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Lesson-Plan Delivery Before Lesson-Plan Design: Defining, Sequencing, And Teaching The Essential Skills Of An English Language Teacher Development Program At Induction

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LESSON-PLAN DELIVERY BEFORE LESSON-PLAN DESIGN:
DEFINING, SEQUENCING, AND TEACHING THE ESSENTIAL SKILLS OF AN ENGLISH
LANGUAGE TEACHER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM AT INDUCTION

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This Capstone project is dedicated to Myriam Adyadou, who patiently talked me down from the pedagogical precipice on numerous occasions while collaborating on our first project-based course. Your creativity made the course we created so much better than it would have been had I toiled in isolation—as I have done for most of my EFL career. This Capstone project is also dedicated to Mark Holbrook, whose curiosity, equanimity, and patience afforded me the opportunity to do just about everything I ever wanted to do in EFL teaching and training—except this. Then again, there is still time.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

"A conceptual framework is the cornerstone of a coherent [teacher development] program. It offers a view of learning, the role of the teacher, and the mission of the schooling in a democracy. It provides a set of understandings about learning to teach. More than rhetoric, the values and ideas that make up the program's mission and conceptual framework inform the design and sequencing of courses and field experiences. They get translated into specific themes or core abilities. They shape curriculum, culture, pedagogy, and assessment practices."—Sharon Feiman-Nemser (2001, p. 1023)

Identifying the Problem

For the entirety of its 60-year history, my former employer has operated a large,

profitable network of English language schools in Morocco without a pedagogical framework

such as the one described by Howey and Zimpher (1989) and Feiman-Nemser (2001).

Consequently, the administrative association and its network of 12 language schools lack a clear

mission statement; precise descriptions of what constitutes effective teaching and student

learning; a curriculum with course outcomes the extend beyond the desultory aims of the

textbook-driven/grammar-based syllabus of the course books they are using; and, most crucially,

a quality teacher training program to ensure that the student-learning aims of its courses are

consistently realized. To their credit, the schools in the network use a

communicative-language-teaching (CLT) approach and provide a generally enjoyable

language-learning experience for a majority of the Moroccan high school and college students

who make up an overwhelming majority of their customers. The schools also provide numerous

free extracurricular clubs and engage in some charitable community outreach that combines

language learning with personal skill development and public service. Nevertheless, the largely

unacknowledged consequences of these curricular and pedagogical blind spots are evident when

interacting with learners who have completed the school's 18-class program: a number of

students are not proficient in one or more of the four skills or manage to achieve oral fluency but

lack the textual, compositional, and higher-order thinking skills needed to succeed in an

English-speaking academic environment.

     A cursory glance at the one-sentence mission statement of the network's largest English

language school in Casablanca reveals a noticeable absence of specificity regarding the nature of

whatever pedagogy it is championing: *Our school exists to give all of our students the best*

teaching and learning experience in Casablanca. The obvious question: How does one define

"the best teaching and learning experience"? Undoubtedly, the answer depends on which

director, teacher coordinator, EFL instructor, or student one speaks to and, it is safe to assume,

their responses would be widely divergent. Clearly, the students suffer most from this scholastic

relativism, as many have confessed to me on numerous occasions; each time they start a new

course and work with a new teacher is akin to entering a new school that bears no resemblance to

the old one; and their only hope rests with the good fortune to be assigned an instructor who is

skilled enough to assist in their language-learning process.

     Since I began pursuing my MA in Adult ESL at Hamline, I have been interested in

helping the the largest language school in Casablanca more clearly define the learning goals of

its courses as a basis for establishing greater pedagogical consistency among the 75-teacher staff

and more accurately assessing student performance. Therefore, with the goal of creating a

handbook of instructional sequences for a comprehensive 52-week induction training course, this

Capstone project seeks to uncover the essential tasks and sequences of EFL teacher training at

induction and, in the process, provide my former employer and similar EFL institutions with a blueprint for establishing compelling—and explicit—learning outcomes and equipping teachers with the skills to help their students achieve those course goals. The students who come to their schools for language instruction deserve no less. As I review some of the available literature in a search for commonalities in various teacher development program frameworks, I will contend with the first of two central research questions:

What are the essential set of teaching skills/practices at the induction portion of teacher training that are applicable to my EFL teaching context? Then, I will combine those skill frameworks in the literature review to answer my second research question: *In light of the specific teacher preparation and development needs of the staff in the aforementioned 12-school network in Morocco, how should these skills be sequenced and taught during the induction portion of an English language teacher development program?*

In the rest of chapter 1, I will briefly document my own professional path from novice instructor to teacher trainer and the pedagogical epiphany I had along that way—in short, that identifying course outcomes and helping instructors acquire the skills necessary for consistent student achievement of the course outcomes are paramount to providing "the best teaching and learning experiences." Drawing on my personal experience in the field as the basis for further reflection, I will then consider what components should serve as the foundation for a viable induction training program. In the process, I will also explore what a language school would need to construct (e.g. a clear vision of the student learning it is trying to promote, a specific curricular framework with clearly defined course outcomes, and well-defined set of skills and

practices teachers should possess at various stages of their career) before it could create a purposeful teacher training program.

My Own Path to Teacher Training

My personal investment in the outcome of this project should be self-evident: Purposeful teacher training programs are the exception rather than the rule as evidenced by that fact that in my 16-year, seven-country career—mostly as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructor, I have yet to work for an institution that had a clear vision of what it wanted its students to accomplish in the classroom. Equally important, none of these institutions had a teacher training program to ensure that its teachers possess the pedagogical tools to help their students develop the skills needed to achieve the course goals. Many teacher training programs at the private language school level—my former employer included—focus on brief, off-site preservice preparation and largely ignore the induction and ongoing professional development aspects of a teacher's career. Perhaps that is because administrators are often working autonomously (like my former employer) and typically lack the knowledge, vision, and qualified personnel to initiate a teacher development program or because they believe their largely unskilled native-speaking EFL instructors are not going to be around that long.

After all, as Gilman (2016) has pointed out, the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) world differs significantly from its English as a Second Language (ESL) counterpart even though the two terms are often used interchangeably. The EFL world contains both non-native-English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) who learned English as a second or third language and teach it to students of a similar linguistic and cultural background in a country in which English is a minority language. And there are Native-English-speaking instructors

(NESTs) instructors like myself who move to a foreign country to teach the language, often without knowing much about the native language and culture of their students. In contrast, the ESL world almost exclusively contains NESTs who teach English in a country in which it is the dominant language. It is a gross understatement to assert that the EFL world contains a far easier path to certification; a glaring lack of uniformity in the training that is offered to both novice and experienced instructors; professional responsibilities that differ widely from country to country and within schools in the same country. It is also important to note, as Gilman (2016) did, that many NEST EFL teachers are drawn to the profession not because they are passionate about learning the craft but because teaching abroad provides the easiest path to an exciting but ephemeral lifestyle change in a foreign culture; and, consequently, these teachers tend to view their identity and role within that institution as more transitory. More importantly, as Gilman (2016) summarized, a training program that helps teachers reconcile their identity as instructors not only instills a stronger desire in teachers to improve their job skills but increases the chance that they will remain in a profession in which, according to Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) citing statistics from the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF), nearly half of American teachers quit less than five years into their career. Even though similar statistics have not been compiled for their counterparts in the EFL world, the attrition rate is probably much higher. Quality induction training may also reduce the resentment NNESTs feel toward their NEST counterparts who usually have less teaching experience and fewer pedagogical skills, are less committed to their jobs, but nevertheless receive better benefits in an attempt to lure them from the home countries.

Due to the aforementioned realities of the EFL world, it should come as no surprise that the school-sponsored training I *have* received has, for the most part, been desultory, superficial, and largely disconnected from the specifics of my most daunting classroom challenges. An informal teacher survey I conducted at three of the 12 language schools in the Moroccan network yielded similar observations: sporadic training workshops which were frequently unrelated to teachers' most vital instructional needs and a general absence of a coherent program for sustained teacher development. Therefore, I want to create a teacher development program for EFL instructors at the stage of development where they need it most: the induction portion of their professional career—the time when they are most likely to abandon the profession because the pre-service training they received is incongruent with the pedagogical exigencies of their employer and they have been left to sort out the transitional shock for themselves.

For most of my ESL/EFL career, I have been attempting to counter the prototypical pattern of professional isolation I have experienced in every teaching context I have worked in and create ways for my colleagues to share ideas, collaborate on lesson plans and course material, and, subsequently, initiate their own professional development. As I mentioned in the previous paragraph, teaching, at least when an instructor has completed preservice preparation and is attempting to apply those pedagogical insights to an actual classroom, is often a lonely profession. Upon completion of their four-week CELTA or TESOL certification course, teachers typically lose contact with their preservice teacher educators and, as Farrell (2009) remarked, are asked to perform the same tasks of lesson-planning and delivery as their more experienced colleagues, often without any guidance or support from their employer. In other words, they are being asked to learn two jobs simultaneously, as Wildman et al. (1989, as cited in Farrell, 2012)

note: they are *teaching* English as a foreign language while *learning how to teach* English as a foreign language (emphasis mine).

Learning both teaching roles was even more mystifying for me because I entered the profession without taking a formal certification course. Thus, I lacked a fundamental awareness of how to execute a lesson plan and what criteria to use in order to determine if it was successful. I was ignorant of the depth and breadth of knowledge required to teach well, and had no idea what resources were available to help me learn the craft. Like most NESTs, I arrived in Casablanca with very little knowledge of Moroccan culture; only marginal proficiency in one (French) of the two main languages (Arabic and French) of the students I would be teaching. I knew almost nothing about the specific instructional requirements of my employer nor was I aware how the means by which I had been educated as an undergraduate student in the United States conflicted with the educational experiences of the Moroccan students in my classrooms. Freeman and Johnson (1998) identified three overlapping domains at the core of "the complex terrain in which language teachers learn and practice their craft" (p. 406), which they believe should serve as a new knowledge base for any teacher development program. The first domain is the teacher-learner (i.e. an investigation into the means by which teachers learn to teach and the various sociocultural, institutional, and educational forces which influence their development). The second involves greater scrutiny of the social context in which the teaching takes place as well as an investigation of the implicit norms and values that govern the school itself. And the third, which is usually at the center of most teacher training programs, is an exploration of the pedagogical process itself—that is, of "studying classroom language teaching and learning as it is actually lived and experienced by its protagonists" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 410).

Upon my arrival in Morocco at the beginning of my third year of teaching, I was fortunate to receive 20 weeks of mentoring and peer-coaching in the third domain of the Freeman and Johnson (1998) knowledge base from two teacher coordinators at our school in Casablanca, which gave me the beginnings of a framework for self-reflection and fostered my interest in self-directed teacher development. Once the program was discontinued, I vowed that I would do my part to assist other teachers in the transition from learning about teaching to actual teaching.

Initially, I learned the beginnings of teacher-mentoring after the director selected me—and a handful of other experienced teachers—to evaluate potential new hires. Then, I moved to spontaneously sharing physical and electronic copies of my lesson plans with my colleagues to being hired to create an entire lesson plan database for every day of every class level for another language school in Tangier. In between, I did some peer mentoring and coaching of my own—all with nothing more than my own informed but subjective beliefs about what makes for effective teaching and learning. Despite an absence of transparent teaching and learning goals, the lesson-plan-sharing had the desired effect: teachers engaged in informal professional development; they talked about the lesson plans and shared ideas for alterations and improvements. The director began assigning them to new hires as a type of hands-off training—that is, the teachers would use them to hone the performance part of their teaching as they learned how to implement the lesson plans (with or without the guidance of a master teacher). The director would then observe the classes and note improvements in lesson-plan delivery and classroom management. What we did not expect was that the lesson plan database also created improved pedagogical consistency within the school; the learners were indirectly

"trained" in what a student-centered classroom looked like and the lesson plans themselves served as the logical stepping stone for training teachers in lesson-planning and course design. From there, after reading *Understanding by Design* by Wiggins and McTighe (2005), I began experimenting with project-based course design and envisioning ways content-based instruction could foster more meaningful student assessment and, more importantly, serve as a foundation for a robust teacher development program. Nevertheless, in the ensuing years, neither the administrative organization nor its independently operating language schools in Morocco appear to have moved any closer to articulating a clear, compelling definition of what makes for "the best teaching and learning." Therefore, developing and disseminating a coherent, purposeful teacher training program, in addition to answering those vital questions, is clearly the next logical step in the pedagogical evolution of the 12-school network and my own ongoing professional development. The program would be beneficial to schools in similar EFL contexts provided that the administration had established a clear vision of student learning and adopted a specific curricular framework with well-defined course outcomes. Before I can proceed any further, it will be necessary to describe the foundational documents that would need to be created before a teacher training program could be implemented.

Prerequisites and Obstacles to a Purposeful Teacher Development Program

Once the administration in the 12-school network in Morocco established a general picture of what "the best teaching and learning" experiences look like, it would then be ready to create a mission/vision statement, a philosophy of learning, and a set of core values, core competencies, and a curricular framework with learning outcomes for each class level of the 18-level general English program offered at its language centers in Morocco. Creation of these

documents would then be followed by the development of a content-based curriculum that would be piloted and refined until it enabled the students to consistently achieve those outcomes. Nevertheless, a detailed discussion of these foundational documents is not the focus of this paper. Instead, this Capstone project is centered on identifying an essential set of teaching skills that would be applicable to the aforementioned EFL language teaching context (and similar EFL contexts) and then developing some logical task sequences to demonstrate how the most vital of these skills could be taught to novice teachers at the induction portion of their training. Unpacking those essential practices is the subject of the final paragraphs of chapter 1.

Assuming the aforementioned material were already in place, there are more obstacles that would need to be acknowledged—and overcome—before a teacher development program could be created. Unlike most other professions (e.g. medicine, law, accounting) which require novice trainees to demonstrate successful mastery of a specific skill set before they are certified to practice, the English as a Foreign Language teaching profession currently lacks, as Dunn and Shriner (1999) and numerous others point out, a clearly defined set of skills and practices teachers should possess at various stages of their career—although this problem is finally being remedied with the advent of The Eaquals Framework for Language Teacher Training and Development. To be more precise, a framework for professional practice—like the three general knowledge domains of teacher development outlined by Freeman and Johnson (1998), or the "ability-based curriculum and its associated performance-based assessment system" (Feiman-Nemser, 1998, p. 1024) used at Alverno College—has been outlined by successful teacher education programs in the US and other countries and in a handful of instructional books, like Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) *Get Better Faster: A 90-Day Plan for Coaching New Teachers*,

but these frameworks are neither widely known in the EFL world nor collectively agreed upon.

More importantly, very few of these teacher education programs describe how the essential tasks

of second language teaching could be logically sequenced. Dunn and Shriner (1999) also noted

that while the initial training period in, for example, medicine lasts for several years, most novice

teachers in EFL contexts devote only a few weeks or months to learning the trade. Thus, after

their pre-service CELTA/TESOL training ends, second language instructors typically have far

fewer opportunities to obtain constructive feedback on their performance and develop the

necessary tools for self-reflection and self-initiated professional development. As Maley (1992,

as cited in Gilman, 2016) summarized, in a sagacious analogy comparing EFL instructors to the

recruits in a mercenary army:

> (Second language instructors) are not 'professionals' in quite the same sense as medics or
>
> lawyers... we are not an army of career soldiers, all equally well-trained, battle-hardened,
>
> well-equipped and committed. We are more like one of those marauding armies in
>
> 17th-century Europe with a core of highly trained and motivated cavalry, surrounded by
>
> foot soldiers of sometimes dubious reliability and a host of camp-followers bringing up
>
> the rear. (p. 99)

Without sustained mentoring and the awareness that accompanies it (i.e. that teaching is a

remarkably complex, multifaceted endeavor), many "foot soldiers," after the initial shock of

adapting their pre-service training to an actual classroom environment, may make little to no

effort to improve their teaching (Dunn & Shriner, 1999) unless it is mandated by their employer.

More importantly, if they remained mired in low-skilled teaching, they may end up deserting the

"army"—if you will permit me to continue with the analogy—at the first sign of classroom defeat.

In addition, various institutional, curricular, and parental pressures affect the ways teachers teach and view the necessity—and scope—of self-improvement. Nevertheless, assuming the institutional resources and political will are also present, these teacher development issues could be remedied with a purposeful teacher training program that took stock of the components of Freeman and Johnson's (1998) knowledge base, established a clear framework of teaching skills at all three phases of professional practice: pre-service, induction, and ongoing professional development, created task sequences to teach them to both novice and experienced instructors (depending on their stage of development), and then designed assessments to measure teacher mastery of those skills.

This Capstone project seeks to remedy my former employer's chronic teacher development issues by doing the cognitive and creative heavy-lifting for one portion of the aforementioned teacher training program—that is, after I look at some of the literature that details the essential set of teaching skills/practices at the induction portion of teacher training that are applicable to my EFL teaching context; and investigate and critique the suggested order of those essential skills; I will then suggest an alternative skill order at induction training that expedites acquisition of rudimentary instructional skills. Finally, I will describe a couple of task sequences for teaching the most essential induction skills to novice teachers using suggestions from prominent teacher educators.

Chapter 1 Summary and Overview of the Remaining Chapters

In chapter 1, I briefly described my professional background and the protracted path I traveled from novice instructor to course designer and teacher trainer. I introduced my research questions—*What are the essential set of teaching skills/practices at the induction portion of teacher training that are applicable to my EFL teaching context? How should these skills be sequenced and taught at the induction portion of a teacher development program?*—and explained the institutional rationale for pursuing this topic (i.e. greater pedagogical consistency in the pursuit of clear course goals for teachers and students, expedited development of instructor identity and teaching skills, greater staff solidarity and retention of teachers). I also described the main obstacles, including undefined learning outcomes for each class level, an unwillingness—or inability—to define an essential set of skills instructors need in order to teach the skills learners must possess to achieve those course goals, as well as institutional/parental/curricular intransigence, which often prevents purposeful teacher training programs from being realized in similar EFL contexts. In my review of relevant literature in chapter 2, I will describe the research and frameworks that are crucial in determining the essential teaching skills and practices at the induction portion of teacher training program. In the process, I will create what I call *a mosaic of a teacher education* based on a framework and sequence of central tasks outlined by Freeman and Johnson (1998) and Feiman-Nemser (2001), and elucidated by Danielson's (2007) and Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) far more detailed descriptions and performance standards for each relevant skill in the continuum. I will then offer a critique of Feiman-Nemser's (2001) suggested order of central teaching tasks before proposing my own alternative order of teaching skills at the induction portion of teacher training. In chapter 3, I will describe the scope of my project: the basic elements of a training handbook that would

guide four phases of induction training for novice instructors and then highlight three central skills from Danielson's (2007) framework that are most critical to the instructional needs of my colleagues in Morocco at the induction portion of their training. In the project portion of this Capstone project, I will describe three task sequences—one for each of the first three phases of induction training, which would serve as a blueprint for what the rest of the program would look like—that a potential teacher training program could use to teach these essential instructional skills to its most inexperienced instructors. In the final chapter, I will highlight some of the most salient discoveries I have made as a result of researching and crafting this project and how it could be beneficial to my former employer and applicable to similar EFL contexts that lack a viable induction training program. I will also describe some of the unresolved tensions within the literature on teacher training, discuss some of the project limitations as well as suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

[Training] sessions should not be remote from the classroom, and teachers should be asked to do more than just think about the principles and practice of teaching. Sessions should provide models of the new practice, or introduce problems connected with it which have a direct connection with the classroom. Teachers need to be able to see the innovation in practice (in 'live' demonstrations, on video, listening to audio-tapes, examining tapescripts, in the form of lesson plans and teaching materials, etc.); they need to be able to relate this experience to their own knowledge of teaching and learning; they need to be able to take apart and put together again the models of practice, to examine an issue from every aspect; they need to be able to uncover the principles underlying any proposed change in practice and relate principles to practice; above all they need to be able to extend knowledge gained from such an in-depth analysis to other, comparable, teaching-learning situations.—David Hayes (1995, p. 259)

Introduction / Overview

The purpose of this project is to establish the framework and task order for the induction portion of a teacher education program (and describe some task sequences for teaching three essential instructional skills to novice instructors at different levels of that framework) that would serve the specific teacher development needs of my former employer, but also be applicable in similar EFL teaching contexts, at least ones in which a specific (i.e. constructivist) approach to language learning has also been embraced. In the process, I will answer the first of the following two research questions: *What are the essential set of teaching skills/practices at the induction portion of teacher training that are applicable to my EFL teaching context?* Then, I will combine those skill frameworks in the literature review to answer my second research question: *In light of the specific teacher preparation and development needs of the staff*

in the aforementioned 12-school network in Morocco, how should these skills be sequenced and taught during the induction portion of an English language teacher development program?

In chapter 2, I will initially outline the preliminary materials that would need to be in place before an institution could create a purposeful teacher education program: a clear vision of teaching and learning, an appropriate curricular framework and teaching methodology to facilitate that teaching and learning, and courses designed by experienced instructors which would be used as the basis for teaching the essential skills of the induction portion of the teacher training program. Then, I will describe relevant teaching frameworks from the macro- to micro-level of teacher development—as outlined by Freeman and Johnson (1998), Feiman-Nemser (2001), Danielson (2007), and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016)—all of which are crucial in determining the essential teaching skills and practices at the induction portion of teacher training. I will then offer a brief critique of the suggested order of central teaching tasks as they pertain to the specific instructional needs of the 12-school network of EFL teachers in Morocco before proposing an alternative order of skill development that prioritizes lesson-plan performance before lesson-plan design.

Teacher Training Program Prerequisites

Finding Consensus on a Vision of Student Learning

It is premature to discuss what a logical framework for teacher training would look like, Feiman-Nemser (2001) once remarked, until an institution pinpoints the type of teaching it wants its instructors to learn as well as the skills it wants its students to acquire. Traditional forms of education (language learning included) were once fashioned from BF Skinner's ideas about behavioral psychology and eventually dominated by what Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (2000)

termed, "the banking approach to adult education" (p. 74). Teaching was telling and learning was listening. In other words, instructors were the content experts who made intellectual deposits into the brains of their students and knowledge was transferred in a one-way direction from teacher to student (Freire, 2000). Course topics were not necessarily connected to the learners' lives and assessments often emphasized the testing of student memory rather than their language performance. From my own experience, the remnants of this old pedagogy persist to the present day in far too many classrooms dominated by teacher talk, rigid "coverage" of a grammar-based syllabus, lesson contexts that may—or may not—be relevant to learner needs, and stressful, paper-based summative assessments that test discrete-item, sentence-level grammar.

In contrast, the newer—but still a half-century old—constructivist learning paradigm was, as Danielson (2007) observed, developed from the work of cognitive psychologists, most notably Dewey, Vygotsky, and Piaget who fashioned a framework for how children (and adults) learn. Constructivism posits that knowledge is constructed by the learner and that learning experiences are shaped entirely by the learner's prior knowledge, experiences, and cognitive development (Danielson, 2007). As Danielson explained, the realities of constructivist learning undermine the notion of a direct (and complete) knowledge transfer from teacher to student: "People remember an experience based on what their pre-existing knowledge and cognitive structures allow them to absorb—regardless of a teacher's intentions or the quality of an explanation" (p. 16). I suspect that *the same is true for new teachers responding to a teacher education program that challenges their pre-conceived beliefs about teaching*. Not surprisingly, a vital component of content-based, concept-focused, learner-centered teaching requires students to develop critical-thinking and problem-solving skills while analyzing subjects that are

important to them and have meaning in the "real world" outside the classroom (Danielson, 2007).

Whatever philosophy of learning an institution—and its course designers—chooses to implement is ultimately framed, according to Stern (1983, as cited in Graves, 2000) on one's beliefs about language, the social context of the language, learning and learners, and teaching. For example, the student-focused instruction I think would be ideal for the 12-school network in Morocco is predicated on the view of language as a vehicle for self-expression and "learning about oneself and the world" (Graves, 2000, p. 31); a view of the social context of the language with some emphasis on its sociolinguistic, sociocultural, and sociopolitical aspects; a view of learning that is inductive, communal, and skill-focused (Graves, 2000) and of learners as individuals who should have some say in the direction of their own learning; and, finally, a view of the teacher as one who structures and facilitates learning opportunities, and acts as a resource for feedback on student performance whenever the situation warrants it. Establishing consensus on a view of language, the social context of the language, learning and learners, and teaching is an essential first step in the foundation for an induction portion of teacher development program.

Choosing a Curricular Framework Compatible with Student Learning Goals

Once an institution has explicitly defined its view of the type of teaching and learning it wants to bolster, it is ready to choose a curricular framework that is compatible with its beliefs about student learning. Not surprisingly, the aforementioned constructivist view of learning lends itself nicely to either a content-language integrated-learning (or CLIL) curricular framework in which, as Garton and Graves (2017) explained,"language is both the medium through which the content is learnt, and is also a focus of learning" (p. 33) or a project-based learning (PBL)

framework, which allows for a more integrated approach to content and language and still permits learner needs and interests to be defined, but is not as connected to school subjects as CLIL (Garton & Graves, 2017).

CLIL, much-like a genre-based curriculum, is the third *wave* of what Garton and Graves (2017) described as "three waves of language as curriculum content" (p. 6). In the first wave, the focus of language teaching (e.g. via the grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods) centered on the grammar and structure of language. In the second wave, also known as communicative language teaching (CLT), the objective was for second language learners to develop a general communicative competence in order to function in the target culture in which that language is spoken. In the third wave, language teaching has become "a resource for meaning-making contingent on a context of use" (p. 6) and language learning, while still maintaining elements of CLT, is now generated in relation to texts, projects and other subject-related content (Garton & Graves, 2017). Not surprisingly, facilitating the third wave of language learning and curriculum requires teachers to possess additional skills that aren't as necessary in the previous two curricular framework waves. A CLIL or project-based curriculum requires instructors to have an awareness of other subject areas and how they can be intertwined with language teaching. They need to know the various stages of learner development and then plan learning opportunities appropriate to their students' cognitive development. Like teachers of genre-based curriculum (i.e. one that improves language awareness through an exploration of a range of texts), instructors need an awareness of the different text types, the linguistic functions of each text type, and the language which correlates with those textual functions. Most importantly, instructors need to learn how to produce task sequences that generate—and

refine—student thinking and then create appropriate assessment tools which reveal evidence of student understanding (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Learner-centered instruction also requires students to take more ownership of their learning through more question-asking and explaining as they grapple with authentic problems and articulate potential solutions (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Garton and Graves (2017), citing the challenges of working with a CLT curriculum (which are also pertinent to CLIL frameworks), described the tension between learning a foreign language and confronting the "specific values and ideologies of interpersonal interaction" embedded in the language (p. 17) to which I would include *uncertainty about how much class time should be devoted to language acquisition versus specific skill training*. More importantly, Graves (2000) also described the difficulty of CLIL implementation due to inadequate or non-existent teacher training, which is needed to teach a more challenging set of skills, as well as teachers' lack of confidence regarding their language proficiency and/or knowledge of the subject matter they are teaching (Garton & Graves, 2017). In addition, Larsen-Freeman (2008, as cited in Garton & Graves, 2017) asserted that the needs of second language learners vary depend on the learning context and an assessment of their learning needs in that context and, thus, a learner in an ESL context in which the language is spoken outside the classroom will differ from a learner in an EFL context who studies the language for a handful of hours each week and, despite easily accessible internet-based content, cannot freely practice that language outside the classroom (Garton & Graves, 2017). There are also factors like age, gender, cultural and educational background to consider as well as the physical space of the classroom, length of the course, and available teaching materials (Graves, 2000).

In this section, I discussed the philosophical prerequisites a language school would need to consider (i.e. a vision of teaching and learning and a curricular framework that facilitates that teaching and learning) before it designed courses that embodied those values and led to desired student outcomes. In the process, I also made the case that a constructivist learning paradigm and a project-based curriculum were compatible with each other and would best serve the needs of the students in the 12-school network in Morocco. Once those were in place, then an institution could use its courses as the foundation for the induction portion of its teacher training program. Undoubtedly, there are many factors to consider when designing lesson and courses that are consistent with an institution's particular philosophy. Therefore, it seems logical that this work should be relegated to experienced instructors who have been provided with the proper training in lesson-plan and course design rather than inexperienced instructors who lack these skills. In the section that follows, I explain why such courses would be ideal for induction training of inexperienced instructors.

The Case for Using Existing Courses to Train Novice Instructors

As mentioned at the end of the previous section, all of these contextual and scholastic variables take time for new instructors to incorporate into their lesson-plan designs. Therefore, one potentially useful teacher preparation move at induction would be to have experienced course planners design courses that reflect the institution's vision of student learning and curricular framework—instead of leaving it up to new instructors who do not yet possess the awareness and skills needed to synchronize those conflicting curricular variables. Once these course plans have been taught and refined, they are ready to be used as the basis for the professional development of novice instructors at the induction portion of their training. In a

monocultural EFL context, like the Moroccan context I described in chapter 1, aside from accommodating the often conflicting learning styles of students in an individual classroom, the student needs are relatively stable; they are mostly high school- and college-aged learners who come to our 12-school network looking for classes in one of three different subject areas: general English classes, academic-skill and IELTS-exam preparation in order to continue their studies in an English-speaking university, or business-English classes to improve their second language skills in the workplace. Thus, as I will explore in the next chapter, well-designed courses can be used to teach novice instructors how to execute existing lesson plans that have already proven to be successful (in terms of language improvement, academic-skill acquisition, and successful course-goal completion) in that culture and context before they learn how to design them, a point that I will return to often as I critique the suggested order of instructor skill acquisition of Feiman-Nemser (2001) and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) in the following section. After all, learning from the lesson plans of experienced teachers, with the guidance of an experienced coach or mentor, enables newer teachers to acquire a wide range of pedagogical skills as well as the justification for when to use them when the classroom situation warrants it. As Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) explains:

> Even for the most gifted individuals in any profession, some kind of apprenticeship phase—a period of time they spend perfecting the basic skills of the trade under the guidance of an experienced master—will increase their control over their craft, the quality of their work, and the speed at which their work begins to look like an expert's. (p. 348)

Working with existing lesson plans and courses reduces the cognitive demands on the instructor (i.e. the time-consuming task of designing lesson-plans with tasks that logically flow toward an explicit communicative outcome) and therefore expedites the acquisition of two central skills: the first is what I would call, much like Kagan (1992) does, *automaticity in teaching practice* (i.e. certain aspects of lesson-plan delivery become so routine that instructors are no longer required to pay conscious attention to them) and the second is *greater classroom vision* (i.e. a shift in focus from the mechanisms of teaching to how the learners are responding to one's teaching). It also enables an instructor to more adeptly focus on student outcomes while establishing a framework for self-reflection when the lesson goals are not achieved (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Finally, by exposing an instructor to a plethora of language teaching approaches, working with successful lesson plans also helps an instructor recognize, as Wiggins and McTighe (2005) assert, that *the teaching methodology one adopts depends on the skill that one is teaching* (emphasis mine) and that the paramount pedagogical priority is not on methods but on the students successfully achieving the lesson—and course—goals (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005).

Nevertheless, despite the wide variety of teaching contexts, the age, gender, and conflicting interests and needs of the students, the demands of the curriculum, the expectations of parents and administrators, the strengths and weaknesses of the teaching materials, the limitations of the classroom environment, and the length of the course, the essential skills involved in second language teaching in an EFL context are surprisingly uniform—as closer scrutiny of Feiman-Nemser's (2001) continuum of teacher learning and Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Scope and Sequence of Action Steps will reveal. The uniformity of essential teaching

skills also lends weight to the case for having experienced teachers/course planners develop and refine project-based courses and use them to train novice instructors.

In this section, I made a case for using existing courses (designed by experienced instructors) as the basis for training novice teachers. The courses would serve as the developmental foundation of the trainer-trainee apprenticeship—assuming, of course, that the needs of the EFL learner are relatively stable (as they are in the 12-school network in Morocco for which this induction training program is designed). Working with existing lesson plans frees up time the trainee would normally dedicate to lesson-planning and shifts it to more extensive rehearsal of skills related to effective lesson-plan performance. Shifting the initial focus of induction training to smooth lesson-plan delivery expedites the acquisition of three skills central to improved student learning: automaticity of practice, greater classroom vision, and a shift in focus from teaching methods to learner outcomes.

I am now in a position to explore what several teacher educators assert are the central skills of learning to teach, which will be needed in order to answer my first research question: *What are the essential set of teaching skills/practices at the induction portion of teacher training that are applicable to my EFL teaching context?* As I have already prioritized lesson-plan execution over lesson-plan creation, I will be scrutinizing the suggested order of these central tasks, as defined by Feiman-Nemser (2001) and expounded on by Danielson (2007) and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016), through that professional development lens.

Four Frameworks for Teacher Development

In the following section, I will describe four teacher development frameworks in greater detail which, when grouped together, represent a fairly complete picture of what knowledge and

skills must be accounted for in a teacher training program. The broadest and most general framework is what Freeman and Johnson (1998) call The Knowledge Base of Teacher Education, three overlapping domains that constitute the matrix of teacher education: the *teacher-learner* (i.e. how teachers learn to teach), *schools* and *schooling* (i.e. the social context in which the teaching takes place and the latent values and operational practices that govern the school itself and influence the way teachers learn to teach) and the *pedagogical process* itself (i.e. an investigation of language teaching and learning as it transpires in an actual classroom). The second framework, like the others that follow it, are all situated within the Freeman and Johnson (1998) knowledge base. Feiman-Nemser's framework (2001) is called The Central Tasks of Learning to Teach, an essential set of teaching skills that instructors should possess at three phases of teacher development: pre-service, induction, and ongoing professional development. The third framework is Danielson's (2007) Framework for Teachers, which divides the skills of teaching into four domains: Planning and Preparation, The Classroom Environment, Instruction, and Professional Responsibilities. And the fourth framework is Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development: the most important skills teachers need to acquire in the first three months of their induction training. The action steps are divided into four phases and two different skill sets: Management Trajectory and Rigor Trajectory and also include well-structured procedural steps for coaching new teachers through the acquisition process. I will now proceed to explain how these four frameworks fit together.

Donald Freeman and Karen Johnson's Knowledge Base of Teacher Education

Like the trajectory of an individual lesson plan, a logical beginning for an exploration of available teacher training frameworks requires starting with the most general (of frameworks) and moving to the specific. In a foundational paper entitled "Reconceptualizing the Knowledge Base of Language Teacher Education," Freeman and Johnson (1998) identified three interconnected domains at the core of "the complex terrain in which language teachers learn and practice their craft" (p. 406) which these theorists believe should serve as a knowledge base for any teacher development program (see Figure 1).
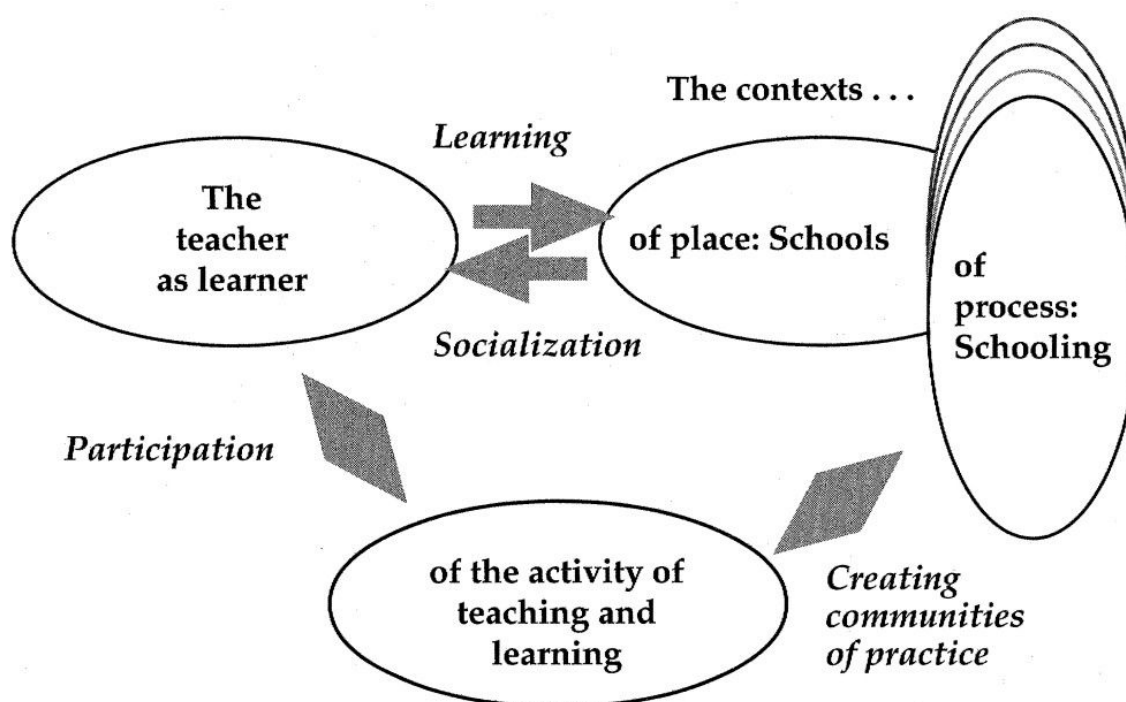
Figure 1: The Freeman and Johnson (1998) Knowledge Base for Teacher Education (p. 11)

The first domain is concerned with the *teacher-learner* and the subsequent shift in teacher training that prioritizes how teachers learn to teach and the various sociocultural, institutional, and educational forces which influence their development *instead* of exclusively

focusing on "the students as language learners" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 407). Within that

domain of teacher learning are four specific developmental areas that need to be explored:

1) *the influence that prior knowledge and beliefs have on learning to teach* (Bailey et al., 1996;

Johnson, 1994 and numerous others, as cited in Freeman & Johnson, 1998)

2) *the various means by which knowledge about learning to teach evolves during the course of a*

teacher's career (e.g., Berliner, 1986; Genburg, 1992, both as cited in Freeman & Johnson,

1998)

3) *the influence of teaching context on teacher development* (Britzman, 1991, as cited in Freeman

& Johnson, 1998)

4) *the view of teacher education as a means of intervention in each of these areas* (e.g., Freeman

and Richards (1996, as cited in Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

In sum, the relationship between teachers and their learning processes, Freeman and Johnson

(1998) assert, cannot be fully understood without including some exploration of the sociocultural

contexts in which these learning processes occur.

The second domain of their proposed knowledge base involves greater scrutiny of

schools and schooling. The term school refers to the social context in which the teaching takes

place and schooling refers to the implicit norms and values that govern the school itself and

influence the way teachers learn to teach. For example, Lortie (1975, as cited in Freeman &

Johnson, 1998) referred to the *apprenticeship of observation*, the education socialization teachers

once experienced as students during their formal education has a major impact on their

conception of teaching. There is also a web of familial, societal, and institutional influences

which shape teacher conceptions of the learning process (e.g. Delpit, 1995; Heath 1983, as cited

in Freeman & Johnson, 1998). "Schools and classrooms function as frameworks of value and interpretation," Freeman and Johnson (1998) assert, which serve as,

> ...the sociocultural terrain in which the work of teaching is thought about, carried out, and
> evaluated. Studying, understanding, and learning how to negotiate the dynamics of these
> powerful environments, in which some actions and ways of being are valued and
> encouraged whereas others are downplayed, ignored, and even silenced, is critical to
> constructing effective teacher education. (p. 409)

Finally, the third domain, which is usually at the center of most teacher training programs, is an exploration of the *pedagogical process* itself—that is, of "studying classroom language teaching and learning as it is actually lived and experienced by its protagonists" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 410). An exploration of teaching, Freeman and Johnson (1998) claim, should involve two distinct but convergent areas of study: how teachers and students perceive the language being taught in their classrooms (i.e. the content) versus how language teaching is perceived by a teaching coach or other trained professional observing the same lesson (i.e. the subject matter).

Resolving the dichotomy between content and subject matter is one key component of teacher development, Farrell (2011) and Xu (2012) (as cited in Gilman, 2016) note, especially in the first few years of one's career when the ongoing struggle to reconcile one's *imagined* identity (i.e. the teacher one desires to be) with one's *practiced* identity (i.e. the teacher one actually is, at least from the perspective of a teaching mentor) is most pronounced. These two conflicting identities are also transformed by factors that originate in the two other domains of the Freeman and Johnson (1998) knowledge base: *internal factors* of personal experience and educational

background, and *external factors* of institutional policy or divergent cultural or social norms of one's teaching context (Gilman, 2016). Despite a closer realignment that stems from greater self-awareness and professional development, the gap between imagined identity and practiced identity is never fully resolved.

In this section, I have briefly described the three domains of Freeman and Johnson's (1998) knowledge base of teacher development and how the domains relate to each other. Now that I have accounted for the general knowledge base undergirding my proposed teacher development program, I am ready to explore the central skills of learning to teach, which are situated at the heart of that knowledge base.

Three essential skills of Feiman-Nemser's central tasks of learning to teach

Feiman-Nemser (2001), in response to more rigorous state- and nationally-mandated teaching standards in the mid-1990s, became an early proponent of what she termed "a continuum of teacher learning" (p. 1014) which would enable teachers to develop the skills needed to create the content-rich, learner-centered classrooms necessary to help students achieve those more rigorous learning aims. Johnson and Parrish (2010) also identified the gap between the proposed academic skill development requirements (e.g. note-taking, summarizing, paraphrasing, synthesizing of texts, etc.) needed to thrive in undergraduate classrooms and the bevy of adult EFL language instructors in the field who were unaware of the need—or simply ill-equipped—to teach those skills.

Feiman-Nemser's (2001) framework for the continuum was established by dividing a teacher's career into three phases: preservice, induction, and ongoing professional development, describing a 15-skill repertoire she dubbed, the "central tasks of learning to teach," (p. 1050) and

then indicating (see Table 1) how these tasks should be coherently sequenced in a potential

teacher training program. I have excluded four tasks pertaining to ongoing professional

development because they are not relevant to this Capstone project. More importantly, I have

also limited the discussion of essential skills (which are in bold in Table 1) to the ones I believe

should happen first during an induction teacher training program that prioritizes the skills of

lesson-plan performance before learning to lesson plan.

Table 1

The Central Tasks of Learning to Teach (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1050)

Preservice	Induction
1 **Examine beliefs critically in relation to a vision of good teaching**	1 Learn the context—students, curriculum, school community
2 Develop subject matter knowledge for teaching	2 Design a responsive instructional program
3 Develop an understanding of learners, learning, and issues of diversity	3 **Create a classroom learning community**
4 **Develop a beginning repertoire**	4 Enact a beginning repertoire
5 Develop the tools and dispositions to study teaching	5 Develop a professional identity
	6 Learn in and from practice

Seeing these 11 skills for the first time may be a letdown for experienced EFL teacher

trainers searching for a framework on which to build their professional development programs.

Obviously, a chart of single-sentence skill descriptions, although Feiman-Nemser (2001)

described them in greater detail in a lengthy article entitled "From Preparation to Practice:

Designing a Continuum to Strengthen and Sustain Teaching," are far too general for our present

purposes. Missing from the chart is much-needed specificity regarding the components of each

skill in the continuum and—when it is time to teach these skills to novice

instructors—performance standards for each skill, and assessment rubrics that teacher educators could use to measure the degree of instructor mastery of each specific skill. Nevertheless, Feiman-Nemser's (2001) central tasks are worth defining at the pre-service and induction phases of teacher training because her sequence of skill development is comprehensive and therefore useful both as a general framework for mapping the well-defined teaching components of Danielson (2007), Bambrick-Santoyo (2016), and other educators, and as a foundation for the detailed task sequences for teaching the most vital of these central tasks to novice teachers that I will describe in chapter 3. Because Danielson's (2007) Framework for Teaching will be used to present specific skill components that pertain to the four central tasks of Feiman-Nemser's (2001) Continuum of Teacher Learning, it will necessary to provide a chart of the Danielson framework with the five equivalent components in bold.

Danielson's Framework for Teaching

Danielson's (2007) framework is divided into four knowledge domains and approximately five or six skill components for each domain (see Table 2). Domains 1 and 4 generally include skills a teacher develops *outside* the classroom, whereas domains 2 and 3 refer to skills a teacher develops *inside* the classroom. In light of the fact that developing instructional skill inside the classroom (by learning how to execute already existing lesson plans) is the primary professional development need at the induction phase of teacher development, the components of domains 1 and 4, as they pertain to Feiman-Nemser's (2001) central tasks, will be largely excluded from the descriptions of the three skills (two preservice and one induction) in the next section.

Table 2

Danielson's Framework for Teaching (2007, pp. 3-4)

Domain 1: Planning and Preparation	**Domain 4: Professional Responsibilities**
Component 1a: Demonstrating Knowledge of Content and Pedagogy Component 1b: Demonstrating Knowledge of Students Component 1c: Setting Instructional Outcomes Component 1d: Demonstrating Knowledge of Resources Component 1e: Designing Content Instruction Component 1f: Designing Student Assessments	Component 4a: Reflecting on Teaching Component 4b: Maintaining Accurate Records Component 4c: Communicating with Families Component 4d: Participating in a Professional Community Component 4e: Growing and Developing Professionally Component 4f: Showing Professionalism
Domain 2: The Classroom Environment	**Domain 3: Instruction**
Component 2a: Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport **Component 2b: Establishing a Culture for Learning** **Component 2c: Managing Classroom Procedures** **Component 2d: Managing Student Behavior** Component 2e: Organizing Physical Space	**Component 3a: Communicating with Students** Component 3b: Using Questioning and Discussion Techniques **Component 3c: Engaging Students in Learning** Component 3d: Using Assessment in Instruction Component 3e: Demonstrating Flexibility and Responsiveness

It will also be necessary to include the first two phase of Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Scope and Sequence of Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development (see table 3), with corresponding skills in bold, because I will devote the rest of the chapter to demonstrating how the Feiman-Nemser (2001), Danielson (2007), and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) frameworks fit together.

Bambrick-Santoyo's action steps to launch a teacher's development

Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Scope and Sequence of Action Steps are divided into four phases (two of which are not included here) and two different skill sets: Management Trajectory and Rigor Trajectory, which encapsulate the most vital skills teachers need to acquire in the first three months of their induction training (see Table 3). The Action Steps also include well-structured procedural steps for coaching new teachers through the skill acquisition process.

Table 3

The First Two Phases of Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Scope and Sequence of Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development (p. 34)

Phase	Management Trajectory	Rigor Trajectory
Phase 1 (Pre-Teaching)	Develop Essential Routines and Procedures	Write Lesson Plans
Dress Rehearsal (Summer PD)	**1 Routines and Procedures 101**: Design and Roll Out 2 Strong Voice: Stand and speak with purpose	1 Develop Effective Lesson Plans 101: Build the foundation of an effective lesson rooted in what students need to learn **2 Internalize Existing Lesson Plans**: Internalize and rehearse key parts of the lesson
Phase 2	Roll Out and Monitor Routines	Independent Practice
Instant Immersion (Days 1-30)	**3 What to Do**: Give clear, precise directions 4 Routines and Procedures 201: Revise and perfect them **5 Teacher Radar**: Know when students are off task 6 Whole-Class Reset: Get a whole class back on task	**3 Write the Exemplar**: Set the bar for excellence 4 Independent Practice: Set up daily routines that build up opportunities for students to practice independently **5 Monitor Aggressively**: Check students' independent work to determine whether they're learning what you're teaching

As I will demonstrate in this section, there is a clear link between Freeman and Johnson's (1998) Knowledge Base of Teacher Education; Feiman-Nemser's (2001) Central Tasks of

Learning to Teach, which are at the heart of that knowledge base; the skill components of Danielson's (2007) Framework for Teacher Learning, which further elucidate each of Feiman-Nemser's central tasks, and Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Plan for Coaching New Teachers, which describes how these skills should be taught during induction training. To be more precise, Freeman and Johnson (1998) provided the contents of a teacher training knowledge base without specifying the most crucial skills of that knowledge base. Feiman-Nemser (2001) described the central skills and suggested order of skill development for Freeman and Johnson's (1998) teacher training knowledge base, but the aforementioned skills in the continuum lack much-needed specificity in terms of the components which comprise each skill as well as clearly defined performance standards and assessment rubrics. Danielson (2007), in turn, provided the specificity for each skill of Feiman-Nemser's (2001) central tasks—including performance standards and rubrics for assessing the extent of instructor acquisition—without suggesting an order of skill development or how to teach them. And Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) completes the teacher development picture by describing specific skill sequences at four phases of teacher training and then offers a step-by-step process for how to coach novice teachers in an expedited acquisition of each of these skills. Thus, my goal in combining them in the section that follows is to ensure that the reader has a general understanding of the most crucial induction skills—and how to teach them—before I propose a potentially more efficient assimilation and re-ordering of them at the induction portion of teacher development which, as I explained in the previous section, prioritizes lesson-plan delivery before learning the mechanics of lesson planning itself.

Two Central Tasks of Learning to Teach at the Preservice Phase

The five pre-service tasks Feiman-Nemser (2001) mentioned in Table 1 are intended to provide the foundation for instructional practice novice teachers need to competently function in the classroom and begin to reflect on the strengths and weaknesses of their practice. As Farrell, 2012, cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001) summarized, "Preservice preparation is a time to begin forming habits and skills necessary for the ongoing study of teaching in the company of colleagues ... and [learning] that serious conversations about teaching are a valuable resource in developing and improving their practice" (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1019). Below is a brief description of pre-service skills 1 and 4 that fall within of the Freeman and Johnson (1998) knowledge base for teacher education and should also be a priority at induction training.

Pre-service skill 1: Examine beliefs critically in relation to a vision of good teaching

This skill falls under domain 1, the teacher-learner, in the Freeman and Johnson (1998) Knowledge Base for Teacher Education and it should be dealt with immediately at induction training since it helps teachers reduce the conflict, as Farrell (2011) and Xu (2012) (as cited in Gilman, 2016) claim, between their imagined identity versus their practiced identity and ensures that teachers respond favorably to the induction training that follows it.

Much like second language learners, whose receptivity to instruction is shaped by their prior language learning experiences and the subsequent levels of motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety derived from those experiences, novice teachers bring their own beliefs about teaching and learning to their pre-service teacher education programs. The totality of those experiences, especially if these prospective teachers were largely exposed to traditional teacher-dominated instruction, often misleads instructors into believing they know more about teaching and learning than they actually do. These beliefs then act as a filter by which teachers

interpret and evaluate the pedagogical ideas and practices they are exposed to during pre-service training (Lortie, 1975 as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001). It follows that novice teachers must be given opportunities to identify and challenge those beliefs while being exposed to powerful images of effective teaching and learning that will motivate and guide the development of their professional practice (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Otherwise, those pre-service beliefs will continue to negatively impact their teaching (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

In Danielson's (2007) Framework for Teaching, component 2b: Establishing a Culture for Learning, describes a classroom with "a strong culture for learning" (p. 67). According to Danielson, in an ideal classroom, the instructor has high expectations for her learners and confidence in their abilities; the teacher and students are engaged in purposeful work about conceptually challenging topics that are important to them, and positive energy is being expended as the students take responsibility for their learning as they work toward conceptual understanding. The teacher has established a safe learning environment, one in which students feel comfortable taking intellectual risks. The students know that their ideas will receive thoughtful consideration and that the results of their hard work are rewarding in terms of intellectual development and their future prospects outside the classroom. Most importantly, establishing a strong culture for learning makes other aspects of teaching, such as classroom management, much easier (Danielson, 2007).

While the Feiman-Nemser/Danielson vision of teaching and learning is consistent with the constructivist view of learning described at the beginning of the chapter, it might be practical to relegate this skill to the induction portion of training due to the fact that many EFL instructors receive their preservice training in a location that differs from the school where they begin their

teaching career and thus there is almost always a mismatch between the preservice vision of learning and an employer's vision of learning. It is my hypothesis that challenging one's beliefs about what makes for effective teaching and learning cannot be done properly without a specific context, curriculum, and video of experienced teachers delivering lesson plans that embody the school's vision of good teaching and learning.

Unlike Feiman-Nemser (2001) and Danielson (2007), Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) does not specifically refer to specific skill training to foster the ideal classroom setting. Nevertheless, he describes Routines and Procedures 101 (p. 91) as the key component to making "the classroom a space that nurtures learning" (p. 88) and asserts that it is the first skill a novice teacher should acquire at induction training. He contends that a teacher needs a precise image of what a classroom routine looks like when it is being properly executed or the students will not be able to duplicate that vision. In addition, the only way to ensure that the clear classroom routines are established is to have the instructor draw up a plan for what is happening at every step of the lesson plan, watch an experienced teacher or trainer model the steps, and then rehearse them until the routines can be confidently and consistently executed in the classroom (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016). However, like Danielson (2007), he also asserts that teachers should be simultaneously responsible for creating effective lesson plans (see chart 3)—that is, plans with clearly stated learning objectives consistent with what students need to learn but achievable in the space of a single lesson, and also include an end-of-class assessment to gather evidence of student understanding (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016). While lesson-plan creation and lesson-plan execution overlap when it comes to smooth classroom delivery, perhaps it would be much easier for a new instructor to simply focus on sticking to the tried-and-true script of a successful plan

created by an experienced instructor—much like an actor rehearsing for a play who is handed a script and only needs to focus on effortless delivery of the lines. Doing so would also make it easier for a novice teacher to focus on the second skill in Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Phase 1 Action Step Management Sequence, what he calls Strong Voice, learning to "stand a speak with purpose" (p. 85) and use "body language that communicates leadership" (p. 86) and the second skill in his Action Step Rigor Trajectory: Internalize Existing Lesson Plans.

While it is likely that Feiman-Nemser (2001) and Danielson (2007) would agree, developing a beginning repertoire is undoubtedly more purposeful when it is situated in a specific educational context instead of an off-site preservice program that lacks one. As Farrell (2006) and others have pointed out, there is a period of disorientation—and often disillusionment—as new teachers attempt to apply their pre-service skills to the context of an actual classroom. The mistaken assumption, as Farrell (2006) explains, is that novice teachers can achieve a smooth transition between the two by simply applying the knowledge from their preservice training to the classroom, even though many experienced language instructors acknowledge learning to "balance lesson content and delivery" (p. 441) is a lengthy process (Faez & Valeo, 2012 as cited in Farrell, 2012). The challenge, as Freeman and Johnson (1998) acknowledge, is that one cannot separate the activity of teaching from the idiosyncrasies of the teacher as a learner "or the contexts of schools and schooling in which it is done" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 410).

Pre-service skill 4: Develop a beginning repertoire

In conjunction with pre-service skill 1 and within domain 3 of the Freeman and Johnson (1998) knowledge base, once novice instructors have challenged and refined their views of

effective teaching and learning, they need to be provided with a range of tools to execute their lesson plans and assess student performance for evidence of language acquisition and conceptual understanding. This entails familiarizing the trainees with a manageable amount of effective curricular materials, teaching them a few approaches to smooth lesson-plan delivery, and exposing them to some assessment tools they can use for evidence of student understanding. The principle aim of developing a beginning repertoire is to enable trainees to establish a rationale for when, why, and how to use these materials (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Although Danielson (2007) details five components to effective teacher instruction that are essential to helping novice teachers develop a beginning repertoire, it is my contention that the following two are most critical to a teacher's success when it comes to successful lesson-plan execution: component 3a: Communicating with Students and component 3c: Engaging Students in Learning. In component 3a: Communicating with Students, Danielson (2007) asserts that clear communication in all aspects of lesson delivery is vital to student understanding. Lesson goals need to be made explicit as well as how these goals are connected to previous learning so that any student could, if needed, articulate them to a classroom visitor. Teachers need to give clear instructions (orally and in writing), ask thought-provoking questions, provide comprehensible examples and explanations as well as appropriate analogies in response to student comments and questions. The language and concepts teachers use must be matched to the students' age and language level while also exposing them to rich, expressive vocabulary. Evidence of effective communication is demonstrated by observing how students respond to a teacher's instructions, explanations, and questions (Danielson, 2007).

In Phase 2 of his Action Step Sequence: What to Do, Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) lists clear, concise instructions as the first step in effective communication with students and better classroom management, but it is a skill that novice teachers typically struggle with nevertheless. Giving effective instructions requires an efficient use of language and frequent checks for understanding. Simpler instructions that are routinely part of lesson plan delivery can also be more efficiently conveyed with agreed-upon gestures. Like any classroom procedure, the key to mastering the art of giving clear instructions is to write them down, word for word, and then rehearsing them until they have been internalized (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016).

The second—and most important—component of effective lesson plan delivery is component 3c: Engaging Students in Learning. As Danielson (2007) contends, this skill is the most vital element of the entire teaching framework, even if the key components of engagement are mostly the result of a well-structured lesson plan that maximizes student learning. When students are engaged in learning, many other tasks in the framework (e.g. component 2d: Managing Student Behavior) are made easier. Engagement means that the students are mentally invested in the tasks and lesson outcome. The activities and assignments are cognitively challenging but achievable provided the students engage in sustained, expansive thinking and generate work that reflects their cognitive effort. In order to engage students in learning, teachers select from a variety of age- and language-level appropriate materials and resources, and develop various instructional methods of exploiting them. Teachers also know how to group students in a manner that best serves the aims of the lesson. Their lessons are paced to give students enough time to complete the work and are structured so each step of the lesson leads to a clear, manageable outcome (Danielson, 2007).

    Among the corresponding skills in the Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) Action Step Sequence,
Phase 2 Rigor step 3: Write the Exemplar, (i.e. write down the ideal response you expect
students to deliver at the end of the lesson that demonstrates that the lesson objectives were
met—as well as a blueprint for how you plan to extract it from them) is undoubtedly the key
component to establishing a high expectations for student learning and a classroom of sustained
student engagement. This skill involves much more than creating a lesson objective but also
carefully scripting out what an end-of-class response would look like from a student who had
met the lesson objectives. That is, once a teacher fashions a question she would like students to
answer with their own ideas at the end of the class, she crafts a response to the question that
would demonstrate the required critical thinking on the student's part in order to answer it
successfully. The teacher then attempts to improve the question by "sparring with the exemplar"
(p. 187) by anticipating arguments students may bring against it and evidence they might draw
upon to support their conclusions. Doing so makes it easier for her to evaluate the quality of the
student responses. Then, when the teacher is actually checking student responses at the end of
class, Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) explains, "she will have a sense of whether varying responses
are coming from way out in left field or just giving the teacher another chance to spar with his or
her own reading of the text" (p. 187). Most crucially, writing an exemplar brings focus to teacher
monitoring of independent student work—that is, what to look for while the students are working
and what steps to take when student responses are inadequate. As Bambrick-Santoyo (2016)
summarizes, crafting and challenging one's exemplar invariably expands the teacher's
understanding of the lesson topic "because doing so forces him or her to think through what it
really means to understand this topic" (p. 191).

Echoing Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) assertions, a study conducted by Johnson (1992) revealed that one of the primary obstacles to smooth lesson-plan delivery for pre-service ESL teachers was an underdeveloped "cognitive schema" and "a repertoire of instructional routines" necessary for properly interpreting and responding to student errors and spontaneous student reactions to lesson content (p. 509). In feedback sessions, novice teachers typically interpreted student mistakes as exclusively the result of linguistic deficiencies and responded with an ineffectual cycle of concept-checking, explanation, and feedback until concerns over classroom management took precedence (Johnson, 1992). Preservice ESL teachers also tended to ignore student-initiated contributions because they perceived them to be unwanted deviations from the lesson plan and, more importantly, a risk to classroom management. Not surprisingly, such concerns with maintaining control over the activity severely restricted the amount of authentic student language use (Johnson, 1992).

It follows that teacher educators need to teach novice instructors how to make the promotion and incorporation of student-initiated contributions a central component of their lesson-plan delivery instead of perceiving spontaneous student input as a threat to classroom control. Developing teachers' cognitive schema and expanding their repertoire of instructional routines helps them clarify how their thoughts and judgments about what transpires during a lesson shape their instructional responses to it (Johnson, 1992). Johnson (1992) suggested that cognitive schema and appropriate instructional routine can be enhanced by conducting a series of videotaped observations which stimulate instructors to recount their thoughts and judgments at specific points of their lessons. Such guided self-analysis and reflection enables teachers to recognize how they perceive and react to a host of student performance cues that occurred during

the lesson. With the assistance of a teacher trainer or their fellow trainees, novice instructors can consider other instructional options for dealing with unexpected student responses and issues related to instructional management (Johnson, 1992). A second option is to require preservice instructors to watch—and then discuss—the approaches experienced teachers used to interpret and respond to unexpected student comments and questions. Experienced teachers can make video recordings of their lessons and include commentary on—and/or rationale for—the instructional choices they made while teaching. Post-viewing feedback sessions between novice and experienced teachers also provide an excellent opportunity to highlight the unique considerations that affect teachers' instructional choices during their lessons (Johnson, 1992).

In this section, I synthesized what three teacher educators working with overlapping skill frameworks said about two central skills of pre-service teacher training and made a case that they should also be included at the induction portion of teacher development as it pertains to lesson-plan execution. Now I will turn to one central task of the Feiman-Nemser's (2001) central tasks.

One Central Task of Learning to Teach at the Induction Phase

As previously mentioned, transitioning from learning about teaching to actual teaching in a specific instructional setting typically represents the most tumultuous time in a teacher's development and, as Bush (1983, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001) points out, ultimately affects "the effectiveness which that teacher is able to achieve and sustain over the years" (p. 15). Schon (1987, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001) asserts that the situation presents novice instructors with a fundamental paradox: How do inexperienced teachers make use of skills they do not yet possess and can only acquire by learning to do what they do not yet fully understand? Raising

teacher awareness about the complexities and uncertainties of teaching only increases

cognizance of the litany of skills they do not yet possess. Nevertheless, novice teachers are

burdened with the same responsibilities as their more experienced colleagues even though most

aspects of their instructional setting are unfamiliar to them (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Clearly, a

supportive professional environment is critical to helping new teachers manage the uncertainties

they experience during this often-demoralizing transition period.

Induction skill 3: Create a classroom learning community

This task falls under domains 2 and 3 (Schools and Schooling and Pedagogical Priorities,

respectively) of the Freeman & Johnson (1998) knowledge base. It is centered on how to address

fundamental issues of power and control in the classroom and has been traditionally referred to

as classroom management. Novice instructors must learn how to establish a safe, welcoming,

respectful classroom environment that, in the words of Feiman-Nemser, "supports intellectual

risk-taking," (Feiman-Nemser, 2001, p. 1029) and, I would add, pedagogical experimentation,

thereby maximizing opportunities for student learning and instructor development. In addition to

learning how to manipulate the physical environment, novice instructors create classroom rules

and routines that foster an atmosphere of cooperation, establish a clear protocol for potential

disruptions, and instill egalitarian processes and problem-solving strategies (Feiman-Nemser,

2001). The choices instructors make about classroom environment and lesson procedure are

intricately connected to the establishment—and evolution—of their professional identity.

In component 2c: Managing Classroom Procedures, Danielson (2007) described a

well-managed classroom as one in which the students have taken some responsibility for the

functioning of the class, the instructions are clear, students know what they should be doing at

any given moment of the lesson, groups interact productively and autonomously with one another (even when the teacher is not monitoring them), and there is a smooth transition between the activities. Trainers can discern how effectively teachers manage classroom procedures by observing their classrooms and/or asking the students to describe them after a lesson (Danielson, 2007).

Perhaps the most effective way to ensure students are interacting productively and autonomously is by mastering Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Phase 2 Rigor Trajectory step 5: Monitor Aggressively. That is, a teacher pre-determines what constitutes evidence of student learning during a specific task, ensures that every student is monitored while working independently, and gives on-the-spot feedback on their performance. The instructor also tallies student responses while monitoring and uses that information to inform the next moves of the lesson. Equally important, effective monitoring sends the message to the students that the instructor cares about their learning and that good effort is rewarded with special attention and useful feedback (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016).

In component 2d: Managing Student Behavior, Danielson (2007) explains that establishing clear, age-appropriate standards for classroom interaction (e.g. turn taking, language use, leaving the classroom during the lesson, group work, etc.) with the students' assistance, as well as clear, consistently applied consequences when those standards are breached are central to maintaining a smooth-running classroom. These standards should be posted in the classroom and teachers should enlist the students' help in maintaining them. When students misbehave, it is important that teachers maintain their composure and direct their criticism toward the student's misconduct instead of the student himself. Teachers demonstrate their skill in managing student

behavior by operating efficient, smooth-running classrooms and conducting themselves professionally when student behavioral problems do occur. The teacher and the students should also be able to clearly explain the classroom conduct standards (Danielson, 2007).

The corresponding skill in the Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) action steps is Phase 2 Management Trajectory step 5: Teacher Radar. Teaches who possess this skill look for small signs that help them recognize when students are off task and then take immediate steps to correct the problem before it becomes contagious. Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) claimed that the fastest way for teachers to acquire this skill is to watch video of themselves teaching a lesson, identify student behavior that signals they are off task, identify "hot-spots" (the students who are most likely to slide off task), and retrain themselves to scan those areas first and foremost at each step of the lesson. Teachers also learn to move about the room in manner that makes it more difficult for students to go off-task. Trainers can also role-play the student behavior they want the teacher to notice and correct or show videos of more experienced instructors using their more perceptive teacher radar to identify and correct misbehavior before it worsens (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016).

In this section, I used the three teacher education frameworks from Feiman-Nemser (2001), Danielson (2007), and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) to focus on what I consider the three most vital skills of teacher training at induction (i.e. those that prioritize lesson-plan delivery over lesson-plan design). Now that those skills have been defined in greater detail, I will reorder Feiman-Nemser's (2001) central tasks at induction to reflect that new skill preference which reflects a more constructivist approach to teacher training and thus might be more beneficial to novice instructors.

A Reordering and Rationale for Feiman-Nemser's Central Tasks at Induction

The need for reordering the central tasks at the induction portion of a teaching training program (see Table 4 below) stems from a desire to more closely align the constructivist student learning I want to foster in the classroom with a more constructivist form of teacher training. In short, if constructivist learning has proved to be successful with students, why is it not also used for teacher training?

Traditional behaviorist approaches to course design, lesson planning—and in Feiman-Nemser's (2001) suggested skill order of induction training—involve what Graves (2000) describes as an overly rigid and often impractical "logical, rational sequence" (p. 5) that begins with a needs assessment; creating course objectives in response to the needs assessment (Graves, 2000); formulating assessments to measure whether those objectives have been met; developing lesson plans to provide the students with the skills practice to meet the course objectives; teaching the course, reflecting on its effectiveness, redesigning it, and teaching it again. In contrast, Graves (2000) argues for a circular process to course design that is grounded in a clear description of teacher's beliefs about teaching and learning and a precise definition of the context and typically proceeds in a similar order but can be initiated from any point in the circle (see Figure 2).
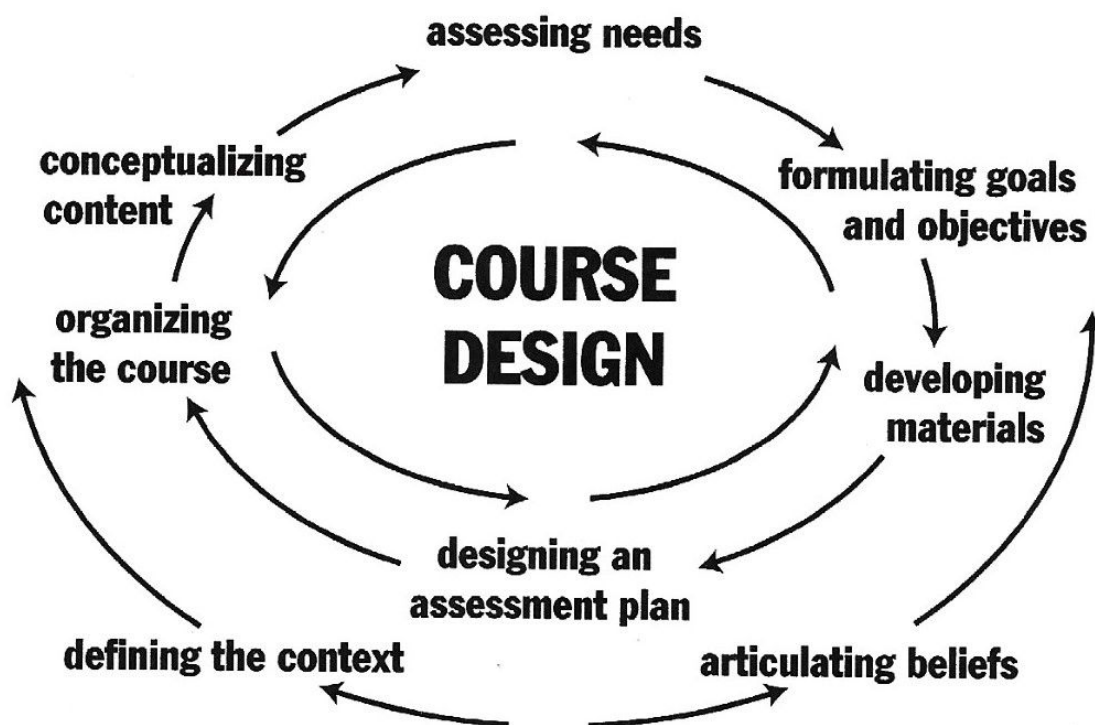
Figure 2: Graves' (2000) circular model of course design (p. 3)

Grounded as it is in clarifying one's beliefs about teaching and learning, Graves' (2000)

blueprint for course design is closer to the constructivist framework I believe should undergird

teacher training at induction. Nevertheless, Feiman-Nemser's (2001) suggested order of

induction training reflects the same behaviorist trajectory Graves (2000) critiques as impractical

(see table 1 on p. 16). For example, induction task 1, *Learning the context*, can be thought of as a

type of needs assessment, which is followed by induction task 2: *Designing a responsive*

instructional program (i.e. the lesson plans and courses). Induction tasks 3 and 4, *Creating a*

classroom community and *Enacting a beginning repertoire* involve implementing the lesson

plans, and induction task 6, *Learning in and from practice*, is associated with reflection and

assessment of one's teaching performance. However, in order to make induction teacher training

truly reflect a constructivist learning paradigm, it should *begin* with an examination of what makes for effective learning. Such an examination would involve novice teachers watching experienced instructors in classrooms where clear evidence of learning is taking place and using guiding prompts and questions to assist them in recognizing its key components. After confronting and refining their own ideas about teaching and learning, instructors would immediately begin to develop the skills of lesson plan delivery—and reflection on their performance—with existing lesson plans which embody the institution's vision of teaching and learning. The skills of involved in designing lessons, materials, and courses would come at the *end* of the developmental sequence instead of the immediately following a needs assessment and awareness of the teaching context at the beginning of the training sequence (as it does in Feiman-Nemser's (2001) and Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) frameworks.

Table 4 depicts my suggested reordering of Feiman-Nemser's (2001) central tasks at induction that now prioritizes lesson-plan performance over lesson-plan design. In this section, I will briefly describe each of my four restructured induction tasks and additional rationale for my task reordering, which includes additional criticism of Feiman-Nemser's (2001) original order.

Table 4

A suggested alternative order of Feiman-Nemser's central tasks of learning to teach at induction

Induction Skills
1 Examine beliefs critically in relation to a vision of effective learning
2 Learn the context—students, school community, and curriculum
3 Enact a beginning repertoire / Create a classroom learning community
4 Develop a professional identity / Learn in and from practice / Develop the tools and dispositions to study teaching / Improve subject matter knowledge for teaching

Restructured induction task 1: **Examine beliefs critically in relation to a vision of effective learning**

Pre-service task 1 in Feiman-Nemser's (2001) original chart of central skills is now induction task 1 and has been redefined to prioritize effective *learning* instead of effective *teaching*. "Definitions of teaching," Danielson (2007) contends, "are grounded in a view of what constitutes important learning for students" (p. 14). As explained in chapter 1, if the educational aim is for students to engage in deep thinking, conceptual synthesis, and the knowledge transfer required to contend with meaningful content and problems relevant to their lives, then teachers need to observe classrooms and watch instructional videos which exemplify these kinds of learning experiences. Teacher trainees need to see experienced instructors executing lesson plans that generate student-questioning, thoughtful explanations, and respectful critique as students contend with challenging problems and devise solutions. Novice teachers whose learning experiences were formulated in traditional, teacher-centered classrooms may be resistant to such learner-centered paradigms and will need to time to critically examine their beliefs about education before they can embrace the school's more expansive view of effective learning and teaching—and be more amenable to their induction training. Novice teachers should be given the tools to reflect on the examples of teaching and learning they have observed so they can later assist other teachers in acquiring the same observational and reflective skills.

Because most four-week pre-service training programs (e.g. the Cambridge CELTA) typically focus exclusively on lesson outcomes of individual—and often disconnected—lesson plans rather than *evidence* of student learning over an extended time period (i.e. in connection

with clearly defined course outcomes), it makes more sense for trainees to be reflecting on effective student learning *in courses they will actually be teaching themselves*. Thus, it seems logical to move this essential skill to the induction phase of teacher development. When novice instructors, as Kagan (1992) reminds us, get more comfortable with lesson-plan delivery in pre-existing courses, their attention moves away from thinking about the steps of the lesson to noticing how the students are reacting to it and then, with the assistance of a teaching mentor, expanding their procedural repertoire of responses when problems arise. Subsequently, teacher awareness of student learning improves and becomes more concrete and content-specific (Kagan, 1992).

Restructured induction task 2: **Learn the context—students, school community, and the curriculum**

Feiman-Nemser's (2001) induction task 1 has been moved to induction task 2, but the skill can be developed in conjunction with embracing the institution's vision of effective learning. However, besides the grammar-focused outcomes of the various textbooks it uses, the 12-school network in Morocco (the focus of this project) also lacks a well-defined curriculum of learning goals and course outcomes for learners at each language level of their 18-course program and would thus need to establish one. Such a document would also need to include how the individual goals for each course are congruent with the overall aims of the network's general curriculum and national standards (e.g. the Common European Framework for languages)—that is, if they exist. To my knowledge, I am the only instructor in the network who has developed a project-based course for B1-level learners with clear learning goals and course outcomes and thus I will be referring to it when I describe three instructional task sequences in the next chapter.

Assuming a well-defined school curriculum were in place, the next logical induction task would involve making sure novice teachers are familiar with that curriculum. They would need to learn how to navigate the document, identify its overall program aims—and specific course outcomes and performance standards—and their connection to effective teaching and learning. New instructors should also examine the course plans, unit plans, and lesson plans experienced instructors in the same system created with the same curricular documents as well as videos of teacher-planning sessions and lesson-plan performances. Then, once they had completed the performance part of their induction training and begun to develop lesson-planning skills, teachers would then create their own lesson plans using the school's existing tools and resources and present it to their co-trainees.

New instructors would also need to be familiar with the developmental level of the students they are teaching and how to collect data related to the skills, interests, and life experiences of their students and how to weave those student needs into the goals of whatever course they are teaching. In addition, they need to know what mechanisms are in place for interacting with students' parents and families outside of class. Furthermore, the curricular documents can also be used as blueprint for ongoing professional development—that is, by periodically requiring teachers to identify specific skills they would like to develop and then providing them with the resources to improve their professional practice.

Restructured induction task 3: Enact a beginning repertoire / create a classroom learning community

The combined skills of induction task 3 are designed to focus on improving teaching practice inside the classroom, which is the primary goal of my reordered induction training. As a result, Feiman-Nemser's (2001) induction task 2, Design a Responsive Instructional Program, has been relegated to the very last phase of induction training (or it could be reserved for ongoing professional development once induction training is complete) because in my extensive observational experience at five different schools in the network, which are consistent with those of a knowledgeable former colleague who was part of a teacher development program in the US, novice instructors lack the content knowledge and the classroom experience needed to produce effective lesson plans and instructional design (M. Richards, personal communication, July 2017). Therefore, one way to resolve this problem would be to teach instructors, over the course of an 18-month to two-year induction program, how to implement ready-made lessons that have already proven to "work" in that culture and context (in this case, high school- and college-aged Moroccan students, many of whom aspire to continue their studies in an English-speaking country) and, in the process, focus entirely on the skills of lesson-plan delivery, classroom management, and post-lesson reflection with the guidance of a master teacher.

Drawing on his previous experience and consistent with Johnson's (1992) idea of developing instructional routines to respond to student output during a lesson, my former colleague suggested that, in addition to well-structured observation of other teachers, collegial reflection on practice, and frequently scheduled short (e.g. 20-minute) and full-length observations of one's classes from a master teacher, the trainees need sustained, purposeful

question-based reflection on their teaching performance until they develop the tools for

independent self-reflection (M. Richards, personal communication, July 2017). At the most

fundamental level, post-lesson reflection can be distilled to five essential questions: 1) What

were the learning aims of your lesson? 2) What evidence did the students provide to show that

they had met—or not met—those aims? 3) Which of your instructional strategies helped the

students learn and demonstrate learning? 4) Which strategies did not work and how might you

modify them? 5) What problems did you have with classroom management and what can be

done about them? (M. Richards, personal communication, December 2016).

My colleague also recommended that the network create training modules for different

levels of classroom management (M. Richards, personal communication, August 2017). The

network could also develop separate training modules for internet-based self-study or group

study as directed by the teacher trainers at their individual schools. Developing a professional

identity is also a useful byproduct of continual observation, teaching practice, and reflection.

Restructured induction task 4: Develop a professional identity / Learn in and from practice / Develop the tools and dispositions to study teaching / Improve subject-matter knowledge for teaching

The combined skills of induction task 4 are designed to focus on improving teaching

practice outside the classroom. I have redefined Feiman-Nemser's (2001) pre-service task 2 as a

need to *improve* one's subject matter knowledge and it is included here because teachers are

typically more motivated to improve their skills (in language awareness or pedagogy) if the need

arises during lesson-plan execution and post-lesson reflection instead of an unfocused desire to

improve their general skills. As part of the teacher feedback sessions during the first year of their

induction training, instructional coaches could introduce novice teachers to basic tools they can use to individually guide their ongoing development of instructional practice, for example, by Richard and Farrell's (2005) case analysis and action research. New teachers could also be required to keep a professional portfolio, participate in individual and small-group reflections on their teaching practice like Korthagen et al. (2006) suggest with guidance from the teacher trainer, and develop targets for future growth beyond the network's induction training.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I described the prerequisites that would be needed before an institution could create the induction portion of a teacher training program: initial agreement on a vision of teaching and learning, a curricular framework that facilitates that teaching and learning, and courses that encapsulate those pedagogical values and provide the students with the skills to achieve clearly defined course goals. I also made a case for the compatibility of a constructivist learning paradigm and a project-based curriculum and suggested that courses which followed this structural blueprint would best serve the needs of a majority of students in the 12-school network in Morocco. The courses could also be used to train novice instructors at induction rather than having them create their own.

Secondly, I described four teacher education frameworks which offer a macro- to micro-level view of teacher training at induction. I focused on three central tasks of learning to teach, as defined by Feiman-Nemser (2001) and then outlined how these frameworks fit together by describing a few of the most relevant corresponding components in Danielson's (2007) Framework for Teaching, and Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development. In doing so, I answered my first research question: *What are the essential set of*

teaching skills/practices at the induction portion of teacher training that are applicable to my

EFL teaching context?

Finally, I reordered Feiman-Nemser's (2001) induction skills in a sequence that more closely resembles a constructivist learning paradigm—again, by initially showing trainees what effective teaching and learning looks like and then prioritizing lesson-plan performance before learning to lesson plan. The benefits of doing so include: expedited automaticity of teaching practice, greater awareness of how students are responding to one's teaching, and an understanding that teaching methods are subservient to successful student outcomes (i.e. of achieving the lesson and course goals).

In chapter 3, I detail the scope and context of the project context, which was initiated in response to common instructional issues I observed over the past two years at three schools in the 12-school network in Morocco. I divide induction training into four phases of teacher development and then describe one task sequence for each of the first three phases trainers could use to help novice teachers develop skills in domain 3 of Danielson's (2007) framework for teaching and thereby compensate for the instructional skills they aren't typically exposed to—or don't have time to adequately develop—during their rushed, off-site, four-week, preservice teacher education programs (e.g. the CELTA or TESOL). In the process, I more thoroughly answer my second research question: *In light of the specific teacher preparation and development needs of the staff in the aforementioned 12-school network in Morocco, how should these skills be sequenced and taught during the induction portion of an English language teacher development program?* Due to the fact that my induction training prioritizes lesson-plan execution before learning how to lesson plan, it is necessary to describe the project-based course

upon which the training sequences are based since the instructors will be teaching the same

course. In the final section, I summarize the chapter and then describe how I intend to use the

project in the event it is approved and financed by my former employer as well as a timeline for

how long such a training course would take to develop.

CHAPTER THREE

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

My colleagues and I are huge advocates of sharing already existing great lesson plans with teachers. Teaching is so difficult and such a complex art that it's impossible to underestimate the power of filling in even one piece of the teaching puzzle for a new teacher just getting on his or her feet. When that piece is planning the lesson, the teacher is freed to get better at everything from perfecting tone to developing routines—the pieces you can't do for them—in hours that would otherwise have been spent developing a brand-new lesson plan. In addition, if taken from a quality teacher, the already existing lesson plans will almost always be of better quality than what the new teacher would have developed on his or her own while also trying to prepare on all these other levels.—Paul Bambrick-Santoyo (2016, p. 120)

Chapter Overview

In chapter 3, I describe the scope of my project: the basic elements of a training handbook that would guide four phases of induction training for novice instructors. In doing so, I fill in this "one critical piece of the teaching puzzle" for instructors who lack experience leading their own classrooms of second-language learners or who continue to struggle with basic lesson-plan execution, a project that was initiated in response to common instructional issues I observed at three schools in the 12-school network in Morocco over the past two years. I begin by providing more detail about the teaching context, the nature of the teaching issues I observed, and the first steps a teacher training program should take in order to remedy them. Working with lesson plans from an existing project-based course that the trainees would be teaching in actual classrooms, I describe task sequences from the first three phases of induction training that trainers could use to help these novice teachers develop basic components of lesson-plan delivery before they learn how to lesson plan and thereby compensate for the skills which were inadequately developed during their preservice teacher training programs. Feiman-Nemser (2001) refers to these skills as Enacting a Beginning Repertoire and Creating a Classroom

Learning Community; Danielson (2007) refers to them as Communicating with Students and Engaging Students in Learning; and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) calls them Routines and Procedures). In the process, I more thoroughly answer my main research question: *In light of the specific teacher preparation and development needs of the staff in the aforementioned 12-school network in Morocco, how should these skills be sequenced and taught during the induction portion of an English language teacher development program?*

Due to the fact that my induction training prioritizes lesson-plan execution before learning how to lesson plan, it is necessary to describe the project-based course upon which the training sequences are based as well as the basic principles that guide the teacher training sequences (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016). Because peer-observation and feedback constitutes a large portion of the induction training, I also describe the importance of using guided questions and an observational flowchart in some instances, as Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) recommends, that assists teacher trainees in identifying problem areas while observing their inexperienced colleagues practice their lesson-plan delivery. The flowchart makes use of simple language to succinctly describe the teaching issue, possible causes of the problem, as well as recommended action steps for overcoming it—and the ultimate aim is for the trainees to internalize the framework through extensive rehearsal and feedback. In the final section, I explain how I intend to use the project in the event it is approved and financed by my former employer.

Project Context

The following handbook to guide induction teacher training is designed to focus on the instructional points of greatest need for novice teachers at three of the four phases of induction training at the largest school in the 12-school network in Morocco. Of the 75-teacher staff, approximately 85 percent of the instructors are Moroccan and the remaining 15 percent are native-English speakers from the US, Canada, the UK, and Australia. Staff turnover is about 10 percent annually—mostly among the short-term native-English-speaking-teachers (NESTs) after their year-long contracts expire. The seven or eight new hires are typically between 25 and 40 years old and have an undergraduate degree, a CELTA certificate, and at least one or two years of teaching experience. The first phase of the project is a coherent set of training sequences for an induction training course that focuses on helping novice teachers acquire the three induction skills described in the previous chapter—with the greatest emphasis placed on developing fundamental instructional skills—in order to teach EFL to approximately 80 percent of the language school clientele: adult Moroccan learners (ages 18-30) who are looking for general English classes and academic skill training. A separate curriculum would eventually be created for the remaining 20 percent who are interested in business-English classes. Then, assuming institutional interest and adequate financing, the induction training program would be followed by an additional handbook to guide ongoing professional development that encompasses the professional responsibilities in domain 4 of Danielson's (2007) Framework for Teaching followed by programs devoted to on-site preservice training.

As was mentioned previously, the overall success of the program would depend on establishing a network-wide mission and vision statement, a philosophy of learning, and core

values which reflect a constructivist learning approach—that is, one that forges a balance between language practice and content-based instruction, critical thinking, and problem-solving—as well as a scintillating project-based curriculum with clearly defined course outcomes which reflect its philosophy of learning, core values, and the learners' most pressing linguistic and academic-skill-development needs. The long-term aims of the teacher development program are to establish much-needed standardization of content and pedagogy between the 12 largely autonomous private language schools in Morocco, improve the overall teaching quality and consistency of its 450-teacher staff, and provide learners with a more enriching language learning experience that also sufficiently prepares them for continued study in an academic environment.

Primary Instructor Issues in the Classroom

In choosing to focus on the essential skills of lesson-plan delivery, I am drawing on a series of overlapping problems I noticed while conducting approximately 20 teacher observations at five schools in the 12-school network from 2015-2016 as well as some more focused coaching of 12 instructors at two of these schools from 2012-2014. I noticed that a majority of the teachers struggled with one or more of the elements that Feiman-Nemser (2001), Danielson (2007), and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) agree are the essential skills of a beginning repertoire, which is a common problem when using a textbook-driven, grammar-based syllabus. For example, lesson aims were seldom communicated either orally or in writing and could not be succinctly described in post-observation feedback sessions. Teachers frequently arrived late, wasted the first three to five minutes of the 80-minute lesson setting up the room, taking attendance, and engaging students in small talk unconnected to the context or aims of the lesson.

The interaction that took place was typically carried out in an open-class setting and dominated by teacher-to-student discussion characterized by a question-response-evaluation pattern and an unacceptable ratio of display to open-ended questions. Instructional materials, with a few exceptions, were usually restricted to the textbook, rarely provided a cognitive challenge, and emphasized sentence-level grammar practice and stilted, unnatural role plays. Students were occasionally grouped in pairs but rarely in a manner that enhanced their engagement and served lesson aims. Activity length and sequencing was also problematic in that students were given too much time to complete a task, student monitoring was unfocused in that teachers were unaware of what evidence of student learning they were looking for, and, consequently, students rarely received immediate feedback on their individual and small-group performances. Most importantly, instructions were not often clear, resulting in lengthy activity setup and rough transitions between activities, which neither connected with one another nor led to a clear communicative outcome.

From the standpoint of instructional improvement, it seems logical to have novice teachers address the aforementioned problems of classroom delivery by working with well-structured lesson plans and the guidance of a teaching mentor rather than devoting unnecessary hours to creating their own. Doing so, as Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) asserts in the quote at the beginning of the chapter, frees the instructor to devote far more hours to improving "the pieces [of lesson plan delivery] you can't do for them" (e.g. giving clear instructions, developing an efficient monitoring scheme) instead of wasting time developing a new lesson plan that is usually inferior to one produced by an experienced course planner (p. 120). More importantly, lesson plan rehearsal builds confidence at a time when instructors need it most,

contributes to the development of a positive teacher identity, and expedites the shift of focus from the mechanics of lesson-plan delivery to a greater awareness of how students are responding to the lesson.

Kagan (1992), much like Pennington (1995), describes the development of a professional identity as essentially a refocusing of attention on one's image as a teacher, to the mechanisms of one's professional practice, and, finally, to an exclusive focus on student learning. That is, teachers usually begin their teaching career with an inaccurate image of their students and an oversimplified view of their teaching practice, which leaves them largely unprepared for basic classroom management. As a result, their lesson-plan delivery is usually preoccupied with maintaining classroom control rather than promoting student learning. Once teachers are guided to analyze video recordings of student responses to their instruction, they develop the reflective skills needed to challenge and eventually refine their beliefs about their students and their self-image as a teacher (Kagan, 1992). As a teacher's self-image begins to evolve and solidify, the teacher's attention shifts to improving instructional practice—usually with routines that integrate classroom management with instruction—and progressing from an initially self-conscious, labor-intensive process to more unconscious, automatic lesson-plan delivery. When teaching becomes increasingly automated, novice instructors begin to shift their attention to noticing student problems and expanding their procedural repertoire for handling them. In the process, teacher cognition of student learning evolves to become more concrete and content-specific and generalizable across teaching contexts (Kagan, 1992).

The Project-Based Course on Which the Induction Training Is Based

Novice teachers would begin working on their classroom performance with ready-made lesson plans from content-based courses designed and successfully implemented by experienced instructors which strike a balance between language practice and the critical thinking, problem-solving, and knowledge-transfer skills needed to succeed in an academic context. To my knowledge, I am the only instructor in the entire 12-school network to have developed such a course and also made a syllabus, detailed lesson plans, and formative assessments available for colleagues interested in piloting it. Therefore, the teacher training sequences in the induction training manual will be drawn from that course until others are created.

The students in this B1-level (low intermediate) course are required to purchase the 4th edition of the *Interchange 2* textbook, so my version of the course uses the target grammar from six units of the textbook—that instructors are required to cover in a 10-week, 30-hour course—as the linguistic foundation for a project-based design in which the students (in small groups of 3-4) design their own imaginary country and, in the process, think more deeply about the kind of society they would like to live in. During the course, the groups create the following seven texts: a country profile with clearly national priorities and a means of generating revenue to fulfill those priorities; just laws that promote those national priorities; humane punishments in the event those laws are violated which reflect societal interests; an imaginary monument and its historical significance to the country; a biography of the most famous person in the country and their role in its history; a film plot about that person's life; and a travel brochure to promote their country to potential tourists. In several instances during the course, the students have time to develop and share—like a tour guide—various parts of their country design with their classmates, who listen

for specific details in the tour guide's presentation and ask questions to get more information (just as they would during a guided tour in an actual country) and stimulate deeper thinking about each text. Groups then collaborate in—and outside of—class to refine both the language and depth of their texts in preparation for a final presentation which serves as their summative assessment. The groups select from one of several presentation formats and take their classmates on a tour of their country, highlight aspects of their country design that they are proudest of—and which make it unique—and persuade us to visit. The other groups listen to the presentations with an outline that requires the presenters to mention each part of the country design and correctly use the target grammar needed to properly complete each text. After each presentation, groups ask questions about aspects of the country they are curious about—or do not understand—and then evaluate one another's performances according to a point-based grading rubric distributed in advance.

This project-based course represents one of 18 class levels in the Moroccan network's general English program. I estimate that it would take 8-12 instructors roughly one year to create, pilot, and refine project-based courses for the remaining 17 levels and another year to develop induction training sequences (and gather relevant video evidence) for each of the 17 courses. Having a training sequence for each course gives the induction trainers the option of using any course in the curriculum as the basis for the training of novice instructors. In subsequent years, additional project-based courses and training sequences would be developed for each level so teachers could provide students with an element of choice in the content of their instruction. During registration, students would be asked to read short descriptions of the 3-4 courses available to them and vote on which one interested them the most and, thus, the

instructor's course for that session would be determined by the most popular student choice. The important thing for novice teachers to recognize is that, regardless of what course the students chose, the skill development would be identical with the other courses. Equally important, the training sequences developed from each project-based course would be crafted according to the following three guiding principles.

Three Guiding Principles for the Induction Training Handbook

Now that the project context, participants, course description, and main teaching issues have been described, it is important to mention the principles that guide the teacher training sequences, because successful implementation of a project-based design requires additional skills—for example, purposeful monitoring of student performance while they are working semi-autonomously in groups— which are not typically utilized in traditional communicative-language-teaching (CLT)-focused classes. The training sequences are designed according to the following three teacher education principles I assembled from Larsen-Freeman (1983), Johnson (1992), Feiman-Nemser (2001), and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016).

Principle 1: Trainees need to engage in experiential learning that simulates the experience of being a student

In preparation to teach the course, trainees would gather before each class session to practice the most fundamental moves of lesson-plan delivery before teaching the same lessons—in the same order—to an actual classroom of students. This approach to teacher training is congruent with Freeman and Johnson's (1998) notion of the teacher-learner, which focuses on how teachers learn to teach and the sociocultural, institutional, and educational forces which influence their development). The principle is also consistent with Larsen-Freeman's

(1983) assertion that a key component of raising awareness in novice teachers is to engage them in experiential learning—and I would add, *by specifically simulating the experience of being a student*—which helps them "learn how to learn" (p. 272). After practicing a component of the lesson plan in front of their peers, Larsen-Freeman (1983) claimed, awareness is raised by having the trainees reflect on the experience, notice what can be learned from it, and then taking responsibility for their learning by making use of their fellow trainees and outside resources to improve their knowledge and skills (Larsen-Freeman, 1983).

Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) places a similar value on teacher noticing of instructional errors in his Go Granular principle of coaching. That is, teacher trainers expedite instructor development and produce "dramatic, lasting growth" (p. 16) by concentrating on one or two teaching skills at a time and honing them until mastery rather than trying to address multiple teaching issues simultaneously. Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) also asserts that a focus on small, incremental, demonstrable changes to teaching practice is a fundamental principle of effective teacher feedback.

Principle 2: Training is collaborative and connected to the practice of teaching

The value of collaborative training aligns with Feiman-Nemser's (2001) edicts that professional development must contain "sustained and substantive learning opportunities," be connected to "the ongoing work of teaching," and shaped by "teachers' questions and concerns." It should also "tap local expertise and the collective wisdom that thoughtful teachers can generate by working together" (p. 1042).

Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Plan, Practice, Follow Up, Repeat technique also embodies the principle of collaborative training in that a coach gives granular feedback on a specific area

of problematic teacher performance, plans how an instructor will make use of that feedback, offers guidance during subsequent practice, and then repeats the cycle until the skill is mastered. With the aid of an instructional flowchart that assists in identifying problems in instructor performance, possible causes of those problems, as well as action steps that can be taken to overcome those problems, trainees can also learn similar coaching skills while observing their fellow trainees during specific aspects of lesson-plan execution. The flowchart serves as a blueprint for the basics of effective teaching that the trainees eventually internalize after repeated practice for the purposes of post-lesson self-evaluation.

Principle 3: Training should expand a teacher's cognitive schema

The suggested training sequences are also designed to improve the instructional routines of what Johnson (1992) calls a teacher's "cognitive schema," so new instructors learn to incorporate student-initiated contributions into their lesson plans instead of perceiving them as a threat to classroom control. Developing a teacher's cognitive schema is typically accomplished by giving them a lot of practice contending with unpredictable student comments and then helping them develop responsive routines for them. Teachers also improve their cognitive schema by observing and discussing how experienced teachers reacted to similar situations, a process that is somewhat similar to Kagan's (1992) notion of how automaticity in teaching practice is developed.

As Danielson (2007) notes, the development of expertise in teaching is characterized by two central skills: I call the first, much like Kagan (1992) does, *automaticity in teaching practice* (i.e. certain aspects of lesson-plan delivery become so routine that instructors are no longer required to pay conscious attention to them) and the second *greater classroom vision* (i.e. a shift

in focus from the mechanisms of teaching to how the learners are responding to one's teaching),

which are clearly connected to one another (Danielson, 2007). Schon (1987, as cited in Dunn &

Shriner, 1999) echoed Danielson's observations when he wrote that expert teachers display

greater classroom vision via a skill he calls "reflection-in-action," an ability to recognize

problems as they arise in the context of a lesson, explore on-the-spot hypotheses to account for

these problems, and then improvise potential solutions (Dunn & Shriner, 1999).

While Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) third principle of coaching, Make Feedback More

Frequent, assists in expediting automaticity of teaching practice and greater classroom vision by

insisting on more real-time intervention while observing teacher performance (much like an

experienced doctor training residents), he would challenge the notion that a coach should initially

train instructors to make on-the-spot decisions when a lesson is not going as planned. Instead, a

teacher should anticipate potential problems and well-scripted moves to deal with them in the

planning stage, and devote their energy to "learning the moves they can know in advance by

heart" (p. 148). Whenever an activity does not transpire in the manner it was intended, and if the

trainer is unavailable to do the necessary re-teaching, the trainee has the option of re-doing the

activity if it is merely a question of inadequate student performance—or abandoning it and

revising it outside of class when the activity proves ineffective (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016).

Nevertheless, regardless of the instructional focus, I would say that either skill (i.e. reflection in

action or pre-emptive planning) is much easier to develop if trainees have access to videos of

experienced instructors teaching the most challenging parts of the lesson so they can devise

responsive strategies before they teach the same lesson themselves.

According to Pennington (1995), one important way to bring about a vision of effective teaching and learning is for teacher trainees to explore their beliefs about teaching in an ongoing action-reflection process she calls *the teacher change cycle*, a procedure which drives how teachers absorb, process, and assimilate new input regarding their teaching. This reflection process is usually established by having novice teachers observe more experienced instructors in various stages of development and reflecting on the strengths and weaknesses of their practice in relation to the vision of good teaching and learning. Trainees are then guided to use this reflective process as they begin to lead their own classrooms. According to Pennington (1995), the process of change is initiated when a problem arises while teaching and the teacher solicits advice from her colleagues in an attempt to solve it. However, only "accessible" *input* (i.e., that which is comprehensible to the teacher based on her current stage of cognitive development, knowledge of teaching practice, and personal and cultural values) will permeate her cognitive-affective filter and translate into *intake* (i.e. an alteration) in teaching practice. However, it is the repeated task of self-reflection regarding student response to that change in teaching practice that eventually translates into uptake (i.e. a more lasting and informed change to her pedagogical toolkit) (Pennington, 1995).

Pennington (1995) also asserts that there are three stages to teacher development: the procedural, the interpersonal, and the conceptual. That is, a teacher's most basic response to a problem usually involves a change at the procedural level (i.e. in technique(s) and/or materials). Proficiency in these techniques is typically achieved after experimenting with them numerous times in a classroom setting, followed by self-reflection, alteration of the technique or material, and then additional classroom application(s). As a teacher learns to wield these new teaching

tools, her perspective shifts from procedural concerns to interpersonal awareness of student response and uptake, which may lead to further reformations of the technique or reconfiguration of the materials, but at a "higher level of understanding and awareness" (i.e. a change in a teacher's conceptual level of understanding) (p. 723).

As a teacher cycles through the process of action and reflection, her cognitive-affective filter is lowered and reconfigured, Pennington (1995) theorizes, thereby improving awareness of the interpersonal components of her teaching practice (i.e. how the students are reacting to classroom content) and, with sustained professional guidance, initiating greater awareness of how her new instructional method facilitates or impedes student learning. Conceptual awareness may lead a teacher back to procedural and interpersonal considerations, but once again at a higher level of understanding. Nevertheless, an instructor who reaches the conceptual level can articulate how this new procedure fits into their expanded pedagogical view and values and, in so doing, has transformed instructional procedure into a teaching skill (Pennington, 1995).

It is worth mentioning that neither Feiman-Nemser's *Central Tasks of Learning to Teach* (2001) nor Danielson's Framework for Teaching (2007) included recommended activity sequences for teaching specific components of each skill domain. While Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Scope and Sequence of Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development are quite useful as a guide for coaches and trainees to follow as they observe teachers in the act of teaching, his coaching plans are also missing specific activity sequences to teach specific skills (besides instructional videos for proper coaching when problems arise) because they do not make use of the specific instructional steps found in an actual lesson plan. Nevertheless, the skills within each

component of Danielson's (2007) framework do lend themselves to logical sequences, given

some instructional forethought, as I intend to illustrate in the following paragraphs.

A Framework for Four Phases of Induction Training

In this section, I provide a closer look at the specific elements of components 3a, 3c, and

3d of Danielson's (2007) Framework for Teaching—that is, specific lesson plan performance

skills the trainees will develop during three task sequences I will describe in the project portion

of this Capstone project. The training plans are part of a larger induction training handbook and

are taught in conjunction with lesson plans from the project-based course I described in the

previous section (see Table 1 below). The relevant instructional elements of components 3a, 3c,

and 3d are in bold.

Table 1

Elements and Components of Domain 3: Instruction from Danielson's Framework for Teaching

(p. 4)

Domain 3: Instruction	
Component 3a: Communicating with Students **Element 1: Expectations for Learning** **Element 2: Directions and Procedures** Element 3: Explanations of Content **Element 4: Use of Oral and Written Language**	**Component 3d: Using Assessment in Instruction** Element 1: Assessment Criteria **Element 2: Monitoring of Student Learning** **Element 3: Feedback to Students** Element 4: Student Self-assessment and Monitoring of Progress
Component 3b: Using Questioning and Discussion Techniques Element 1: Quality of Questions Element 2: Discussion Techniques Element 3: Student Participation	Component 3e: Demonstrating Flexibility and Responsiveness Element 1: Lesson Adjustment Element 2: Response to Students Element 3: Persistence
Component 3c: Engaging Students in Learning **Element 1: Activities and Assignments** **Element 2: Instructional Materials and Resources** **Element 3: Grouping of Students** **Element 4: Structure and Pacing**	

In Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) four teacher development phases, the component 3a training sequence would fall under phase 1: Dress Rehearsal, a critical portion of a summer development program that focuses on lesson planning and lesson plan delivery. Phase 2: Instant Immersion, phase 3: Getting Into Gear, and phase 4: The Power of Discussion would occur in the first 90 days of teacher training.

In contrast, my induction training program relegates lesson-plan creation to a later stage of development. Therefore, the summer development program would focus exclusively on recognizing the elements of effective teaching and learning followed by lengthier instant immersion training (see phases 1-3 in Table 2). The four-phase induction program would transpire in one-year to 18-month period depending on instructor aptitude. Due to the shift in skill focus, I have renamed the four phases as illustrated in table 2. In the actual project, a training manual for induction trainers, I describe one detailed training sequence for each of the first three phases of induction training (see Table 2).

Table 2

My Four Phases of Induction Training Related to Danielson's Components of Domains 1-3: Planning and Preparation, The Classroom Environment, and Instruction

Summer course	The Elements of Effective Teaching and Learning	2 weeks	Component 2b
Phase 1	Basic Lesson Plan Delivery	10 weeks	Component 2a, 2c, 3a
Phase 2	Monitoring of and Feedback on Student Performance	10 weeks	Components 2b, 2d and 3b, 3d-e
Phase 3	Reflecting on Instructional Materials and Assessments	10 weeks	Component 2e, 3c
Phase 4	Learning to Lesson Plan	20 weeks	Component 1a-f

In my proposed induction training manual, the training sequences for domains 1-3 of the Danielson (2007) framework take place in the first four phases of induction training. The relevant components and elements of domain 4 of the Danielson (2007) framework—Professional Responsibilities—would be allocated to post-induction training. As it does in Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) framework, component 3a would still take place in phase 1, but the training sequence for component 3d, would take place in phase 2, and component 3c would take place in phase 3. In the project portion of this Capstone project, those training sequences (one of 20 for each of the first three phases of induction training) will be described in detail. I will also include the lesson plan materials the trainees will be working with, and a Trainee Observation Sheet adapted from Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Strategies for Coaching that helps trainees pinpoint problems in one another's teaching performance, diagnose possible causes for those performance problems, and offer simple coaching solutions they are meant to eventually internalize through repeated practice.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I described the project context, potential participants, and common instructional issues in the classroom that the induction portion of my proposed teacher training program is designed to address. I also described the project-based course that the instructional sequences are drawn from as well as an estimate of how long the remaining courses and the training sequences they are based on would take 10-12 teachers to develop. Finally, I showed a complete picture of Domain 3: Instruction of the Danielson (2007) Framework for Teaching as

well as my four-phase induction training design that illustrates where training in the other three skill domains in the Danielson (2007) framework would take place.

In chapter 4, I will discuss some of the new connections and understandings I have made as a result of creating this project and how it could be beneficial to my former employer and applicable to similar EFL contexts that lack a viable induction training program. I will discuss some of the unresolved tensions within the lesson-plan performance-before-lesson-plan-design approach—that is, between Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) seemingly behaviorist training methods and the constructivist learning they are trying to foster, or how his Scope and Sequence of Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development are not necessarily designed for an EFL teaching context (i.e. one in which the learners possess differing levels of language proficiency) and how that complicates the creation of an exemplar to guide student monitoring. I will also discuss some of the project limitations (e.g. the current lack of video evidence from the project-based course from which the training sequences are built), and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUSION

One of the most frequent questions I get asked during workshops on data-driven instruction is how this applies to special education and English language learners (ELL) students… In reality, special educators and ELL teachers can repeat the same process focusing in on their students… The teaching techniques might end up being different (because these students have different learning needs), but rooting one's teaching in responding to student work is the foundation for differentiated instruction and for good special education instruction.—Paul Bambrick-Santoyo (2016, p. 229)

Chapter Overview

In the previous chapter, I described the project context, potential participants, and

common instructional issues I observed in the classroom at several private language schools in

the 12-school network in Morocco during a two-year period from 2015-2016. Among the

less-skilled instructors, these issues mostly involved inefficient use of class time, unfocused

lesson plan strategy, and difficulties with smooth lesson-plan execution which the induction

portion of my proposed teacher training program is designed to address. I also described the

project-based course that the teaching training sequences are drawn from and provided an

estimated time frame for the development of the remaining courses and training sequences in the

18-level program. Finally, since my induction training emphasises lesson-plan delivery before

lesson plan design, I showed a complete picture of Domain 3 in Danielson's (2007) four-domain

Framework for Teaching, which deals exclusively with skills related to in-class instruction, as

well as my four-phase induction training design that illustrates where training in various

components of Domain 3 would take place in addition to the other three skill domains in the

Danielson (2007) framework. In the process, I focused on a more thorough answer to my

primary research question: *In light of the specific teacher preparation and development needs of*

the staff in the aforementioned 12-school network in Morocco, how should these skills be sequenced and taught during the induction portion of an English language teacher development program?

In chapter 4, I will highlight some of the most salient discoveries I have made as a result of researching and crafting this project and how it could be beneficial to my former employer and applicable to similar EFL contexts that lack a viable induction training program. I will discuss some of the unresolved tensions within the literature on teacher training (e.g. the applicability of Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) induction coaching strategies to an EFL teaching context), the learning-to-execute-a-lesson-plan-before-learning-to-lesson-plan approach, and the project itself. I will also discuss some of the project limitations and suggestions for future research.

Major Findings

In the following section, I will detail four major learnings that resulted from researching and creating this project. The first two are related to the required institutional prerequisites that need to to be in place before creating an induction training program and the second two findings relate to the primary benefits of adopting an approach to induction training that emphasizes lesson-plan performance before lesson plan design.

Finding 1: *Developing a vision of effective teaching and learning and a curricular framework and courses compatible with that vision are the key prerequisites for creating a successful induction training program. Giving the trainees a chance to inductively examine the elements that constitute effective teaching and learning—and confront their own beliefs about teaching while doing so—is a key prerequisite for successful delivery of that induction training.*

Feiman-Nemser (2001) asserted that a logical framework for teacher training cannot be determined until an institution clarifies the type of teaching it wants its instructors to learn, the learning it wants to promote in its classrooms, and the skills it wants its students to acquire. Once an institution has articulated its vision of teaching and learning, it needs its teacher trainees to embrace that vision before they can be receptive to the philosophy and approach of the training courses which embody that vision. The first problem, Graves (2000) observed, is that teachers often struggle to explicitly define their own beliefs about teaching versus the pedagogical theories and practices they read about in books or have observed in their educational institutions. The second problem, Feiman-Nemser (2001) explained, is that the ideas about teaching that novice instructors do bring to their induction training act as "filters for making sense of the knowledge and experience they encounter" (p. 1016). Therefore, these convictions need to be articulated and validated in order to lessen the resistance inexperienced instructors may have to the novel ideas and practices they will be exposed to during the training course. As Hayes (1995) remarked, most teachers' notions about the teaching-learning process are derived from personal educational experiences, chronic teaching routines whose theoretical justification has been forgotten, or traditional approaches that do occasionally have reasonable arguments underpinning them. Thus, acknowledging the legitimacy of these approaches leaves the trainees more predisposed toward experimenting with the institution-sponsored teaching and learning to which they are not accustomed (Hayes, 1995).

Danielson (2007) echoed Feiman-Nemser's (2001) and Hayes' (1995) assertions about the value of initiating discussions about novice instructors' ideas about the teaching-learning process when she cautions that the realities of constructivist learning undermine the notion of a

direct (and complete) knowledge transfer from teacher to student—even if one were desired in this instance: "People remember an experience based on what their pre-existing knowledge and cognitive structures allow them to absorb—regardless of a teacher's intentions or the quality of an explanation" (p. 16). Thus, the key component to initiating lasting changes in teaching practice is for instructors to recognize the efficacy of pedagogical innovation by observing it in actual classrooms and then trying it out for themselves. As Ellis (1986, as cited in Hayes, 1995) summarized:

> Teachers need to be able to see the innovation in practice… they need to be able to relate this experience to their own knowledge of teaching and learning… they need to be able to uncover the principles underlying any proposed change in practice and relate principles to practice: above all they need to be able to extend knowledge gained from such an in-depth analysis to other, comparable, teaching-learning situations. (p. 259)

Teacher training that proceeds in this manner replicates the constructivist learning model that instructors are encouraged to promote in their classrooms, a form of instruction and erudition that is much easier to replicate when working with existing lesson plans that are designed to promote similar learning opportunities. In this way, the constructivist methods of the training course more closely align with the constructivist learning being promoted in the lessons and courses the novice instructors will be learning to implement in their classrooms.

Finding 2: *The learning paradigm of the teacher training courses should align with the student learning paradigm being promoted in the classroom. Therefore, if constructivist learning is the desired classroom pedagogy, the training courses promoting that pedagogy should also be constructivist in nature.*

Traditional linear approaches to course design, lesson planning—and in Feiman-Nemser's (2001) suggested skill order of induction training (see Table 1 on p. 34)—involve a rational sequence of steps (e.g. conducting a needs assessment, formulating course objectives, designing assessments, and then creating the lesson plans) that Graves (2000) described as rigid and often impractical. Graves (2000) argued for a circular course design process that begins with clarifying one's beliefs about teaching and learning, and often proceeds in a similar order as traditional behaviorist approaches, but can nevertheless be initiated from any point in the circle (see figure 2 on p. 34).

While this step-by-step approach seems suitable for course design, the order is incongruent with a teacher training course seeking to promote a constructivist learning paradigm. A more constructivist approach would start with an examination of what makes for effective teaching and learning—that is, by observing experienced instructors teaching the same courses in the same classrooms in the same institution and exhibiting exemplary models of the teaching and learning the school requires all of its instructors to exemplify while providing the trainees with guiding prompts and questions to assist them in recognizing its key components. After confronting and refining their own ideas about teaching and learning, instructors would immediately begin to develop the skills of lesson-plan delivery and reflection on their performance with existing lesson plans which embody the institution's constructivist learning paradigm. The skills of involved in designing lessons, materials, and courses would come at the *end* of the developmental sequence instead of the immediately following a needs assessment and awareness of the teaching context at the beginning of the training sequence, as it does in Feiman-Nemser's (2001) and Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) frameworks.

Hayes (1995) criticized "rational-empirical" transmission models of teacher training—at least the ones he observed in Thailand—as typically failing to engender the necessary changes in teaching-learning practice because the trainer-led techniques were not reinforced with sufficient trainee practice. Nor was much effort expended on having the trainees consider the rationales or principles undergirding specific classroom activities, or constructing a rationale for the merits of one approach versus another. Consequently, instructors exited courses with no greater awareness of the mechanisms for effective teaching and learning—nor a clear analytical framework for reflecting on their teaching practice—than when they started (Hayes, 1995). To be more precise, they were not given the means to improve what I characterize as the *permeability* of their "cognitive structures" (Danielson, 2007, p. 16) or what Johnson (1992) called their "cognitive schema" (p. 509).

Johnson (1992) asserted that expanding both an instructor's cognitive schema and repertoire of instructional techniques enables them to clarify how their perceptions of what transpires during a lesson shapes their instructional responses to it. Reinforcing the need for a constructivist framework for teacher training, Johnson (1992) maintained that enhancing a teacher's cognitive schema and appropriate instructional routines can be achieved by making video recordings of teachers in the classroom and inviting instructors to recount their thoughts, perceptions, and assessments at specific instances of their lessons. Such guided self-analysis and reflection enables teachers to recognize how they perceive and react to a host of student performance cues that occurred during the lesson—both of which are key components to constructivist learning, improvement of instructional performance and, consequently, student learning opportunities.

Finding 3: *There is demonstrable value in focusing on lesson plan performance before lesson-plan design but learning both skills simultaneously remains a common teacher training practice.*

Acknowledging the time-consuming complexity of lesson-planning and teaching, especially for novice instructors, Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) advocated solving "one piece of the teaching puzzle for a new teacher" (p. 120) by having them work with "already existing great lesson plans" rather than creating their own. First of all, the lesson plans created by experienced instructors who are trained in lesson plan and course design will typically be of superior quality than what a novice instructor could create on their own. Secondly, learning to execute lesson plans that have already been demonstrably successful in the same institution greatly lessens the cognitive load of a new instructor and frees up time that can now be devoted to smoother lesson-plan performance (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2016). Those skills include: communicating lesson and course goals, giving clear instructions, adopting a professional tone of voice, developing classroom routines, monitoring and giving feedback on student performance in pairs and groups, developing seamless transitions between activities—in short, all of the performative "pieces you can't do for them" (p. 120).

If it is evident that novice instructors have a cognitively overwhelming number of variables to consider in the initial stages of induction training and the lesson plans they create are typically of inferior quality, why have them lesson plan at all during the first part of their induction training? As much as he advocated for using existing lesson plans, Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) did not proceed one step further and relegate lesson-plan design to a later stage of teacher development.

It is also worth mentioning that mastering lesson plan delivery expedites the acquisition of two central instructional skills: the first is what Kagan (1992) describes as *automaticity in teaching practice* (i.e. certain aspects of lesson-plan delivery become so routine that instructors are no longer required to pay conscious attention to them) and the second is *greater classroom vision* (i.e. a shift in focus from the mechanisms of teaching to how the learners are responding to one's teaching). In this way, an instructor's attention moves away from materials and methods and classroom procedure to student learning and outcomes. What is even more crucial for new instructors, as Wiggins and McTighe (2005) asserted, is the additional insight that the teaching methodology one adopts depends on the skill that one is teaching and that the paramount pedagogical priority is not on methods but on the students successfully achieving the lesson—and course—goals.

Finding 4: *Successful induction training solves many other professional and administrative problems.*

First of all, effective induction training expedites the acquisition of essential teaching skills. Echoing the findings of Kagan (1992), who asserted that extensive lesson-plan rehearsal leads to expedited *automaticity in teaching practice* and *greater classroom vision* (i.e. a shift in focus from the mechanisms of teaching to how the learners are responding to one's teaching), a two-year study conducted by Ridley et al. (2005) compared two pre-service teacher preparation programs and tentatively reached similar conclusions. In short, more extensive work on lesson plan performance coupled with structured feedback on that performance produced language teachers who more "attuned to the essential components of effective instruction" and demonstrated components of accelerated "developmental progression" (p. 54), which included a

greater focus on student needs and evidence of student learning. As Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) summarized, "The more quickly a teacher masters the most important skills of teaching, the more quickly students get to develop the skills of being students" (p. 14).

Secondly, focusing on lesson-plan performance with the guidance of a trained teaching mentor assists in the formation of a positive teacher identity. As Freeman and Johnson (1998) summarized, training leads to improved awareness of the gap between how the teacher's perception of the language being taught in their classrooms differs from how language teaching is perceived by a teaching coach or other trained professional observing the same lesson. Recognizing this gap between one's *imagined* identity (i.e. the teacher one desires to be) with one's *practiced* identity (i.e. the teacher one actually is, at least from the perspective of a teaching mentor) results in a closer realignment of those conflicting identities, as Farrell (2011) and Xu (2012) (both as cited in Gilman, 2016) note. Featherstone (1993, as cited in Feiman-Nemser, 2001) concurred that teachers form a more coherent picture of their professional identity by merging their past classroom experiences with the realities of their current professional context and the type of classroom atmosphere they want to create coupled with the type of teacher they would like to become. Gilman (2016) concluded that a training program that helps teachers reconcile their identity as instructors not only instills a stronger desire in teachers to improve their job skills but increases the chance that they will remain in the profession.

Thirdly, induction training fosters greater collaboration between teachers, which McIntyre and Hagger (1992, as cited in Korthagen et al., 2006) asserted "has been demonstrated to be a critical factor in helping individual teachers to develop their classroom practice'' (p. 276)

and, I suspect, *leads to greater pedagogical quality and consistency within an institution*. One way to achieve improved professional collaboration is to have student teachers engage in habitual small-group peer-reflection about their teaching practice, which could easily dovetail from the peer-observation sessions that comprise a substantial portion of the first three phases of my proposed induction training. The teacher trainees also gather for whole-group sessions with the teacher trainer in which they receive additional training in the supervision skills needed to support and further develop their peer-supported learning (Korthagen et al., 2006). In this way, responsibility for professional learning is shared between the trainer and the novice teachers. One other benefit of peer-supported learning, according to Korthagen et al. (2006), is that it enables student teachers to take responsibility for their own learning and provides them with a viable resource for maintaining their professional development even in the most individualistic, non-collaborative teaching environments. In addition, trainees learn how to assume a portion of the teacher educator role and many of the supervising skills they acquire during peer-supported learning sessions will assist them in managing the learning opportunities of their future students (Korthagen et al., 2006).

Lastly, effective induction training reduces the teacher attrition rate. Bambrick-Santoyo (2016), citing statistics from the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF), explained that nearly half of American teachers quit less than five years into their career. Although similar statistics have not been compiled for their counterparts in the EFL world, the attrition rate is probably much higher. Farrell (2006) and others have indicated that novice instructors often experience a period of disorientation—and often disillusionment—as they attempt to apply their pre-service skills to the context of an actual classroom. The mistaken

assumption, Farrell (2006) explained, is that novice teachers can achieve a smooth transition from one to the other by simply applying the knowledge from their preservice training to the classroom, even though many experienced language instructors acknowledge learning to "balance lesson content and delivery" is a lengthy process (Faez & Valeo, 2012 as cited in Farrell, 2012). Essentially, as Farrell (2012) remarked, novice instructors are asked to perform the same tasks of lesson-planning and delivery as their more experienced colleagues, often without clear guidance or support from their employer. In other words, they are being asked to learn two jobs simultaneously, as Wildman et al. (1989, as cited in Farrell 2012) note: they are *teaching* English as a foreign language while *learning how to teach* English as a foreign language. Thus, as Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) summarizes: "Those who receive a comprehensive induction package that also includes professional development and lesson planning support are dramatically less likely to [quit the profession]" (p. 10).

Quality induction training may also improve staff solidarity by reducing the resentment non-native-English-speaker teachers often feel toward their native-English-speaker teachers counterparts who usually have less teaching experience and fewer pedagogical skills, are less committed to their jobs, but nevertheless receive better benefits in an attempt to entice them to leave their home countries.

In this section, I highlighted four principal discoveries I made as a result of researching and crafting this project, among them that the constructivist learning paradigm of the teacher training courses should align with the constructivist learning paradigm being promoted in the classroom. In the section that follows, I will describe some aspects of Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) literature on teacher coaching that contradicts the constructivist framework.

Complications in Research

In this section, I discuss two complications in the research related to the proposed methods and delivery of induction training. The first complication is the apparent incompatibility of Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) behaviorist coaching methods with the constructivist student learning they are designed to promote. The second complication is connected to instructional delivery—that is, there are alterations that would need to be made to some of the teaching skills and subsequent coaching methods to make them more suitable for a second-language-learning environment.

Complication 1: *In spite of my attempt to reorder induction training skills to reflect a more constructivist learning paradigm, there remains an incongruence between Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) behaviorist method of coaching and the constructivist student learning it seeks to foster*. I am referring specifically to Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) three principles of coaching which asserted that "lasting growth doesn't come from trying to learn everything at once: it comes from working on just one or two skills at a time and polishing those skills down to the smallest detail" via a "plan-practice-repeat cycle" (p. 14) until they are "cemented into [one's] muscle memory" (p. 6) and then progressing in a linear order from simple skills to more complex ones. Much of the language—and instructional moves—are strikingly similar to behaviorist theories of second language acquisition. As I mentioned in chapter 2, the behaviorists believed in a transmission approach to language learning—in short, that acquisition was derived from the formation of "good" language habits and, through direct intervention from the instructor, immediately correcting errors before they become "bad" habits.

While Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) made an excellent case that teacher development should more closely resemble an apprenticeship between coach and student, Freeman (1989) challenges this method of teacher development by making a critical distinction between *training* (i.e. what Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) refers to as *coaching*) and *development*. Freeman (1989) asserted that teaching is far more than the performance of "generic knowledge and skills," and thus, a more "holistic and integrated approach" (p. 40) is required. Freeman (1989) called this second strategy *development* because it is designed to deal with the complicated components of teaching that cannot be acquired in a fragmented, step-by-step manner. Through indirect intervention, a mentor attempts to initiate change through questioning techniques, personal anecdotes, and "detached" observations that heighten or alter a instructor awareness and thereby initiate a process of self-analysis and refinement of their classroom approach. As Freeman (1989) explained:

> Any teacher must learn how to present material or hand out homework, but these types of things can be learned through training. To learn to recognize one's own impatience and how it affects student participation or to learn how one's self-confidence or lack of it affects students' reactions to the lesson—these types of things depend on developing an internal monitoring system. They are aspects of a teacher's teaching that stem from attitude toward, and awareness of, self in the classroom. (p. 40)

Ultimately, the success of teacher *development*, as Freeman (1989) described it, is dependent on the success of the interaction between teacher and collaborator. After all, even if the collaborator provides encouragement, support, and guidance in identifying teaching issues, the resulting changes—if any—are internal, originate from the teacher, may or may not

immediately manifest themselves in behavioral or performative modifications in the classroom, and thus do not occur within a predictable time frame.

What Freeman (1989) is proposing is the need for two strategic approaches to the complex endeavor of learning how to teach: the first approach addresses the knowledge and skills of teaching practice and can be delivered in a compartmentalized manner. The second approach addresses attitude and awareness toward the teaching process itself and how people learn to teach and, therefore, must be delivered in a holistic manner. Freeman and Johnson (1998) eventually characterized this second approach to teacher development as falling within the domain of the *teacher-learner*—one of three domains which constitute the knowledge base of teacher education.

Grossman (1992) echoed Freeman's (1989) assertions when she says asserted that training courses need to de-emphasize the mastery of classroom procedures in favor of giving novice teachers a framework for analyzing their teaching that allows them to develop their practice, incorporate instructional innovations into their repertoire, and address "the ethical dimensions of classroom teaching" (p. 176).

Nevertheless, these two approaches to teacher development are not mutually exclusive and the ensuing three decades that followed Freeman's (1989) paper have seen a greater integration of the two approaches. Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) would likely counter that development, as Freeman (1989) conceives of it, merely occurs at a later stage of the teacher training process although it can be addressed at earlier stages of development when the situation warrants it. Another way of integrating the two approaches is via the induction training approach I have been advocating through this Capstone project—that is, by working with existing lesson

plans and watching master teachers delivering them (to deal with the skills practice of teaching), and then ruminating on the cognitive processes involved in teaching during spontaneous coaching or in the reflection portion of post-lesson feedback. Finally, a complete symmetry between teacher training and student learning may be impractical and ultimately undesirable, especially when methods, as Wiggins and McTighe (2005) reminded us, are determined by the skills one is teaching and thus the paramount pedagogical priority is not on what method is being used but on the successful acquisition of the skills necessary to meet the induction training goals.

Complication 2: *Bambrick-Santoyo's Strategies for Coaching is not necessarily set up for an EFL environment.*

Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Scope and Sequence of Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development in his book *Getting Better Faster* assumed that the learners in one's classroom all have the same level of proficiency in the language of instruction and, consequently, the pedagogical focus in the latter phases of teacher development is almost exclusively centered on developing student thinking. While academic skill development is certainly embedded in the project-based course the teacher training sequences are drawn from, there is nevertheless an element of language practice in each lesson plan that cannot be overlooked and which complicates various aspects of teacher performance—like monitoring of student interaction in pairs and groups.

In chapter 2, I described a key component of Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Action Steps to Launch a Teacher's Development—Write the Exemplar—which serves as evidence of student learning and therefore guides student monitoring. This skill requires an instructor to carefully script out what an end-of-class response would look like from a student who had met the lesson

objectives as well as an exemplar for each stage of independent practice leading up to the check for understanding at the end of class. That is, once a teacher fashions a question she would like students to answer as a means of demonstrating that they have reached the lesson goal, she crafts a response to the question that would demonstrate the required critical thinking on the student's part in order to answer it successfully.

Most crucially, writing an exemplar brings focus to teacher monitoring of independent student work—that is, what to look for while the students are working and what steps to take when student responses are inadequate. As Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) summarized, crafting and challenging one's exemplar invariably expands the teacher's understanding of the lesson topic "because doing so forces him or her to think through what it really means to understand this topic" (p. 191).

In the realm of second language teaching, an instructor would not just be monitoring for the critical-thinking portion of the exemplar, but would *also be looking for evidence of successful language use* and recording—or having one student in the group record—inaccurate language use for post-activity feedback. Adding a second component to the student-monitoring process undoubtedly renders an already difficult teaching skill even more complicated and challenging to master, especially because much of the student interaction and rehearsal in second language classrooms is oral rather than written. Consequently, the need for exemplars for language use and critical thinking also reinforce the importance of initially having novice instructors work with existing lesson plans which contain dual exemplars within them so the trainees can work on putting them to use rather than trying to create their own.

Ball and Cohen (1996) also pointed to the unexplored possibilities of using curricular materials as a means of training teachers when they observe that lesson plans could provide specific examples of student work, the reasoning undergirding it, and what other teachers designed and did in previous iterations of the course. As Ball and Cohen (1996) summarized, "If curriculum design and development were done with the enacted curriculum in view, it would be easy to see opportunities to use curriculum materials to assist teachers' learning and practice" (p. 8).

In this section, I discussed two major contradictions in the literature dealing with the instructional methods of induction teacher training: first of all, the incongruent nature of Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) behaviorist method of coaching that I have adopted and the constructivist student learning it seeks to foster and, secondly, how additional considerations would have to be taken into account when adapting certain teaching skills (e.g. monitoring student interaction in pairs and groups) to a second-language classroom, but that these necessary complications nevertheless strengthen the need for using well-designed lesson plans and courses to train novice teachers. In the next section, I will discuss implications of the project and how my findings will be communicated to their intended audience.

Project Implications, Communication of Results, Benefits to the Profession

This Capstone project provides my former employer and the other language centers in the 12-school network in Morocco with a clear picture of the major components involved in creating a viable induction training program, gives them a blueprint for how they might implement it, and makes a compelling case for why such an endeavor is worthwhile. Nevertheless, the proposal for formulating a vision of student learning and course outcomes for each level of an institution's

language program, developing existing lesson plans and courses which embody the institution's vision of student learning, using the lessons and courses as the basis for training novice teachers, and thereby emphasizing the skills of lesson-plan performance before lesson-plan design represents, to my knowledge, a unique contribution to the field of induction training and would therefore be relevant to similar EFL teaching contexts—especially those that lack an induction training program and are interested in the principal actions needed to create one.

Upon completion of the chapters and project, I intend to send a PDF of chapters 1-4 and a Google Doc of the project training sequences (with links to the lesson-plan materials in each training sequence) to the three directors in the 12-school network who would be most amenable to the idea of creating a more purposeful induction training program at their individual language schools. I also intend to submit a plenary proposal to the network's conference committee in advance of their next teacher conference in November 2018 that presents the major findings of my induction training project and gives the conference participants a workshop-like experience of one of the training sequences. I will also continue to create collaborative project-based course designs for one of the schools in the network in preparation for what I hope will be eventual authorization to use those courses as the basis for an induction training handbook that guides novice teacher training at any amenable schools in the network.

In this section, I described the project implications—that is, how this project may serve the needs of my former employer and similar EFL institutions which lack a viable induction training program. I also described how I will communicate the results of my project with the 12-school network for which it was designed. In the following section, I will detail some of the

project limitations, the next steps which would need to be taken before the induction training courses could be fully implemented, and suggestions for future research.

Project Limitations, Next Steps, and Future Research

There also a handful of limitations to this project in its current form that, if resolved, would go a long way toward its successful implementation. The first issue concerns the presentation of the evidence I found among the extensive literature on the central skills of induction training and the ideal approach to the acquisition of those central skills. In general, how should these project findings be presented to an audience of administrators and EFL instructors who have grown accustomed to a specific manner of course delivery and assessment such that they feel inspired to act on their newfound awareness of the gaps in their language learning program instead of feeling defensive and demoralized by them? Does the literature I have cited provide sufficient evidence to convince an intransigent former employer (that is already profitable) of the value in investing the time and resources to creating and implementing a induction training program? Would the induction training be more enticing to the 12-school network if it were framed in terms of outcomes, action plans, and targets rather than sequential step-by-step skill development? Should training sequences be more holistic in nature? Should a framework for trainee self-reflection be introduced at an earlier stage of development? Once these chapters and training sequences are presented to key administrators within the 12-school network, I intend to solicit responses to these questions.

The second issue is that the project would be time-consuming and expensive to complete. At present, only one project-based course exists for the B1-level class I described in chapter 3 and 17 others would need to be designed, piloted, and refined before the training sequences for

each could be developed. Before that could occur, there would need to be a significant investment of time to train experienced teachers in the trajectory of the backwards design course framework advocated by Wiggins and McTighe (2005) as well as the necessary skills for developing project-based content with a constructivist learning focus from the grammar-based syllabus of the textbooks they are currently using. It would also take time to build classroom evidence for the efficacy of both the project-based courses and the training sequences upon which they are based. For example, none of the video excerpts of experienced instructors teaching the specific skills of various phases of the induction training program (in actual classrooms) has been created nor could they be until more of the courses had been designed and implemented. Besides making video recordings of student performance during formative and summative assessments, what additional evidence would be needed to prove that project-based courses which promote constructivist learning and critical thinking provide a richer language learning experience for the students than the existing textbook-based courses operating loosely within a communicative-language-teaching (CLT) curriculum? In addition to making recordings of instructors teaching project-based classes, what evidence would be needed to demonstrate that the induction training sequences based on these courses would expedite instructor skill development and provide greater pedagogical consistency among the teaching staff? Perhaps those questions can only be answered with future research that pits one approach against the other. Nevertheless, until at least once training course was completed, implemented, and evaluated, the efficacy of my proposed induction training program would have to be taken on a certain degree of blind faith regardless of the literature that supports it.

Does learning to execute existing lesson plans before learning how to lesson plan expedite teacher awareness from materials to student learning as Kagan (1992) and Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) claim it does? Perhaps the following studies could be conducted, even though there are probably far too many uncontrollable variables to draw definitive conclusions. One study would involve three control groups of novice teachers working with the same lesson plans and courses. After completing the summer training course and learning about the school's vision of student learning and the course goals for three consecutive class levels they would be teaching during the first year, the first group would work with existing lesson plans and follow the induction training (and get extensive rehearsal in the skills of lesson-plan performance as described in chapter 3 and demonstrated in the project). The second group would be required to design their own lesson plans in accord with the course goals but would receive some coaching in lesson-plan performance. The third group would be required to design their own lesson plans in accord with the course goals but would receive no induction training. At the end of each of three consecutive 30-hour, three-month sessions, their in-class performances would be observed and evaluated based on criteria similar to the Trainee Observation Sheet and similarities and differences in the strengths and weaknesses of their teaching would be compared. In addition, student performances on formative and summative assessments would also be compared and evaluated.

In this section, I described two limitations to the project in its current form: presentation of the evidence in its current form and the time-consuming and expensive nature of the work involved to design, test, and implement it. I also briefly described one possible case study that

might assist in resolving some of the questions about the comparatively superior efficacy of an induction training program that prioritizes lesson-plan performance before lesson-plan design.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I highlighted four main discoveries I have made as a result of researching and crafting this project. I explained why developing a vision of effective teaching and learning and a curricular framework and courses compatible with that vision are the key prerequisites for creating a successful induction training program and, furthermore, how giving the trainees a chance to inductively examine the elements that constitute effective teaching and learning—and confront their own beliefs about teaching while doing so—is a key prerequisite for successful delivery of that induction training. I reiterated the case for why the learning paradigm of the teacher training courses should align with the student learning paradigm being promoted in the classroom. I also revisited the evidence for the claim that focusing on lesson-plan performance before lesson-plan design expedites the acquisition of two key skills that are intrinsic to the goal of more enriched student learning. Finally, I justified how successful induction training solves many other professional and administrative problems.

I followed up the section on key learnings with a discussion of two contradictions I unpacked in the research on induction teacher training. The first problem is the residual incompatibility between Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) behaviorist method of coaching and the constructivist student learning it seeks to foster despite my attempt to reorder induction training skills to reflect a more constructivist learning paradigm. The second problem is that Bambrick-Santoyo's (2016) Strategies for Coaching are not necessarily set up for an EFL environment and, consequently, certain skills in his developmental framework are more

complicated when applied to a second language learning environment. Nevertheless, the added complexity of certain skills in the Bambrick-Santoyo (2016) framework strengthens the case for having novice instructors learn to execute existing lesson plans and courses with that skill complexity already embedded in them.

In the third section, I explained how my induction training project would be beneficial to my former employer and relevant to similar EFL teaching contexts—especially those that lack an induction training program and are interested in the principal actions needed to create one. I suggested that using lessons and courses as the basis for training novice teachers, and emphasizing the skills of lesson-plan performance before lesson-plan design makes a unique and potentially useful contribution to the field of induction training. I also described the means by which I would communicate the results of the project to my former employer in an attempt to interest them in investing in its implementation.

In the fourth and final section, I detailed the limitations of the project in its current form—mainly that it still requires a significant investment of time and resources to complete— and that in its current form, and despite the extensive research supporting its developmental value, might not be sufficient to convince my former employer to invest in it. I also briefly described a case study that might assist in resolving the issue of whether concentrating on lesson-plan performance before lesson-plan design expedites the acquisition of two key skills that are intrinsic to the goal of more enriched student learning.

Conclusion

I would be remiss if I failed to end this project exactly where it started: with a discussion of all of the obstacles that have prevented my former employer—and so many other language

schools—from making sustained and purposeful induction training a central component of their professional development programs, but why it is so important that they do so anyway. As Feiman-Nemser (2001) remarked, "placing serious and sustained teacher learning at the center of school reform is a radical idea"—and it still is 16 years later. After all, "it challenges dominant views of teaching and learning to teach… It requires capacity building at all levels of the system" (p. 1014) not to mention a significant investment of time, qualified personnel, and money—all of which are threatening to an institution that equates profitability with customer satisfaction and therefore lacks the incentive to change.

Nevertheless, as I write these lines, a recent article by the *Morocco World News* reports that Morocco has dropped from 35th to 60th in English language proficiency, according to the English Proficiency Index, even though the country recently mandated greater use of English as the language of instruction in Moroccan universities. The Global Competitiveness Report of 2014-2015 lists Morocco 102nd (out of the 144 countries it measured) in educational quality and 104th in higher education and training, which underscores the importance of initiating improvements in both in English language teaching and academic skills training.

In the event my former employer fails to act on the findings of this Capstone project, I will attempt to find other programs in the US or elsewhere willing to invest in the idea, as expressed by Feiman-Nemser (2001), that the quality of student learning is commensurate with the quality of the content they are taught and the skill of their instructors in delivering it. In addition, there is Feiman-Nemser's (2001) compelling declaration that teaching quality is dependent on "the knowledge, skills, and commitments [teachers] bring to their teaching and the opportunities they have to continue learning in and from their practice" (p. 1013).

From my perspective, two key changes must occur in our perception of teachers and teaching before the necessary investment in student learning and quality teaching is possible on wider scale. First, *we need to change the perception of teaching as low-skilled work* when, in fact, it is the opposite, which will require some degree of training for parents and legislators—the latter who will also need to be conditioned to reject the idea of teaching as a business in favor of the idea that the sole purpose of education is to serve a collective societal good. Second, *we need to reinforce the conviction that the individuals who spend the most time with our children each day should have all the pedagogical, psychological, and philosophical skills they need to assist in our children's development*—and that teachers should be appropriately compensated for the highly skilled work they do. My hope is that this Capstone project will play a small but significant role in bringing about those changes—at least for the schools who come to view induction training as the cornerstone to more fulfilling learning experiences for both teachers and students.

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