage of local candidates will make the employment position of the foreign TEFL practitioners much more secure than it would otherwise have been. It is important to recognise that the situation is nevertheless changing gradually, as increasing numbers of Saudis are now entering the job market for English teachers at the tertiary level. This is a complex and sensitive issue, since on the one hand Saudi Arabia has embarked upon a strategic and comprehensive Saudisation employment policy (Ahmed, 2016), while on the other hand there is still a widespread subscription to the belief in native speaker superiority in language teaching.

Despite all these factors, the interview data suggest that most participating teachers felt some significant dissatisfaction with their level of job security, which in turn would have a negative impact on their level of job satisfaction and the strength of their inclination to engage with CPD.

6.5.3 High turnover effects

In the context of the present study, as elsewhere in education and in employment generally, some level of turnover is unavoidable and even to
some extent desirable, giving universities, as it does, the renewed opportunity to bring in new blood. However, if it occurs at too high a rate, turnover becomes disruptive and distinctly undesirable. First, the university loses qualified faculty members who have accumulated a rich body of experience. Secondly, high turnover is costly in terms of recruitment, because the organisation must then expend both time and financial resources in filling vacant positions and in training new teachers. In addition, high turnover can damage the morale of the remaining employees, or indeed that of recent recruits, which will make them more likely to want to leave in their turn, making the problem all the worse. High turnover can also add to the work related stress experienced by the remaining employees who find themselves having to fill the gaps in the timetable until new teachers are hired and trained. This may in turn affect their job satisfaction and their inclination to engage in CPD, even among those whose intention to remain in their posts is not significantly affected.

While it is easy to find research showing that high teacher turnover adversely affects teaching (e.g. Khawary and Ali, 2015), I have not found any sources showing that high employment turnover among teachers affects their willingness to participate in CPD. It is not mentioned, for example, by AlAsmari (2016), who conducted a study in a context close to that of the present one.

6.6 Recruitment of teaching staff

One implication of the difficulties associated with high turnover discussed above is that universities must invest heavily in recruitment and hiring. This
will often involve multiple screening and interview stages, which tend to be
time consuming and costly (Molesworth, Scullion, & Nixon, 2010). Interviewees cited in Chapter 5 (Section 5.1.3.2) indicated that the university’s use of recruitment subcontractors was failing in its aim of ensuring that well qualified and experienced teachers were hired, which had an inevitably negative impact on teaching quality and subsequently on CPD engagement, as will be discussed below.

Teachers can be separated into two categories, comprising those who have obtained the required qualifications and those who do not meet the minimum requirements. One of the teachers interviewed for this study stated that his specialisation had nothing to do with TESOL or indeed with education. Having worked in England in marketing, he had come to Saudi Arabia after the financial crash of 2009 in the hope of earning a salary free of income tax, augmented by the income that he could generate by offering private tuition, and was recruited without his qualifications being checked. He referred in interview to the university’s retention problem, which he ascribed partly to the inefficiencies of the subcontracting companies responsible for recruitment and salaries, with many teachers leaving because they felt unable to trust the contractors employing them. What is clearly needed is more accountability, with the university playing a more central role in the recruitment of its teaching staff.

Concerns with recruitment and suggestions for its improvement may not seem directly related to the enhancement of CPD. It is more common for the quality of the trainers, rather than the quality of the teachers, to be given as a reason
for unsuccessful CPD (Cimer et al., 2010). Nonetheless, PYP teachers believed that good selection of teachers would be the first step in this direction (Chapter 5, Section 5.4.5). Therefore, I would argue that checking qualifications to make sure that the people being recruited were professionally qualified is a very important element in the recruitment process that the university ought to implement, because it is evident from the findings that people sometimes manage to obtain employment as EFL teachers at the university with almost no appropriate qualifications of any kind.

The extreme variation in the quality of the English language teachers recruited through the existing procedures also has implications for the CPD provided by KSU due to the fact that the university has been shown to rely on the training model of CPD (Hoban, 2002; see also Chapter 3, Section 3.5.1). Since this model takes a standardised approach, offering the same training to all teachers, it may then struggle to assist low quality or inexperienced teachers on the one hand, while at the same time satisfying genuinely qualified and experienced teachers on the other hand. If an institution additionally encourages more activities associated with approaches to CPD such as the community of practice, action research or transformative models (Kim, 2011), it might then have a better chance of the CPD being suited to the needs of individual teachers, however greatly they differ among themselves in qualifications, experience and skill levels. Hence, the provision of CPD of this kind might turn out to be more easily accepted by teachers of a wider range of abilities and might prove to be of more help to them in furthering their professional development.
The great variation in teacher quality due to poor recruitment procedures ties in with the fact that some teachers appeared to believe that the reason behind the buzz observations was that they were in effect a belated attempt to tackle the consequences of unqualified teachers being hired and not being able to work to the necessary minimum standard; hence the reference to these observations as a “necessary evil” brought upon the majority by a small number of unprofessional and unqualified people not acting in a professional manner (Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3.2). This, the teachers reasonably believed, would not have happened if the university or its contractors had not recruited inadequately qualified teachers.

In any case, some teachers saw these observations as regrettably necessary, since certain teachers were indeed underperforming, for whatever reason. Some participants therefore did not mind being policed and felt that these observations served a purpose in ensuring a minimum level of teacher performance, especially among those recruited by subcontractors to teach on the PYP, who tended to be unqualified and unprofessional, according to some of their fellow teachers. Other participants, however, found observations humiliating, especially as they caused disruption and had no positive impact on improving practice.

While there was a feeling among some interviewees that the university was beginning to make more successful attempts to tackle the weaknesses in its recruitment practices, it seems inevitable that the PYP context was impoverished and characterised by the hiring of too few adequately experienced and properly qualified teachers. Participants therefore justifiably
felt the need for the university to improve the hiring process, instead of having to impose CPD in the form of buzz observations, which as I have argued in Chapter 2, Section 2.5.4, were not really CPD in the normal sense at all, but performance management assessment.

Commercialisation and commodification of education is perhaps the ultimate cause of the phenomena being discussed here. As Mohamedbhai (2002) asserts, universities are now run as corporate entities, whose main objective is to generate income to cover costs, at the expense of the education they should be prioritising. This idea may be said to be sweeping through higher education in Saudi Arabia, and as this study has shown, has had an effect on teaching and on CPD, via the decision of universities to rely upon private recruitment agencies to provide them with teachers of English. A consequence is that the interests of the universities, their staff and students are to some extent subordinated to those of the agencies themselves.

The commodification of education and the effect of this on universities have been the subject of much discussion in the literature. One example is a more persistent and permanent commercial colonisation of education or in other words, the adoption of a consumer driven philosophy to guide education (Kennedy, 2014). Schwartzman makes the point that the commodification of higher education involves the idea of developing a value system which prioritises the instrumental value of education before everything else. Within this approach, outsourcing some key functions which universities traditionally would always have performed themselves, such as recruitment, is quite reasonable. However, in the present context this has led to a greater
presence of unqualified teachers due to the bad recruiting process, which in turn is having a damaging effect on the higher educational experience not only of fellow teachers but also of the students (or in terms more appropriate to the commodified condition of higher education, the customers).

This analysis is consistent with the view of Seybold (Schwartzman, 2013), who affirms that such practices are detrimental to the health of higher educational institutions. Moreover, privatisation may have hidden costs way beyond the consequences for CPD, such as a diminution of teacher morale (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.1.8), ultimately impacting on the teaching which occurs and so on the customers or students.

A final point that could be made here is that if it is accepted that universities should operate as if they were corporate businesses with a purely commercial raison d’être, then it must also be accepted that they should operate in the ways that effective businesses do. This would include taking all necessary steps to control and assure quality. It would appear to be a commonplace accepted by the author of any basic textbook on quality control (e.g. Oakland, 2011) that there is an advantage in exercising control over the quality of a process of production, compared with other methods of quality control, such as inspection of the product after it has been made. The former enables early detection and prevention of problems, rather than the producer having to rely on the correction of any problems after they have occurred, by rejection of the product. If this argument is applied to the recruitment issue described above, the implication is that any organisation whose business is to educate its customers to a given standard should take all necessary measures to improve
standards in the process of the recruitment of its teachers, the equivalent of applying quality control to part of the process of producing good teaching, rather than seeking to ensure the quality of teachers and thus of their teaching by inspecting them and rejecting some of them after they have been recruited, by which time the teachers who are weeded out will have already consumed the resources of the organisation while delivering a substandard product.

6.7 Cultural issues

A final issue emerging from the data is related to both professional development and recruitment; this is the need for new overseas recruits to teaching posts in Saudi Arabia to be imbued with sufficient cultural knowledge to avoid the sort of problems that can arise from culture clash and cultural dislocation. Such problems added to the difficulties of foreign teachers participating in the present study in their general day to day lives, not just when teaching (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.2.3).

Furthermore, as shown by the data presented in Chapter 5 (Section 5.1.3.1), the behaviour of some (non-Muslim) expatriate teachers could be deemed offensive to the religious, social and cultural sensitivities of the (mostly Muslim) Saudi students and fellow teachers at KSU and other Saudi universities. In some cases, problems of this sort might lead to the ending of employment contracts. Although research carried out in relation to Gulf countries has rarely highlighted the effects of unacceptable social and cultural behaviour upon the rates of job retention, it can be argued that this is an important issue and one which emphasises the need for those recruited to work in such contexts to acquire sufficient cultural knowledge to allow them to
avoid the risk of such culturally insensitive behaviour. Hence, the implications of this issue for CPD are important.

Troudi (2005) presents the argument that in order for the EFL teacher to go beyond teaching a subject, he or she needs not only to have a good grasp of the technical knowledge of language and the various discourses of the related fields, but also to be aware of the cultural and sociopolitical issues that come with the teaching of English to speakers of other languages. Despite the fact that cultural aspects and behavioural expectations are not set out as clear conditions within the employment contracts of EFL teachers, these must nonetheless be regarded by all those seeking employment in Saudi Arabia as unwritten rules of life and work there. It should also be noted that some other institutions have taken a strict stance against the alleged un-Islamic practices of certain expatriates that has led to them being dismissed from their posts. Incidents of cultural insensitivity or disrespect for Islamic ethics, traditions and practices can be expected to entail the termination of employment contracts in Saudi Arabia and many of its neighbouring countries.

A significant proportion of EFL teachers are employed within cultural and linguistic settings that are foreign to them and this is certainly true of the PYP in the present context. The majority will have had minimal experience of their students’ culture before beginning their teaching contracts and it is extremely challenging for general TESOL teacher education programmes which they may have attended in their own countries to incorporate cultural sensitivity into their programmes in order to help to prepare prospective teachers for the complexities of the cultures of English learners around the world. With this in
mind, Troudi (2005) argues that a monolingual teacher from a country such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia or New Zealand who embarks on the teaching of English as a foreign language abroad should be required to devote a significant period of time to studying aspects of life in the country or countries to which he or she intends to travel to work, including the culture, the language, the diverse ethnic groups, forms of acceptable and unacceptable social behaviour, forms of politeness, educational philosophies and practices.

There is, however, the possibility that CPD seminars, lectures or workshops could be offered locally on the role of culture in TESOL, with particular reference to the Saudi context, in order to go some way to fulfilling the specific requirement set out by Troudi (2005) with respect to teaching. This does not seem to occur at present in the context of the present study, but if it were done, teachers could then gain exposure to general concepts such as intercultural communication Troudi (2005) as well as the specific features of Saudi culture which will be most prominent in their classrooms.

Recently, in common with the new concepts of intercultural communication, a shift can be noticed towards examining how intercultural understanding is managed in certain communities of practice (Holliday, Hyde, & Kullman, 2010). Such concepts assist teachers in preparing to teach in other cultures, yet a deeper critical cultural knowledge needs to be acquired if they are to understand their students’ culture as well as their educational and linguistic needs. The development of cultural knowledge can be assured only through patience, motivation and the genuine tolerance of differences, so expatriate
teachers will find it necessary to invest significant time in learning about the new culture. Indeed, some of the participants in the current study did accept this, as indicated in Chapter 5, Section 5.1.3.1). By making such an investment of time and effort, teachers would learn to understand their students sufficiently to deliver suitable pedagogy. As for the textbooks used in KSU-PY, it is the institution which chooses these, so it is surely the responsibility of the administration, not of the teachers, to make sure that they are culturally appropriate.

Although English has gained a high status in the countries of the Arabian Gulf and among their institutions (Al Mansori, 2001; Troudi, 2002), recent military and political events have generated some negative feelings towards the West, mainly the USA and the UK. This suggests that EFL teachers in this part of the world need to be familiar with the complexities of global politics as well as the linguistic and social culture of the students. Likewise, Islam plays such an important role in the lives of Saudi students that teachers need to learn something of the major principles and practices of this religion and in what ways these influence their students’ beliefs and attitudes. This general requirement for cultural sensitivity and cultural respect is discussed by Hall (2002, p. 72), who argues that “the sociocultural worlds into which learners are appropriated play a fundamental role in shaping their language and cognitive abilities and, more generally, their cultural beliefs about the language and their identities as language users.” In this way, it can be seen that although the teachers who participated in the present study did not elaborate on all of the various aspects of Saudi culture, religion and language that a teacher may be said to need to understand in order to work in the KSA,
nor on the extent to which these elements of cultural appropriateness are adequately addressed in the CPD provided, there is evidently a need for teachers to know that understanding and appreciating another culture is an essential part of foreign language teaching (House, 2012). Accordingly, there are some sensitive aspects of culture, as mentioned earlier, that the teachers have to be familiar with and which they must know how to handle in a certain way. This can be clearly seen, as some interviewees mentioned, when they had to deal, for example, with certain aspects of religion or even with pieces of language that could be understood as implying sexual references. As alluded to in Chapter 2 (Sections 2.2 and 2.2.2) in Chapter 5 (Section 5.2.1.4), there are restrictions in Saudi society to accord with Islamic values and beliefs and also local traditions and beliefs (Hall, 2013), which teachers need to be sensitive to and seek information about.

### 6.8 Conclusion

As well as the lack of autonomy referred to in Sections 6.2.1 and 6.4.1, previous research has repeatedly identified issues such as insufficient time after work to pursue CPD (Arbaugh, 2003; Buczynski & Hansen, 2010), workloads that are deemed to be excessive, working conditions which are unsupportive and inadequate provision of CPD courses that are considered to be relevant (Flores, 2005). When all such issues are combined, they can be a source of tension between the conflicting needs of the individual teacher, the professional system and the institution (Burns, 2005). Hence, Burns (2005) and Gravani and John (2005) have claimed that teachers in many contexts believe that their voices are unheard and the planning of their own CPD does not adequately value their personal input. These tensions can be detrimental
to effective teacher learning and its optimisation (Palincsar et al., 1998; Gravani, 2003, cited by Gravani & John, 2005), with inevitably negative consequences for the commitment and motivation of teachers. It was also found by Tang and Choi (2009) that market oriented and managerialist approaches to education will contribute towards an externally driven CPD.

Therefore, since teachers need an appropriate programme of continuing professional development to ensure their growth and improvement, as well as to meet needs of the institutions that employ them, it is important to connect such programmes with the students’ syllabuses, with effective teaching strategies, with teachers’ real needs and with each institution’s pedagogical objectives, in order to improve CPD programmes in Saudi universities (Yamani, 2000) and to arrive at a situation where the CPD that is delivered is more bottom up and cooperative in nature. To achieve this, it is essential to elicit teachers’ views and experiences and then to take full account of them. A major contribution of the present study is to have done just this.
CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

My first purpose in this final chapter of the thesis is to review the major findings with respect to the research questions. Next, I shall attempt to sum up the foregoing discussion of results into a few key meta-themes, showing how the present study connects with others and contributes to knowledge about CPD. This leads to important implications that may be drawn from the study in relation to teacher CPD in the KSA. This includes my recommendations for each of the relevant stakeholders in the CPD process in the context of the KSA, including not only the university where the study was conducted but also the recruitment agencies, MoE policy makers and the teachers themselves.

Next, I will discuss some limitations of the study that should be recognised. This leads to suggestions for future possible investigations into teachers’ knowledge and their professional development. The chapter ends with my personal reflections on the research journey.

7.2 The research questions revisited

This section considers each of the research questions in turn, beginning by restating the question as set out in Chapters 1 and 4, then reviewing those findings of the study which are most relevant to that particular question.
7.2.1 RQ1

What do EFL teachers working in the preparatory year English programme at a Saudi Arabian university understand by the term ‘continuing professional development’?

Participants shared the view that teacher CPD was essentially professional learning which made the teacher better in some way. In particular, they saw it as something that should add to existing skills, with less mention of possible effects on other aspects of the teacher’s wellbeing such as career enhancement or confidence. Many saw it as crucial to keeping up to date with new ideas, while some emphasised its lifelong duration. Most talked in ways that implied that they thought of CPD as typically something which should be supplied to them by others, especially by the university authorities, through training of some kind. Others, however, recognised that CPD should involve peer collaboration (one referred to a ‘community of practice’) or teacher self-development (one actually spoke in terms of CPD as ‘self-actualisation’).

7.2.2 RQ2

What continuing professional development activities are currently in place and which do the teachers actually engage in?

It was clear that all of the participants had engaged in certain CPD activities because they were obligatory in the institution where they were employed. These activities were primarily the induction week, CPD training weeks in half term breaks, regular CPD sessions and workshops, and ‘buzz’ lesson observation sessions by supervisors.
Outside of what was imposed in this way, individual teachers reported some occurrence of a wider range of CPD activities such as peer observation, attendance at international conferences, taking external master’s and other courses, personal reflection and self-evaluation. There was little or no mention of teacher driven activities such as self-observation, keeping a teacher journal, engaging in action research, casual exchange of ideas in the staffroom, exploiting feedback from students for CPD, using the internet as a source of the latest teaching ideas or to communicate with other teachers, or reading books or journals on English teaching.

7.2.3 RQ3

In the view of these teachers, what is the nature of the challenges that they and other teachers face in their attempts to engage in continuing professional development?

Teachers expressed many negative attitudes to the obligatory CPD components provided by the institution, which means that they viewed them as in some ways challenging rather than facilitating their personal CPD.

One major issue was the overall top down approach whereby the university was reported as imposing its choice of CPD on teachers without their involvement in the choice of activities or of the specific content of workshops. Their non-involvement in the latter meant that the topics of workshops and other such activities were often reported by teachers to be too ‘theoretical’ or in some way not relevant to their real classroom experience; furthermore, they did not always consider them to be delivered by good presenters. The control exercised by the university extended to not allowing the EFL teachers the
freedom to choose to participate or not, as they saw fit, in the sessions that were provided, not even when it came to events such as the induction week, which they were obliged to attend every year, irrespective of their length of service at the university and of how many such events they had therefore attended in previous years. It also meant that teachers lost entitlement to holidays due to the requirement to attend CPD weeks.

Another key issue was the conflation of the evaluation and appraisal of teachers’ performance with their CPD in respect of the ‘buzz’ observation sessions. These were regarded by the university as a form of CPD but, as teachers commented, actually had many of the characteristics of inspection and evaluation, given that the primary outcome was the grading of the teachers’ performance by supervisors who came into lessons without warning several times per year, who were not necessarily better qualified than the teachers and who focused on management issues such as whether they were teaching the officially designated lesson for that week. Teachers differed in their opinions of the value of any feedback that they received, but the lack of opportunity to respond to it signals it as not being the kind of interactive feedback which one would expect after a classroom observation that had a fully CPD purpose.

Another institutional challenge that some teachers reported was the university’s unwillingness to support teachers who wanted to participate in external CPD activities such as attending conferences. Another was its lack of provision of easy access to online journals. Yet another was its policy of short term contracts and late contract renewal confirmation, leading to a sense of insecurity which discouraged engagement with CPD.
Overall, it was felt that the university was driven by considerations which did not work towards beneficial CPD. In particular, a hierarchical management culture and the need for international accreditation were seen as combining to lead to the making of decisions about CPD on the basis of quality assurance and management considerations, which resulted in teachers’ CPD being treated partly as an instrument for the ticking of boxes, without regard for its effectiveness. These factors were also seen as causing classroom observations to be used primarily to police the teachers and to make them conform to some supposed model of good teaching. This is inconsistent with the vision of CPD as serving the learning and development of individual teachers according to their own needs, as interpreted by themselves.

Other challenges were connected with the recruitment agencies used by the university to employ foreign teachers. These included their failure always to properly check on the credentials of the teachers whom they employed, leading to some unsuitable ones being appointed, creating consequent problems for CPD the provision needed to cope with their unsuitability. The management was also criticised for its failure to provide teachers with adequate support to meet some of the challenges set out in the next paragraph.

An important source of challenge to teachers’ engagement in CPD and in their work generally, was the Saudi government’s visa policies, making it difficult or impossible for foreign teachers to gain permission to enter the country for sufficient lengths of time. This led to these teachers suffering a sense of insecurity and impermanence and it also made banking and money transfer difficult. Teachers also cited the Saudi climate, cultural challenges and poor
teacher accommodation as causes of fatigue and low morale. The cumulative effect of many of the above problems was seen to be the observed high turnover of staff, which in turn led to a consistent CPD programme being hard to maintain effectively.

The greatest purely personal challenge mentioned was the age of the teacher: e.g. one older teacher felt that he could not do as much as he used to and that spending time on CPD was perhaps not cost effective at his age.

7.2.4 RQ4

What suggestions do teachers have on how they can best be helped to continue to develop?

Teachers collectively came up with a rich range of suggestions of ways that their continued development could be promoted, mostly in relation to the university and corresponding to the challenges mentioned above.

Many teachers felt that the university authorities should listen more seriously to their voices when making decisions about the provision of CPD workshops or courses and about the choice of topics. In such ways, it was felt that the quality of the university’s core CPD sessions could be much improved, as they would address the teachers’ real needs and be delivered by better qualified and more skilled speakers.

With respect to classroom observations, one teacher argued that he and his colleagues should have the opportunity to respond to the supervisors’ feedback which followed such observation sessions. More widely, it was suggested that their policing function should be removed. One teacher
suggested that the supervisors should try teaching a few classes themselves so that they would come to understand better the realities of the classroom and the extent to which these become altered when an observer is present.

Other suggestions reflected a more widely held desire among the EFL teachers to be in charge of their own CPD, rather than having decisions about its form and content dominated by the university authorities. Ideas included teachers being encouraged to attend external CPD courses and conferences, and the university fostering a more teacher centred and autonomous CPD culture where each teacher would have a good deal of freedom to decide what to do. The realisation of such a culture could take various suggested forms, such as having the more experienced teachers mentor the less experienced ones, inviting the experienced teachers to provide some training sessions and initiating a programme of non-judgmental peer observation of teachers and their lessons.

Further suggestions included the use of better initial selection procedures for new teachers, the provision of DELTA courses for serving teachers and better coordination by the department when it came to the timetabling of CPD sessions and the allocation of rooms for the purpose.

7.3 Wider themes represented in the results: Contributions of the study

In the discussion of the findings in Chapter 6, a number of key broader themes were identified as being represented in the data. Many resonate in the literature and in other contexts, and I regard the current study as making an important contribution to the understanding of these issues through what it
has discovered concerning their application to the unique context of this study.

First, I should say that the findings presented in this thesis highlight the nature of teacher development as being socially situated. In particular, the findings suggest that the professional development of teachers in the chosen context within Saudi Arabia is specific and probably quite distinct when compared to the professional development of teachers elsewhere. The study has also confirmed that CPD in real life is a complex phenomenon whose understanding is far from straightforward. Consideration must be given to the many factors at work, including not only teachers’ views about their own CPD, but also the availability of CPD in their current context, the role of the institution where they work and those of other relevant organisations like the responsible ministries and the external CPD providers. In addition, account must be taken of who the teachers are, their geographical location and where they come from.

Despite the uniqueness of each CPD situation, including the one under investigation here, it was nevertheless possible to identify some commonalities with other studies on particular issues. I shall now briefly review the main ideas that emerged (largely in Chapter 6) under four heads, each one of which can be labelled in terms of an opposition.

**7.3.1 CPD as training sessions versus other activities**

With respect to what the participating teachers believed CPD to be, it was apparent that the findings were fairly similar to those of the rather scarce other studies in Arab and similar contexts, which have considered beliefs of this sort
held or expressed by teachers. These participants shared a basic understanding of the concept in terms of continuous learning and skills development.

When it came to details, however, even the teachers within the particular context of the current study did not individually share a highly developed notion of all the facets of CPD. These PYP teachers at KSU tended to associate CPD primarily with some form of training provided by their superiors. This ‘traditional view’ is common in the West as well as in many other parts of the world (Hustler et al., 2003). Both in talking about what they believed CPD should be thought of as being and in describing what CPD they had actually engaged in, the participating teachers spoke far more about what was provided to them by the university and more sparsely about peer or self-generated CPD. This implies that they subscribed fundamentally to a belief in the ‘training model’ (Alghamdi & Higgins, 2015), although in fact their reported practices in some instances showed that other forms of CPD were actually being practiced in the PYP unit at KSU.

7.3.2 CPD as meeting the needs of employers versus teachers

A key theme that emerged in relation to the provision of CPD and challenges to it in the context of the present study was that of the tension between the requirements of the institution on one hand and individual teachers’ needs on the other. While the emphasis was more on the latter three decades ago, when teacher-centred reflective CPD was widely endorsed, today the pendulum appears to have swung back in many contexts to favouring the needs of institutions. In the contemporary globalising world, the need for countries whose governments aspire to be international ‘players’ to have a
workforce that can operate successfully in today’s international language, English, has led to the application of ever more pressure on their educational systems to provide a cohort of university graduates who can meet this requirement. This is to be seen for example in the condition recently imposed in some Taiwanese universities, under Government pressure, whereby in order to graduate, all students must pass the Test of English for International Communication at a certain level, regardless of their major and whether it is taught in Chinese or English (Pan and Newfields, 2012).

In the KSA, this pressure to meet the needs of globalisation shows itself in the need for universities to be accredited, which in part has led to the introduction of the preparatory year between school and starting on university majors, largely devoted to the improvement of students’ English proficiency, and the fact that those majors are increasingly being taught through the medium of English. It has been found, however, that state schools in the KSA still often produce leavers of very low proficiency and that the preparatory year is failing to raise their level effectively to that required for English medium study or for successful functioning in later life in a world where English is ever more strongly entrenched as the predominant international language. A consequence of this is that the university authorities appear to be extremely anxious to make the preparatory year as effective as possible and this probably accounts at least in part for the heavily regimented and evaluational kind of CPD that KSU-PY endorses, effectively drilling teachers into one pattern of teaching which the authorities deem to be the most effective or indeed the only effective one.
In such a context it is natural to find that teachers are prone to making complaints about their voices not being elicited, or if elicited not being listened to. It is equally unsurprising that teachers believe that the real purpose of CPD, which they see as being to provide the ideas and skills relevant to the lessons they actually teach, has become lost. The ultimate consequence of this can be that teachers feel a sense of disempowerment and alienation, leading to a lack of commitment to their work, including to what they perceive as the inadequate and irrelevant CPD that is imposed on them. This again is not something unique to the context of the present study, but in a different form is reported to have been observed even in the UK (Orr, 2009). Nevertheless, it is essential to recognise that it is entirely appropriate for institutions to have their own objectives or needs that must be accommodated.

7.3.3 CPD as threatened by contextual problems of foreign versus local teachers

The teachers who participated in the current study were mostly of foreign origin rather than Saudi nationals, but among the foreign teachers there were degrees of foreignness. This went beyond the commonly mentioned simple opposition between native speaking and non-native speaking teachers of English. For instance, some foreign teachers were Muslim and spoke Arabic, others were Muslim but did not speak Arabic (coming from Pakistan, for example), while a third category was those who were non-Muslim native speakers of English. Another of the key themes that emerged was that of the position of these foreign EFL teachers and the challenges that they faced simply as a function of the extent of their foreignness.
Aside from the institutional control of CPD, the next most important source of challenge was in fact a raft of contextual factors which had a significant impact on everything that the foreign teachers did, their effect on CPD being just a part of this overall impact. As the analysis of the data has shown, this contextual influence included issues connected with cultural unfamiliarity, with accommodation, with visas, with limited contracts and with a number of other factors. These culminated in producing a considerable sense of insecurity in teachers, reflected in their high turnover, which was not and could not be conducive to the effectiveness of any CPD programme. This can usefully be interpreted in terms of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, in the sense that teachers were finding that their needs were not being met at basic levels lower down the Maslow pyramid, which made it difficult to achieve any degree of success with activities designed to satisfy their needs at higher levels, involving CPD.

This kind of perspective appears to have rarely been applied to teachers, although I am aware of one similar study in Oman, where the factors affecting foreign teachers were, however, not identical to those identified in the present study (Khan 2011).

7.3.4 CPD as teachers' assimilation to themselves as a community of practice versus the institution as a community of practice

One final major theme that emerged concerned the nature of teachers’ responses to the challenges that they faced in benefiting from CPD in their situation. Since the institutional imposition of CPD was considered by teachers to be extremely restrictive in monitoring, policing and controlling their own CPD as well as their actual teaching and as inadequate in addressing
their true developmental needs, there were signs that some of the participating teachers might be seeking or indeed exercising alternatives in the form of teacher centred and autonomous CPD practices.

Some more experienced teachers, for example, did imply that they had engaged in their own reflective activities or autonomous study as a form of CPD. Others, in answering questions about what changes they would like to see, made suggestions about non-institutional CPD, involving peers or activities away from the university such as conferences. Some teachers had joined one of the local professional language teaching associations, namely KSAALT TESOL, an organisation which aims to provide its members with networking opportunities and access to professional development events of the highest quality at a reasonable cost.

I would argue for a ‘multiple communities of practice’ interpretation (Lave and Wenger, 1998) of this situation. Communities of practice, otherwise known as professional learning communities, can be conceptualised as affording structural support, collaborative learning and increased professional competency, whether they form part of an institutional education system or are simply alternative social groupings of like-minded practitioners (Kennedy, 2014). From the interviews with teachers, it became apparent that at least some participants operated, or wished to operate, on several professional levels, both institutional and non-institutional. The latter is the level at which alternative communities function. This is different from the institutional approach because these communities have been established spontaneously and informally by colleagues who have grouped together because they have similar interests. The benefits of such alternative communities include the
provision of an environment where teachers can cooperate informally, maintain a form of democracy among members of the community and participate in shared dialogue whilst remaining focused on the particular topics that are of mutual interest. Involvement in such communities is not associated with formal performance appraisals and they allow teachers to engage in participatory discussions with teachers from different geographical locations around the world.

On the other hand, not much is currently known about the sustainability of such initiatives, because members can join and leave at any time they wish, whether for substantial reasons or, as Grossman et al. (2001) put it, on a whim. Since the present study was not designed to be longitudinal, it was not possible to follow the participating teachers over a period of time in order to track the development, expansion and possible demise of these alternative communities.

7.4 Recommendations and implications for CPD in the study context

CPD in the context of this study is clearly influenced by factors such as those summarised above, which reduce the beneficial effects of CPD in developing ever more effective teachers. Rather than waiting for improvements to take place spontaneously, an urgent requirement exists to identify approaches which can be adopted in the short or immediate term to improve the quality of training in the present suboptimal conditions. Therefore, serious attempts must be made to find new methods for using available resources that will generate high quality teachers.
In the account above, I have represented and interpreted what the teachers who participated in this study said and have drawn parallels and comparisons with the treatment of these issues in the wider literature. Much of what the teachers had to say was critical of the current state of affairs and I agree with much of this negative assessment. The following subsections of this chapter now pick out and elaborate on those important issues which arise from what the teachers said and which I consider to have the most significant implications for the context of study, at the institutional level, for the recruiting agencies, for the MoE and other governmental bodies, for the teachers themselves and for associations of teachers. At the same time, I shall make specific recommendations separately for each of the stakeholders involved.

**7.4.1 Implications at the institutional level**

Far and away the greatest implications of this study are for the university itself, at a variety of levels. I have grouped them into four types, concerning the involvement and empowerment of teachers, the erroneous conflation of CPD with the assessment and evaluation of teachers’ performance, the decentralisation of professional development and a more general concern with teachers’ working conditions.

First and foremost, I agree with the participating teachers that the institution needs to involve all of its teachers in decisions about the CPD which it provides for them and indeed in decisions about the English teaching itself, although the latter was outside the scope of the present investigation. The teachers need to become involved in the planning, organisation and presentation of the programme of professional development activities. This
would then mean that the teachers’ educational needs would be taken properly into account (Zhang & Pang, 2016).

I recognise at the same time, however, that the university is also obliged to respect and respond to the requirements of the MoE and to the conditions which must be fulfilled in order for the university or its EFL teaching operation to be internationally accredited and to achieve national goals for its learners’ levels of proficiency in English. Thus, the CPD that is provided has also to conform with this suite of conditions. If, however, teachers were allowed and empowered to participate in the making of decisions within the institution on day to day issues of CPD and indeed of teaching, then the teachers and the institutional authorities would be more likely to be able to function together as a true community of practice (Huffman and Jacobson 2003).

This study has drawn attention to the restrictive nature of the institution with regard to occupational discourse systems for CPD. It is recognised, for example, that the approach adopted by institutions has a significant influence on teachers in mid-career and later. Teachers who have spent several years at the institution are experienced individuals with the potential to offer an array of thoughts, opinions and ideas for their CPD, yet agendas of institutional development are imposed upon these teachers at universities such as KSU, so that their voices tend to be neglected and they become peripheral participants in their own CPD. This minimal involvement of experienced practitioners means that knowledge is usually transmitted rather than collectively gathered and shared, with the institution’s standardised
approaches to CPD causing experienced teachers to increasingly resist and reject this approach.

Furthermore, even within the current system where CPD choices are dominated by the university authorities, it would be possible to make improvements if the topics and nature of the workshops and other training sessions and courses were improved. Opportunities for professional development opportunities for teachers could be widened significantly if a thorough needs analysis were carried out before the design of CPD programmes was settled. This could be done by offering workshops and seminars related to their classroom teaching, which would be of benefit to faculty members, and by choosing areas that were in the best interests of the PYP unit and teachers alike, instead of providing fragmented workshops on areas which are unrelated (Nabhani and Bahous, 2010).

Only in this way could the ‘theory-practice’ gap be properly addressed. Despite the fact that teachers appeared to be well aware of how CPD activities ought to relate theory to practice, the actual application of this relation did not appear to be being implemented at KSU-PY. A lack of matching exists between On the contrary, theory (in the CPD sessions that teachers attended) was evidently poorly matched with practice (in the lessons that they taught), implying that teachers should be empowered to assist in bridging the theory-practice gap. This suggests that CPD providers need to amend their ideas for workshops so that the sessions are useful, especially with regard to how these ideas can be implemented in the classroom. The
elicitation of teachers’ views on the different types of professional development that they need is likely to be a good starting point.

The second major concern is the conflation by the university of the assessment and evaluation of teachers’ performance with CPD. While I accept that it is entirely appropriate that any educational institution should check on the performance of its teachers from time to time by conducting a programme of observations and inspections which is overtly evaluative, I do not believe that the buzz observations in their present form can effectively serve this purpose and at the same time function as true CPD.

With respect to teacher evaluation, I would first suggest that it should be separated from teacher CPD both administratively and in its delivery. Rather than observation for the purposes of teacher inspection and evaluation being handled, as now, by the PD unit, it could be separately organised and delivered by the Quality Assurance unit. Such inspections need not occur as often as at present, but they should definitely be conducted by supervisors who are experienced teachers and can be accepted by the teachers as having due authority and knowledge to perform teacher assessment and evaluation. Furthermore, it is suggested that staff be given an opportunity to respond to buzz observation feedback, as one of the participants (Adam) proposed.

It should be noted that I do not favour alternative approaches to teacher evaluation such as relying on students to evaluate teachers. There are many irrelevant factors that are likely to intervene and make such evaluations unfair, such as the students’ level of ability and achievement, personality differences
and whether the students really know their own pedagogical needs better than their teachers do.

Quite separately from observation for evaluation, I would suggest that especially for teachers with less experience of teaching on the PYP, genuine CPD observations under the management of the PD unit could occur by previous agreement and arrangement. Here, the observers would have the role of mentors rather than inspectors, advising and sharing ideas instead of passing judgment. Peer teachers could be involved and the focus would be on genuine teaching issues rather than bureaucratic aspects of lessons. Again, there is a need to avoid the current feeling among teachers that mentors were not adequately experienced or sufficiently qualified in assisting new teachers to teach. Such visits would help teachers to improve in a way that unannounced buzz observations cannot.

Peer observation of this sort could be performed as a continual activity and it might be improved by the implementation of a pre-observation checklist, in line with a study by Barócsi (2007) which concluded that supported and structured observation assisted teachers to recognise specific points that they could not identify without feedback from others. In addition, teachers believed that peer observation should be an activity that is conducted on a friendly level between colleagues. Interestingly, this is consistent with the suggestion of Hoy, Hannum and Moran (1998) that teachers become more interested in professional development activities if they involve the support of their peers.

Optimal peer observation should then include free discussion and constructive criticism. Overall, the teachers interviewed in the present study valued CPD
and as such it is suggested that it might improve staff morale and engagement with CPD if the development elements were separated from the evaluative or punitive ones.

Thirdly, the findings of the study also suggest the need for more radically decentralising professional development activities. The university should recognise that CPD is more than a collection of training courses and monitoring activities decided and provided by and for the institution; this recognition should lead it to encourage more self-directed professional development activities by the teachers themselves, which would promote teachers’ individual learning.

This requires the teachers themselves (as discussed in Section 7.4.4), as well as the institution, to gain awareness of and belief in the importance of teacher centred CPD and its wide range of types (Section 7.2.2) that can be pursued individually or with peers, in non-institutional communities of practice. This approach also requires the university to provide adequate support for bottom up CPD initiatives from teachers. The present study has provided evidence that this includes support for travel to conferences, the allowance of time for teachers to engage in their own CPD (compare the ‘INSET days’ or ‘non-pupil days’ in the UK educational system), the availability of rooms if teachers decide amongst themselves that it would be beneficial to hold informal meetings beyond the jurisdiction of the PD unit, and the provision of proper access to relevant books and journals to read, via the facilities on campus.

A computer with easy accessibility to the internet is the easiest method for EFL teachers’ self-directed professional development so that they can have
access to online journals and other related professional development sites. The administration can play a supportive role in such self-directed professional development by ensuring that suitable periodicals are available and by showing appreciation for teachers’ good work.

Overall, decentralised professional development should generate better opportunities for teachers’ individual learning. If professional development is also directly linked to career development, then the motivation of teachers to search for and engage in professional development activities will increase. In particular, further support for their participation in research work and conferences would assist in maintaining teachers’ motivation (Neami, 2007).

Such recognition of the importance of teacher centred professional development can be regarded as the first step in helping teachers to begin to adopt new learning and development strategies of their own. Professional development, as revealed by the present study, should meet teachers’ individual professional needs and should be both decentralised and specialised. This is in line with the results of Alwan (2000), who stresses the importance of professional development that is constructed in accordance with an elaborated needs analysis.

A further recommendation related to this issue of decentralisation, although it lies a little way beyond the scope of this thesis, is that teachers should be given more freedom not only to conduct their own CPD but also to try out in their lessons the different teaching ideas that they meet through their CPD. The curriculum of PYP teaching is strongly oriented towards the sitting and passing of examinations and one of the effects that this has had is that
students have come to prefer the transmission model of teaching. Teachers have followed this, preferring strategies which they thought would help their students to successfully complete the requirements of the curriculum in time for examinations, despite believing that this was not in reality the most effective approach to learning. This finding is consistent with evidence that the teachers preferred not to experiment with any innovative concepts and teaching methods which they might have learnt about in the course of their CPD, because of the constraints on the curriculum and teaching methods which again were found to have been imposed by the university authorities without the teachers themselves being consulted. Clearly, the freedom for a teacher to pursue his or her own choice of CPD will serve only to result in frustration for that teacher if it is not accompanied by the complementary freedom to innovate and experiment in the classroom, using ideas that are derived from that CPD experience.

A final proposal concerning the roles of the institution and of individual teachers in the design, selection and implementation of CPD is that the university should inaugurate a partnership with the recruiting agencies and other universities with the aim of setting up a professional development and resource centre where teachers and other stakeholders in teachers’ CPD can meet. It would also be a good idea to establish a website associated with this centre, for the exchange of ideas among the members, both individual and institutional. Members of this centre for professional learning would share an interest in comparing and contrasting learning within and across different professional contexts. The centre might focus on understanding the relationship between formal and informal professional development.
throughout teaching careers. It could also address the interplay of theory and practice in classroom teaching. Such a centre for professional learning and development should seek to cultivate innovative approaches to professional development and offer support to both institutions and teachers in this enterprise. The centre could, for example, host access to the Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), which are a unique resource for learning, because of their cost-free and unconditional nature as a substitute for expensive alternatives.

Fourthly, there is need for the institution to take better care of its teachers in some general ways not specific to CPD. This particularly affects the foreign teachers. One of my recommendations would be that the university should not use contractors to recruit its EFL teachers (see Section 7.4.2), but should hire them all directly instead. The difficulty with this suggestion, however, according to one interviewee (John), is that the university is limited by a national maximum tariff when employing teachers directly, which it could circumvent in the case of agency staff by the payment of a generous service fee to the subcontractor. In any case, it is essential that the university keeps itself up to date with all of the latest changes in the market and the economy.

Furthermore, a review should be carried out with respect to the working conditions of teachers. The conditions under which teachers work should enable them to feel respected and to go to work with the confidence of knowing that they will earn enough to meet their basic day to day needs. They must also feel that they can make decisions without victimisation by superiors.
or other colleagues, implying the need to establish a legal framework to safeguard the welfare of teachers.

Adherents of the theory of eupsychian management (Maslow, 1954) argue that employees will work with maximum efficiency when the employing organisation implements policies that satisfy the holistic nature of human beings by taking into account their psychological health and wellbeing. In relation to this concept, the findings discussed in this thesis suggest that certain recommendations can be made with regard to expatriate teachers as well as to the immediate research context. In terms of expatriate teachers and their professional life, it is recommended that various administrative policy changes should be adopted to prevent teachers becoming discouraged. For instance, the management of workloads should be improved in order to ensure the fair and equitable allocation of teaching hours among the teachers, irrespective of their nationality or expatriate status. Such recommendations are considered necessary to forestall the risk of burnout to which teachers are typically prone in circumstances where the burden of their work is not adequately managed (Coombe, 2008; Gençer, 2002). This would also allow sufficient time and opportunities for teachers to socialise with their colleagues.

7.4.2 Implications for the recruitment agencies

Although the university has recently deepened its relationship with the recruiting agencies and extended the current contractual period from two to three years, as described by one of the participants (Chapter 5, Section 5.3.1.8), I have argued above that it is now time for the university to re-examine its relationship with these recruiting agencies. Ideally, I believe that
the university would do well to cease contracting with these agencies and instead take on their role for itself, by operating a system of direct hiring of all teaching staff. For the time being, however, until the university implements such a direct hire policy, the following changes are recommended for the agencies.

First, the agencies should make sure that they adequately check the credentials of applicants so as to ensure that a workforce of more consistent quality is supplied to the PYP unit at KSU. Failings here were seen as contributing to poor CPD, since sub-standard teachers encouraged the university’s use of observation in a purely evaluative or policing function and made it difficult for workshops and the like to meet the needs of all teachers. In terms of employers, they should in my opinion be linked to the field of TESOL so they would at least know what is meant by the ELT profession; and most importantly they should keep up to date with both the literature and the movement surrounding TESOL, which would entail keeping in touch with associations in this field (Zafar Khan, 2011).

More effort should also be expended in providing better cultural guidance to foreign teachers before they come to the university, as well as immediately after their arrival. It is recommended that this orientation should be delivered to teachers in two distinct parts. Responsibility for the first tranche would lie with the recruiting agent once teachers had been selected, to ensure that they would become familiarised with Saudi culture. This could well be done before their arrival in the country, for example by means of a DVD, some more interactive resource on a website, a helpline or chat facility with an agent in the KSA. Alternatively, a system for putting applicants in touch with foreign
teachers already working in Saudi Arabia would help newcomers to teaching in the Kingdom to become oriented to their future working context. It should be noted, however, that some teachers might change their minds about coming at all if they were discouraged by what they had learned about the culture prior to their arrival in the KSA. This would not necessarily be an unwelcome outcome, as I believe that it would be better for teachers who are unsuited to the conditions not to travel in the first place than to come anyway, in ignorance of what awaited them, only to be dissatisfied later.

The second tranche of teacher orientation should be delivered as a CPD workshop geared to work at the university, to enable teachers to better understand the local culture and the culture of Saudi learners (Alshahrani, 2014). This element could also be delivered by the agency, or perhaps better by the university.

Better support should also be given to foreign teachers after recruitment and during their employment, with respect to the problems of life in the KSA. I would suggest that the agencies should take on board more seriously the wider range of support that they need to provide in areas such as handling finance and money transfers without full banking facilities, dealing with visa and travel issues for the teachers themselves and any family members who might travel with them, and locating and arranging decent accommodation.

Another area of concern expressed by interviewees was that of their contract renewals, whose delay was reported to cause anxiety and inconvenience for teachers. The renewal of contracts is not in the gift of the site directors (the teachers’ line managers) but is decided by administration staff, mainly by the
accountant, who has no knowledge of pedagogy or of employees’ teaching ability. These matters need to be dealt with in a more timely and humane way so that teachers are not given undue stress.

Finally, the staff of the agencies would also appear to have room to improve their attitude. It was apparent that teachers felt that these agencies treated them with disdain. For instance, participants complained that the agencies would withhold their passports, even though this is contrary to international and Saudi law, and that they would often delay the making of payments due to teachers.

7.4.3 Implications for the MoE and other government bodies

I recommend that the MoE should be encouraged to use its authority and influence to the benefit of PYP English teachers in at least two ways. First, it would be helpful for the ministry to develop clear and enlightened policies on CPD which the universities would be encouraged and indeed required to follow. The MoE could also develop an English teacher CPD website or a TV channel (such as exists in Egypt), which would serve as a valuable resource for EFL teachers and help them to keep pace with the latest developments and innovations taking place within pedagogic practice.

Second, as a government department, the MoE could have more influence than universities with other government agencies such as those responsible for the administration of visas, an issue that was found to create such problems for foreign teachers.

Working conditions for teachers should also be more generally reviewed by the Saudi government in order to make teaching as attractive a profession as
possible, not only for local teachers but especially for expatriate ones. If the MoE took these issues up, it may well be that some progress could be made in improving the system to the benefit of the universities, the teachers and their students alike.

The government and the university should also work closely together in order to facilitate the direct hiring of teachers, thus avoiding altogether the need to employ recruitment agencies as an intermediary in the process. The continued application of incentives that were used to bring in sufficient numbers of lecturers ten or more years ago cannot still be relied upon as being adequate for supplying today’s academic staff, whose recruitment now needs to be much more carefully planned, executed and monitored.

7.4.4 Implications for the teachers themselves

Since it is integral to the concept of CPD which I have endorsed throughout this thesis that a good part of it should be teacher centred rather than trainer or institution centred, it follows that the responsibility for supplying a major component of what is needed in order for progress to be made can be said to lie with the teachers themselves.

First of all, teachers need to be persuaded to take charge of their own CPD, even though they are likely to remain in the position of also having to engage in CPD activities imposed on them from above. The data analysis has shown that the teachers generally adopted a view of CPD as basically being comprised of training events provided by others, although in some cases they were pursuing alternative types of CPD involving peer teachers or purely self-
development activities, while not perhaps in all cases recognising these as actually being CPD at all.

Paradoxically then, it may be that the teachers first need some training, but of a very different type to what they receive now, that is to say training in how to ‘own’ their CPD, explaining and encouraging the full range of CPD activities that teachers individually or in peer communities of practice can instigate and pursue, independently of the authorities, as described in this thesis. This could be summed up by the concept of autonomy, which can be defined in this context both as the freedom that teachers should enjoy with respect to determining their own CPD (Chapter 3, Section 3.5.9) and as the control that teachers need to perceive themselves to exercise with respect to their teaching.

As I have argued above, the teachers should play a greater role in the design and delivery of institutional CPD. What I am proposing here, however, is an improvement to CPD provision which would be made regardless of whether or not teachers were to play that augmented role. In a sense, a teacher always has the freedom to engage in reflection, for example, however strict a system he is working in. The same applies to many other forms of CPD which have been described in this thesis and which were not widely reported as occurring (see again Section 7.2.2).

7.4.5 Implications for associations of teachers

At present, associations and unions of teachers are absent from having a key role in teacher education in KSA. I would therefore offer the further suggestion that the associations and unions such as KSAALT should perhaps become
involved by laying down agreed guidelines for good practice in PYP ELT in the KSA and in CPD for PYP EFL teachers, which they could then encourage universities to follow. This type of guidance exists in the UK and is provided by teacher associations such as the British Association for Applied Linguistics. In Saudi Arabia, KSAALT or some similar body should establish a teaching council which would have a positive role in teacher training and staff development, instead of all such issues being left to academics and administrators in universities and the government. It is further possible that this council could be granted the authority to monitor its members (checking on the difficulties that teachers are having) and so assist in the negotiations for better and improved working conditions.

7.5 Limitations of the study

As I come to the conclusion of this study, it is natural that I have become aware of some limitations which must be recognised and discussed. First, while I am confident that I have gathered worthwhile and valid data from the participants whom I have interviewed, a good deal of what I have discovered and reported in this thesis in fact involves stakeholders in the CPD process other than the teachers themselves. As I have explained above, those who are more or less closely involved include the university authorities at various levels, the agencies that they employ to recruit and handle foreign teachers, the MoE and other training providers such as the British Council. For reasons of the time available to conduct the research, the limits on the length of this thesis and the need for a clearly focused topic of enquiry, it was beyond the scope of the study to involve all of these stakeholders directly, but I freely recognise that it would have been valuable to hear the varied voices of
representatives of all of them on many of the issues that have been discussed. As it is, in a sense, such research often reveals only one perspective on the phenomenon in question and therefore can tell only one side of the story.

An example of this one-sidedness or apparent imbalance is the account that has been given of the university authorities’ apparent restriction of teachers’ involvement in suggesting CPD activities and generally in making decisions about CPD or indeed issues of teaching, such as syllabus and textbook choice. This account was limited to the extent that the reasons for the restrictions were not made fully explicit in the course of the study. I believe that the explanation may in fact lie, at least in large part, in the nature of the university’s hierarchy, the teaching staff being seen merely as implementers of decisions taken by that hierarchy. This may, then, be a phenomenon arising from the unwritten norms of control followed by management personnel (Bhatti & Qureshi, 2007). However, what would ideally be available here, to support or disconfirm my own personal and subjective interpretation, would be data from interviews with some of the members of the higher levels of the university hierarchy, where they would be asked about such issues and would be encouraged to share their perspectives on the reasons for such policies.

A second point that needs to be mentioned here is that my focus of interest was predominantly on CPD in the sense of courses and workshops and of other activities (like the buzz observations) which were provided for the teachers, or indeed imposed upon them, by other participants, especially
those occupying higher positions in the hierarchy, such as the university authorities. This was from the start clearly a prime area which the study needed to focus on, due to the obvious existence of issues which teachers had with it. It would not be unreasonable to suggest that this may have led me to underrepresent in the study the amount of the more ‘bottom up’ variety of CPD that might actually have been taking place and to underestimate its possible role. By this, I refer to teacher self-development and to activities with peers constituting an alternative community of practice. These matters clearly need further investigation, a recognition which brings this concluding chapter to the question of identifying areas of potentially valuable future research.

7.6 Future research

First of all, the shortcomings just described present obvious areas for further research, not only in the context of PYP English teaching at KSU and other universities in Saudi Arabia, but more widely. As I have indicated in Chapter 1, research on in-service CPD for experienced teachers remains rather neglected in comparison with studies of the provisions made for the initial instruction of trainee teachers on PRESET courses. It also appears to be the case that research which focuses as much on the other relevant stakeholders in CPD as well as on the teachers themselves in INSET contexts is quite sparse. This then represents a rich area for future studies, where interviews would be conducted with key figures at various levels in the universities, the agencies, the MoE and so on. There is potential for a valuable additional kind of data gathering by means of focus group sessions, where teachers and representatives of relevant higher echelons of universities would be
stimulated with key questions and invited to discuss them for the benefit of the researcher.

To my knowledge, despite the popularity of the reflective approach some decades ago, there seems to be an increasing tendency to revert to a position where the label ‘CPD for teachers’ has almost been reduced to being treated as a modern synonym for institutional teacher training. This phenomenon deserves more attention than it was able to be given in the present study. In particular, in the context of Saudi Arabian universities, there is room for studies that focus less on the institutional provision of CPD and more on what have been identified in this thesis as alternative communities of practice, as well as on the various types of self-development that some teachers were found to have engaged in, especially as these evolve over time. There is more to discover about the interplay between these activities and the institutional ones, about who engages in them and about the impact they have on teachers, students and employing organisations alike.

A type of study quite different from the present one or those suggested above would be one which goes beyond finding out about what CPD provision is being designed or delivered in some context and why, and which consists instead in first developing some kind of intervention with the aim of improving some aspect of that CPD, then assessing the effects of that intervention. Such studies are quite common in PRESET contexts but apparently less so in relation to INSET. One broad underlying aim of the current study, as stated in Chapter 1, Section 1.4, has been to facilitate the taking of future steps to enhance the CPD of EFL teachers at KSU; it can be said to have achieved
this to the extent that its finding serve to prepare the way for the kind of intervention described above. Only by properly understanding the CPD which teachers engage in and by recognising teachers’ views regarding their professional development, which was the scope of the present research, will it then later be possible to take sensible steps to enhance the CPD which is designed and delivered. This in turn will enhance teachers’ pedagogically relevant knowledge and so help to improve the performance of the students in the classroom, as well as fostering the personal and professional growth of the teachers concerned.

Based on the recommendations that I made in Section 7.4, there is a whole range of interventionist research projects to be done in the Saudi context. Indeed, almost any of the recommendations made in that section could be the subject of a research study of this sort if a suggested change were in fact made and its effects systematically followed up and recorded, in order to determine whether any benefits could be identified and perhaps quantified.

7.7 Envoi: A personal research journey

As I started out on this research, one of my main intentions was to explore the CPD of English language teachers employed to teach English in the PYP unit at King Saud University and their views about CPD in the preparatory year in the context of the study. I shall now conclude this final chapter of the resulting thesis by reflecting on my research journey and the implications for my personal learning in the choice of this journey.

The original inspiration for choosing such an interesting topic as CPD came as an expansion of the research topic of my master’s dissertation, which was
entitled ‘A Preliminary Investigation of ELT Teachers’ Beliefs and Perceptions about Professional Development at the RSNF Jubail English Language School in Saudi Arabia’. The selection of this topic was encouraged by my master’s tutor and current doctoral supervisor. Having agreed on this topic, I would go to the library after each tutorial meeting in order to read some of the research areas suggested by my supervisor. Whilst reading, my primary purpose was to find relevant literature in the educational research literature that related to my research ideas and rationalise them by taking an academic and systematic approach. Along with constant reading and advancement in my knowledge of research methodology and other TESOL related modules during the first year of my doctoral programme, my thoughts started to be developed and the scope of my research became richer and clearer.

After some months of extensive reading and evaluation of literature that related to my research, I was faced with the challenge of amalgamating research philosophy with methodology to explore the questions stated at the outset of my research study. To develop an adequate conceptual framework, I first had to settle my own position in relation to ontology, epistemology, methodology and data gathering within an appropriate paradigm. Since, in contrast to the position adopted by realists, I did not view the world as a nexus of cause and effect in the context of this study, I found that it would have been inconsistent with my stance to have advocated a positivistic view of studying CPD in Saudi Arabia; instead, I wished to construct my account out of my interactions with the participants in this study. Thus, I set out to explore the views of teachers about CPD, seeking deep and rich qualitative data. I found the interpretive research paradigm to suit my purpose for studying CPD in
Saudi Arabia more than any other method, because I discovered that the interpretivist view was close to my own conception of research, with its interpretation of the world as meaningful and to be understood on the basis of the views, purposes and motives of the research participants themselves.

Having said this, the current study has been a source both of pleasure and pain for me as a teacher and as a researcher with a strong desire to record everything for the sake of ascertaining how teachers understand and view CPD. I am passionate about eliciting the rich experiences and individual viewpoints that the teachers have offered, and this passion, combined with the massive amounts of data that were gathered, was sometimes overwhelming. During this research journey, I came to recognise that being a PhD student is not just about getting a decent degree. Studying for this doctoral programme has been a golden opportunity for me to recognise how much I have advanced by reflecting on the most critical areas in my learning and teaching, and it has developed my personal and practical skills. I have come to appreciate that my teaching role is not to transfer knowledge but to share my experiences, to facilitate learning and to stimulate debate among self-directed and self-empowered learners. I believe that this appreciation has made an essential contribution to my own professional development, that it has bridged a significant gap by relating theory to practice and that in doing so it has broadened my horizons and my ability to discriminate between appropriate and inappropriate teaching practices.

For me personally, a key lesson that I have learned is that we can develop professionally by standing outside ourselves to see our practice in different
ways and by viewing our teaching and all that we do as teachers, in the
classroom and beyond, through four critical reflective lenses: through our own
autobiographies as teachers and learners, through our student’s eyes,
through our colleague’s experiences and through a careful study of the
theoretical literature (Brookfield, 1995). Thus, my research has been
instrumental in helping me to acquire an objective sense of myself in a
teaching role and to reflect critically on my own norms through these four
lenses, thus empowering me to enhance my teaching competence, to nurture
my professional growth and to improve my teaching practice.

In essence, there are many routes to achieving the status of reflective
practitioner, such as action research and observation (Ono & Ferreira, 2010).
Each teacher may choose his or her own way to achieve the goal, but for me
this required me to become an active and receptive participant. Ongoing
critical reflection on classroom pedagogy was a requirement. The learning
journey for me as a teacher required the integration of personal beliefs with
professional identity and confidence, leading to ethical and professional
standards that follow a code of conduct. Critical reflection became a natural
process for me as teacher who must be able to question and react to new
experiences, which means stepping away from a formulaic way of teaching
and resisting a classroom culture based on dominance and control. As a
modern teacher, I felt the need to be interactive, exploratory, open to critical
reflection and dynamic in my practice.

With boundless encouragement and support from my supervisor, I was able to
join many professional training sessions to improve my presentation skills,
time management and academic writing. To continue my professional development, I attended seminars, workshops and conferences relevant to my discipline, both locally and internationally (see Appendix I). In order to keep myself updated and reflecting critically on my own professional practice, I joined programmes such as Learning and Teaching in Higher Education (LTHE) at the University of Exeter, where I was doing the PhD, and I have achieved the status of Associate Fellow.

Moreover, I have familiarised myself with the Higher Education Academy website, which has subject-specific hubs that provide resources and events related to teaching. I anticipate that this website will provide opportunities to discuss teaching difficulties and techniques, thus enabling me and my fellow practitioners to overcome those difficulties.

The Higher Education Academy website has linked me to the Massive Open Online Courses, which are a unique resource for learning, embraced and enjoyed by the research participants (relevant both to me doing my research and to PYP teachers doing their CPD) because of their cost-free and unconditional nature as a substitute for expensive alternatives. Such significant educational open courses should enable me to develop critical thinking abilities. Becoming involved with MOOCs requires certain new skills, particularly in social media presence, and training in the management of online interactions. Therefore, I still need to improve and develop my skills in this field.

In Saudi Arabia, there has been launched a similar platform called Rwaq (http://www.rwaq.org), which is an online courseware platform for the Middle
East. It is a fully Arabic MOOC platform with content from local lecturers which has material relevant to the CPD of English teachers and useful to researchers like me. Rwaq is set to become a regional hub for e-learning in the Middle East and this will enable me to have contact with colleagues in the field.

I firmly believe that both the PhD and the LTHE programmes at the University of Exeter have given me many opportunities to advance my professional development, at both higher and general education levels, equipping me with the majority of the skills necessary to make progress in my professional career; I anticipate that my participation in these programmes will yield fruitful results and will place me, along with those other educators, in a position to engage in theoretical arguments about issues of teaching and learning and about research in higher education.

Finally, although I feel that I have come a long way and discovered a lot, one thing is clear: I still have much to learn.
## Appendices

### Appendix (A)

**STATE UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>UNIVERSITY/ COLLEGE</th>
<th>FOUNDATION</th>
<th>CITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>King Saud University</td>
<td>1957</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Islamic University of Madinah</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>Madinah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals</td>
<td>1963</td>
<td>Dhahran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>King Abdul Aziz University</td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>Jeddah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Princess Nora bint Abdul Rahman University</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic university</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>University of Dammam</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>Dammam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>King Faisal University</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>Hofuf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Umm Al-Qura University</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Makkah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>King Khalid University</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>Abhaa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Taif University</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Taif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>University Name</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Qassim University</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Qassim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Taibah University</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Madinah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Jizan University</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Jizan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Al Jouf University</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Al Jouf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>University of Hail</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Hail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>King Saud bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Najran University</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Najran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Albaha University</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Albaha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>University of Tabuk</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Tabuk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Northern Border University</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Rafha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Prince Sattam bin AbduAziz University</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Al-Kharj</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Shaqra University</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Shagra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Al Majma’ah University</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Al-Majma’ah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Saudi Electronic University</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Jeddah University</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Jeddah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Bisha University</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Bisha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Hafr Al-Batin University</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Hafr Al-Batin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>UNIVERSITY/ COLLEGE</td>
<td>FOUNDATION</td>
<td>CITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Effat University</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Jeddah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Prince Sultan University</td>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fahad Bin Sultan University</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Tabuk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Arab Open University</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Al Yamamah University</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ibn Sina National College for Medical Studies</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Jeddah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Dar Al Uloom university</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Prince Mohammad Bin Fahd University</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Khobar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Al Faisal University</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>Riyadh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix (B)

The minimum standards for contracting in professorial ranks are a doctoral degree from a recognized university, promotion to the rank from a recognized university, and meeting the University teaching and/or research needs as well as services requirements. The minimum requirements for contracting in Lecturer and Instructor ranks are a Master’s degree or above from a recognized university and meeting the University teaching and/or research needs as well as services requirements. In addition, eligibility to be employed on a Research Assistant rank is controlled by ensuring that the applicant holds a Baccalaureate degree from a recognized university and meets the University teaching and/or research needs as well as services requirements. (p. 3)
Appendix (C)

Native Teachers Required For King Saud University, Al Yamamah University, Princess Nora University, & Imam Mohamm University, TVTC and for Educational Group Saudi Arabia

Position 1.
King Saud University, Riyadh
Please find below details of all requirements and salary/benefits for teachers, coordinators and managers;
Teachers
Benefits:
- Tax Free salary.
- Basic monthly salary between SR 12,750 and SR 16,750 depending on experience and qualification relevance.
- Accommodation (self-contained apartment) provided or a monthly housing allowance of SR 2750 each.
- Flight, Visa and medical covered.
- Class A medical insurance
- 30 days vacation
- Multiple entry visa available.
Requirements
Any accredited bachelor's or masters degree
CELTA or Trinity certTESOL or a 120 hour TEFL (nothing less than an accredited, level 4/5, 120 hour certification will be accepted)
A minimum of four years teaching experience (any unpaid teaching experience is not accepted as experience)
Salary/Benefits Package
To work at King Saud University (KSU). Unlike other companies, our offices are actually located on the KSU campus.
-Job Nature:
- Teaching approximately 20 contact hours per week
- Approximately 20 students in each class.
- Oxford Headway Curriculum is taught
- Professional development workshops available.
Required QUALIFICATIONS:
- BA/MA PHD in related field (English studies, education...etc)
- CELTA/cert TESOL/TEFL (accredited, level 4/5, 120 hrs in class)
- Five years of experience.
- NATIVE speaker of English ONLY
Please click the youtube link to watch and know more about King Saud University
Appendix (D)

Interview Schedule

Part.1 Background questions:

How long have you been teaching in this institution?

Apart from teaching, what is the nature of your role, if any? For example, committees, administrative duties.

How long you have been teaching, in general? Where are you from?

Where did you teach before joining to this institution?

Part.2 EFL teacher’s views of ‘continuing professional development’

What does the term ‘continuing professional development’ mean to you? Explain, please.

Prompts:

Can you give an example of CPD activities?

What do you think of the CPD scheme/plan employed in this institution?

Prompts:

Can you describe the adopted CPD policy?

As a teacher, how important to you is your own professional development? Why?

Prompts:

What reward relevant to current job you can get of CPD? Prompts:

If yes, why do you need your own CPD?

What are the potential advantages? (In case of a positive response)
From your perspective, what does your institution expect from you with respect to your professional growth?

What areas of teacher knowledge are essential for the EFL teacher?

Do you think that CPD activities should include elements of this knowledge?

Prompts: p

(a) Who should provide this knowledge? For example, the teachers themselves, the recruiting agency, teacher trainers, publishers, or the institution where you work at?

Part.3 Current CPD opportunities in place

Can you please describe what sorts of CPD opportunities are offered in your current context (PYP)? And how are they implemented?

Prompts:

What kind of internal (inside your institution) CPD you take part in?

What kind of external (outside your institution) CPD you take part in?

What do you think of both the internal and external CPD activities provided by your institution?

Did any of the CPD programmes address your professional needs? Why?

What was the last CPD opportunity you were involved in?

What were the factors behind your involvement of CPD?

What sort of CPD opportunities would you rather be happy to take part in? Why?

What sort of CPD opportunities would you rather be reluctant to take part in? Why?

Who sets the institutional CPD objectives? How are they set?

Part.4 Challenges teachers face in their attempts to do CPD

What has been your experience of the current CPD programmes?

Prompts:

What has worked well?
What hinders your CPD? For example, CPD time allocated, CPD programme structure, institutional CPD policy or teaching workload.

What challenges do you face in pursuing your professional development?

Prompts:
Were there any factors that impacted your participation?
What may cause these challenges?
Are there any issues related to your job continuation?
Who can help in overcoming these challenges?

To what extent are you involved in planning and designing CPD activities/programmes at your this institution?

Prompts:
What role do/did you play?
What is your perspective towards this?
Do you have a chance to choose the content or the method in terms of your CPD?

How significant to you is your involvement in planning the professional development programs projected for your own career development? Why?

Part 5. Suggestions teachers may offer to support themselves to continue to develop

What do you expect from your institution in terms of your professional growth?

What recommendations can you provide with respect to teachers’ roles in CPD intended for their own professional growth?

What CPD approach do you prefer in terms of doing CPD in your context at PYP?

What suggestions can you offer to the management/managers in terms of designing/doing CPD in your context at PYP?

Any other preferences?
Appendix (E)

Sample interview script

START OF EXCERPT

Interviewer: what does the term continuing professional development mean to you?

Respondent: It means that I am engaged in learning, continuous learning about my, my profession in this case teaching. So that will end the continuous profession development would mean something that's not just one off programmes but something that can continue could be a series of one off things but I think more effectively are the ones that are connected together in a more sort of a systematic way.

Interviewer: can you give some examples of CPD? What I mean by CPD is continuing professional department.

Respondent: I think something that is, we do a bit of that here where they are trying to help teachers learn better ways of teaching language especially perhaps and there's a whole host of things that are needed, it might be in terms of classroom management, it might be in terms of using the materials, for example we use Q-skills here we have the online resources so we need training in how to use the online resources, that's probably an example of something that is being done here.

Interviewer: Q-skills

Respondent: Q-skills is a textbook that they use here.

Interviewer: Oh right ok, for training teachers ?

Respondent: Q-skills is a textbook we use with the students than its the Q- skills online, I-Tools I think it's called so the teachers have to be trained in how to use those materials with the students, for example. I mean that is an example of continuous professional development but I think it's quite a broad term ok it has different meanings for different people and I think it also depends on where you are in your career as well and I think people have different needs for it. One of the problems in this institution is that it's so big and so many teachers with so many different backgrounds that it's difficult to find you know the best place to offer professional development.
Interviewer: What do you think of the CPD plan or scheme/policy that employed here at this institution?

Respondent: Like I just said I think it's very challenging to provide good PD here because of the diversity in backgrounds, ages, cultures, experience... So I think that's certainly one the difficulties. I think also that, to be honest with you I think its poor, it's lacking and its indicates a lack of good professionalism from the people that are trying to provide the professional development ok

Interviewer: Themselves?

Respondent: Themselves

Interviewer: ok

Respondent: I think the people who are trying to provide the professional need more professional development.

Interviewer: First of all

Respondent: Now as this is confidential and anonymous you must, perhaps you don't understand that I come from a background of very high quality teaching contexts and to come here was like a completely different world, so you know in what they consider professional development here is nothing like what I my background is in.

Interviewer: Yes

Respondent: So I'm a little harsh in answering that question because I can only compare it to what I'm used to

Interviewer: Ya

Respondent: In terms of they are trying, they getting better, this year is definitely better than last year but there is for me there is a lack of depth in their own in their own experience and background

Interviewer: ok

Respondent: They have brought people out here which is very good but even the, it's the one-offs, I don't think they don't think this University has a culture of professional development

Interviewer: Alright
Respondent: It's not there and you have to go back there's layers of why it's not there to look at the culture of the whole institution, people are not here to be professionally developed, most of them, people are not coming from professional

Interviewer: Background

Respondent: Backgrounds thank you ok and then there's the whole it's a very interesting context I find it fascinating. Which is why I'm still here?

Interviewer: So you got a shock at first when you came first here in terms of educational you know development?

Respondent: Yes

Interviewer: Ya ok I see really, right ok as a teacher how important to you is your own professional development?

Respondent: For me personally its extremely important, I have spent twenty six years in education I been constantly developing myself I am a life learner, believe in lifelong learning tremendously I'm formally qualified bachelors, masters, doctorate I've done many other courses on the side as well some cause I want to some cause I don't, I have to so I'm very, very engaged in professional development.

Interviewer: And why is this?

Respondent: Because I love it I love learning new things, I love to think about new things, I like to be challenged I like to do research and I'm very happy to have that opportunity for that and I think that as teachers were there no, you cannot stop learning to be a good teacher you have to continue to learn and there's so many new things and I mean some things come around and change but I think that to be able to provide the best that you can to a class, to the students you have to know stuff and you have to keep learning new things and also in my career I have kinda changed a few, I started off teaching high school so my career as I taught in high schools, I taught in middle schools, I taught in international schools, I taught in universities so because I have been engaged in different contexts each time I have been wanting to learn new things now I have come back to English language learning so that’s why for me personally it is very important and I like it and I love it, I love reading, I love writing, I love going to learning new things

Interviewer: It's the life isn't really

Respondent: Well it is really

Interviewer: Just to learn everything it's just a nonstop really journey

Respondent: Exactly and that's how it should be I think
Interviewer: And without understanding that, I don't know I don't know perception or concept it's really hard to you know

Respondent: ya

Interviewer: So what are the potential advantages do you think of having this kind of on-going development do you think?

Respondent: For me personally or for...

Interviewer: Yes

Respondent: For me personally, because I can continue to learn I can develop new skills, I can enhance existing skills, if I, I think at my point in my career now I don't like to do things I already know and of course I don't know everything but some of the offerings here are a little bit too basic, I mean of course I can still learn things

Interviewer: Of course

Respondent: But I want to be challenged and I want the presenter to be to know more than I do so I can learn from him or her well him usually you know what I mean and that sometimes can be a challenge but that's what I would like to aim for

Interviewer: Thank you, from your own perspective what does your institution expect from you? Would they expect to you in your professional growth?

Respondent: I don't really know to be honest with you I don't know what they expect in terms of my professional growth

Interviewer: From your own perspective so what do you think?

Respondent: To be, I don't know

Interviewer: I know it's a hard question

Respondent: It is

Interviewer: Maybe your expectation

Respondent: I'm so over qualified for the job

Interviewer: Right

Respondent: Right for teaching especially but I loved it, I was happy to do it, now I am more professionally developed than most people in this building probably even the most possibly, possibly ok cause I been teaching for 26 years and my background
Interviewer: A lot of experience

Respondent: So their expectations I think I have exceeded their expectation to be honest with you I'm not sure what their expectation is

Interviewer: Ya

Respondent: Their expectation is to go and deliver you know engaging classes to the students and of course I know that and understand that. How they try to foster that and to facilitate that is I am a bit unsure cause I want that but I don't know what the professional development that they offering helps that

Interviewer: Ya great, thank you, on what areas of teacher knowledge are essential for the English language teacher do you think, what kind of teacher knowledge?

Respondent: Well I think they obviously a knowledge of the language is very important the mechanics of the language. I think that I believe that more important you do not have to be an expert in the English language to teach to be a good English language teacher, Ok because I think it's in the practice of teaching that is the real key to success because if you doing and so that's one thing I'm not so knowledgeable in the language itself I'm not so great at naming grammar points and so on of course when I look at them I understand them but if you give me the whatever the grammar is that we need to learn I can teach that to the students quite successfully, even though I don't have a thick knowledge of it, a deep knowledge of it, so I think more important is the art of teaching is more important, the most important thing, to engage the students, to create a climate where they can learn and they can reach their potential. I think that is the areas that are important

Interviewer: That's what they call pedagogical knowledge

Respondent: Exactly but not only the knowledge of it though it's also the practice of it cause you can know a lot of pedagogy I but if you go in that in the classroom and you cannot engage the students and relate to them and have them be interested in learning, well that's nothing so it's not only the knowledge it's the craft if you like ok of teaching, of how students learn that's the other thing my background is also on how humans learn and I think just like, you know the doctors need to know how the human body works and we work with the brain, right, we need to know how the brain works so I think part of professional development needs to be is how do students, how do humans learn, how do these guys at this age and this context learn and I have a background in that so I know how important I think that that knowledge is that makes the difference between you know teaching and a teacher like a doctor and a good doctor you know
Interviewer: Right what do you think about Cultural knowledge, do you think it is needed here?

Respondent: Absolutely its extremely important because the students are coming to us from a culture there's three levels of the culture, there's the let's start with the small there's the classroom culture - that's very important, there's the institutional culture then there's the societal culture

Interviewer: Layers of cultures

Respondent: Yeah layers and those three layers are all connected and interactive ok so you must have an understanding of the societal culture, ok you must have an understanding, you are you are influenced and bound by the institutional culture and you can create a classroom culture within those levels ok because you know we come here there are certainly things that we do here that we not doing in another country, in another culture and there's certainly things that we do not do here that we can do or would do in another culture so that has an impact on how we behave.

Interviewer: And from your own view who should provide this knowledge do you think? For example teacher themselves, recruiting agencies, teacher trainers, publishers or the institution

Respondent: I don't think the responsibility lies in one party everyone has to of course the teacher must take on the responsibility to learn about the culture, the external culture, the societal culture. Y the recruitment agencies or the employers have a right not a right, have an obligation rather to inform them ok you must you should read yourself, I think it's just not one party a combination ok. I like to ask the question and I didn't ask the question here, but I like to ask what is the culture like at your institution right if I'm looking to go there because you need to fit into the culture as well

Interviewer: Exactly

Respondent: Right and so that part of why a lot of people leave this place I'm sure a few others well other teachers leave very quickly and that's part of that it doesn't mix it doesn't work

Interviewer: Why is that do you think?

Respondent: Because I think the expectations to part of the problem and there's many problems not just one one of the problems is that expectations are created by the recruiters and they not met and then there's disappointment and pain and frustration and all of that ok and I think it's a matter of how much of that you can tolerate, my tolerance has been very high for that but you know you get tired of it as well, you know very very tired of it and you just its not worth it. It's because of the it is it's the expectations ok it's the lies the lack of the if people start messing with your
money and your time than no one likes that it's not worth it and so that's one of the main issues.

**Interviewer: Right**

Respondent: Did I answer your question?

Interviewer: Ya, ya, ya really you just mentioned kind of this, kind of this - connected together you know interconnected together

Respondent: Ya

**Interviewer: But I think have you just highlighted all the more on the recruiting agency really to be the first one to provide such knowledge**

Respondent: I think in the first instance yes they should but I think it is also the responsibility of the teacher to seek that information if they have an awareness of it. I think in this country especially there are certain things you must know because it is a special place and I think the recruitment agencies are clear about that.

**Interviewer: Right Richard really thank you for this can you please describe the CPD what sort of CPD opportunities are offered here and the current CPD offered have they**

Respondent: Programme

**Interviewer: Ya**

Respondent: While we have two weeks of professional development that we must attend one so I attended in January I didn't attended in March [TC 0:20:00.7]

**Interviewer: For two weeks?**

Respondent: For one week sorry

**Interviewer: For one week?**

Respondent: One week, two times

**Interviewer: Oh right**

Respondent: Two times a year, so there's one in January and one

**Interviewer: So twice a year**

Respondent: Ya twice a year
Interviewer: Twice a year and each time for one week?

Respondent: Yes, but you only attend one of those

Interviewer: You've got the option?

Respondent: Yes

Interviewer: Is it full week?

Respondent: Yes

Interviewer: Alright and how is it employed, documented?

Respondent: It's run by the professional development department. I attended the January one they try to bring you speakers from outside, which is a good thing they try to do that we have had some pretty good speakers then they, teachers are encouraged to provide sessions for their colleagues

Interviewer: So it's external and internal, both?

Respondent: Yes both

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: More of it is probably internal, but I think it depends I think the January one had more external than the recent March one it also depends on how they can organise it and then you sign up for sessions and that's that. Then they have the I'm not sure if its weekly but it's supposed to be a weekly PD session on Wednesdays

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: Ok there a teacher or someone with in the school offers some kind of PD session

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: And so teachers can sign up for that if they want to, I think

Interviewer: If they want?

Respondent: Well if they want but they must do three or four per semester

Interviewer: Alright
Respondent: Ok so it's not like so they ya, they have a choice but they supposed to do a certain number per semester

Interviewer: Ok

Respondent: And then other than that there's there the PD than there's the training that is provided for exams and continuous assessment items and other things that are compulsory ok so for example there's the midterm computer based exam coming up so all teachers must go to the training this week to be prepared for that

Interviewer: Right

Respondent: I think that's all there is for PD here

Interviewer: Ok what do you think of these both the internal and external, which one do you think is more important or more rewarding to you?

Respondent: I think the external one is more rewarding to me but also it depends on who it is and what it's about going back to what I said earlier. The internal ones can be useful but haven't been too many that I have found useful

Interviewer: And do any of these address your needs or your professional needs?

Respondent: Maybe not necessarily needs but perhaps interests

Interviewer: Wants

Respondent: I'm trying to think what I have attended, the difficulty is you must attend them, so if you must attend them you don't, you just choose one that you find less more interesting, or if you run out of time you don't you have to go to the last two or something like that, so this semester because I'm coordinating now I don't have to attend those so I'm not aware of what's been going on as much this semester but last semester I did attend three, one of them was cool, one was about Saudi culture, Saudi student culture for example ok now that was something I was interested in, so the topic was a good idea the content was not as useful as I had hoped for ok didn't go deeper enough for me anyway I think for someone who maybe just got to the country

Interviewer: And who provided this from here or outside?

Respondent: No from inside

Interviewer: Ok

Respondent: Ya, ya

Interviewer: Was he Saudi?
Respondent: No

Interviewer: Ok

Respondent: He was not a Saudi but he had been here for a while ok since we are talking about Saudi, there aren't many Saudis on staff, this year there are more but really are just Mansoor and Abdul in my eyes yes just the two

Interviewer: Just the two?

Respondent: Just the two so you know they've all been provided

Interviewer: And Ashamba maybe?

Respondent: Oh yes of course ya, Ashamba he doesn't do he did a talk at the PD at the PD week about student affairs or something like that

Interviewer: Is that what you call induction week?

Respondent: No sorry induction is another thing they do

Interviewer: Ok

Respondent: You should probably add that to your list that's for new teachers that come in

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: Ya forgot about that because I did it

Interviewer: Long time ago

Respondent: Ya long time ago, I feel like an old timer here cause I have lasted eighteen months that's long, so yes I do have an induction but that's also done at different times. So one of the problems to is each year that you start you have to do that induction again

Interviewer: Even for the current teachers?

Respondent: Even for the current teachers so that, there's some resistance to that for example

Interviewer: What's the purpose behind this do you think?

Respondent: You have to speak, do I think
Interviewer: Ya

Respondent: I was gonna say you have to speak to the manager for that

Interviewer: From your perspective

Respondent: I think it's just so that it would perhaps be too difficult for them to keep track, alright and I think part of their argument was that this year is different to last year and there was some truth, some things yes were different ok but and I think this year's induction was definitely better than last years but it will be interesting to see next years, if they make changes for example the curriculum change say yes we did need to go to the curriculum

Interviewer: Ok not the whole staff?

Respondent: Ya and I think the existing teachers didn't have to go to all of the, but there but there was a lot of repetition lets just put it that way

Interviewer: Ya, ya, ya what has the last PD opportunities that you were involved in?

Respondent: What?

Interviewer: Last PD

Respondent: Oh the last PD, well I guess I did just go do the accreditation reviewer workshop

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: But that was a very unusual case but in terms of me personally I did the workshop and I attended the TESOL conference in Dallas

Interviewer: Alright ok that was an external one?

Respondent: That was me going externally

Interviewer: That was at your own expense?

Respondent: No, well I am waiting to see if I get reimbursed, but that was a particularly unique case, Ok because I was invited to go do the reviewer workshop they doing the accreditation here, I presented a case so it would be very valuable for the accreditation process for me to do that thing I was going to the TESOL conference anyway right then, it all came together at the last minute, Saudi style right but I was I must say an answer to your question, I was willing to go there at my own expensive to do the workshop as long as I got the leave I wasn't going to lose pay to go and they did agree to that at the last minute they agreed to fund it as well
Interviewer: Ok that's very good

Respondent: Very very but also I think you know Dr [CH 0:28:16.3] faith in me that it was worth me going to do it and that there would be value to the institution and that was part of my argument that if you want to enhance the reputation you need to have good people with these appointed positions within the school and now you have a CAA sight reviewer at KSU - that's a good thing, I don't know what difference it's going to make but it's still a good thing its all the little things like that that make a difference you know so that was the most recent definitely the most recent PD, but like I say that is an exceptional case.

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: Other than that I attended a workshop here a couple of months ago and I attended the PD week, now I attended that workshop because I was interested in it because it was one of the teachers who have been here and done some research on learning strategies here and he had, he was presenting his findings so that was something I wanted to go learn about I was interested in that

Interviewer: Ok sorry where was that?

Respondent: Here

Interviewer: Ok

Respondent: One of our teachers an internal presentation, you know like I said every week they have something, so I did that and then prior to that would have been the PD week in January.

Interviewer: January

Respondent: Ya

Interviewer: Oh great ok what sort of PD activities would you be rather happy to take part in? [TC 0:30:00.3]

Respondent: What would I be happy to take part in?

Interviewer: Ya

Respondent: Well it goes back to what are my needs and my interests right now, I guess I'm because of my work now which is doing research I'm more interested in developing and renewing my skills in those areas so I'll be more interested in any kind of PD that is related to either conducting research or on the topic that I'm researching which is motivation and attitudes to English language learning, which is
why when I was at the TESOL conference I attended the presentations that were related to that.

Interviewer: Ok research,

Respondent: No sorry on the motivation there wasn't really anything on research

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: So in terms of what the institution can offer me the only thing I think the best thing for me would be allow me to go externally to places that I would benefit from professionally because of where I'm at or to bring people in that would be the other like when Dr Trudy came ok but though at the time I wasn't really consciously interested really in what he talking about can't remember what it was now, but see another problem, sometimes when they bring people here but there's no preparation and sort of its like we got the email saying he is here tomorrow or today or something it was all a bit late you know

Interviewer: Like my review?

Respondent: Exactly

Interviewer: Although we have been corresponding with the guys here for maybe more two months I sent all the letters all the official documents ok to just you know inform teachers and tell them and really to the management but I was surprised and that's maybe due to the conferences that you were busy with

Respondent: Ya we were busy with that but I wonder if I didn't even go in to see Mansoor today if I would be doing the interview now cause I think he saw me, saw you and then

Interviewer: I think its yesterday he told me about you

Respondent: Oh he did?

Interviewer: Yes there are two guys today, I will do just the first Rob about you

Respondent: Ok have you interviewed Rob already?

Interviewer: Yes

Respondent: Ok

Interviewer: He just came and I said Rob ok this is Abdulla, we catching you today so...

Respondent: How many teachers do you need?
Interviewer: 30 maybe

Respondent: 30 interviews

Interviewer: 30

Respondent: Interviews like this?

Interviewer: Ya

Respondent: Well that's going to take a long time than isn't it

Interviewer: A couple of weeks we'll been here

Respondent: Oh you been here for a while?

Interviewer: Ya

Respondent: And this is for the pilot?

Interviewer: No, no for the pilot just you and Rob

Respondent: Oh were the pilot and they gonna do the thing ah ok

Interviewer: Yes ya, ya maybe 25 really maybe twenty five

Respondent: Ok

Interviewer: Ok right, so right, you just mentioned that you love the institution just to give you a leave to go onto the external ones right when you say leave paid leave?

Respondent: Oh ya

Interviewer: Alright without funding you

Respondent: And funding

Interviewer: And funding ok

Respondent: Well that would be the of course that is the preferred but you know don't forget I have also been in the background where teachers were given at least a $1000 a year maybe sometimes almost $2000 a year that they could spend on their professional development

Interviewer: Ok
Respondent: Alright now that's cause were in Japan its similar situation, if we are in this context we need to go to places, ok or people need to come here so my background is yeah of course I have to go but how I've developed professionally. I went and did a course at Harvard summer school a few years ago, I funded that myself because it was so interesting and very interested and wanted to do that but I think the international teachers life is like that that's how we get developed that's why when they have the TESOL conferences they should send people there not necessarily me

Interviewer: In general

Respondent: The managers of the people they need to learn they are so behind in professional development, send them it's not they've got the money, it's not the money isn't the issue which makes it even more frustrating.

Interviewer: Right

Respondent: That's what they have to do or bring up, yeah they have brought people here Mansoor brought a few, Trudy came, Kristin King came they've had people come but I, when I was doing my research on curriculum reform, one thing we found, the one thing that was clear that the one-offs make no difference to change, that doesn't change our thinking, our attitudes or our, it's not developmental, it's not good professional development. What we did was we found very good people that were very related on a long term project and they came three of four times or we continued to have them there

Interviewer: And where was that?

Respondent: Sorry

Interviewer: Where was that?

Respondent: In Japan

Interviewer: Japan,

Respondent: Yeah, and so that had an impact, that's how things change, one person coming in and giving a two hour lecture, that doesn't make a difference, so that, the impact of a continuous development is really, no I'm saying that wrong, the impact of having one person offering a series over time on the same kind of topic - that's how we learn, that's how change occurs, so yes if we had someone come twice a month or twice a year, well it depends on what it is right. So that is that side of it, the other side of it, we need to go to where the experts are and now that I am on the administrative side, I see how undeveloped they are as well,

Interviewer: You need a teaching staff?
Respondent: The teaching staff are also undeveloped and the administration is undeveloped comparatively. But at the time there is effort and money is going into improving it which is great but and it's going to take a long time, cause it's a big thing to change, it's like the English programmes are wrong here they are coming into the PY with some kind of crazy expectation or that the students already know some English but they don't so you got to go back to the high school and get them knowing better English, you must know this yourself.

Interviewer: We've been really arguing this and we've been discussing this really and we should start earlier really, which is really...

Respondent: And that's why I think this PY is a great idea it's just not, it's just mismatched with what, with how the students come or we need to, well some of them come and they are kind of alright in English and they are doing the curriculum that is not matched, they cannot access the curriculum because they do not have the skills that is needed to access the curriculum, so we need to bring that closer together, it's just this huge assumption that they knowing more English than what they do, now not everyone of course cause there are also the medical students, or the students that went to private schools or the students that have been living oversees you know there are exceptional cases.

Interviewer: another question just came to my mind well you were just talking, if at the end of the time to just allow me to ask this question. What sort of PD opportunities would you rather be reluctant to take part in?

Respondent: I think things that are for example Pedagogy, just cause I am ok with Pedagogy, I'm good with that, I'm great with classroom management so I guess that, I'm using that as, PD that are on topics that I feel I am good at. I guess I can learn more, but that's not developmental then, or if its pitched at a lower level to what I am already at or things that are just not welcome, for example who was it, someone who came, oh yes Kristin King that came here to talk about assessment, very interesting, great ideas BUT it was presented to the teachers, in this place, this institution the teachers have absolutely no input into the assessment practices, so [TC 0:40:02.0] so that was a waste of time, why do we need to sit here on assessment when you don't give us any opportunity to give input, so that would be an example of reluctance, something that is not relevant or doesn't develop, doesn't add anything, there is no added value to it.

Interviewer: Interesting really Richard, you just mentioned that regarding the what do you call the knowledge that teachers need ok, this kind of PD, you just mentioned the pedagogical knowledge, now you just said you are not happy taking part in this one, how would you..

Respondent: I wouldn’t be, I'm sorry I don't understand you question.
Interviewer: In one of the questions you mentioned that the areas teacher knowledge need to have really as PD activities you just mentioned the pedagogical knowledge

Respondent: Yes

Interviewer: And now you just said you would be reluctant to be part of the pedagogical because you already know, how would you

Respondent: Ok I see, I don't want to sound arrogant and that I know everything about pedagogy cause I don't and I want to know more, but when it is something that I have already mastered per say, then I would be reluctant to engage in that kind of PD and also remember I was saying, I feel a little bit over qualified you know it's like with the observations as well, with the teachers observations

Interviewer: Is that the PMA

Respondent: For the PMA thing, now I see a lot of value in observing and feedback and all of that is good, now when the observer is far less qualified than the observed, that creates discomfort. When the observer isn't even a native English speaker, observing a native English speaker teaching English, sometimes that discomfort is too much for some people, now it wasn’t my case

Interviewer: Yeah I understand really

Respondent: It's just you are bringing, you are reminding me of that

Interviewer: More than freely really please

Respondent: So I guess that observation that whole performance appraisal is a kind of PD, its, you see the problem is it's not presented as trying to develop the teachers, it's more a "policing" that's where it loses its value,

Interviewer: Interesting, and what about Richard is non-native is qualified in that area, would he be, or she still be kind of the right person to observe?

Respondent: I think the native non-native isn't really the issue as much as the experience and qualification

Interviewer: yeah

Respondent: Because no I don't think that will be a problem, I know there has been teachers who have been annoyed by having, being observed by someone who's English is...

Interviewer: Because really, sorry for interrupting you, I am the head of the English department and really one of the words that I am noticing, observing really and
one of the days which is really interesting, can I just discuss this with you a point really I said yes, that we are running a profession a kind of PD [CH 0:43:57.4] ok I don't have time for an issue can I just bring it to you as I'm really just open to this idea, more than really I just feel just that comfortable, and...

Respondent: Exactly what I just mentioned,

Interviewer: And I am really an open minded person, and that's with having a bachelor degree but because he is holding position really the curriculum development something but for that post he was just kind of got the right to do that kind of job really and with him really because he was just a high ranking officer ok but he has no qualifications in English and he was [CH 0:44:44.8] with that person and he said really I'm not very happy with this so if you can do anything just do it. So we were just at the end, just kind of revising and three this just rang the bell really but is that really because what I think most of the teachers really are not happy haven't really nominated and they don't feel that with the, that really secure they are kind of a bit reluctant to publically readjusts

Respondent: I think it's a personal thing, I also an insecurity thing, it's an ego things how can he observe me when he can't even speak English properly there is that kind of mentality as well. You know in 26 years of teaching you always come across people who are in a more senior position than you that are not as experienced, not as knowledgeable and not as smart, so you are part of the one of the challenges in education I guess, not just in education in life, in work so I don't know how you reconcile that but it is an issue its part of the whole PD process and you just have to deal with that. I think that as long as there is a procedure for not to lodge a complaint if you are not satisfied with it ok that something can go, it can go to the next step, there is some way out. I think, I can't come up with the right word for it, but its needs to be ok if he is observant and I am not happy with his observation that there can be another observation for example or something to satisfy because the observation should be to benefit the teacher, not to check on the teacher necessarily.

Interviewer: Don't you have this kind of peer observation by friends?

Respondent: No

Interviewer: By colleagues - you don't have this

Respondent: The observations are by colleagues because they are all workers here but they not...

Interviewer: What I mean by just kind of inviting each other

Respondent: Not they do that here, they have buzz observations but that's more, that's also coordinators and managers doing it
Interviewer: Alright, ok, right who sets the institution PD objectives?

Respondent: You know I don't know who should, I know who should be setting them but I don't know who does actually set them and I don't even know what they are. So there is another problem there that whatever the objectives are not clear to the teachers, to the staff, right

Interviewer: Right. And you don't know who sets them or...

Respondent: Well I assume the chair of the department should be setting them in consultation with the PD department but I don't know what goes on

Interviewer: And the teachers have no input in this?

Respondent: They have not had any input in this as far as I know as I haven't been involved in it. But in the PD week teachers can offer so there is, you can offer there, but I don't know in terms in their overall objectives, that's a different question to teachers offering PD presentations and so on.

Interviewer: Great

Respondent: It's the in the accreditation that's all has to be dealt with because they have to have it all clearly set out

Interviewer: And what has been your experience of current PD programme, I mean good and bad, pros and cons

Respondent: When something becomes mandatory it changes, it's like you have to be there, then there is the problem with the we must sign the attendance, so it becomes a bit, that takes away from any joy ok, no matter how good it is, it's like you have to be there, you have to sign you are going to be punished if you don't

Interviewer: Really?

Respondent: Because it affects your PMA, and if you miss one, the good thing is they do have make ups and then because sometimes you do miss them for some reason I guess you miss it, I missed, I had to miss something a mandatory one because suddenly you are on cover, so you got to go to cover so you can't do it so you have to do another, but there isn't a climate of professional learning here, where people are happy to do it, the last PD week there was a little bit more a positive mood but again every day, everything was a plenary, it was compulsory therefore it was all controlled, their concept of creating a professional learning community is not, it does not, it doesn't exist here

Interviewer: and what about for that last PD week?
Respondent: Now I can only speak for myself but I found it better because there was some positive feedback coming back to the teachers and I guess I am also comparing it to previous years where it was a much more negative feeling, so there was, it was organised so that there was, you knew what was going on before you could sign up for things and so on, there was a couple of presenters that were good, one guy in particular was good the other guy was terrible

Interviewer: From here?

Respondent: No from outside, external guys. so they had the table tennis tournament which people got interested in, personally I didn't, but it seemed to create a bit of fun for the teachers as well I think it was also good I think it was also good to have the lunch, there was a nice buffet lunch at the end to finish on a more positive feeling but they didn't do the lunch in March so that was different again.

Interviewer: Great, what challenges do you face in pursuing your PD?

Respondent: I guess

Interviewer: Were there any factors that impacted your participation?

Respondent: I think that if something becomes mandatory and that turns me off, it just creates a resistance to it, and then especially going having to attend sessions that I really don't think I need to attend is creates resistance as well, does that answer that

Interviewer: yeah sort of, kind of

Respondent: What was the question again?

Interviewer: What challenges do you face in pursuing your professional development?

Respondent: Well if you say pursuing my professional development it's the professional development that I want to do so the challenges there are distance, money I suppose, being funded, I buy books, I have spent a lot of my own money on my own professional development buts that just cause that's how I am, I have no reluctance to buy books and journals and so on but to get access to things that I want to learn so I know I guess because I am not actively as actively pursuing my professional development now as I was in the past and coming here the last 18 months has been a holiday for me here, just cause it's so easy and I'm taking a break if you like. Now I am working with Mansoor and I've been woken up again if you know what I mean, so I am engaging again and I what I also found that was my mind was going to mud, because it wasn't enough, there wasn't any stimulation

Interviewer: challenge
Respondent: No challenge, but I didn't want then when I started to think yeah I need it now, then the research thing came up and now I'm happy, very happy with what I do now, and you know, and I wanted to go to Dallas to the workshop I wanted to get involved I wanted to read books about motivation and language learning and that's where I am now, I guess I can't go to a bookshop and buy books, even buying when I lived in Japan, Amazon I would get it next day, so it's easy there is access to the information, that is one of the challenges here there isn't the, of course there is the internet, but you know KSU doesn't even access the online database, and that is for me problematic here

Interviewer: what about I think there is what's called the digital library SDL, do you have a username on that one

Respondent: I have someone else's username

Interviewer: You have one?

Respondent: I don't have one no

Interviewer: Why?

Respondent: Where do I get it from?

Interviewer: They didn't provide this

Respondent: No, not as far as I know, so that's probably to answer your question, is access of information that I require is probably the challenge because of where we are, I went to Dubai recently there is the [CH 0:55:18.5] bookshop there do you know

Interviewer: No

Respondent: In Dubai mall

Interviewer: I know Dubai mall

Respondent: In Dubai mall there [CH 0:55:26.3] it's the biggest bookshop I have ever seen in my life and it was full of just great books, I bought so many books when I was there and I was so happy to know and books about everything, not just education but everything, so that's good to know, I can go to Dubai and buy books, I can, I now have a PO Box and I can get them delivered from Amazon for example

Interviewer: You can have them delivered here?

Respondent: I believe so, my students said that they have, I haven't tried it yet but I think that you can ok so you know it's not impossible it's just a little bit more challenging.
Interviewer: Right ok, electronic, what about electronic books, this and maybe that one, ok right, what are any other related issues related to your job continuation

Respondent: My job continuation

Interviewer: yeah

Respondent: Can you be more specific if you mean that?

Interviewer: I've come across regarding top security and visa that's what I mean, teachers facing challenges, sorry challenges regarding their job continuation because of the visa issue, contractual issues,

Respondent: Ok, one of the most peculiar things i find working here they will do it, in any of my working life is that we spent so much time thinking about that issue of our job about continuation, will I even have job next week, am I going to get paid next month, that is not something I should have to think about, am I going to get paid, am I going to get paid correctly, is it going to be paid on time, this is one of the problems so yes if job continue here

Interviewer: Yes

Respondent: Yes, not KSU its EDEX cause you know we are recruited by them

Interviewer: Yeah I know just stay just here so i mean

Respondent: Yes here, and even though it's not that bad it's still every month there is a problem with my pay. Except one month I think cause nothing changed, if you make, if anything changes it's a problem, so yes all of this school year I've not been satisfied every month, the first three months were waiting for expenses and promised holiday pay to be paid and then the last three months there was a mistake in, they took two days out and then they are meant to give a day, they are meant, and every month there is something, and that is tiring and unnecessary so yes that affects the job cause I think so the other thing too you must understand, I am here by choice, totally by choice and sometimes I wonder why I am here but it's by choice, I'm not here necessarily for the money and I am here for the experience and I do find it fascinating and its challenging me in a way that I would never be challenged anywhere else. but I don't want to be, I want to be challenged with those kind of professional intellectual things that those challenges of am I going to get paid on time and that is, I am ok with the visa now cause I've got my Iqama so that's been sorted out, but there is the thinking about what am I going to do next year, am I going to stay, is there going to be research, is what is the chair going to do you know there is constant upheaval if you like, it really is like a rollercoaster

Interviewer: did it take a long time to get your Iqama
Respondent: It took a year I didn't get it for the first year

**Interviewer: And how did work come in for the first year**

Respondent: I was on the work visa, visas

**Interviewer: ok**

Respondent: It must of been three of them, three months, three months, three months. then I had, excuse me, then I had to go back to Australia during the summer to get [TC 0:60:00.4] the Iqama but even, that's the thing when I was recruited, one of the reasons I wanted to come to Saudi was because I was very interested in the middle east, and I love to travel it's what I do - I travel and I thought you know I can go weekend travel but then and they say yes you can travel you get a residence visa then you get here and you can't do anything you cannot live, that's what I was talking about earlier the lies and expectations and when you first come and so that was very difficult for a lot of us, you know a lot of other guys came with the promise that their families could come their wives and children or whatever their situation is and they couldn't because they couldn't get their Iqamas, so there is a lot of issues there and the problem here is they can't keep the good teachers

**Interviewer: why**

Respondent: Because of all these issues, people get fed up and I've had four or five friends that are good teachers that left cause they couldn't stand it anymore, maybe if they stayed a little longer maybe as things got better, but you know if people, if you are not getting paid on time, if your housing is rubbish, if you having to put up with things that you couldn't not tolerate then why would you stay, now I was lucky that I asked and then the students, sometimes the classes are very difficult as well and that adds to the stress and so on that makes it not worth it but I'm talking about other people's experience

**Interviewer: What is the class size?**

Respondent: 20, 22 but they don't all turn up, it's very rare to have them all there

**Interviewer: Who can help overcome these kinds of issues or challenges?**

Respondent: It has to be the, my problems have never been with KSU, even though a lot of the stuff is KSU I can see they are trying to fix, they are not doing things that affect me that badly, its EDEX that I have the problems with that create the frustration, even as bad as KSU was when I first came here in September last year, you could see that they were trying to fix it you can understand

**Interviewer: what about I-SIT,**
Respondent: I don't know, people say they are just as bad, you know any problems that I've had has been with EDEX and I don't know, you know to be honest with you I don't think they do it deliberately, I don't believe it, I faith in humans, I think they just don't know what they are doing - they have just too much to do I think they just don't know what they are doing but they just have too much to do and they can't do it. I don't think they are not paying me cause they want to make me angry but they are just incompetent, there is incompetence throughout the system

Interviewer: How significant to you is your involvement in planning the professional development?

Respondent: I have no interest at all

Interviewer: If you were given the choice to give input?

Respondent: I would be, I would be more interested input to the curriculum, PD is not an area that I am overly interested in so I guess I wouldn't, how interested would I be - is that the question

Interviewer: yeah

Respondent: Not overly, if I had to do it I would, they asked me to join a committee last, the end of last year about, what was it I can't remember what it was, mentoring or something, trying out a method, and I really wasn't, that is not my area of focus

Interviewer: Right ok, the last section here, suggestions, what do you expect from your institution in terms of your professional growth

Respondent: I expect them to support my professional growth, not to stunt it, not to stop it, hinder it so as best they can

Interviewer: Right

Respondent: Alright I am not expecting it to be as it was in Japan

Interviewer: Can you give examples of that

Respondent: For example I was very pleased that Dr [CH 0:64:46.1] allowed me to go to Dallas, because that really helped my professional development. and of course them him paying it, well not him but them funding it, that gives me confidence and faith ok, if he said no even if I was going to pay for it, that would've been a blow cause why not, but it never came to that, it wasn't easy, he didn't say yes immediately but in the old Saudi style, no, no, no - yes. So you know...

Interviewer: right what PD approach do you prefer in terms of doing PD in your context?
Respondent: What approaches do you, what examples, some examples there of approaches?

**Interviewer:** really just from the management top-down approach or would you just prefer just to come from teachers themselves, their views...

Respondent: A combination I don't know any

**Interviewer:** Interactive

Respondent: Yeah

**Interviewer:** In-between

Respondent: All of the above it depends, I do like to go to places, I like not to go to places, I like people to come I think that any PD needs to be well presented and engaging regardless of the format.

**Interviewer:** Here just here really they did a programme itself provided to you, would you prefer to have it just from the management I mean with external and internal just providing that one without consulting you

Respondent: I think that it's good that they invite teachers to present I think peer presentations are good, I think they've kind of got the I think bringing in experts is good just perhaps more carefully selected so its relevant to what we are doing, I think the quality of presenters especially the external ones I mean we've got a guy coming from the Oxford University Press to talk about the book that we, and he was terrible, he just wasn't good, he wasn't a good presenter at all so that was disappointing but they can't control that I mean

**Interviewer:** Right what suggestion do you provide, or prefer just to offer to the management or mangers in terms of PD? Providing PD?

Respondent: I think they have to, that mandatory attendance issue is something that somehow needs to be resolved, I don't know what the answer is but I think that, that, something needs to be resolved there, we were talking in a managers meeting just a couple of weeks ago, about if teachers don't sign, they want them to sign up online which is a good idea, but my point was, I've worked in institutions where every teacher had a laptop so everything was done online cause we could all access it, here it's not that easy for teachers to be online during the day, there is only a few, there is not that many, we don't have a laptop, not everyone has a smartphone alright, so I think to expect them to work online when the resources aren't there, this is not an online environment yet ok and then to punish teachers if they don't attend, if they attend without signing up for it, like I said I don't understand why you would do that

**Interviewer:** if teachers coming out without signing
Respondent: If teachers didn't sign up online for say Wednesday's presentation but went there and wrote their name they would not get that counted as they attended, right, now that's a bit harsh I think

**Interviewer: What about the vice versa**

Respondent: If they signed up online and didn't attend

**Interviewer: Yes**

Respondent: Well then, if they did that twice then they would lose, there was some phrase, but a lot of the time Abdullah, when I am sitting there in these meetings and this is just between you and me, i think we talk, they talk about the teachers like we used to talk about the students when I was in the high school, it's this mentality that the teachers have to be controlled, they told when to attend, dress code and when we are talking about the dress code and I actually think dress code is important but the way they talk about it and I just think it's like talking about the students wearing a uniform in the high school, if the girls are wearing their skirts too short you know, you are talking about the teachers you know, so the mentality that's going back to what they were starting to talk about at the start, that's what, that part [TC 0:70:00.3] of the problem I think, that's part of, that's how the culture is here

**Interviewer: it contributes still**

Respondent: It contributes and PD is part of it so like I said I think the PD should be turned to making it a truly a growing experience for the teachers, not a controlling experience cause it's a little bit too much like controlling them, that they have to sign up, all this signing up and they have to attend and they have to do this but on the other hand because of the kind of teachers that they have here and the kind of attitude of the place, there has to be some mechanisms in place to control them, otherwise they will not be controlled, cause they don't have self-control, perhaps too many don't have or I may be completely wrong perhaps too many didn't have it last year but they do have it this year, because they definitely they are recruiting better people, it seems to me

**Interviewer: Don't you have meetings, i mean staff meetings to discuss such issues**

Respondent: No, not really, no, they have coordinated meetings so once a week they have, it's just its systemic its all the way down, all the was down

**Interviewer: Top-Down**

Respondent: Top-down, it's just a mess ok, not such a mess, it is how it is, but it's not close to what the theories and the research and the understandings are of good teaching practice or good institution you now positive institution or cultures, there is a big gap there and I guess I've seen it, I've read about it, I've learnt, I've written
about it and then I come here and I see it and perhaps that's what keeps me here because it's so fascinating that it exists but you know the suggestion there to answer your question is that I think the most important thing is to make the PD teacher centred, to improve the knowledge and skills of the teachers, not to some have to make it feel like this controlling the teachers, there is something, I can't articulate it exactly, there is something they are doing that doesn't feel right

**Interviewer: to make teachers feel part of it?**

Respondent: Yeah, I guess you know this is just one opinion, it would be interesting if you are talking to 30 teachers are you getting a pattern there, if they feel part of it, I don't know if teachers feel part of it, I don't want to be a part of it so being a part of it wasn't important to me because of my particular background and stuff but other teachers would want to be more part of it, so I guess it's going to be different for each one. But I've gotta go in 5 minutes, but where there some other questions you said if we have time you wanted to ask

**Interviewer: any other preferences?**

Respondent: No you said if we have time

**Interviewer: No, we are done with the interview, thank you so much for this.**

End OF EXCERPT
Appendix (F)

Electronic coding sample

Interviewer: Right, thank you what do you think of the CPD plan or scheme or whatever it called or policy they employed here at this institution?

Respondent: Like I just said I think it’s very challenging to provide good PD here because of the diversity in backgrounds, ages, cultures, experience... So I think that’s certainly one of the difficulties. I think also that, to be honest with you I think it’s poor, it’s lacking and it indicates a lack of good professionalism from the people that are trying to provide the professional development themselves.

Interviewer: Themselves?

Respondent: Themselves

Interviewer: ok

Respondent: I think the people who are trying to provide the professional need more professional development.

Interviewer: First of all

Respondent: Now as this is confidential and anonymous you must, perhaps you don’t understand that I come from a background of very high quality teaching contexts and to come here was like a completely different world, so you know in what they consider professional development here is nothing like what my background is in.

Interviewer: ok

Respondent: They have brought people out here which is very good but even though, it’s the one-offs, I don’t think this University has a culture of professional development

Interviewer: Alright

Respondent: It’s not there and you have to go back there’s layers of why it’s not there to look at the culture of the whole institution, people are not here to be professionally developed, most of them, people are not coming from professional backgrounds.

Interviewer: Background

Respondent: Background thank you ok and then there’s the whole it’s a very interesting context I find it fascinating. Which is why I’m still here?

Interviewer: So you got a shock at first when you came first here in terms of educational you know development?

Respondent: Yes

Interviewer: Ya ok I see really, right ok as a teacher how important to you is your own professional development?

Respondent: For me personally its extremely important, I have spent twenty six years in education I been constantly developing myself I am a life learner, believe in lifelong learning tremendously I’m formally qualified bachelors, masters, doctorate I’ve done many other courses on the side as well some cause I want to some cause I don’t have to so I’m very, very engaged in professional development.
Respondent: It means that I am engaged in learning, continuous learning about my profession in this case ‘teaching’. So that will end the continuous profession development would mean something that's not just one off programmes but something that can continue could be a series of one off things but I think more effectively are the ones that are connected together in a more sort of a systematic way.

Interviewer: Right can you give one the examples of CPD what I mean by CPD just continuing professional department

Respondent: That I have done or...

Interviewer: in general

Respondent: I think something that is, we do a bit of that here where they are trying to help teachers learn better ways of teaching language especially perhaps and there's a whole host of things that are needed, it might be in terms of classroom management, it might be in terms of using the materials, for example we use Q-skills here we have the online resources so we need training in how to use the online resources, that's probably an example of something that is being done here.

Interviewer: Q-skills

Respondent: Q-skills is a textbook that they use here

Interviewer: Oh right ok, ok for training teachers

Respondent: Q-skills is a textbook we use with the students than in the Q-skills online, I-Tools I think it's called so the teachers have to be trained in how to use these materials with the students, for example I mean that is an example of continuous professional development but I think it's quite a broad term ok it has different meanings for different people and I think it also depends on where you are in your career as well and I think people have different needs for it. One of the problems in this institution is that it's so big and so many teachers with so many different backgrounds that it's

respondent: Well I think they obviously a knowledge of the language is very important the mechanics of the language. I think that I believe that more important you do not have to be an expert in the English language to teach to be a good English language teacher. Ok because I think it's in the practice of teaching that is the real key to success because if you doing and so that's one thing I'm not so knowledgeable in the language itself I'm not so great at naming grammar points and so on of course when I look at them I understand them but if you give me the whatever the grammar is that we need to learn I can teach to the students quite successfully, even though I don't have a thick knowledge of it, a deep knowledge of it, so I think more important is the art of teaching is more important, the most important thing, to engage the students, to create a climate where they can learn and they can reach their potential. I think that is the area that is important

Interviewer: That's what they call pedagogical knowledge

Respondent: Exactly but not only the knowledge of it though it's also the practice of it because you can know a lot of pedagogy but if you go in that in the classroom and you cannot engage the students and relate to them and have them interested in learning well that's nothing so it's not only the knowledge it's the craft if you like ok of teaching, of how students learn that's the other thing my background is also on how humans learn and I think just like you know the doctors need to know how the human body works and we work with the brain, right, we need to know how the brain works so I think part of professional development needs to be is how do students, how do humans learn, how do these guys at this age and this context learn and I have a background in that so I know how important I think that that knowledge is that makes the difference between you know teaching and a teacher like a doctor and a good doctor you know

Interviewer: Right what do you think about Cultural knowledge, do you think it is needed here?

Respondent: Absolutely its extremely important because the students are coming to us from a culture there's three levels of the culture, there's the lets start with the small there's the classroom culture - that's very important, there's the institutional culture then there's the societal culture
**Sample of final coding: Theme 1, Understanding of CPD.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quotation examples</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Main theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>... adding to my existing professional knowledge skills, showing me new ways of teaching, new ways of presenting material perhaps,. (James).</td>
<td>Building on existing professional skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>it’s qualifying me ... to get a job in another institution ... around the world .... (Tom).</td>
<td>Career development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>... it means a teacher who is constantly upgrading himself to be continuously qualified or to be continuing modernising syllabi (Tom).</td>
<td>Keeping up to date</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are going to get new training, new experiences, exposure to new ideas, because we all come from different backgrounds, and are trained to teach in one way (Gary).</td>
<td>Receiving training</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a life learner. I believe in lifelong learning. (Majed). Continue to develop and grow as a professional.(Gary)</td>
<td>Continuous learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etc</td>
<td>Etc</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s important as a measure of my own success or failure, how I see myself and then of course in terms of peers ... (Roger)</td>
<td>Because it indicates success</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The means by which we teach change all the time. The internet, … computers and education are developing at a rapid rate. You have to keep up with it or else it’s time to retire. … the curricula and syllabi are also changing all the time and a teacher should be a student of the game. In my opinion, a teacher should be learning all the time, just like students, so PD is very important. (Tom)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Because need to keep up to date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Etc.</td>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sample of final coding: Theme 4, Teachers' suggestions for best practice in CPD provision.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quotation examples</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Sub-Theme</th>
<th>Main theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>...[the management] should first ask teachers: What do you need?(James)</td>
<td>Ask teachers' needs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Every single time I go to workshops I write on the ... suggestion sheet [that] I would like to see a CPD session [on how to teach] low level humanities students, but no response! (Ali)</td>
<td>Respond to suggestions</td>
<td>Consult staff about CPD</td>
<td>Teacher suggestions for best practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It would be wonderful to have senior and experienced teachers who’ve been teaching for a long period of time in this university to mentor and provide further training and offer ideas (Fayez).</td>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td></td>
<td>Specific CPD activities to encourage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I see peer observation as useful and relevant to my teaching practice (John). The observation should be to benefit the teacher, not to check on the teacher necessarily (Adam).</td>
<td>Peer observation of teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher suggestions for best practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some of our needs of course are more opportunities for teacher collaboration... (Tom) etc.</td>
<td>Teacher collaboration</td>
<td></td>
<td>Specific TPK topics to cover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am interested in leadership, so maybe focusing more on educational leadership and ... not too abstract but something that is practical and applicable ... (Hatim).</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td></td>
<td>Specific TPK topics to cover</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I would like to see a CPD session on how to teach low level humanities students, etc. (Ali)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teaching low level students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix (G)

Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

THESIS

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 on 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: Abdullah Al-Shahrani

Your student no: 590054423

Return address for this certificate: 5, Clydesdale Court, EX4 4QX, Exeter

Degree/Programme of Study: Doctorate in Education, TESOL

Project Supervisor(s): 1. Dr. Salah Troudi 2. Dr. Fran Martin

Your email address: aa389@ex.ac.uk and amatar60@yahoo.co.uk

Tel: 07740278458

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my dissertation / 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: Abdullah Al-Shahrani date: 04/03/2013

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

THESIS

Your student no: 590054423

Title of your project:
Exploring EFL teachers’ views regarding their CPD activities and challenges at one of the Saudi Arabian institutions

Brief description of your research project:
Continuing professional development (CPD), worldwide, in the field of education in general and in the teaching profession in particular is a never-ending cycle and is essential if teachers and institutions are to effectively respond to the complex and swiftly changing demands of today’s world. Professional teachers rely on specialized knowledge to perform their duties. In the exercise of their duties, they hold themselves accountable to the highest possible standard addressing their students’ and their own changing learning needs. To meet these needs, teachers must themselves be involved in continuing, lifelong learning journey.

Therefore, the current study tends to explore EFL teachers’ views about their CPD activities and challenges at one of the Saudi universities. The main research questions that guide the current study are:

5. What do EFL teachers working in the English programme at one of the Saudi Arabian institutions understand by the term continuing professional development (CPD)?
6. What CPD activities are currently in place?
7. In their views, what is the nature of the challenges teachers face in their attempts to do CPD?
8. What suggestions do teachers have on how they can best be helped to continue to develop?

Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):
The participants of this study are 20 EFL multi-cultural teachers who are currently teaching at one of the Saudi institutions. This group of teachers will be asked to partake a semi-structured interview and to complete a questionnaire. Consent will be obtained from these teachers prior to involvement in the interview.

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

- 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 following the Code of Ethics and Conduct set out by the British Psychological Society (BPS, 2006). The views of teachers will be dominant in this study. I will ensure that these are listened to, respected, represented and acted upon. I will also attempt to respect individual and cultural differences.

Prior to conducting the interviews with the teachers, formal permissions will be gained from the local education authorities in Saudi Arabia. It will be essential to obtain consent forms from participants. Records of when, how and from whom consent was obtained, will be recorded. Participants will be made aware of how the research findings will be used.

- **anonymity and confidentiality**

A participant information sheet will include details about the nature of the study, its purposes, the data collection processes and my aim to keep the participants’ identities anonymous and the data confidential.

Records of the data collected (Electronic and paper information) will be stored in a secure and safe locked office and/or a password protected. This information will also be coded to assure anonymity. Though the researcher is able to identify participants from information given, I will in no way make the connection known publicly.

Every reasonable effort will be made to ensure that no output (e.g. dissertation, article, report, conference or seminar presentation) will provide information which might allow any participant or institution (e.g. school, college, university) to be identified from names, data, contextual information or a combination of these. Each participant will be anonymised through the use of pseudonyms.

**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 collected through semi-structured interviews. Documentary data will consist of the teachers’ planning work, PD workshops documents, plenary sessions activities. This secondary data will be discussed with the teachers during the interviews. It is not anticipated that the data collection will cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress. I will be recording interviews with digital recorder.

**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.):**

The participants will be informed that they have the right to withdraw from the research at any time, and that data related to them will be destroyed. As previously mentioned,
electronic information will only be accessed by the researcher with his username and password. Paper information will be securely stored in a locked cabinet. Electronic information will also be stored on a secure system, within a locked building. Any list containing participants real names and / or contact details will be stored in a separate location from all other data or on an entirely different hard drive. It will be destroyed 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):**

There are no exceptional factors that may raise ethical issues and no harm to the participants.

_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 2013 _until:_ June 2013

_By (above mentioned supervisor’s signature): … date: 04 March 2013_

_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:_ ……………………………………………………………………………………

_Signed:_ ………………………………………………………………………………………………………………….._date:_ …………

……

Chair of the School’s Ethics Committee

This form is available from  [http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/](http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/)
Appendix (H)

BUZZ OBSERVATION FORM

Instructor’s name: Date
Level Time
Buzz Observer’s name: Room No. of Students

Buzz observation round during the semester __________ ( e.g. first, second, third )

Please check the yes or no boxes in each category below in the light of your observation. In case of "No" you may comment on the space given.

A- Teacher/Students

YES

NO
1- Teacher is present in the classroom
2- Students are present in the classroom

Comment

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

B- Instructions

1- Teacher is facilitating learning and engaged in the lesson
2- Learning activities are relevant and appropriate
3- Students are engaged on task

Comment

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..

C- Classroom Management

1- Teacher is in control of the students and of class activities
2- Teacher-student and student-student interactions are appropriate to the lesson
3- Classroom arrangement is suitable for learning

Comment

……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………..
D- Educational Technology

1- E-Podium /smart board is being used/ready to be used/likely to be used

Comment:.................................................................................................................................

P.T.O

E- Student Attendance

1- Teacher has the attendance register
2- Teacher has taken the attendance within the stipulated time
3- Students are marked present (P) or absent (A) or late (L)
4- Attendance record for the lesson is accurate and complete

Comments
.............................................................................................................................................

F- Teacher's Resources /Materials/Weekly Syllabus

1- Teacher has the correct textbook
2- Teacher has the relevant resources/materials for the lesson
3- Teacher is following the weekly syllabus
4- Teacher has his/her lesson plan for the session

Comment ............................................................................................................................................

G- Dress Code

1- Teacher is appropriately dressed according to the ELSD PY dress code

Comments .........................................................................................................................................
Summary of the matter of concern

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

Is this a repeated concern? Yes ____ No ____

Advise/Action Taken

Action taken by the PD Unit

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

Concern communicated by ___________________________ Signature

Date: _____/_____/_______
Appendix (I)

HEA Associate Fellowship

This is to certify that
Abdullah Alshahrani
has achieved the status of
Associate Fellow
of The Higher Education Academy
in recognition of attainment against the
UK Professional Standards Framework for
teaching and learning support in higher education.

Recognition reference:
PR009239
Date of recognition
15/07/2015

Professor Stephanie Marshall
Chief Executive
The Higher Education Academy

Professor Don Nutbeam
Chairman of the Board of Directors
The Higher Education Academy Board

The Higher Education Academy is a company limited by guarantee registered in England and Wales no. 04931031.
Registered as a charity in England and Wales no. 1101607. Registered as a charity in Scotland no. SC043946.
The Higher Education Academy and its logo are registered trademarks and should not be used without our permission.


Alghamdi, & Higgins. (2015). Investigating how teachers in primary schools in Saudi Arabia were trained to use interactive whiteboards and what their training needs were. International Journal of Technical Research and Applications, Special Issue, 30, 1-10.


Neaimi. (2007). Professional Development for Teachers of English in the UAE. (MA), the American University of Sharjah.


Symeou. (2006). Teacher Professional Development in Focus: Reorganizing the Existing In-Service Training Scheme in Cyprus.


Tutty, Grinnell, & Rothery. (1996). *Qualitative research for social workers: Phases, steps, and tasks:* Allyn and Bacon.


