

Constructional and Situational Variables to Affect the Efficacy of INSET

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The current study explores potential differences among in-service teachers in Asian settings in terms of their attitudes, needs, and teaching beliefs. With the great emphasis placed on INSET programs for teacher qualifications, the current study attempts to evaluate the efficacy of an INSET program as a case study. Since the 90-hour program for 16 Chinese English teachers in this study was hosted by a recognized TESOL institution in Korea, the focus of the study was placed on cultural and contextual variables affecting language teaching and teacher development. At the same time, efficacy of the current INSET program was examined through particular contextual variables of the trainees within the general framework of INSET efficacy issues. Trainee confidence level and perception of achievement were the main criteria, and a comparative analysis of one Chinese trainee's pre- and post-program performance was made to objectify lesson applicability for the particular training involved. The research findings support the idea that teaching is a situated practice, and cultural and contextual variables truly affect teaching needs and INSET characteristics.

[efficacy of INSET/constructional variables/cultural variables/situated practice/
INSET 평가/ 상황 변인/ 문화 변인/ 교수변인]

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching quality and educational leadership were identified as top reform initiatives at the "2012 International Summit on the Teaching Profession," which was held in the United States. At a very practical level, hiring qualified teachers is reported as the major variable to making any educational reform successful, while a few exemplary cases in Asian countries are reported (US Department of Education, 2012). Such practical reports are exactly in line with the theoretical framework in the sense that teacher

effectiveness/teaching quality is identified as the major area determining the quality of a program and school competitiveness (Freeman, 1989; Freeman, Orzulak & Morrissey, 2009; Pennington & Young, 1989). In measuring school effectiveness, teacher effectiveness has been singled out as the central indicator of a program among school variables (Ellett & Teddie, 2003). Consequently, teacher performance, comprised of the variables including pedagogical knowledge, beliefs, and instructional practices, has been regarded as the major indicator of educational quality.

The way in which ministries of education in Asian countries have recognized the trend, that is, as “English as a Global or International Language,” has placed even more pressure to non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) in EFL settings. NNESTs are encouraged or required to teach English in English only as the medium of instruction to maximize students’ exposure to the language for better communicability in the global community. This is why NNESTs, as language learners themselves, become even more sensitive to their own command of English. From this perspective, Nunan (2003) noted the impact of the concept of “Global English” on educational policies and practices in a number of Asia-Pacific regions, including Mainland China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, and Malaysia. His research shows some confusion and inconsistency in policy and teacher qualifications, as well as a discrepancy between curriculum rhetoric and pedagogical reality in those countries. However, no stakeholders in any educational setting have ever questioned the significance of teacher qualifications to enhance educational quality.

As a strategic governmental decision to improve students’ overall communicative levels, in Korea, for example, a phenomenal amount of funds have been put into different types of in-service training (INSET) programs to enhance teaching quality. Among the innovative action plans, training 1,000 teachers each year, between 2007 and 2015, out of 32,483 Korean English teachers (Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2006) has attracted attention, and the value of such an investment has been evaluated through several research projects. The Ministry of Education in the People’s Republic of China is also reported to have drafted an action plan for vitalizing education in 1999 for a globalized world. Among the programs in that plan, 550,000 secondary school teachers became the target of professional development for better teaching qualifications (Cheng & Wang, 2004). Yan and He (2012) also reported that the Chinese Ministry of Education initiated an action plan in 1993 for vitalizing education for the 21st century.

As for general INSET efficacy, a considerable number of studies have been conducted to discuss the value of investment and its outcomes. Recently, several studies have been particularly directed at intensive in-service teacher training for NNESTs in EFL settings. Important research can be summarized in terms of emphasis (as below) to discuss variables for INSET quality indicators: trainee attitude, surrounding factors, lesson sustainability, structured training, targeted curriculum, and ultimate benefits to students.

INSET efficacy variables:

- 1) Attitude (Torff & Sessions, 2008)
- 2) Surrounding factors and support (Chafe & Wang, 2008)
- 3) Sustainability of lessons (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman & K. S. Yoon, 2001; Lamb, 1995; Nkopodi, 2006)
- 4) Structured and focused time (Desimone, Porter, Garet, K. S. Yoon & Birman, 2002; Guskey & K. S. Yoon, 2009)
- 5) Applicability: targeted and contextualized mode of education (K. Chang, K. Jung, Hayes, D., J. Yeon, W. Kim & B. Lee, 2010; Cheng & Wang, 2004; Cook, 2009; Guskey, 2003; Kurihara & Saminy, 2007; Stronkhorst & Akker, 2006; Waters, 2006; Yan & He, 2012)
- 6) Ultimate benefit to students (Guskey, 2003; Kennedy, 1991)

With most of the efficacy criteria mentioned above considered, the emphasis in the current research is placed on how constructional and situational variables affect INSET efficacy. As a result of more developed theories in education and language teaching, it is a general understanding that teaching is a situated practice. Freeman's (1989) seminal model of teaching constituents (attitude, skills, and knowledge) has increased the teacher's role as the principal agent affecting student learning outcomes. It is believed that a good teaching depends on the teacher's pedagogical knowledge, constructed from his/her content and theoretical knowledge (Borg, 2003; Freeman, 1993; Gebbard, 1991; Kennedy, 1991; Richards, 1990). The pedagogical knowledge is again (re)constructed, depending on constructional variables (Burns & Knox, 2011; Johnson, 2006; Tsui & Tsui, 2003). In other words, to evaluate an INSET program, in-service teachers themselves are the best informants regarding their own situational variables and their own needs for a quality INSET curriculum.

In addition, a critical question for INSET quality for non-native language teachers is "what is most important to enhance NNESTs' capabilities to teach in the target language?" There may be different conceptions across cultures and among stakeholders involved. There may also be commonalities among NNESTs across cultures and also different contextual constraints in the answers to that question. As K. Yeum (2012a) argues, discrepancy among stakeholders' perceptions on priority in program objectives can lower the INSET educational quality. So far, a few important articles of substantial length have been published discussing efficacy of INSET programs for Korean in-service teachers (K. S. Chang, 2007; K. Chang et al., 2010; S. Y. Kim, H. R. Kim, S. Lee & K. J. Woo, 2010; Y. H. Na, B. K. Ahn & H. S. Kim, 2008), and they focus mainly on the issue of language and teaching skills improvement as well as curriculum issues. However, the current study places more emphasis on cultural and contextual variables to affect INSET efficacy.

For this purpose, the current study examined a 90-hour INSET program, hosted by a well-recognized TESOL program in Korea, for 16 Chinese teachers. The research started with a fundamental and ontological question about what good language teaching is. To answer the question, the current study primarily adopts a traditional qualitative approach. Since teaching is considered to be a socio-contextually situated practice, in-service Chinese trainees' expectations of an INSET opportunity could be different from those of Korean trainees. To evaluate the current INSET program's efficacy, Chinese trainees' perceptions on lesson applicability and of pre- and post-program differences in their confidence levels are used as the main criteria. At the same time, trainee perceptions are objectified by looking at the pre- and post-teaching performance of two case study trainees. In addition, Western teacher trainers, who have been involved in training Korean trainees for an average of 4.3 years, are utilized to discover their views on the Chinese group's learning attitudes and behaviors. A better understanding of both universal nature and context specific needs from INSET opportunities can help curriculum developers and administrators across cultures. In addition, all stakeholders involved in INSET programs benefit from these research findings.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Good Language Teaching: Contextual and Situational Practices

The question, "what comprises good language teaching," has been asked for many years, and answers have evolved with research findings about teaching and teaching practices. Over the past 50 years, there has been a shift from transmission theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching, and teacher learning (Crandall, 2000). In other words, the concept of teacher training to transmit teaching tools has evolved into the concept of teacher education to allow teachers to construct their own pedagogical and practical knowledge, based on their own contextual and situational variables. During the 1970s, for example, research in language education focused mainly on teaching behaviors and student learning outcomes. Accordingly, teacher education centered on the way teachers mastered the content they were supposed to teach and the skills they were expected to use. In the mid-1980s, however, cognitive learning theories and information-processing models gradually shifted the focus of teacher education from teacher training to teacher development (Johnson, 2006). In brief, over time, prescribed teacher training models started losing validity as Gebhard (1991) well put it: "Working toward acceptable ways to teach within a particular teaching context ... rather than the supervisor prescribing

a ‘best’ way to teach” (p. 741). The teacher’s own application of given practices to accommodate contextual variables became a significant factor for good teaching.

Within such a general theoretical framework, Freeman’s (1989) seminal model of teaching constituents (attitude, skills, and knowledge) reminds the significance of teachers’ own role in teaching practices. In his model, the process of teachers’ own awareness and strategy development is emphasized based on knowledge and practice interacting with various classroom variables. Accordingly, support is given to the argument that (prospective) development of teachers’ own understanding of the complex relationship between teaching and learning is critical in teacher education (Gebhard, 1991). Kennedy (1991) also reports based on a large-scale study of 700 pre- and in-service teachers: “there are no simple bromides for improving the quality of classroom teaching practice” (p. 17). Richards (1990, vii) addresses the extended responsibilities of teachers themselves for instructional designs and strategies as well. As a result of a better understanding of teaching and teaching practice, more emphasis is placed on classroom teaching and classroom research, and classroom-centered or teacher research (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Bailey & Nunan, 1996; Burns & Rochsantiningih, 2006; Chaudron, 1988; Nunan, 1989; Van Lier, 1988; Woods, 1996).

More focused research has been carried out to address how teachers think in their classrooms, how they reach their decisions, and how they (re)construct classroom practices. Such a focus shift has come about as teachers have come to be viewed as individuals able to construct their own workable theories of teaching, not as individuals who merely master principles and theories given to them (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001; Borg, 2003; Freeman, 1996; Johnson, 2006; Richards, 1996; Woods, 1996). In fact, diverse terms have been used to explain how teachers do what they do, and how and why they do it. Freeman (1993) uses the term “conceptions of practice” to explain a set of ideas and actions that teachers use to organize what they know and to map what is possible. Breen et al. (2001) describe “pedagogic principles” as shaped and generated by underlying and more abstract beliefs to mediate between beliefs and on-going decision-making in particular contexts. For Richards (1996), “maxims” denote teachers’ personal working principles, which reflect their individual philosophies of teaching. Wright’s (2005) concept of “professional knowledge” helps us to understand how teachers could apply what they learned in their real classroom settings.

Socio-cognitive aspects of language classroom functions (Breen et al, 2001; Candlin & Mercer, 2001; Painter, 2001) and the complex dimension of classroom interaction factors (Burns & Knox, 2005, 2011) have helped us to understand the complex nature of teaching. Tsui and Tsui (2003) define teacher knowledge as “an amalgamation of what has been conceived” (p. 7) and argues that it becomes meaningful only when it is actuated and practiced within a context: “teacher knowledge and teachers’ specific contexts of work are

dialectically related and are constantly being construed and reconstrued” (p. 7). The quotation encapsulates the discussions so far in the sense that teaching is a situated practice requiring teachers’ own true understanding of socio-cultural variables within a context to adopt the best-working practice. At the same time, teaching experience itself would provide the size of the repertoire of teaching practices to choose from. Language teachers’ roles are described as “users and creators of legitimate forms of knowledge who make decisions about how best to teach their L2 students within complex socially, culturally, and historically situated contexts (Johnson, 2006, p. 239). In other words, teachers have to transfer the legitimate form of knowledge into practical knowledge and also create new knowledge based on their own experience to enhance students’ learning outcomes.

To NNESTs, due to the pressure of being language learners themselves, the concept and practice of good teaching can be even more challenging and complex. As already mentioned, the most critical element of good teaching is how to access contextual classroom variables and adopt best-working instructional practices to enhance learning outcomes. Accordingly, in-service Chinese teachers’ own needs, expectations, and perceptions of good teaching practice influenced by their own contextual variables would provide developmental criteria for the INSET program in this study. For example, the majority of the Korean in-service teachers in another INSET program at the same institution showed an obsessive concern about language proficiency as the major determinant of their teaching abilities (K. Yeum, 2012b). Chinese in-service teachers may prioritize their needs differently. There could be cultural variance even among NNESTs across culture about the practice and concept of good teaching.

In the current study, in-service Chinese teachers are used as informants to evaluate the efficacy of the INSET program. They can recognize applicability and adaptability of the lessons, and also create a new form of practical and pedagogical knowledge out of the provided INSET instruction. At the same time, their beliefs and attitudes as showed in the INSET classrooms can be observed through a more objective lens of the teacher trainers and the administrator involved in the program.

2. INSET Efficacy Variables for Language Teaching

In the educational field, the issue of professional development for in-service teachers has been more seriously stressed in the last decade than ever before. In the USA, for example, the announcement of the “No Child Left Behind Act” of 2001 (United States Act of Congress, 2001) is considered as the momentum for innovative initiatives to ensure teacher qualifications for maximum student learning (Guskey, 2003). Garet et al. (2001) also pointed out that the success of education hinges on teacher qualifications and effectiveness.

Therefore, professional development for teachers has become a major focus of systemic reform.

As Crandall (1993) articulates, “Professional development is an ongoing process, not a product which can be neatly packaged; nor is it something which can be developed in occasional workshops” (p. 105). It underlines the importance of continued efforts that should be put into professional development. Teachers’ own attitude toward professional development in general contributes to their own career improvement opportunities (Torff and Sessions, 2008). Any exact correlation between teachers’ attitudes and their achievement level may not have been reported, but at least we can say that positive attitudes are likely to result in more positive outcomes. In addition, financial support and the surrounding environment have been crucial in providing quality INSET programs, as reported for ESL teachers in Canada (Chafe & Wang, 2008). Furthermore, Garet et al. (2001) share this concern about a dilemma being faced by policymakers to balance the quality of INSET and quantity of beneficiaries within the limitations of a given budget.

Length of structured time is another good INSET quality indicator. Lamb’s (1995) research findings show the difficulty of retraining in-service teachers to result in any long-term change in their teaching practices. A large-scale empirical research study (a national sample of 1027 math and science teachers) validates sustained and intensive professional development for a stronger impact (Garet et al., 2001). Furthermore, Desimone et al. (2002) include duration of activity, participation of groups from the same school or grade, active learning opportunities, content focus and coherence, and management and implement strategies. Posnanski (2002) also provides similar INSET quality indicators: long term, group of teamed teachers, activities modeling theory, curriculum relevance, constructive approach, and opportunities for reflection. Above all, Guskey and Yoon (2009) make the critical comment that only carefully structured and purposefully directed time will be beneficial.

The most frequently mentioned and emphasized characteristic in determining the efficacy of INSET programs is teachers’ content and pedagogic knowledge, which is reported through the analysis of thirteen best known characteristics of effective INSET programs (Guskey, 2003). Stronkhorst and Akker’s (2006) empirical research through a quite structured in-service intervention also reports the importance of specific needs of the trainees for realistic targets and adequate modes of education. Waters (2006) also emphasizes the “importance of course-based training,” which emphasizes the factor of a directly related INSET curriculum. In other words, an INSET curriculum, designed to address teachers’ needs for teaching in a specific teaching context, must be a major factor to determine quality outcomes.

Another critical dimension that should be addressed in evaluating the value of INSET programs is the “ultimate benefits” (Kennedy, 1991). This is a demonstrable improvement

in student learning outcomes. In other words, “professional development planning focuses on two critical questions: How will this help students? And what evidence will we trust to verify that it does?” (Guskey, 2003, p. 15). It is not an easy task to plan “backward,” as Guskey (2003) explains, to think about students learning outcomes first, and then reflect the needs in the design of the INSET curriculum to enhance the targeted training. However, since the trainees fully understand their own teaching contexts and variables, addressing their own needs in INSET programs should also be a way to enhance their students’ learning outcomes.

As for change in teaching beliefs and instructional practices as a result of an INSET, this may not be exactly measurable since it would require a considerably long-term longitudinal study including a large number of different variables concerning the teacher trainees and the students back in their classrooms. The model of teacher change shown in Figure 1 (Guskey, 2002, p. 49) presents a model that implies that significant change in teachers’ attitudes and beliefs occurs primarily after they gain evidence of improvement in student learning. Accordingly, it is not an easy process to measure learning outcomes and efficacy of an INSET program, with all the criteria discussed above involved.

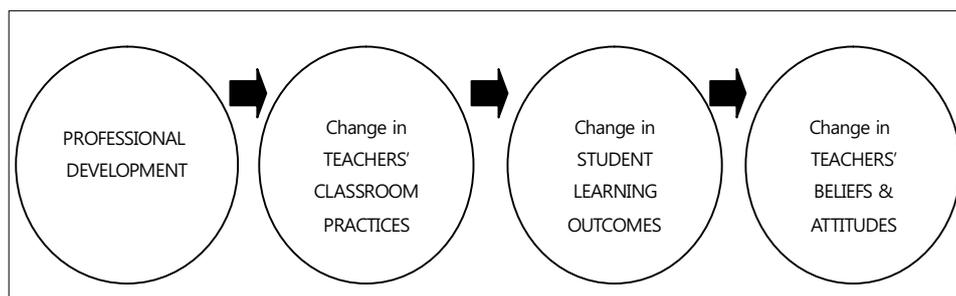


FIGURE 1 Professional Development and Teacher Change (Guskey, 2002, p. 49)

Considering all the criteria discussed above, it could be even more challenging to measure the efficacy of INSET programs for NNESTs since there could be even additional factors to be considered, i.e, trainees as language learners themselves. Still, several studies have explored the value and efficacy of INSET programs with a substantial length of training time for NNESTs. Due to the planned investment into intensive teacher training programs by the Korean government, several studies have looked into quality assurance in terms of teacher improvement. K. S. Chang (2007) used surveys and a checklist to examine the effectiveness of a 700-hour, five-month intensive INSET program. In contrast, Y. H. Na et al. (2008) attempted an empirical research project to evaluate a residential in-service teacher training program. They used two major evaluative criteria, language proficiency development and improvement in teaching skills by conducting a pre-test and a post-test.

Chang et al. (2010) evaluated the same residential INSET program by using a comprehensive approach, looking at many different components, including management. On the other hand, K. Yeum (2010a) adopted a qualitative approach to evaluate a similar type of INSET program while using the INSET classroom area as the center of research.

Government-sponsored INSET programs for Japanese teachers were examined by Kurihara and Samimy (2007). This study particularly dealt with the impact of a training program on teaching beliefs and practices in terms of the socio-cultural aspects. On a broader scale, Cook (2009) examined a four-month long in-service program for Japanese English teachers in Canada. In order to analyze the impact of the Canadian program on participating Japanese teachers, a longitudinal, observational case study method was chosen to investigate cultural and educational differences. Several studies of note also examined the efficacy of INSET programs for Chinese teachers. Providing empirical research regarding EFL teachers at the secondary level in the Chinese context, Cheng and Wang (2004) reveal the importance of classroom contextual variables, particularly the centralized test-driven community, to affect the nature of teaching and the needs of teachers. Another notable study is an evaluation of a part-time INSET program by a national normal university (Yan & He, 2012) based on 95 trainees' reflective writings on the program's impact and shortcomings. Nkopodi (2006) shares the main concern of the trainees in his study – concerns about instructional changes – while the trainees showed satisfaction with the given national INSET program format and content. As Chen and Wang (2004) conclude, in-service teachers themselves are the major agents of the change. In other words, it is the trainees' extra efforts to improve their own instructional practices that make any INSET opportunity productive and fruitful.

Little research has been done in the form of a longitudinal study to look at NNESTs' pre- and post-program teacher performance for INSET instruction due to constructional constraints. While on a very limited scale, the current study attempts a comparative analysis of two Chinese participants to measure the application of techniques learned in the INSET program for 16 Chinese teachers. What is more important, the study will also explore a unique dimension to show commonalities or differences between Chinese and Korean teachers in their attitudes, needs, and teaching beliefs. The study could shed light on the essence of teaching and teacher education shared across cultures among NNESTs.

III. METHODOLOGY

The current study adopts a qualitative, process-oriented approach to answer questions about the essence of language teaching and the quality of an INSET program. Answering ontological questions, including “how” and “why,” have become an important part of

program evaluations in the EFL profession. A process-oriented approach is well suited to explore the what, why, and how of stakeholders behaviors and beliefs in relation to their effect on the teaching/learning quality of the INSET program in this study. It is believed to best document achievement and give room for reflection and action for improvement (Bailey, 2009; Crandall, 2000; Ellett & Teddie, 2003; Fitzpatrick, Sanders & Worthen, 2004; Freeman, 2009; Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005; Lazaraton, 1995; Lynch, 1996, 2003; Tuffs, 1995; White, 1998).

The study is designed to include three stages to validate the methodology and interpretation of research findings. At first, to evaluate the INSET curriculum efficacy, Chinese trainees' perception of lesson applicability and of pre- and post-program difference in their confidence levels is used as the main criteria. Pre- and post-program surveys were conducted, and two survey forms (the same ones that were used for Korean teacher trainees in the regular INSET program) were used to enhance validity of the comparative interpretation. The pre-survey form consists of various multiple choice questions with open-ended questions included to ascertain the trainees' expectations of the INSET program, their teaching needs, and their priorities in good language teaching. Their current confidence level in teaching in the target language was also surveyed. The post-survey was designed to examine their perceptions of their achievements and compare the confidence level at the end of the INSET program with that just prior to the beginning.

In the second stage, interviews are arranged with the two groups, the Chinese trainees and the Western teacher trainers, to triangulate perceptions and opinions. A semi-structured interview with all 16 Chinese teachers was conducted at the end of the semester (20-30 minutes each), which was an extended version to confirm trainee perceptions. It also provided opportunity for gathering their perceptions on their Korean counterparts in the interactive workshop portion of the program. To objectify, the Western trainers' perceptions of the Chinese trainees' learning attitudes and behaviors were obtained through individual interviews, a few weeks after the completion of the program through a reflection on the program.

The final stage of efficacy evaluation was carried out by examining lesson applicability through observing pre- and post-program teaching performance. Three Chinese trainees' lessons (one hour each) were videotaped in May, a few months before the INSET program. Then, at the end of October, after the completion of INSET, the trainees were encouraged to videotape their own lessons back in China and send them to the researcher for a comparative review as the basis for evaluating the 90-hour INSET program.

1. Research Context

The Chinese where the Chinese teachers came from is located at the center of the province, which is a fast-growing area of China, quickly becoming a financial and education center of southern East Asia. A huge campus town for several universities has just been established on the outskirts of the city, while the main campuses are still active in the downtown area. A new international airport and subways were under construction, which will also serve to advance education. The secondary schools where most of the teachers came from are those which are affiliated with the best normal university and the best university in the town. In the town, there are about a thousand language institutions owned by Chinese people and also a few large Western language school chains have been established, highlighting the demand of language learning. The researcher visited two secondary schools. One of them was a foreign language school affiliated with the top university in the town. One of the teachers' classes was observed and videotaped with permission. At the other school that the researcher visited, there were about 25 English teachers, who had weekly meetings to share digital presentation files and teaching ideas. This school was the top secondary school in the town and affiliated with the best normal university. Most of the students that the case study teachers taught were 12-to-16-year-old middle school students. Each grade had 26 classes of 65 students, and most of them started their secondary education in that school. Two classes of each of the two Chinese teachers were observed.

Even though the three teachers at two different schools showed different proficiency levels, they took it for granted that English should be the medium of instruction. To enhance student understanding, code switching was used when necessary. On the researcher's second visit in the morning, many classes of middle school students were heard from the corridor, reciting sentences from a book guided by class captains, with homeroom teachers in attendance in some classrooms and not in others. It was like doing choral repetition of formulaic expressions before the daily routine started, which showed the emphasis on English at that school. At both schools, there were no native English-speaking teachers.

2. Profiles: Trainers/Trainees/Administrator

The INSET program was a three-week, 90-hour intensive teacher training program during August of 2012. All sixteen trainees in the program were in-service Chinese EFL teachers and the majority of them were junior and senior high school teachers. Their average teaching experience was a little over 10 years. Three trainees had lived in an English-speaking country. One of them stayed in India for two years, and two others stayed

in the UK while teaching Chinese in an exchange program. In other words, none of the trainees had been trained in a regular educational program abroad. Most of them teach English in English, but when needed for beginners and for clear instructions, one sixth of them speak Chinese. Their language proficiency levels were varied, and according to their entry interview results, their proficiency level was distributed as follows: low advanced (5%); high intermediate (36); mid intermediate (34%); and low intermediate (25%).

All eight trainers involved in the three modules of the program were native speakers of English. All of them held a MA degree in TESOL, and they had an average of 4.3 years' teacher training experience at their present TESOL institution. All of them also had substantial teaching experience in EFL/ESL settings. The Korean coordinator had done substantial work regarding program planning and administration of the China project, and a Korean director supervised the overall program in the institution.

IV. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

1. Data Collection

Official permission for access to the two schools in China was arranged through university officials. Data collection at the training site in the Korean TESOL organization was permitted on the condition that all the data would be used under standard ethical guidelines. As it is specified in the Methodology section, research took place in three interconnected stages. As a result, data were collected from the major stakeholders: Chinese trainees, Western teacher trainers, and a Korean administrator. Data were collected in the following diverse formats over a six-month period:

- 1) Pre- and post-program survey: Two surveys were conducted at the beginning and at the end of the program. The pre-program survey was conducted through e-mail interactions, and the post-program survey was conducted at the end of the semester. All 16 trainees responded each time. Two survey forms (the same ones used for Korean trainees) were used to enhance validity of the comparative interpretation. The pre-survey form consists of various multiple choice questions (to encourage their responses) with open-ended questions (to allow space for additional notes) included. The questions to ascertain the trainees' expectations of the INSET program, their teaching needs, and their priorities in good language teaching were included. The post-survey was conducted to examine their perceptions of their achievements and mainly measure their pre- and post-program confidence shift.

- 2) Interviews: Individual interviews with all 16 trainees (average: twenty minutes) were taped and transcribed. Interview data from 4 Western teacher trainers and one Korean administrator were obtained.
- 3) Class observation: Three Chinese trainees' teaching performance were observed and videotaped in May 2012. Two of the trainees' self-videotaped classes (one hour each) were sent to the researcher by the end of October 2012.
- 4) Document: Orientation packet and course syllabi

2. Data Analysis

Once all the data were obtained, they were coded using *in vivo* terms with the NVivo 9 software. Major categories were identified, and then data were rearranged and reanalyzed for coding and for more specific sub-categorization at nodes. Data analysis was done through a number of separate, but interrelated, steps. Results from each source track were carefully examined for fair interpretation while following the general qualitative tradition. As for class observation, for example, a general but detailed summary of the lessons was made, and then, once specific items for comparison were identified, those specific parts were observed repeatedly and transcribed for more detailed analysis. At the same time, different sources were triangulated to reach a fair interpretation of each item of data.

V. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

1. Curriculum and Program Objectives

The training institution in this study developed the 90-hour INSET curriculum to host the 16 Chinese teachers. According to the course coordinator, the general objective of the INSET program was to enhance the Chinese teachers' teaching abilities in English. To meet the program objectives, the program was divided into two basic modules: English Educational Core (36 hours) and English Proficiency Core (54 hours). In the English Educational Core, Methodology covered a substantial part of the module (50%). The course objective is stated as: "Trainees will investigate approaches for teaching language within a meaningful context as well as different techniques to make language input comprehensible" (from the Methodology syllabus). For the English Educational Core, the trainees were divided into small groups and each group of Chinese trainees were trained with Korean trainees in the regular TESOL program of the institution for 18 hours of Methodology and other classes (SLA and Inter-cultural Communication) for idea exchange and enhancement of cross-cultural understanding.

In the English Proficiency Core (54 hours), a number of different mini-courses and workshops are included to help the trainees to develop activities and teaching materials. In the Workshop component (total 20 hours), the Chinese trainees were mixed with in-service Korean English teachers in another program in the training institution. The purpose of the module English Proficiency Core was “to give you practice supplementing your textbook with activities using English. Through this course, you will become familiar with explaining grammar points and language structures in English,” according to the orientation packet.

2. Trainee Perception: Expectations and Achievement

The Chinese trainees’ learning objectives have been ranked based on the trainees’ markings for “extremely important.” according to their responses to the survey question “What do you expect from the INSET program?” The top four areas in importance were found to be: teaching skills (85%), language skills & classroom management skills (77%, tied), and teaching materials (69%). In contrast, the Korean trainees prioritized: English language skills (97%), teaching skills (87%), and content knowledge (66%) according to the data collected from 32 elementary school teachers in a research (K. Yeum, 2012a). Two significant contrasts between the two groups are that 97% of the Korean group placed the highest priority in language improvement, and Korean trainees’ needs for classroom management was at 38%, in contrast to 77% for the Chinese group.

According to trainee survey responses on the Chinese trainees’ achievement at the end of the INSET program, the three highest areas in which they felt they had improved were: (1) educational theories, (2) teaching materials, and (3) teaching skills and inter-cultural competence (tied) as shown in TABLE1. The survey question was: “Did the INSET program help you to achieve your professional goals? Indicate your answer by marking X in the appropriate box.” In three-week INSET training program, the areas in which they felt most improved were those which they could measure easily. For example, for theories and teaching materials, they could easily see what they had learned and what they were newly exposed to, and this was at the top of their achievement list. In addition, they had several hours of intercultural communication workshop, which may have helped to boost their confidence. However, their perception of achievement in teaching skills and language skills remained relatively low, even though approximately half of them felt improved. One possible interpretation would be that it wasn’t easy to measure one’s own language improvement or teaching skills, particularly for experienced teachers (average over 10 years). That may also be the reason why classroom management skills results were relatively low (33%). Another possible interpretation would be that they felt that the

communicative language teaching approach in the program may have not provided a sufficient solution to their large, test-oriented classes.

TABLE 1
Chinese Trainees' Expectations and Achievement

Statement (from Pre-Survey)	Question (from Post-Survey)	Answer
I want to improve _____	Did the SIS-TESOL program help you to achieve your professional goals?	“Strongly agree”
a. Language skills (77%)	a. My English language skills have improved	44%
b. Teaching skills (85%)	b. My teaching skills have improved	50%
c. Inter-cultural competence (67%)	c. My inter-cultural competence has improved	50%
d. Content teaching knowledge (62%)	d. My content teaching knowledge has improved	41%
e. Educational theories (62%)	e. I have learned more educational theories	61%
f. Teaching materials (69%)	f. I have collected useful teaching materials	56%
g. Classroom management skills (77%)	g. I have improved my classroom management skills	33%

3. Trainee Perception: Pre- and Post-Program Confidence Level Shift

As one of the evaluation criteria for measuring efficacy of INSET programs, trainee confidence level and self-esteem has been counted as a significant factor, particularly in the case of NNESTs. Even though there is no absolute standard to apply to the level of improvement, a significant difference in trainee confident level at the beginning and end was noticed. The fact that 67% of the trainees selected “strong” to the question “How do you rate your teaching abilities” at the end of the INSET program (Figure 2) indicates that they gained confidence as a result of the INSET program. Regardless of their definition of teaching abilities, the fact that almost 50 percent of the trainees switched their responses from “adequate” to “strong” as a result of training is quite meaningful. Of course, at the beginning they might have been uncertain of the new setting or tried to be modest in their responses. However, that 67% of the trainees felt “strong” about their teaching abilities at the end of the program can be counted as a very positive sign to show their improvement. At the very least, their attitudinal change is very meaningful since their raised confidence level will positively affect their instructional practices in their classrooms back in China.

In contrast, according to the data obtained in another study (K. Yeum, 2012b), only 27% of 32 Korean elementary school teachers marked “strong” to the same question at the end their 5-month, 700-hour INSET program. It is not easy to pinpoint the reason why the

Korean trainees did not show higher confidence after such a long and intensive training. However, the way a shift in confidence is made from one level to the next is not that significant for the Korean trainees. The Korean trainees' self-consciousness as a language teacher may have been influenced by their awareness of high expectations from the stakeholders within their school settings and their sense of competitiveness. As well, their exposure to a relatively large number of training opportunities may have caused them to feel a little more confidence toward their own teaching abilities. Whatever the reason, it is very likely that cultural variables are involved in the Chinese and Korean trainees' perception of teaching and teaching confidence.

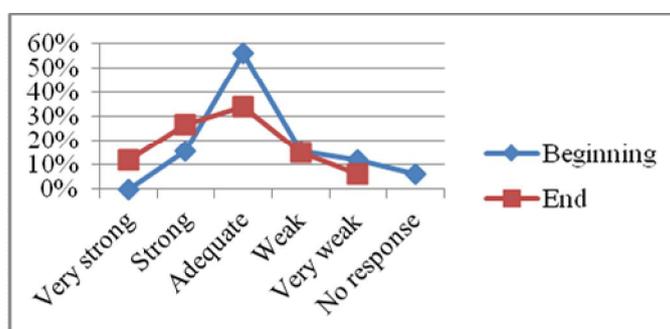


FIGURE 2 Pre-and Post-Program Confidence Level Shift (Chinese teacher trainees)

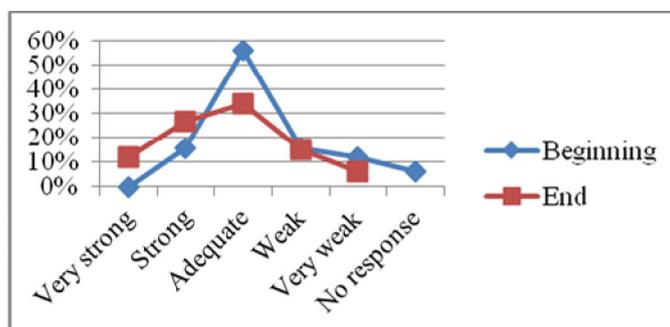


FIGURE 3 Pre-and Post-Program Confidence Level Shift (Korean teacher trainees)

4. Trainer Perception: Chinese Trainees' Attitude and Behavior

Western trainers' view of Chinese teachers can provide another way to evaluate their attitude and behavior as language learners and students, which in turn influences their teaching attitudes and practices. Among the eight trainers in the INSET program, four teachers who taught more than 12 hours in the INSET program were interviewed for their opinions of the Chinese trainees' general attitudes. Trainer N tried to focus on the

educational issues that commonly involve both groups. However, the three other trainers mentioned something unique to the Chinese trainees. Their relatively uninhibited learning style was particularly mentioned in an interview with a trainer “C” as in “I was also a bit surprised by their uninhibited approach to questioning and exploring ideas” (I_T_C). Considering that the Chinese trainees were foreign to the setting and were out-numbered by Korean students, her comment is significant. A similar comment was made by another trainer, as in “Even those students whose levels were considerably lower than the peers they were working with had no qualms about interacting openly and for long intervals” (I_T_T). In particular, the trainer emphasized the fact that even when a Chinese trainee’s linguistic level was relatively low, it would not stop them from interacting in class with their Korean counterparts.

The Chinese trainees’ relatively uninhibited attitudes towards language use, speaking in particular, explain why they exhibited more confidence in their teaching abilities. The Chinese trainees seemed to be less obsessed with the idea of native-speaker-like fluency or perfection in their language production, reflected in their uninhibited behavior in using the language. On the other hand, their Korean counterparts tended to be very conscious of this, even when they demonstrated a satisfactory level of language proficiency as indicated in FIGURE 3. The Chinese trainees’ overall positive attitudes were corroborated in an interview with the Korean coordinator as well: “I found this Chinese teachers’ group has very positive, confident, motivated and passionate in participating in this training” (unedited, I_A_N).

Considering that the trainers involved in the interviews have been educating pre- and in-service Korean trainees for average five years in the same institution, they have a basis for comparison. Chinese trainees, as short-term visitors, could have been more willing to embrace different teaching techniques, however, it would not diminish the significance of their uninhibited attitude as language learners. To the Chinese trainees, mastery of English language skills was not the ultimate goal for teaching in their language classrooms. Trainer “T” asserts that “the most impressive part was their self-confidence. We can find that they have different levels of English proficiency, but that really didn’t affect their participation in activities.” For the Chinese group, English may work as the simple medium of instruction that they need to improve to deliver better lessons in the future, not necessarily an object requiring mastery. Their more uninhibited linguistic attitudes as learners seem to give more room for them to feel confident as teachers. Of course, there must be attitudinal and cultural differences among Chinese teachers in the mainland China, but language attitudes and behaviors discussed above apply at least to the current group of Chinese trainees under study.

5. Applicability: Pre- and Post-program Teaching Performance

Before the INSET program training began, three classes of three different Chinese trainees-to-be were observed and videotaped. All of them were asked to videotape their own classes back in China after their training program and send them to the researcher. However, only two of them sent video files of their videotaped classes for feedback in the months following the INSET program. In this paper, one case sample, that of “July,” is introduced to discuss the degree of application of methods and techniques presented in the INSET program. July had a total of three years of teaching experience. The focus of the discussion on the observation of July’s classes is on the instructional practices exhibited in her pre- and post-INSET program performance, not on student learning outcomes. No prescribed checklist for observations was used, but what was happening in the class was observed and recorded.

1) Pre-training Observation Results

(1) Lesson Sequencing

The lesson was a reading class about “Dr Yuan’s Achievement” regarding the growing of rice. The teacher’s lesson sequencing technique seems appropriate. The teacher follows the sequence in the book while using a digital presentation file: 1) activating schema; 2) personal experience and making connections; 3) skimming, 4) scanning, and 5) a post-reading activity. She guides the students to predict the topic by activating their schema. She tries to activate students’ personal experiences and connect them to the topic of the day. She guides the students to predict the reading topic with visuals and questions, followed by searching for the main idea by skimming and then asking detail questions by scanning. She provides post-reading activities.

(2) Teaching Quality

① Processing Time

The teacher goes through the steps of proper teaching, but doesn’t seem to know why she is doing these things because she doesn’t follow through. Students have almost no opportunity to do any real processing in English because they are told the answers.

② Teacher-Student Interaction

These students are “doing” English class, explicitly told to depend on the teacher. They do not get any practice using English meaningfully or usefully.

TABLE 2
Class Observation: Pre-Training Class (Reading)

Time	Phase	Instructional practice
0:00-4:00 (4 min.)	Activating schema: Personal experience	1. Question & answer 2. Showing the process of growing rice
4:00-7:38 (4 min.)	Activating schema: Making connections	Asking questions about no rice situation, and showing answers on screen
7:39-18:30 (11 min.)	Skimming	Introduction of the lesson Prediction Matching Finding main ideas
18:31-28:29 (10 min.)	Scanning	Reading through Dr. Yuan's biography Coral repetition Filling blanks with key words
28:30-39:00 (10.5 min.)	Production: Post-reading Exercise	Giving examples of paraphrasing in Chinese and English

2) Post-training Observation Results

(1) Lesson Sequencing

The teacher follows appropriate lesson sequencing: 1) Preview; 2) Activating schema; 3) Lesson introduction; 4) Reinforcing activities; 5) Group work (giving tasks).

(2) Teaching Quality

① Processing Time

The teacher gives more processing time and waits for students to answer her questions.

② Teacher-Student Interaction

The teacher attempts to do comprehension check up. In addition, she invites students to use the same questions with other students for assistance or more meaningful interaction.

TABLE 3
Class Observation: Post-Training Performance Grammar: Non-Finite Verb

Time	Phase	Instructional practice	Techniques
0:00-7:59	Preview Activating schema	Activity: Map activity – Students are located in a city on a global map according to their answer. Q (T-Ss) Which one is a non-infinite verb? Q. (T-S) <u>Could you bring another student to the same question? (CIT)</u> Q. (S-S)	Classroom interaction Asking and answering questions (T-S-S)

3:00-7:59	Activating schema: Making connection	Defining “Non-finite verb” Q: What are they? Q: <u>Is there anyone who can help him? (Assistance)</u> Q: <u>Tell me what he said? (Comprehension check)</u>	MIC (Using visual: Whiteboard) CIs
8:00-9:59	Introduction: Lesson topic	Lesson: Past participle and adverbial. Checking the answers (Homework assignment)	
10:00-24:59	Main Lesson	<u>Scaffolding</u> : T assists Ss to answer to the questions. 1. <u>Comparing the difference: demonstration (T-Ss)</u> 2. <u>Contextualization/Individualization (Ss)</u> 3. <u>Confirmation</u> “Please ask another student.” (S-S)	
25:00-31:20	Post activity	Group work / giving tasks to each group “Please tell me what we have to do.” (Comprehension check)	

3) Pre-Post Teaching Performance Comparison

According to the pre- and post-training observation summary (TABLEs 2 & 3), several categories can be instrumental in comparing July’s pre- and post-training instructional practices: Lesson sequencing, Teacher talk: Discourse, and Processing and production. As for lesson sequencing, in both lessons, the teacher knows exactly how to proceed with the lessons. A possible interpretation is that she followed an appropriate lesson sequencing by following the standard guidelines in the textbooks written by western authors. In other words, she had the procedural knowledge of the lesson. However, she did not seem to understand in her pre-training teaching performance why she was to follow the procedure. Comparing her teacher talk (discourse) practices makes it possible to identify several differences in her instructional practices. In her post-training performance, July switched to a slightly more dialogic discourse from the typical teacher-centered, monologic discourse of her pre-training performance. The quality of her interactions with students had improved. She provided more opportunities to students to individualize by asking and waiting for their answers, which indicated that she had a better understanding of the concept of meaningful production. In addition, she practiced confirmation and reinforcement by providing tasks to increase student to student interaction. Additional contrastive analysis is described in Table 3.

TABLE 4
Pre- and Post-Program Class Observation Analysis

Class	Class
Level: 1st year, high school (a foreign language school affiliated to a university) - Class size: (about 20) - Content: Reading	Level: 2nd year, high school (a foreign language school affiliated to a university) Class size: 41 students Content: Grammar
Lesson Sequencing	Lesson Sequencing
Appropriate lesson sequencing: - Activating schema - Predicting reading topic with visuals and questions - Introducing main idea and then detail questions - Providing post-reading activity	Appropriate lesson sequencing: - Activating schema - Lesson introduction -Reinforcing activities: Confirmation & individualization - Reinforcement: Group work
Teacher talk: Discourse	Teacher talk: Discourse
Monologic discourse = Teacher-centered - Teacher does most of the talking. -Teacher questions and provides answers. - Even when students are called on, they gave very short, expected answers. -Only the same, dominant students habitually call out expected answers.	Switching to dialogic teacher talks from monologic discourse -Teacher waits after asking questions. -Teacher checks if Ss completely understand the given task. -Teacher calls on students to ask other students the same question.
Processing and Production	Processing and Production
Teacher doesn't seem to know the reason for her lesson sequencing.	Teacher is aware of the fact that students should process and produce.
Activity and Task	Activity and Task
Pair work is arranged to memorize rules	

VI. CONCLUSION

Debate has been continuous on the efficacy and value of INSET programs, as discussed in detail in the section “INSET Efficacy Variables for Language Teaching.” The ultimate criteria to measure the quality of INSET programs are encapsulated by three items: trainee confidence, applicability of teaching skills learned, and benefits to students. Sustainability of trainee learning could be counted as important as well. As ‘A Model of Teacher Change’ (Figure 1) signifies, it takes time for trainees to observe change in their students’ learning outcome after adopting new instructional practices. In the case of language teaching, additional variables need to be considered since NNESTs’ own language proficiency level and their learning experience are of importance. It is due to these constructional constraints that there is still not enough research available to measure quality of INSET programs.

Recognizing the difficulties involved in discussing quality of an INSET program for NNESTs, the current study attempted to look at constructional and situational variables in teaching. They are a crucial aspect to justify any INSET opportunity to reflect trainee needs and, thereby, to enhance trainee confidence in their teaching performance. As discussed in the section “Good Language Teaching: Contextual and Situational Practices,” teaching is a situational practice. Within a given situation, a teacher should transfer the legitimate form of knowledge into practical knowledge, and furthermore, create new knowledge, based on the contextual variables, to enhance student learning outcomes. The fact that the subjects of the current study are 16 Chinese teachers in a customized program by a recognized TESOL program in Korea allowed for an added dimension of cultural difference in teaching as well.

The study adopted a qualitative, process-oriented approach, and it used the Chinese trainees’ perceptions on lesson applicability and of pre- and post-program differences in their confidence levels as the main criteria to measure the quality of the INSET program. The trainees know their own contextual variables and are the agents who apply back in their classrooms what they learned in the training program. At the same time, triangulating different sources was done to perceive a clearer understanding and better interpretation of the trainees’ perceptions and confidence. The foreign trainers’ and the administrators’ views on the Chinese learning attitudes and behaviors were also obtained. Though the case analysis was limited in scope, one Chinese teacher’s instructional practices before and after the INSET opportunity were also compared to identify improvement based on the training.

The research findings of the current study confirmed that teaching is a situational practice that should accommodate different contextual variables. The needs of the Chinese teachers differed slightly in the sense that they considered teaching methodology as the most important factor to become better teachers of English. According to the individual interviews, they took it for granted that they should teach English in English, even though they practiced code-switching when necessary. Even though their overall language proficiency level was not as high as their Korean counterparts at collaborative workshops, their active participation and inhibited way of using language were noticed by their foreign trainers and the Korean administrator. This could explain why improving their language proficiency itself was not coveted as their ultimate goal in making themselves better English teachers. It represents a view of language proficiency different from that of Korean trainees, who believed that improving their language skills was the key to success as language teachers.

Trainee confidence level and sense of achievement showed a considerable increase due to the training program, shifting from “adequate” to “strong” in their pre- and post-program surveys. Their positive and uninhibited learning attitude may have helped them to raise their self-evaluation, compared to their Korean counterparts. Most of the Chinese trainees found the techniques learned in the INSET program applicable. The INSET

program designed the curriculum to meet the trainees' needs and the requirement to provide very practical approaches and activities for them to carry back to their classrooms and apply. Even though the analysis of the teacher July's pre- and post-training teaching performance was limited, the way she switched her instructional practices from dominant monologic teacher talk to a more dialogic discourse showed her effort to apply what she learned. Though there is no precise way to measure and quantify how much July learned through the INSET program, it is definite that she was exposed to teaching approaches that she considered better and wanted to voluntarily apply back in her own classroom.

The research findings reconfirm the notion that any INSET training should be designed to reflect the immediate needs of trainees in relation to a particular set of contextual and situational variables. The study was limited in terms of the limited number of hours of the INSET program under study and the small number of Chinese participants with diverse language proficiency levels and teaching requirements. However, it is a meaningful study in that it provides a better understanding of both universal nature and context-specific trainee needs from INSET opportunities across cultures and specific settings. It also underlines the position that teaching is a socio-culturally situated practice, and therefore, that this aspect should be emphasized in curriculum development and implementation of any INSET program. Hopefully, further studies on similar topics will shed more light to the ontological question of what good language teaching is and also what the highest priority should be to enhance INSET efficacy.

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Examples in: English

Applicable Languages: English

Applicable Levels: Tertiary

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