

**INCLUSION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE
TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION**

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Abstract

This study synthesises the literature from three fields of education (English language teaching (ELT), education and training for new teachers, and education for disabled learners) to develop an understanding of how new English language teachers are prepared for their responsibilities in an inclusive classroom, and to recommend changes to the present system that would further promote inclusiveness in ELT.

A broad survey of ELT professionals in the UK was carried out to examine how initial training and professional development matched teachers' requirements as they progressed through their careers. The branch of ELT known as EFL (English as a Foreign Language) is generally perceived by its practitioners to be student-centred and strongly inclusive in ethos, and so their experiences of and attitudes towards learners with disabilities and learning differences were also explored to determine what factors might affect the teachers' ability or willingness to include learners who had additional support needs. This survey was supplemented by in-depth interviews with teacher trainers and course designers.

The findings suggest that EFL teacher training does go some way towards fostering inclusive beliefs and practices, but that because of the lack of an explicit focus on disability issues, many teachers feel under-prepared and lack confidence when asked to work with disabled learners. In the new climate of governmental control of ELT in the UK, new initial qualifications are

being developed to comply with state-sector regulations. This thesis recommends that the opportunity is taken to fuse the inclusive features of the intensive TEFL courses with the broader PGCE courses, to offer ELT professionals the chance to gain a qualification that not only allows them to work in both the private and the state sector but also prepares them thoroughly for working in the inclusive language classroom.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This study was born out of a unique set of events in my professional life and was designed to answer specific questions that arose from my experiences as both a teacher of English as a foreign language (EFL) and an academic support tutor. These two areas of education share many common features, which distinguish them from the compulsory education system, often referred to as the 'mainstream'. They both have much to contribute to debates about pedagogical excellence, as well much to learn from each other (Ganschow & Sparks, 2000; Norwich & Lewis, 2001) and this study is my attempt to bring the two closer together, with a long-term view of combining what I see as the best aspects of both. Although some research has been done in America which considers the impact of disabilities and learning differences on foreign language learning (notably by Leonore Ganschow, Richard Sparks and their colleagues (ibid)), very little has been done in this country, almost nothing specifically on English language learning and nothing at all that focuses on how teachers of English approach the issue of including disabled learners in their classes. In this respect, this study is unique and has an important contribution to make to ELT professionals' understanding of the inclusion debate in this country, and the role we can play in it.

Although stemming from a personal quest which could have arisen at any point, the timeliness of this investigation on a national and international scale is worth noting. During the four years that the project has been underway, several momentous changes have occurred in British ELT circles, including the introduction of a new national curriculum (DfES, 2003) new qualifications

for teachers and learners and Skills for Life projects that have investigated disability amongst ESOL learners (DfES, 2006a). Not only is English language teaching in Britain in a state of reform and transition, but inclusive education and disability issues are very much on the agenda in Britain, across Europe and for international organisations, such as UNESCO (Potts, 2000). Indeed, inclusion has been described by one proponent as being “*the major issue facing education systems throughout the world*” (Ainscow, 2003; p.15). In this first chapter I intend to present the circumstances in which my questions emerged, in order to explain the motivation for and the aims of the research. I will give a preliminary sketch of the context of the study and introduce some of the key concepts that are central to it. Finally I will provide a ‘route-map’ that indicates the structure of the rest of this thesis.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1.1 My background

I spent the first five years of my professional life teaching EFL in various educational settings, both in the private sector and in state funded colleges in the UK and abroad. I taught learners of all proficiency levels and ages, who had many different reasons for learning English. At the start of my career I felt that my degree in Linguistics and the initial certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults (‘Cert. TEFLA’, usually known generically as ‘a TEFL certificate’), that I had gained through a short intensive course immediately after graduating had given me a firm foundation in my chosen field, and the experience that I gained in the classroom added to my confidence.

In my third overseas post, in Sweden, the college I worked for had been awarded the contract for an extensive programme of language courses in a company where English had become the official language, following a take-over by an American firm. All employees, from the board room to the factory floor, were encouraged to access this language provision. As the new teacher, I was assigned a group of assembly-line workers who had been learning together for a short while already. My experience of working with these men every Monday afternoon for two years led me to question whether I was as well prepared for the career I had embarked upon as I had believed.

The members of the group were all well-motivated, met every week having completed their homework, and really seemed to enjoy their English lessons. After a year they had almost completed the elementary text book they were diligently working through, and were excited, although a little daunted by the prospect of embarking on the next level the following term. What made this group particularly challenging for me was that they each had an impairment that made me reappraise the ways of teaching that I, as a novice teacher, was developing. One learner had restricted mobility which meant that certain activities in the cramped classroom were problematic; another member of the group had a hearing impairment. Another was orally communicative and competent, but his written work did not reflect his ability (in a way that is often considered to be indicative of a specific learning difference such as dyslexia). Two of the class members were newly arrived from Eastern Europe, and one from Iran, and although they seemed to welcome the chance to speak English (with which they were more familiar than Swedish) one in particular seemed quite withdrawn at times, and another

often had to miss class or leave early to attend to family matters. The two other members of the group appeared to experience significant barriers to learning: their awareness and command of their own language led me to believe that learning a foreign language represented an even greater challenge for them than for the others. We worked steadily and incorporated a lot of extra practice activities into the course as laid out by our textbook, but progress was slow and hard won. By the end of the second year I was beginning to realise how woefully ignorant I was of strategies for helping students to overcome barriers to learning, and that my initial training had been quite inadequate in this respect.

I returned to the UK and studied for a Master's degree in English Language Teaching and Language Studies, simultaneously training as a Literacy and Numeracy tutor for adults at the local college, before finding a post in the academic support department of an FE college. In the three years that I spent there I learnt British Sign Language, to enable me to work more effectively with the college's hearing impaired learners, and became involved socially with the local Deaf community. I also studied to gain a better understanding of how specific learning differences can affect students, and gained the obligatory PGCE for teachers in the FE sector. This course focussed quite heavily on general issues of 'equal opportunities', but did not contain any compulsory modules related to disability issues, so I supplemented it with an Open University module, 'Learning For All'.

During these years in FE I began to feel (as I still do) that EFL teaching techniques and approaches have a lot to offer teachers in other fields of education. I was also puzzled by the constant discussion about the necessity

of 'including' students who have different (dis)abilities, and the insistence of the college management that all staff attend innumerable training sessions and seminars to discuss this topic, which to me (looking through TEFL-tinted spectacles) seemed a self-evident requirement of teaching any class. Clough & Nutbrown suggest that when the familiar is seen "*with new and different lenses*" (2002; p45) it begins to seem strange, and these opportunities for "*radical looking*" (ibid.), lie at the heart of many social research projects. Several questions arose for me from this experience, such as whether *talking* about inclusion would lead to students actually *being* fully included in their classes, and, if so, how?

The question that most intrigued me, however, was why EFL practitioners *do not* talk about the inclusion of disabled students, and yet somehow expect it to happen. My experience of having to find ways of making my teaching accessible to students in my classes who did seem to experience difficulty in learning, made me wonder why this issue had never arisen during my initial EFL training. From this question came others which eventually became the research questions that underpin this study; they are listed in section 1.2 of this chapter.

1.1.2 Motivation and aims

The main reason that this study was initiated, therefore, was to satisfy my personal curiosity about the differences I had uncovered between EFL teachers, academic support teachers and teachers in other fields of education (such as vocational and academic subject teachers and teacher trainers in the FE sector). I felt that it was important for me to understand why I (and my EFL colleagues) seemed to take for granted certain aspects of teaching that for

others warranted many hours of discussion, debate and deliberation among professionals.

I wanted to find out whether it was simply that in EFL there was little chance of teachers encountering disabled learners, or whether EFL teachers simply did not consider the issue of inclusion important enough to discuss, or whether there was another explanation entirely for the apparent lack of input about inclusion on the initial certificate course. The first of these three hypotheses seemed unlikely in the light of my own experience, and in view of the fact that many EFL teachers are working in the compulsory sectors of education systems in other countries, where the population was likely to be very similar to Britain in terms of diversity of ability. The positive relationships that I had observed in EFL classrooms and staff-rooms both in the UK and abroad were such that I found it hard to believe that most practitioners did not have their students' interests at heart, so the second of these possibilities seemed unlikely. This left only the third option, and I began to formulate the hypothesis that lies at the heart of this study, namely that EFL teaching practices are inherently inclusive, but that this culture is not transmitted overtly through the use of discourses of disability issues or 'special educational needs', which are notably absent from the professional discourse of the EFL community.

My aim was to discover whether or not my hypothesis was correct, and if it did seem to be correct, to find out how this ethos had originated, and how it was perpetuated. It seemed likely that somehow during their initial training, or professional development, EFL teachers were inducted into that inclusive culture, and I determined, if this were the case, to identify the features of the

initial certificate courses that contributed to the inclusive approach that seems to characterise EFL teaching. I also wanted to examine what opportunities were available for English Language Teaching (ELT) professionals if or when they realised, as I had done, that their preparation for working in a really inclusive classroom had been inadequate and they wanted to pursue further study or training.

The focus of the study is therefore on the courses leading to Certificates in TEFL, like the one I had taken, but some attention is also paid to other related courses in order to find out what other professional bodies do, where ideas come from and how EFL practices compare. This became particularly important when the present government's intervention in the branch of ELT known as English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) led to the introduction of courses for English language teachers intending to work in the state sector, and its rejection of the certificates and diplomas it dubs 'legacy' qualifications, that most English teachers currently hold. These distinctions will be clarified below in section 1.3 of this chapter, and discussed in more detail in Chapter 2. At this point, though, it would be appropriate to present the questions that underpin the study.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The three main research questions that were formulated to provide a structure for the research are listed here (their ordering does not denote relative importance):

- 1) *What views do British ELT practitioners (teachers, trainers, course leaders and accrediting bodies) hold about the teaching of students who have disabilities or learning differences?*

- 2) *How does initial TEFL training in the UK (the Certificate courses) approach the issue of 'inclusion'?*
- 3) *Does existing provision of in-service training and professional development meet the needs of ELT practitioners in the UK?*

As the thesis develops, these questions will, naturally, be refined and subdivided. It should be noted that in the questions references are made to 'ELT practitioners' which includes teachers involved in all forms of English language education aimed at learners who have a different first language (EFL, ESOL and other specific types of English courses described below), although the training is referred to as 'TEFL training'. This is because the initial TEFL certificate courses offer generic introductions to the field of ELT, after which teachers choose (or are steered into) one or more of the main branches of ELT. Teachers in state-funded ESOL classrooms are (until now) quite as likely as those in the private EFL schools to have come into the profession through a TEFL course. It is these certificate courses that I am particularly interested in, and so all are included in the study.

There is also one reference to 'disabilities and learning differences' and one to 'inclusion' and it is important here to clarify how these two concepts are related in the study. Inclusive education is not only about accommodating students who have disabilities or experience difficulties in learning, although it seems that in some contexts the two have become conflated. Booth, Nes and Strømstad define inclusion as being

*"about reducing barriers to learning and participation
for all learners. It is about reducing discrimination on the*

basis of gender, class, disability, sexual orientation, ethnicity and family background" (2003; p. 1-2).

In EFL, where the inherent diversity of many of these learner characteristics (as well as language background, nationality, religion, educational background and attainment, and motivation for learning) is expected and often utilised as a pedagogical tool in the classroom, disability is the last issue that needs to be addressed in the pursuit of creating a truly inclusive sector. This study therefore focuses on how English language teachers are prepared to work with students who have disabilities or experience difficulties in learning, as a means to achieving full inclusion in ELT.

1.3 PARAMETERS OF THE STUDY

In a research project of this modest scale it is important to define the boundaries clearly from the outset. This study is concerned with the initial training and education of British teachers of English whose learners are adults, have a different first language, and who are learning in the UK. It particularly focuses on the TEFL certificate courses, but also considers other routes into ELT. It is *not* concerned with the teaching of other modern foreign languages (MFL), ELT in other countries, or English to young learners or those for whom it is a first language, except where it is useful to compare practice or trace the origins of ideas. This research examines how well the certificate courses prepare new teachers to work with disabled learners, but it does not set out to recommend suitable strategies for the language classroom; it does not in that sense have a pedagogical function.

In this section the main areas of interest are described and the key concepts identified. There are inevitably many acronyms commonly used in

these fields of education, and these are explained in full here. Throughout the thesis, these abbreviations are used, but a full glossary is provided in Appendix D, which the reader may find useful for reference.

1.3.1 The English language

The English language is arguably one of the greatest economic assets available to Britain. The British Council (the national body responsible for overseeing many aspects of British cultural life, which plays a significant role in promoting English language learning around the world) estimates that more than 700,000 people visit the UK each year in order to learn English (British Council, 2006), which has an enormous impact on the economy. In 1998 it was estimated that these language learners spent between £700 million and £1 billion during their time in Britain (DfEE, 1998). Conversely, it has been estimated that at least 1 million people living in the UK “*lack the English language skills required to function in society and employment*” (Schellekens, 2001) the implication being that they are thereby increasing dependency on the state and draining the national resources.

The 20th century saw English expand as a global language on an unprecedented scale, helped no doubt by the expansion of electronic communication systems developed in English speaking countries. English is spoken as a first language only by approximately 375 million people, far fewer than the 867 million who have Mandarin Chinese as a first language (Gordon, 2005). However, about three times as many speak English as an additional language, and it has official or special status in at least 75 countries, making it the most widely used language on the planet (British Council, 2006).

The English language is accordingly taught in many diverse situations around the world, as part of compulsory education systems, in private schools catering for all ages, and in informal settings. One often-used classification of ELT situations is Holliday's BANA/TESEP dichotomy (Holliday, 1994), which draws a useful distinction between countries where English is used as first language (L1) and taught extensively as a second or foreign language, Britain, Australasia and North America, and those where it is taught as a foreign language in Tertiary, Secondary and Primary school systems. Although the model has limitations, not least in that it naively sees ELT practitioners in either BANA or TESEP countries as homogenous groups, a useful feature in this dichotomy is the power differential. Holliday contends that the highly developed and wealthy BANA countries take the lead in developing new methodologies and prescribing how English should be taught, without always adequately taking into account local conditions, needs or aims in the TESEP countries, many of which are less wealthy. Where the terms are used in this thesis it is to signify this type of relationship.

In the UK it is common to differentiate between teaching English as a first language, or L1 (the majority in this country) and teaching English to those who have a different first language. It is only the latter type of teaching that is of concern in this study, and specifically, the teaching of English to adult learners. This may be sub-classified as EFL, ESOL or English for a specific purpose (ESP) such as for academic purposes (EAP) or for business (BE). In this study other branches of ELT that cater mainly for children (English for young learners in an EFL context: EYL and English as an additional language in a school context: EAL) are not of direct interest, since

there are separate training routes for teachers who specialise in these areas. However, since it is often in the compulsory education system that policy developments originate, and lead to legislation that affects the whole sector (particularly in the area of education for disabled learners), children's education is not entirely discounted, particularly in the sections of Chapters 2 and 3 which chart the historical background to both areas of education.

1.3.2 English Language Teacher Education

For more than forty years EFL teachers, as well as many ESOL teachers, have been initiated into their chosen career through an intensive course lasting around four to six weeks and leading to an initial certificate in TEFL. The most widely recognised are the certificates accredited by Cambridge University (usually known as a 'CELTA') and Trinity College ('Cert TESOL'). These certificate courses focus largely on practical classroom experience, while trying to ensure that the novice teachers have a basic understanding of how English works, and where they can find more information about particular aspects of the language as and when they need it. The courses are described in more detail in Chapter 2, but here it is important to clarify some of the terminology commonly used.

Generally in EFL, as in other areas of education, it is usual to talk about 'training' new teachers, although the term 'teacher education' is also used for some specific courses. The distinction between what might be involved in training or education is a matter for ongoing debate; the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL) special interest group for people involved in this work is now known as the Teacher Trainers *and* Educators group ('TTEd SIG') in recognition of this unresolved

discussion. Pugsley attempts to clarify the distinction by pointing out that there are some aspects of being a teacher that can be taught through training (these tend to be more mechanical, and enable teachers to deal with predictable situations) and some qualities, those which “*allow the teacher to deal with deviation from the stereotype*” (1998, p.1) can only be developed through education. She argues that both are necessary for a teacher to work effectively with the diversity of the ELT classroom. For simplicity, I will normally use the term ‘training’ in this thesis, with the understanding that both training and education are equally important.

Woodward (1991) notes the potential for confusion in referring to the people involved in teaching and training, and suggests a model which she refers to as ‘*the stack*’ (p. 5), despite stressing its non-hierarchical nature. This makes a distinction between the roles played by individuals in the language classroom and in the training classroom, recognising that individuals adopt different roles at different times. Table 1/1 shows a summary of the model.

Location	Language classroom	Training classroom
Personnel		
Learners	Students or (language) learners	Trainees
Teachers	Teachers	Trainers

Table 1/1: Participants in English language teaching and learning situations (adapted from Woodward’s “Stack” (1991; p.5).

The certificate courses were originally intended as an introduction to teaching, to get more teachers into the classroom quickly at a time when demand was high. Teachers are expected to pursue professional

development, although there is some doubt that all have the opportunity to access the training they require (as will be shown in this thesis). The diploma courses (the most common of which are the Trinity College 'Dip TESOL' and the Cambridge University 'DELTA') were designed as a natural next step, and would confer 'TEFL-qualified status' on a teacher who had worked for two years in the classroom and then undertaken the course, usually part-time over nine months while working full-time. (There are also intensive three-month diploma courses, but it seems to be a less commonly taken route, perhaps because of the financial implications). Nowadays, it is quite common for EFL practitioners to take a Master's degree in an appropriate area instead of, or as well as, a diploma, but not all of these confer full TEFL qualification on the holders.

There are other routes into ELT, of course, as some of the respondents in this study show, such as transferring from MFL or English teaching in the compulsory education sector. Since the 'colonisation' of ELT by the Basic Skills sector (see Chapter 2, section 2.3.1), some teachers have transferred from literacy teaching to ESOL. It is not only the classrooms that are extremely heterogeneous in ELT, but the staff-rooms, too. The new regulations for ESOL teachers in the Further Education (FE) sector have resulted in new qualifications for ELT practitioners, which are based on a Certificate in Education (Cert. Ed) or Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE), which the two main accrediting bodies have not been slow to market. Unfortunately, from the point of view of clarity, Trinity College have named their new qualification 'Cert. ESOL'; wherever this is likely to be confused with

the 'Cert. TESOL' (Trinity's 'legacy' qualification) the distinction will be indicated.

1.3.3 Inclusive Education

The drive towards a more inclusive education system "*is concerned with minimising all barriers to learning and participation, whoever experiences them and wherever they are located within the cultures, policies and practices of a school*" (Booth et al, 2000). This is the proclaimed agenda of the current government in the UK, as well as many other governments around the world. There are of course different interpretations of what this means in practice, and as has been intimated earlier, it is often bound up with the notion of 'integration' of disabled learners in 'mainstream' educational settings; this notion does not readily apply to ELT, since it is not itself always a 'mainstream' activity. Chapter 3, section 3.3.3, explores this terminology in more depth, but at this point it is sufficient to state that the underlying premise of this study is that education *ought to be* based on inclusiveness as the dominant paradigm. Chapter 2 will seek to demonstrate that EFL practice "*starts from an assumption of difference in groups of learners and involves a pedagogy for diversity*" (Booth, 2000; 88), and therefore is inherently inclusive in its approaches and methodologies. Barton (2003) reminds us that making our education system more inclusive is not an end in itself, and nor, for most people, is learning, or teaching, a foreign language. Both are a means of promoting better understanding between different sections of the local and global population, and ultimately to build an inclusive society. How we go about these tasks will surely have a significant effect on the kind of society we live in.

1.3.4 Conventions of language usage

Throughout this thesis I have endeavoured to express my ideas as clearly as possible; where I have failed in this, I can only apologise. Wherever possible I have used non-gendered language, and only used the personal pronouns *he* and *she* (or *his / her*) where I knew the gender of the person being referred to, for example, when presenting a direct quote from one of the respondents. I have also used the first person pronoun *I* where appropriate to signify my ownership of beliefs or opinions; I do not believe that this detracts from the objectivity of the study itself, but is an acknowledgement that all research is interpreted more or less subjectively by the individuals who conduct it. Where I have used the pronoun *we* it is to signify my membership of the group under consideration, namely, ELT professionals. In this section I have tried to set out and define the terms most often used throughout the thesis, but where direct quotes from other people deviate from these conventions, I have indicated that and sought as far as possible to clarify their intended meaning.

1.4 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

After this introductory chapter, which has outlined the motivation for the research and set up some necessary parameters, this thesis continues with an overview of the 'landscape' of English Language Teaching in the UK in Chapter 2. This is intended to provide background in terms of the history and structure of the field, how the systems that operate today have developed, and how they are changing. Chapter 3 explores the concept of 'inclusion' in British education, and the impact it has on the ELT community. The comparison of discourses relating to inclusion in the 'mainstream' and EFL is made here. In

both Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 the fields of education under discussion are traced back to their origins in a bid to understand how they have developed and where the dominant ideas have come from. This is important if we are to make sense of the present, and make informed decisions for the future development of education in this country (Armstrong et al, 2000).

In the fourth chapter I detail and justify the methods I used in gathering and analysing the data that have informed this work and helped to answer my main questions. The research questions outlined in section 1.2 above are further refined, in order to facilitate the analysis of the data. The four chapters following this contain the results that were obtained through these methods, starting with the demographic profile of the informants in this study, which is detailed in Chapter 5. Chapters 6, 7 and 8 each tackle one of the main research questions and draw on the data gathered during the study to construct answers for these questions. Finally, the thesis concludes in Chapter 9 with a discussion of how these findings could be interpreted and their relevance for ELT practitioners, in terms of teaching and training procedures. Here I will argue that EFL practitioners are well placed to push forward the inclusion agenda, located as we are within a context which already values diversity, with a learner-centred ethos that promotes acceptance of differing backgrounds and needs. The final steps of the journey still need to be taken, however, which would entail EFL teachers pursuing a better understanding of the barriers to learning and participation that some of our students may face.

CHAPTER 2: THE DEVELOPMENT AND STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT) IN THE UK

2.0 INTRODUCTION TO ELT IN THE UK

The main aim of this chapter is to provide the context for the research carried out in the study, by giving a detailed description of the field of ELT. It is important to describe the environment in which the participants work, and the tensions and challenges they encounter, in order to fully understand their contributions to this research. The current structure of ELT in the UK will be described in this chapter: the systems that are in place will be outlined, with particular focus on the initial and in-service training and education that teachers undertake. ELT will be defined in terms of the distinguishing characteristics of the interactions between learners and teachers, as well as the theories and concerns that inform the methods and materials commonly used. In order to ascertain what the concerns of the classroom practitioners who participated in this study really are, I have drawn not only on 'academic' sources (which in reality are accessed by relatively few teachers) but also on the journals and newsletters of some of the relevant professional organisations: the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATFEL), the National Association of Teachers of English and other Community Languages (NATECLA) and the National Institute of Adult and Continuing Education (NIACE).

It will be shown that the particular development path that ELT followed in this country, being relatively unfettered by governmental (or, some might say, any) control, led to ELT developing in somewhat diverse directions. On one hand it has fostered a distinctive ethos, which is characterised at the

classroom level by a learner-centred or humanistic approach to teaching. But on the other hand, the financial pressures that pertain – both in the private sector and publicly funded provision – sometimes result in decisions being more management- or business-led than pedagogically sound. Recently much has been made of the differences between the two branches of ELT known as ‘English as a Foreign Language’ (EFL) and ‘English for Speakers of Other Languages’ (ESOL), and these are documented in section 2.3. However, detailed examination of the literature from both of these ‘traditions’ reveal few substantial differences in respect of the teachers, the learners or the interactions between them. Both fields are so diverse that there are inevitably overlaps in most aspects, resulting in much greater similarity than practitioners who adhere to either tradition might realise (or acknowledge). Because of this, as the key characteristics of ELT in the UK are examined in section 2.3, EFL and ESOL will be considered together, once the subtle distinctions between them have been highlighted in section 2.3.1.

In the final part of the chapter, the main theme will be the changes that increasing government involvement has brought about in the structure of English language teaching in the UK. Whilst these changes have had some beneficial effects in addressing weaknesses and bringing some much needed direction to the sector, they have also resulted in confusion and even disillusionment among many practitioners. New legislation which primarily affects the state sector has also had a knock-on effect in some aspects of private provision, meaning that the whole field is in a state of transition, and the future of ELT is the subject of much debate.

However, I believe that before we can plan for the future, or even make sense of the present, it is important to understand the events that led to and shaped the current situation. Smith (2001) argues that this “*historical sense*”:

“enables new ideas to be evaluated in the light of former experience, and forgotten ideas to be made available as a continuing resource”. (Smith, 2001; 17)

To this end, the first sections of this chapter trace the development of ELT in the UK from the arrival of the first ‘ESOL’ learners over 400 years ago to the development of a multimillion pound EFL industry in the late 20th century. This will not constitute a comprehensive or exhaustive account of the history of the field, but rather will highlight the most significant developments in ELT methodologies, ideas, and systems in the field, which have contributed to the characteristic nature of English language teaching and teacher education. As well as providing a background to the current climate, this will enable links to be made with the development of other fields of education, notably provision for learners with disabilities, which is the focus of Chapter 3.

2.1 THE ORIGINS OF ELT IN THE UK (circa 1550 – circa 1950)

The English language as we speak it today is only about 500 years old (Baugh & Cable, 1978) but English language teaching as a profession began almost as soon as the modern national language had secured its place as such (at the expense of the other indigenous languages, and French and Latin) about 450 hundred years ago. Over the centuries, the characteristics of the learners, teachers and methods employed have of course changed and developed, but what is interesting to note is the cyclical nature of the process, as this section will begin to indicate.

2.1.1 The Birth of ELT

The first records of English being learnt as a foreign language appear at the end of the 15th century. Hitherto, international communication had been conducted in French, and before that in Latin, but with the rise of English as the national language, French was becoming less commonly used in England (Baugh & Cable, 1978). The first learners of English as a foreign language were probably merchants from neighbouring northern European countries, who needed to communicate for business purposes. No formalised grammar of English was available at this point, since it was still a comparatively young language in terms of national recognition and educational status, and so the first materials consisted of 'double manuals' containing phrases in French and English, as well as polyglot dictionaries and phrasebooks (Howatt, 1984).

Towards the end of the 16th century evidence appears of much more systematic attempts at teaching the language. The influx of Huguenot and Flemish refugees seeking asylum from religious persecution was the catalyst for the emergence of a fledgling ELT 'industry'. In the 1560s the number of refugees was estimated to equal about 10% of the total population and must have seemed like a huge burden on the infrastructure of the day (Howatt, 1984). Many were skilled workers and traders, and were welcomed by Queen Elizabeth I and her government, although they did not receive such a warm welcome from their fellow workers (Khanna et al, 1998); the parallels with the situation in our own century are striking. The government, apart from allowing them the right to refuge in England, did nothing to help them settle into their new homes; there was no welfare system as there is today, and formal education was the preserve of the wealthy. Under these circumstances, the refugees pooled their resources and helped each other. Their teachers were

often fellow refugees, who were bilingual and made a living by teaching French to the English aristocracy, so that the roots of ELT could be said to have been in a largely charitable or benevolent movement. (That is not to say, of course, that the potential economic advantages for teachers, publishers – and ultimately the government - were not recognised and exploited.) One notable teacher at this time was Jacques Bellot who developed teaching materials designed for the specific group he was working with. They were, in modern terms, bilingual situational textbooks, containing dialogues, sample letters and practical tips on commercial conventions. Grammar was not taught explicitly, but rather inductively, with the emphasis on the content, rather than the form. The phonological guides to pronunciation clearly had French speakers in mind, and in the preface to his 1586 “Familiar Dialogues” he wrote:

*“What sorrow is for them that be refugiate in a strange country,
when they cannot understand the language of that place in
which they be exiled...”* (Bellot, 1586).

It may be fanciful to attribute to Bellot the origins of what we now call ‘learner-centred’ language teaching in this country, but it seems clear that his empathy for his learners’ personal situations influenced his work greatly, and this was certainly echoed in the work of his successors, as will be seen in later sections of this chapter. At the end of the 16th century many of the French refugees returned home to take advantage of the climate of comparative tolerance engendered by the 1598 Edict of Nantes. Those that did remain endeavoured for a while to retain their bilingual identities, by running French medium churches and schools, but the pressure to conform to a monolingual society

proved too great in the end, as modern day immigrants have inevitably found (Khanna et al, 1998).

Throughout the 17th century the teaching of English as a foreign language declined, although it continued to become more important as a first language in the education of the rising middle classes. The attention of grammarians and linguists was largely focussed on the teaching of Latin, and some interesting developments in methodology from this time should be noted, including the precursor of 'direct methods' of language learning in Joseph Webbe's "*Appeal to Truth*" (Webbe, 1622); this was later developed by Berlitz, an influential language teacher, whose story is recounted below. Despite this decline in ELT, 1633 saw the publication of Mason's "*Grammaire Angloise*". Although this was not the first attempt at describing English grammar for learners, it was significant in that it featured the present continuous tense as a distinct structure and thus signalled a recognition that English could not be described in terms of Latin grammatical rules, as had previously been the case (Howatt, 1984). At the end of the century, a new influx of refugees arrived, and some of these innovations were applied to ELT. Guy Miège, for example, took the field a step further in his "*Nouvelle Méthode pour apprendre l'Anglois*" (Miège, 1685) which was a practical textbook for French speakers, the first to include the past continuous tense.

Britain enjoyed a period of relative political stability during the 18th century, and it was thus possible for British dramatists, philosophers and other innovators to exert a great deal of influence in their relevant fields. Interest from their European neighbours in their work led to an increase in English language learning, first in Scandinavia and northern European countries, and

then Mediterranean and Baltic countries and as far afield as Russia, when the success of the British navy in the so-called 'New World' attracted the attention of Peter the Great. This period of prosperity and colonial expansion was arguably one of the main factors leading to the ultimate success of the English language and hence the development of the English language teaching industry.

2.1.2 A developing profession

The accepted manner of teaching languages throughout most of the 18th and 19th centuries was the grammar translation method, where the focus was on the form rather than on the meaning. In the 1870s, however, there was a revival of the natural methods used in earlier centuries, led by a teacher called Sauveur and based on a discourse model, without an overt analytical framework (Howatt, 1984). Other significant advances in the field of language teaching were made in the growing field of Modern Foreign Languages (MFL), which were adapted into ELT by various practitioners, for example, Berlitz: a name that is still well-known in the field of language teaching.

Maximilian Berlitz began his language teaching career in the 1870s, firmly entrenched in the grammar-translation methodology that prevailed at the time. In 1878, when he set up his own school in Providence, Rhode Island, USA, he took on a French assistant who spoke no English, and so the "*conversational approach*" that characterises the monolingual 'Berlitz method' was born by "*replacing rote learning with a discovery process that kept students active and interested*" (Berlitz web-site, 2006). Berlitz was extremely successful in expanding his business, and recruited young native speakers of various languages to be his teachers. They received little training, however,

and there was reported to be high turnover of staff at Berlitz schools (Howatt, 1984). Cynics might point to the modern day phenomenon of ‘backpack TEFLers’ and suggest that little has changed (see for example, Horne, 2003). Although the method has endured, over the years it has been criticised by some linguists for its lack of foundation on empirical findings, or linguistic principles.

Perhaps the most eminent of these critics was Harold Palmer, considered by many as the “*founding father of British ELT*” (Smith, 2001;17). He had begun his career as a teacher in a Berlitz school and apparently very much admired the method, but was driven to experiment and develop his own techniques of language teaching, always based on classroom experience. The Palmer method drew on the Berlitz method, but incorporated the use of the learners’ first language, too (Smith, 1999), thereby setting a precedent for today’s ESOL teachers, as will be seen at the end of this chapter, although for many years this was deemed to be undesirable. Palmer’s teaching career took him all over the world, but it was in pre-war Japan that he arguably made the greatest advances in combining applied linguistic research with intuitive teaching methods. He took the view that a “*multiple line of approach*” would be the most advantageous (Howatt, 1984) and has been credited with initiating the ‘eclectic approach’ (Smith, 1999) long before the term came into current use much later in the 20th century, as will be noted in section 2.2.1 of this chapter.

Many of Palmer’s ideas have become key concepts in British ELT, such as the importance of recognising the learners’ prior experience and language ability, and the exposure of beginners to suitably graded vocabulary. He was

also among the first to recognise the importance of having a professional body for teachers, and of opening channels of communication between professionals. The Institute for Research in English Teaching (IRET) in Tokyo survives to this day, although attempts to emulate it in the UK have proved to be less successful. One idea that was successfully transplanted was the establishment of a publication for the dissemination of academic and professional research findings. The *ELT Journal*, based on the IRET bulletin was founded by Palmer's colleague Hornby and remains one of the most respected journals in the field.

This section has traced the sound foundations in applied linguistic research laid by Palmer, Hornby and their contemporaries, upon which the modern international ELT profession has been built. Unfortunately, perhaps because of their 'overseas' teaching contexts, and the monolingual attitudes of the time, most of the research focussed on what was (and is still usually) known as learning and teaching EFL, and thus can seem to exclude and be irrelevant to ESOL learners and teachers. However, the basic principles that underpin the language teaching work done at this time could be equally well applied to the British ESOL context.

Throughout the 20th century there have been constant waves of immigration of different groups into Britain. In the 1930s, Eastern Europeans, particularly Jews, fled here to escape the impending war, and many settled. Although the government of the day recognised their need to learn English and set up language classes for them in urban centres, largely run by volunteers, their experiences were not dissimilar to the Huguenot refugees

350 years earlier; it was assumed that once they had learnt English, they would simply integrate into the host society. In order to resist this ethnocentric policy of assimilation, they relied on their own community to run classes to try to preserve their linguistic and cultural identity (Khanna, 1998). It was only really in the post-war period, when Britain received a much more diverse range of immigrants, that attitudes began to change towards the maintenance of first languages alongside the teaching of English, as will be shown in the next section.

2.2 ELT IN POST-WAR BRITAIN (1950 – 2000)

Although the position of Britain as an economic power in the world declined after the Second World War, the position of English as a global language became even stronger. Indeed, some would argue that it has become the main instrument of colonisation by the BANA countries (see for example Phillipson, 1992). Since the 1950s, various groups of people have come to Britain to learn English (EFL), and some to settle here (and learn ESOL). There are many factors that determine who the learners are and where they choose to study, not least their ability to pay, or to attract sponsorship from their employers or governments. In the post-war context it becomes appropriate to distinguish between the strands of ELT provision known as EFL and ESL ('English as a Second Language' – now known as 'ESOL', as will be explained below in section 2.2.2).

EFL grew steadily in the latter half of the 20th century, catering for learners who wanted to learn English in the context of modern Britain, usually through short (or sometimes extended) study visits for which they were required to pay. ESL classes were provided for those who intended to live in

the UK, for however long or short a period of time, and were generally government-funded. This section will chart the separate development of both strands in the second half of the 20th century.

2.2.1 EFL: ‘English as a Foreign Language’

Throughout the second half of the 20th century, recruitment of EFL (and ESL) learners was dependent on international economic and political trends. For example, the South East Asian economic boom in the 1980s meant that large numbers of Malaysian and Japanese students were enrolled in private British language schools, but following the recession in the 1990s, many fewer were recruited. Chinese learners predominated in the 1990s, and students from newly affluent middle-classes in countries such as India began to arrive in Britain as well. International political relations have also had an influence on who the learners in an EFL classroom were at any point in time; at the end of the 20th century, better relationships with Libya meant an increase in the number of Libyan students attending English classes in the UK, many with a view to accessing higher education in this country. English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has consequently become a growth area in both the private and the public sector.

In the post-war period, teachers continued to be recruited from among the graduates of English or Modern Foreign Languages, but few had any formal training in teaching. Handbooks for teachers who were working abroad appeared at this time, written by fellow teachers such as French (1949) whose essentially behaviourist approach was tempered with learner-centred advice to the teacher to remember that “*no two pupils are the same, but even the*

same pupil is a slightly different person from day to day" (French, 1949;19). Frisby's (1957) handbook took a more humanistic approach to teaching, alluding to the inductive learning of grammar, and suggesting that teachers should treat shyness and other "*emotional handicaps with sympathy*" (Frisby, 1957; 122).

In the early 1960s some universities began running Post-Graduate Certificates in Education (PGCEs) in ELT, and graduates of those courses gained a theoretical grounding in language teaching, but without developing classroom skills (Duff, 1988). In 1962 John Haycraft, desperate for more effective EFL teachers for his school ('International House' – now one of the largest international groups of language schools) set up the first intensive training course, based on the models of training that he had observed in industry, where "*the urgency...and the objectives were evident*" (Haycraft, 1988; 2). He aimed to give his trainees "*as much practical grounding and exposure to the classroom as possible*" (ibid; 4), thus establishing a model of 4-week intensive courses which is still the norm today, 44 years on.

In 1978 the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) adopted the International House Certificate syllabus in order to run initial EFL training courses in centres around the country, providing easy access to the profession for more potential teachers. The initial certificate was always seen as an introduction, with the intention being that after a couple of years of classroom experience (usually abroad), teachers would go on to do some further study and become fully qualified. In 1988 the University of Cambridge Language Examination Syndicate (UCLES, now Cambridge ESOL) took over administration of the certificate and developed the diploma qualification for experienced teachers.

This is the model of career progression that many EFL teachers still follow (see section 2.3.3 below).

In terms of methodology, the second half of the 20th century saw a whole range of approaches appear and go out of vogue, many of them being re-inventions of earlier techniques. Better communications and the global nature of the burgeoning EFL industry meant that international trends were more important, especially research coming out of America and Europe. The emphasis on structural accuracy in the 1960s, which echoed the grammar-translation approach of the previous century, gave way in the 1970s to situational syllabuses (e.g. Wilkins, 1972) strongly reminiscent of the 16th century material for the Huguenot refugees, but using the monolingual approach typical of EFL methodology. There was also an increased focus on communication (e.g. Hymes, 1971) and the importance of competence in discourse strategies (Widdowson, 1973). There were some experiments with more radical approaches such as ‘the Silent Way’ (Gattegno, 1972) in which the teachers remain largely silent and use rods and charts to aid their teaching and ‘Suggestopedia’ (Lozanov, 1978) which utilised a wide range of sensory input such as music to accelerate learning. These techniques did not make as big an impact on the profession as other approaches, but exemplify the creativity and innovation of EFL professionals around the world. One approach that has had a strong influence on EFL practice is that of ‘Multiple Intelligences’ (Gardner, 1983), which appears to have struck a chord with many language teachers, resonating perhaps with the view of learners as unique individuals that is promoted in teacher education programmes (see section 7.1 below).

The dominant method which emerged in the 1980s was Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which prioritises the presentation of authentic language to learners, in realistic settings, and places the emphasis on learner participation in the classroom, in which the teacher is a facilitator rather than having a didactic role. This chimed well with the increasing (and enduring) interest in humanistic education (e.g. Stevick, 1982; Brumfit, 1982) that emphasises the necessity of the personal engagement of students as autonomous learners.

With all these different methods in use, not to mention the range of new media that are available to language teachers (from language labs through on-line resources to interactive whiteboards), it is little wonder that calls for methodological eclecticism abound. In fact, as early as 1973 Candlin was calling for teachers to choose the methods that suited the situation, rather than slavishly follow the fashion of the day. His call has been backed by many in the intervening decades, including Hubbard et al (1983) who stressed that a sound theoretical grounding was necessary for teachers to make an informed choice, and Woodward (1992) who believes that an eclectic approach to teacher education is more likely to produce imaginative teachers than an insistence on adherence to CLT, or any other approach.

The developments in EFL described here did not happen entirely independently of the ESL field in the UK, although it is probably true to say that EFL practitioners have, by the nature of their work, associated themselves more closely with the world-wide community of EFL teachers than with their ESL counterparts in the BANA countries. Indeed, as long ago as

1987 there were calls for closer ties with MFL and ESL practitioners in the UK, to counteract the “*tendencies towards isolationism and arrogance*” in EFL (Brumfit, cited in Walker and Thomas, 1987; p.34). In the next section, the parallel development of ESL in the post war period will be traced, highlighting the main similarities and differences between the two strands in terms of teachers’ career structure and conditions of work.

2.2.2 ESL: ‘English as a Second Language’

In the immediate post-war period, members of the commonwealth were ‘invited’ to come to Britain to fill gaps in the labour market, then as now, generally in the low-skilled and low-paid sector. The majority of these workers, who may not have intended to settle permanently, came from South Asian and Afro-Caribbean communities and spoke little English (Windsor & Healey, 2006). Throughout the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s, refugees from wars and natural disasters around the world followed, including Vietnamese, Ugandan Asians, Eritreans, Rwandans, Bosnians and Serbs, and Kurds. Many of them chose to settle in Britain, at least temporarily, and the demand for appropriate language support led to a great degree of diversity of provision in the field, due to an apparent shortage of well-qualified teachers.

At first, there was little in the way of language education provision and this was often either inappropriate to the needs of the new arrivals, or poorly advertised, with the result that the target group did not access it (Khanna et al, 1998). Nicholls (1985) notes that it was expected that the men would acquire English at work, and the children at school. For the women who stayed at home it was anticipated that within a year or so, with a minimum amount of assistance, they would also pick up the language. This assistance was in the

form of very functionally-based classes designed to facilitate day-to-day interaction with their neighbours and local shopkeepers. This was the first response to the growing demand for ESL, which Rosenberg and Hallgarten note was made from the “*most impoverished sector [of education] – adult education – and the voluntary sector*” (1985, p. 131). It seems likely that this limited provision would have served to reinforce and maintain the stereotypical gender roles of the time, keeping women in the home and effectively denying them the potential option of employment in the wider world.

Some of the teachers involved in ESL in the 1960s and 1970s (as is still the case now) had come through the ‘EFL route’, and, having taught abroad, were returning home to look for work in schools and colleges (Wiles, 1985). Others were volunteers (among them Ruth Hayman, who was extremely influential in the development of ESL), prompted by the inadequacy of the Local Education Authority (LEA) provision, to start the ‘Neighbourhood English Classes’ programme in a bid to provide more appropriate tuition to the people who needed it most. They were well-meaning, some were qualified and experienced teachers, and they acted as counsellors and social workers as well as teachers (a role that has not disappeared from today’s ESOL classroom: Grover, 2006; § 49) but the provision was still ad hoc and based on a ‘deficit model’ that did not fully recognise the value of the students’ first language and life experience (Khanna et al, 1998). It became clear that the scale of need had been vastly underestimated, and more structured provision was required. 1974 saw the foundation of the Industrial Language Training Unit (ILTU), funded by the Manpower Services Commission to run courses in functional English for workplace communication (Brooks & Roberts, 1985).

This had a degree of success, and marked the beginning of an increase in the number of what were then called “*linked skill courses*” (Nicholls, 1985; p105) and are now generally called “*embedded skills*” (Rosenberg, 2005; 43), or in EFL terms: English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

In 1975 the RSA launched the ‘Certificate in Teaching English to Adult Immigrants’, which in 1981 became an initial ‘Certificate in TESLA’ and a more advanced ‘Diploma in TESL in Further, Adult and Community Education’ (Nicholls, 1985). The syllabus was redesigned to reflect the more integrative, multicultural approach that was slowly replacing the assimilationist attitudes of the 1960s and 70s. Davies (1985) and Wiles (1985) note this change in attitude amongst teachers in schools where many ordinary classroom teachers (i.e. not specialist language support teachers) began to take responsibility for the language development of the children from minority ethnic backgrounds in their classes, reducing the amount of segregated language support given. This represented a significant shift in attitude from seeing the ‘lack’ of English as a deficit to valuing the benefits of multilingualism and multiculturalism.

By the late 1970s there was a growing feeling that EFL materials and methods were not necessarily the most suitable for ESL work, since they seemed to assume a shared culture and educational background. Furthermore, they were aimed at people who would visit an English speaking country for a short time, or have business interactions with international partners; they did not position the learner as a resident of an English speaking country, fully involved in the economic, political and social life of the country (Rosenberg & Hallgarten, 1985). A movement to develop new materials was

led by the National Extension College and the newly-formed National Association for Teaching English as a Second Language to Adults (NATESLA – later NATECLA: National Association for Teaching English and other Community Languages to Adults). The BBC also became involved in ESL teaching, with their 1978 landmark television programme “*Parossi*” aimed at Asian women (Nicholls, 1985). This was accompanied by bilingual material that took ESL right back to its roots, emulating the bilingual texts of the Huguenot refugees (Rosenberg, 2005). Despite these developments, or perhaps partly because of them, the survey of provision conducted in 1979 by the Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education found the tuition (provided in FE colleges, ILTUs, Adult Education Centres, learners’ homes and voluntary organisations) to be “*patchy and uncoordinated*” and suffering from a lack of communication between the various providers (ACACE, 1979; 6).

Towards the end of the 20th century the term ESL was replaced by ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) which signalled a formal recognition that many of the learners were already multilingual and that their experience and knowledge could be brought into the English language classroom. This attitudinal shift, reflected in the dominant discourse and leading to a different approach in teaching, echoes developments in the education of students with disabilities, which will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

This, then, was how ELT in modern Britain developed, as a response to different economic, social and political forces. The change in terminology

heralded the beginning of a new era in ESOL in the UK, in which the government has become much more involved. This has brought a fresh impetus into the field, along with better funding, but also much more regulation and accountability which has had mixed reception from practitioners, as will be shown in the following section. The extent to which funding sources affected (and continues to affect) teaching and learning will be discussed below, since the greatest differences between the two strands appear to lie now not in the needs of the learners or in the methods used in the classroom, but in the funding mechanisms that pertain to the different contexts in which English is taught.

2.3 THE 21ST CENTURY

Current (New Labour) government policies on education have not always been self-consistent, but one main thread has been the avowed desire to 'raise standards' and 'widen participation' (see for example, Tight, 1998). The methods of achieving these aims have been largely mechanistic in terms of setting targets that are easily measurable and auditable, although many practitioners have doubts about the suitability of these managerial targets for services such as education (Schellekens, 2004; Sunderland & Wilkins, 2004) because the nature of language learning is such that no two individuals approach it in the same way. It is not simply a matter of acquiring a body of knowledge or a skill; it entails a process of constantly redefining one's worldview and expressing oneself in a new way.

It is therefore almost superfluous to state that adult ELT classrooms are particularly diverse, because of the nature of recruitment to the classes. This is true for ELT in non-English speaking countries, where many of the learners

will share a first language, but is particularly pronounced within the UK (or other 'BANA' countries) where classes cater for all-comers. Learners categorised as EFL students are more likely than learners in ESOL classes to be intending to stay in the UK for a finite time, but for both groups the range of previous learning experiences and personal goals is potentially infinite. The way that teachers respond to their learners' needs must also, therefore, be extremely flexible.

This section of the chapter aims to paint a picture of 21st century ELT in Britain, and for practical purposes will consider both branches together; where differences still pertain, especially in teacher education routes, these will be noted in the following subsections.

2.3.1 The ELT Communities

The oft-quoted observation that Britain and America are '*two countries separated by the same language*' (attributed by Cohen (2002) to George Bernard Shaw, 1942) could happily be adapted for the ELT communities in the UK. The perceived division is presumably based on historical differences, but the depth of mistrust (Delaney, 2006) between the two camps is hard to comprehend, especially since there has traditionally been a good deal of transference of personnel between the two. It is difficult to generalise about the stereotypical characteristics of the two factions, since both are so diverse (and include some common members). Nevertheless, the "*polarisation*" (ibid) is apparent to practitioners on either side of the divide, who seem to be eyeing each other with a mixture of self-satisfaction and envy.

The casual observer might note that ESOL classes in Britain are taught in state-funded contexts and EFL classes in private establishments and to

some extent this is true, but the situation is far more complex than that. Many FE colleges used to run EFL courses (for profit, generally leading to internationally recognised qualifications such as the IELTS exam – the International English Language Testing System) as well as ESOL courses as part of their adult basic education provision. Since government funding for adult education has been targeted on basic skills, and particularly on the ‘Skills for Life’ initiative launched in 2001, which includes ESOL, most FE colleges (but not all) have reclassified and re-focussed their EFL provision, so that all their ELT provision attracts ‘Skills for Life’ funding. Many EFL teachers (and learners) have thus found themselves redesignated as participants in ‘ESOL’ classes. In many cases, little else has changed – the materials, aims and methods remain the same, as will be discussed below. The National Institute for Adult and Continuing Education (NIACE) recognises that the distinctions between EFL and ESOL, traditionally based on a functional view of ESOL as a ‘basic skill’ “*are beginning to be eroded*” (Grover, 2006; §21), if indeed these distinctions were ever valid. The main accrediting bodies of EFL courses (Trinity College, London and Cambridge University) have – significantly – renamed their departments to reflect this trend (Trinity College TESOL and Cambridge ESOL respectively).

Since the surface differences have become less distinct, more deep-seated characteristics must be identified to account for the antipathy between EFL and ESOL professionals. It is difficult to avoid over-generalising, but broadly, the tone of the professional press catering for those practitioners who identify themselves as belonging to an ESOL tradition gives the impression that they feel they have the moral high ground, and points to their tradition of

promoting social justice and working with some of the most vulnerable members of society. The pressures on them to attain government targets each year, however, must lead some to wonder if their private sector colleagues are not better off, in terms of retaining autonomy and educational integrity.

Those who position themselves as EFL practitioners, on the other hand, seem to feel they have the academic or pedagogic high ground, since they have their long tradition of applied linguistics research to draw on and a tendency to have gained broad experience in several countries before returning to the UK. Many might suspect, however, that the state sector may offer more stability and aspire to a post in an HEI or FE college. Unfortunately, those who work in FE have found the last few years quite unsettling in a number of ways (Grover, 2006; *passim*), following the increase of governmental intervention in adult education.

One way of characterising the approach taken by the government to the existing structures and provision is to see it as a process of colonisation: a source of labour (and potentially, revenue) has been identified in the ELT community, which is to be harnessed for the national economy. The assertion that there is a shortage of well-qualified teachers, and the refusal to recognise the higher qualifications (TEFL Diplomas and Masters degrees) held by many senior members of staff, has been extremely de-motivating for personnel in the FE sector. The government, by designating its own courses as the only acceptable qualifications, seems to be seeking to gain control not only of what is known but also of how it is taught, as a means of furthering its own (instrumental) agenda. New systems of assessment and accreditation are imposed on the people, who are taught to use a new language, and they

comply, to an extent, because financially there is little alternative. However, the model used for other areas of adult education (Literacy and Numeracy) does not fit ELT well, with the result that under the surface, existing practice remains the same. Being governed by an ESOL curriculum does not alter the personal constructs of EFL practitioners, and in classrooms and staff-rooms across the country, EFL culture and ideology are maintained through the use of EFL discourse. Under these circumstances, then, it is easier to understand why colleagues who belong to the 'oppressed' culture (EFL) and those who belong to the 'colonial' culture (ESOL) view each other with mistrust.

A survey of the main journals and professional newsletters that serve the two groups soon reveals that they are more similar than they appear to realise. Practitioners of both strands of ELT are united in suffering – almost universally – from low self-esteem and lack of job security (Thornbury, 2001; Frame, 2004), while – paradoxically – simultaneously thriving on the potential for variety that teaching English brings. Diplock (2005b; p.14) notes that ESOL teachers on short-term contracts often feel exploited, while at the same time welcoming the freedom of not being tied into a permanent post; Lebedev remarks that “*the curse and the blessing of the EFL teaching profession seems to be its inevitable fluidity*” (2002; p.219). Where the two groups do differ, however, is in the main concerns and issues that dominate their discussions.

A useful way of identifying the main areas of concern in ELT is to examine the topics that are prevalent in papers given at the inter/national conferences and in the newsletters of the professional organisations. IATEFL members are encouraged to participate in the development of the profession

through membership of Special Interest Groups (SIGs). There are fourteen such groups, dedicated to the development of methodology for particular areas of ELT (e.g. teaching Young Learners; Pronunciation; English for Specific, Academic and/or Occupational Purposes; Learning Technologies; Business English; Literature Media & Cultural Studies; ESOL) and other matters, both pedagogical and administrative (e.g. Learner Independence; Research; Global Issues; Teacher Development; Teacher Trainers and Educators; Testing, Evaluation and Assessment; Management). Each of these SIGs has a dedicated 'thread' at the annual conference (the 40th annual conference this year attracted in the region of 1500 delegates from over 60 countries), and produce their own newsletters. These are not the only issues that are discussed, of course, but give an indication of some of the main areas of interest among IATEFL members:

The conference held by the National Association of Teachers of English and other Community Languages to Adults (NATECLA) is naturally smaller than its international EFL equivalent, although it is growing every year, and some of the main speakers are also familiar names on the EFL circuit – this year the keynote speech was given by Professor David Crystal, for example, who is the patron of IATEFL. Along with the pedagogically-oriented talks offering ideas for improving students' performance, there were several that pertained to the ESOL context in Britain, focussing on 'embedded learning', the inspections carried out by the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted), citizenship, the new teaching qualifications and the administrative burden of producing Individual Learning Plans (ILPs). These last two issues are perhaps the areas of greatest concern for many ESOL teachers at the moment, and

have so dominated the recent editions of NATECLA newsletters that there seems to be a real danger of pedagogical issues being neglected whilst the administrative details of the changing ESOL landscape are fine tuned. This perhaps also prevents a full-scale debate about the relationship between language proficiency and the criteria for applying for citizenship, which no doubt is convenient for the government. All applicants for British citizenship will have to demonstrate both a minimum level of language proficiency (this is most likely to be English but could in theory be Welsh or Scots Gaelic, or presumably British Sign Language) arbitrarily set at Entry Level 3 (just below Level 1 on the National Qualifications Framework), and some prescribed body of knowledge about life in the UK (Moon, 2004). That ESOL tutors are being co-opted into teaching the requirements of the citizenship test through language classes as part of the Skills for Life initiative is an issue that has gone largely unremarked.

While both EFL and ESOL teachers may feel that they are constantly struggling to balance pedagogical and financial interests, the main difference lies in the way that the two branches are funded. EFL in the private sector has always been run on a business basis: the learners pay for their tuition and this covers the teachers' wages, materials and the schools' other overheads. Inevitably, it is not the teachers who profit most from this arrangement, but the school owners; not the materials writers (unless the books are extremely successful) but the publishers who market them and sell them all around the world. In this system, there are bound to be tensions between pedagogical considerations and commercial constraints. Sometimes the two coincide, such as the practice of restricting class sizes to small groups (usually 12 or 15); this

is a useful marketing ploy, but also encourages group cohesion and allows more personal attention from the teacher to each of the learners. More often than not, however, teachers are expected to operate within tight budgets, and students who require extra support are rarely catered for, unless they are able to pay for it.

ESOL provision, on the other hand, is funded by the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) from the public purse, and thus has to show accountability, adhering to strict conditions laid down by the government. Some of these conditions are: that all learners will work towards the 'Skills for Life' (SfL) qualifications, and that they will show continual progress at a uniform rate preordained by the Department for Education and Employment (DfEE). There are a number of obvious tensions here; one problem is that the highest SfL qualification is accredited at Level 2, which for some ESOL learners is a long way below their actual level of English competence. Students are entered anyway, so as to boost college success rates and ensure that adequate funding is received for the following year, but there is scant benefit to the student who gains a qualification that is little-recognised in the UK and not at all elsewhere. The college resources are thus focussed on a narrower range of provision, excluding those learners at both ends of the scale who are assessed at pre-entry level or post-Level 2. This example shows just one source of tension that ESOL practitioners face in their teaching contexts, but it demonstrates the underlying problem of regulation imposed from above by a government department that does not appear to understand the non-linear nature of language learning, and shows little awareness of the complex issues

surrounding ESOL learners, whether they be newly arrived in the country or long-established settlers who wish to improve their language competence.

Adult language learners are individuals who, like everyone else, have their own motivations and learning styles, different degrees of ability, and personal lives outside of the classroom. Having acknowledged this, it would be useful to try to determine what certain groups have in common, if anything, and what the contexts are in which they are learning English; this is the aim of the next section.

2.3.2 ELT Learners

The EFL market

EFL is generally taught in private schools to fee-paying students. Some of these are part of national or even international companies (e.g. the Bell schools, International House schools) others are individual schools run by the owners, who are often teachers themselves (e.g. the English Country School, Winchcombe). They typically offer a range of general English classes at different levels, into which students are introduced as they arrive on a roll-on-roll-off basis. Some also offer specialist courses such as Business English or English for Academic Purposes, preparation for international exams, refresher courses for teachers (especially those who do not have English as a first language), or courses connected to British literature, history and culture.

Accreditation of private language establishments is organised through the English in Britain Accreditation Scheme run by the British Council and English UK; this scheme recognises 385 institutions, running 2,524 courses in the UK (British Council, 2006). There is a range of criteria that must be met in order for a school to gain the accreditation, covering management, resources,

teaching and learning and the pastoral care of students. There are many schools that do not meet the standards required and the phenomenon of the 'one-summer' school is well known within the profession. Accreditation is not compulsory, however, and if a school does not feel the need to validate itself in this way, no inspections will be carried out; small schools targeting a niche market may have a steady stream of clients and not need the British Council's backing to flourish. Although private language schools tend to cluster in areas that attract a lot of tourists (London, Oxford and Cambridge, Brighton and other towns along the south coast), they can be found almost anywhere; Lancaster, for example, has at least two organisations offering English language tuition to private overseas clients.

Patterns of EFL learner recruitment tend to follow the global economy, so that as a nation becomes more affluent, it becomes more common to find citizens of that country attending privately run language courses in the UK; as economies shrink, so do the numbers of EFL students. Traditionally, if learners in an EFL setting have wanted accreditation for their language ability, they have looked to the Cambridge University or Trinity boards for internationally recognised qualifications at a range of levels. Entry to British universities, for example, is generally on condition of a suitable IELTS (or Test of English as a Foreign Language – TOEFL) score. EAP (and preparation for the IELTS exam) is a growth area within ELT, which is usually associated with EFL and taught to fee-paying students in HE institutions or FE colleges.

ESOL Learners

ESOL learners have much in common with EFL students, in terms of their desire and motivations for learning the language; a knowledge of English

is widely seen as a passport to a better job and standard of living across the world, and not just in the BANA countries (Gimenez, 2001). Since the end of the Second World War, as described above, workers have been encouraged to come to support the growing British economy, notably members of the Commonwealth from the Caribbean and South Asia, and today's ESOL classroom is indeed a "*complex and varied environment*" (Roberts et al, 2004).

In theory, adults taking part in classes designated as ESOL in the UK may belong to one (or more) of the four main groups that were identified in the government report 'Breaking the Language Barriers' (DfES, 2000). These groups are: newly arrived refugees and asylum seekers, members of already settled communities, migrant workers, and the partners of overseas students. In practice they may also be students, or prospective students, or prospective workers ('migrant' or not). Grouping learners like this, however, masks the complexity of individuality that is part of the human condition, and which all ELT classes have to accommodate. The learners may be extremely focussed on reaching a particular goal, or achieving a particular qualification, but the social aspect of learning in a group may be equally, or even more, important for them. The learners may have a high level of education from their home countries, or the ESOL class may be the first opportunity they have had for formal education. English may be their second language or their fourth or fifth language, indeed, as Windsor and Healey remark: "*the range of learners is almost infinite in terms of their cultural backgrounds, first languages, religions and experience of the world*" (2006; p.1). ESOL classes may be held in an FE college, an HEI, an adult education centre, a community centre, a custodial

setting, in the learners' workplace or in their homes, and are subject to inspection by either Ofsted or the Adult Learning Inspectorate (ALI).

For funding purposes a stereotypical image of ESOL learners has evolved: people who fit into one of the groups mentioned above, who perhaps have little education in their own languages, who are traumatised by their experiences before reaching the UK and thus are languishing helplessly until they can be given enough English to survive and, incidentally, become economically active. There may well be some learners whom this description fits, but it is by no means the majority. Many learners enrol on English classes many years after they have arrived in the UK, or sometimes only after much persuasion. Although they may not be employed at the level which their previous education indicated, as Brooks and Roberts (1985; 124) point out, they have certainly '*survived linguistically*', perhaps by using informal support networks and other life skills that, as resourceful adults, they have developed.

Until 2001, ESOL learners' achievements were recognised through vocationally oriented qualifications, or accreditation from institutions such as Pitman's or the English Speaking Board, which were recognised within the British educational system, or simply by in-house certificates issued by the colleges themselves. The Skills for Life qualifications came into being partly to provide a system of accreditation within the NQF that would ensure parity and to increase accountability. Increasingly, however, there is a demand for the internationally recognised certificates commonly available to EFL learners (especially IELTS or TOEFL), from migrant workers who want to use their skills within British institutions such as the National Health Service, or who eventually intend to return to their home countries. Refugees who would like to

progress to university, and whose educational background is such that language ability is the only barrier, also require IELTS/TOEFL accreditation. This has presented some dilemmas for ESOL providers, who are encouraged by the allocation of funding to demonstrate learners' achievement in terms of the Skills for Life qualifications (Entry Level 1 to Level 2 on the NQF) and who cannot draw down funding for courses leading to other qualifications. Some of the areas of concern that ELT professionals have with the Skills for Life initiatives will be discussed in more detail below, but now it would be timely to consider who these teachers are and how they are positioned within the field.

2.3.3 ELT teachers and trainers, and their career structures

It is still the case that many teachers enter ELT through the short, intensive courses (leading to the TEFL certificate accredited at Level 4 of the NQF) which gives them 'TEFL initiated' status. It is also possible to follow a part-time course over an academic year leading to the same accreditation. With this qualification they then typically find work in the private sector in the UK or abroad, which O'Donoghue (2001) suggests was the original and is still the main purpose of the certificate. The aims of this qualification have remained essentially the same since Haycraft's first course in the 1960s – they are practical courses designed to get new teachers into post quickly and cheaply (Horne, 2003). Hobbs (2006) notes that apart from the published aims of equipping new teachers with "*the basic skills and knowledge needed to take up a first post as an ESOL teacher*" and a "*firm foundation for self-evaluation and further professional development*" (Trinity College, 2004; p.6) there are clear unwritten aims of helping new teachers survive for the first few years, largely by increasing self-confidence; Iger (2005), among others, notes that

positive self-esteem is a key factor in teaching well, and certainly must be advantageous in coping with the notorious instability of the typical career in ELT, often characterised as 'flexible' and 'fluid' (Beetham, 2006).

The validity of these short courses has recently been questioned, for example by Ferguson and Donno (2003) who argue that the global education climate has changed since the introduction of the short course, and that it is time for a rethink of this model of teacher training, particularly in light of the movement to give ELT a more 'professional' image, and to move away from the "*recruitment of unqualified native speaker backpackers*" (Thornbury, 2001, p.393). However, they remain a popular route into ELT, and some providers have incorporated them into the new qualifications introduced in the 'Skills for Life' initiative described in section 2.3.4. Other routes into ELT include a PGCE, perhaps with an EAL component, from which teachers may move into adult education. Alternatively, teachers may come through the adult education route, with (for example) City and Guild qualifications in teaching Basic Skills. Indeed, the demand for ESOL teachers has grown so rapidly in the state sector in the last few years that many teachers of adult literacy have been brought into ESOL classes, despite the inherent differences in the subjects and the pedagogical approaches necessary. The typical profile of new recruits to ELT is also being affected by increasing numbers of mature applicants who have retired (or been made redundant from) their previous careers and see ELT as an opportunity to try something new, to travel, or to fund their retirements in warmer climates. These new teachers often bring with them expertise in another field, such as business, which can be very advantageous. The drawback can be that their ideas about what it means to be a teacher

may have been formed through a more formal educational context than that which the younger applicants experienced at school, and these preconceptions in some cases may not fit in easily with the learner-centred ethos of the ELT classroom.

One basic tenet of the initial certificate courses is that they are just a starting point in a teaching career, and that support from colleagues and continuing professional development will be essential for the newly qualified teacher (MacPherson, 2003). However, almost twenty years ago Rossner reported that in-service training was “*likely to vary dramatically from system to system and from institution to institution*” (1988; p.103) and there is still reason to doubt that most newly qualified teachers receive the support they need. For example, Norris and Ottaway (2002) found that new teachers in the first year of their careers cited their greatest CPD need as ‘finding different approaches to teaching and learning’. This was true of teachers in their second and third years, too, and remained in the top 5 for all teachers who had not taken a further qualification, suggesting that although training needs may be identified, they are not always met. Skinner (2002) goes so far as to argue that there is a pressing need to prepare new teachers for the lack of support they may experience after leaving the relative security of the training programme. This is especially true if they seek work abroad where, as ‘native-speaker’ teachers, they may be seen as candidates for rapid promotion to roles of responsibility beyond their training, and sometimes expertise. The relative status and self-esteem issues of ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speaker English teachers is well-documented (see for example Suarez (2000) and Carrier (2003)) but a detailed rehearsal of the issues is not relevant to this study, since the focus is

on the training of teachers in the UK, the vast majority of whom (but not all) have English as a first language.

After a couple of years of classroom experience, novice teachers are eligible to apply for a more advanced course of study, usually leading to a Diploma or a Master's degree (both of which are accredited at Level 5 of the NQF), which bestows 'TEFL qualified' status. This usually allows them to take up more responsible posts (Director of Studies, Curriculum Manager, Teacher Educator and so on), if as noted above, they have not already been working in these capacities. However, the number of teachers who actually see ELT as a "*long term profession rather than a 3-year experience*" (Horne 2003; p.395) and seek further qualifications seems to be very small, perhaps due to the perceived lack of job security and career structure in ELT (Beaven, 2005).

Ferguson and Donno (2003) quote Roberts' 1998 figure of 10% of teachers who had taken a certificate going on to do a diploma, with the vast majority either leaving the profession or carrying on without any further professional development. There are several possible reasons for this. The first might be the overwhelming preference that ELT practitioners express for experiential learning, and a deep-rooted belief within the profession that practical classroom experience is more valuable than formal, theoretical learning. As Horne puts it: "*the eclectic teacher is formed by experience and exposure and no amount of ...training is going to substitute for hands-on experience*" (2003; p.396). This may deter teachers from going back into the training classroom, believing that time away from 'the chalkface' is time wasted. Another reason that so few teachers enrol on further training courses might be that the limited range of career paths that exist in ELT do not always

demand formal training to follow them. Woodward noted in 1992 that many teacher trainers then did not receive any real training for the role they perform, but simply “*drift[ed] into it, or [were] invited in, or barge[d] our way in*” (1992; p.5). Today, the situation is much the same, as Beaven (2004) notes in her call for more formal preparation courses to be set up for new trainers, rather than allowing it to continue to be an ad hoc, unregulated process. Alternatively, it may be that the lack of a clear career path with associated incremental benefits discourages, or prevents, the investment of the time and money necessary to gain further qualifications. For example, teachers returning to the UK may find seasonal work in the large private sector and increasingly in the state sector, in HE Institutions, FE colleges and adult education centres, but without security. Diplock (2005b; p.14) notes that “*ESOL has a long tradition of employing sessional staff on short term contracts*” and the same certainly holds true for EFL teaching situations, where market forces are always a major factor in determining staffing levels.

At the same time, there are apparently shortages of ESOL teachers in some areas of the UK, leading to long waiting lists of would-be learners. The problem appears to be that it is not known how many English language teachers there are in the UK, nor is it possible to predict with much accuracy how many learners of ESOL might want to access classes in the next few years. One of the key recommendations of the interim report of the NIACE Committee of Inquiry into ESOL is that “*a one-off snapshot of the ESOL workforce to provide a proper benchmark for the development of workforce policy*” should be carried out (Grover, 2006; §68) so that it can be decided how many new teachers need to be trained. A more straightforward solution

might be simply to recruit teachers from the diploma courses, who might be encouraged to remain in the UK if they were offered secure posts. But herein lies a problem. Due to the recent government involvement in what had always been a self-regulating field, teachers applying for posts in the state sector are now required to hold (or be willing to gain) a recognised teaching qualification equivalent to the Cert. Ed (or PGCE) and a new ESOL Subject Specialist qualification (accredited at Level 4 of the NQF). At present, the diploma is not recognised as a suitable qualification, despite it being accredited at a higher level, with almost identical coverage to the new qualifications. This means that teachers who hold a diploma still have to study for at least a year in order to gain a lower level qualification and so become fully qualified for the state sector. This, of course, is not a popular option with teachers, and is seen as a retrograde step by NATECLA, which threatens to “*undermine the professional standards...achieved in ESOL teacher training*” in recent years (Bird, 2005; p.6). NIACE have also recommended that diplomas be recognised as full qualifications for ESOL teachers in the state sector (Grover, 2006; §62), but while the recommendations are being considered, there is a considerable amount of unrest and anxiety in the profession. This, as noted above, is threatening to have a deleterious effect on teaching quality, as it distracts teachers from the pedagogical issues they could be addressing.

2.3.4 ELT methods and materials, theories and concerns

After almost 500 years of English language teaching, it is hard to imagine that any new methods or approaches could still be invented that have not already been tried and rejected by a previous generation; Ferguson and Donno have dubbed this “*the post-method age*” (2003; p.29). The influences

that shape methods and materials now tend to be technological, political, and ideological.

New technologies mean that e-learning is a growing field of ELT, with learners in many different countries taking part in virtual classes. Learners can also be empowered by on-line resources that allow them to work independently, with access to a tutor as and when they decide they need guidance. This is perhaps particularly relevant in the private sector, where the ability to access more learners is of paramount importance to an institution's survival.

In the state sector, the ESOL Core Curriculum (DfES, 2003) has provided a standard framework, based apparently on an eclectic approach to language learning, that directs ESOL teaching across the country, imposing a heavily instrumental (and some argue narrow) syllabus on the learners and teachers in the state sector. However, many institutions seem to be taking a very pragmatic view of the recent reforms, and are using materials and methods that they deem to be suitable for the needs, aims and expectations of their learners, regardless of whether they are 'EFL' or 'ESOL' in provenance. In fact, several of the best-selling EFL text books (for example: 'New Headway English Course' (Soars & Soars, 2000) and 'Just Right' (Harmer, 2004)) have been mapped against the core curriculum, so that ESOL teachers can continue to use the materials they and their learners are familiar with, while still satisfying the LSC criteria for funding.

Because of the fluid nature of English language teachers' careers, there are those who suggest that it is not a 'profession' at all, in the strictest definition, but rather resembles a 'trade'. It is true that there are more routes

into ELT than in the case of, for example, medical professions, and that entry qualifications are not well-defined. There have been calls recently for greater standards of professional practice to be applied across the field, and recent government initiatives ('Skills for Life') are designed to do just this, to 'professionalise' English language teaching. The mechanisms for this include introducing teaching qualifications which satisfy the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) and Standards Verification UK (SVUK) national standards, a core national curriculum for ESOL with standard materials, and achievement qualifications for the learners which attract government funding. The most profound changes have been driven by ideological and attitudinal changes, however, and affect institutional systems as well as classroom routines. More and more, the learners' first language is being accepted and even encouraged in the ELT classroom, as a means of fostering learning. Brewer (2005; p.15) describes this as "*a shift in the underlying premise of the teacher as a major knower in the classroom, to a more egalitarian one*". However, this has not altered the fact that throughout the 20th century, teachers of English in this country generally have had English as a first language, and have been seen as users of the prestige variety. With its place in the world changing, this status is increasingly being challenged by speakers of other varieties of English, some of them 'non-native' varieties. The logical progression is that more bilingual teachers of English will be recruited in the future, from among the settled immigrant communities, thereby taking ESOL provision back to its starting point with the Huguenot refugees in the 1580s.

Perhaps the most important ideological shift from the point of view of this study is towards a more overtly inclusive policy in ELT, to enable learners

with disabilities to participate in language learning. Recent disability rights and equality legislation in the UK has affected all state sector providers, as well as having a knock-on effect in the private sector. However, it is one thing to pass legislation and another to embed it in classroom routines. The Southbank University-based consultancy LLU+ has been commissioned to produce training documents for ELT practitioners in this area of expertise, and NIACE recommend that training should be available for ESOL teachers on how to assess and support their learners who have disabilities (Grover, 2006; §51). This will be discussed further in the following chapter, which considers the issue of inclusive education in some depth.

The 21st century has already seen an unprecedented amount of reform and regulation in ELT in the UK, notably in ESOL, but also affecting teaching in EFL contexts. Some of the government initiatives have been adopted at a surface level, and some have become embedded in the structure of teaching, albeit reluctantly in some cases. One effect has been to make the distinctive surface features of EFL and ESOL less clear and bring practitioners from both of these areas together in staff-rooms, which at the same time highlights the deeper, ideological differences between the two camps. It remains to be seen, therefore, how some of the issues surrounding the recognition of teachers' qualifications and learners' achievement will ultimately be resolved.

2.4 CONCLUSIONS : ELT IN TRANSITION

This chapter has charted the rise of the ELT profession and shown how innovations throughout the centuries have tended to reappear on a cyclical basis, culminating in the most recent suggestions in ESOL, that more bilingual teachers should be recruited to work with the learners from settled communities. The charitable, well-meaning roots of ELT were noted, as was the development of the EFL profession due to the possibility of making substantial profits from it, and the associated benefits for the economy. The differences between EFL and ESOL – whether real or perceived – have been outlined, and it was suggested that recent government involvement in ESOL was largely due to a desire to take control of the potential labour force that ESOL learners could provide.

ELT can thus be seen to have developed separately from the ‘mainstream’ education system in the UK, and only relatively recently to have been assimilated, through major government initiatives which ostensibly seek to raise educational standards and increase social inclusion of vulnerable members of Britain’s multicultural communities. These policies however, seem to be driven by economic imperatives, and inevitably (whether through design or as an unintended consequence) limit learners’ achievement so that they can only fill shortages in the low-paid labour market. Funding systems ensure that even learners who achieve the prescribed competence levels only remain enrolled on courses for a limited amount of time.

These reforms have had some positive effects, however, in that the issue of including learners with disabilities has been put more securely on the ELT agenda. Recent legislation (for example, the 1995 Disability Discrimination Act) now applies to all teaching establishments, both private

and state-funded, and the 'Learning for Living' documents (DfES, 2006a) have given English language teachers a starting point in becoming more aware and better prepared to support learners who experience a range of difficulties. In Chapter 3 the issue of inclusion will be discussed in more depth, both as it is envisaged in the 'mainstream' education system and as it pertains to ELT.

CHAPTER 3: TOWARDS INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter could be read as parallel to, rather than subsequent to the previous chapter, in that it fulfils the same role as Chapter 2 and has a somewhat similar structure, but with a different focus. In this chapter, it is the area of education usually referred to as 'special' education that is the main topic. This unsatisfactory misnomer has become so entrenched and widespread in current usage that it is not easy to find another way of talking about the issue without sounding overly circuitous, or confusing the audience. Since one of the aims of the chapter is to examine the discourse surrounding the education of disabled learners, the term will not be analysed in detail here, but rather in section 3.3, and until that point, it will continue to be used (in inverted commas to indicate the reservations noted here). The main purpose of this chapter is to indicate how this research study, based as it is in EFL practice, fits into the wider context of current debates around inclusive education, and thus to establish why it is so timely and necessary to consider ELT as a part of the bigger picture.

Just as Chapter 2 did for ELT, this chapter opens with a brief overview of the development of 'special' education in Britain from its earliest roots to the present day, in order to chart how we have arrived at the current position. There are some differences in educational policy between the various constituent parts of the UK, but only when the differences are pertinent to this study will attention be drawn to them. The history of 'special' education is one that begins with segregation, tends towards integration and finally aims for inclusion. Segregation is here used to denote the policy of complete physical

and academic exclusion, whereby education for groups of disabled learners is organised entirely separately from that of all other learners (those in the so-called 'mainstream' system). Integration is the term often used in the latter part of the 20th century to indicate that learners with disabilities were/are to be educated alongside their 'normal' peers, with the implication that they should be encouraged to conform to the 'mainstream' environment, and expect minimal accommodation of their disabilities. This may have led to physical inclusion, but not always to academic or social inclusion. Policies described as being inclusive are those designed to embrace all learners, whether disabled or not, from all social and ethnic backgrounds, and to provide a climate in which each individual is valued for the diversity he or she contributes to the learning environment. This term will be discussed in more detail in section 3.3.

At various stages in history, these policies have all been advocated with the interests of disabled learners at heart (Frederikson & Cline, 2002), as well as, to varying degrees, the interests of the teaching profession, the medical fraternity and the national economy. Segal (1967) notes that at each stage of development, it is education for hearing impaired learners which is the pioneer field, followed by that for visually impaired learners, and physically disabled learners, and finally learners who experience cognitive, emotional and behavioural difficulties in their studies, who continue to struggle to achieve parity of opportunity even today.

It is common to credit the Warnock Report of 1978 (DES, 1978) with being the catalyst for a radical rethink in 'special' education, and in this chapter it forms a convenient cut-off point at which to divide historical perspectives from contemporary debates. The first section therefore will trace

the beginnings of 'special' education in this country up to 1978, and will show that some of the tensions that arose in the early days have not yet been resolved, but continue to be debated amongst educators today.

The second section takes the story on into the 'Warnock era', and assesses the extent to which educational policies of successive governments have been framed in the light of this report, or with other priorities in mind. Current debates in the field of inclusive education are examined here, including the tensions that apparently conflicting educational policies produce. These policies relate to the marketization of education, with its associated emphasis on parental choice and the raising of educational standards, as well as inclusion, both as an element of higher educational standards and as a rights issue. Many of these issues have arisen in the compulsory education sector, where policy tends to be formed, and the emphasis may appear here to be more on the education of children than that of adults, but the ramifications of policy development increasingly extend to adult education as well. Where there are developments specifically pertaining to post-compulsory education, these are discussed separately.

In the third section the dominant discourses of 'special' education are examined in more detail, and the findings of this section are then applied in the fourth section to the field of English language teaching, which has also largely been developed outside the 'mainstream' framework, as demonstrated in Chapter 2. The similarities between 'special' education and ELT have not gone entirely unnoticed by scholars in the two fields, and these will be highlighted throughout the chapter. Another important focus at each stage will

be the training and education that teachers in the different fields receive in respect of working with disabled learners.

3.1 BEFORE WARNOCK

3.1.1 The beginnings of ‘Special Education’ (circa 1550 – circa 1750)

The branch of education that came to be designated ‘special’ education in Britain can trace its roots back to events in 16th century Spain. At about the time that the Huguenot refugees, the first ESOL learners described in Chapter 2, were arriving in Britain, the first systematic education for deaf learners was being developed by a Benedictine monk, Pedro Ponce de Leon. According to some accounts, his first student may have been a would-be fellow clergyman, whose need to be able to confess in order to take Holy Orders led him to seek de Leon’s help in learning to speak. However, the driving force that led to the setting up of the first school for the deaf, in Madrid, was clearly economic. Winzer (1993) reports that in the 16th century there was a prevalence of congenital profound deafness amongst the aristocracy of Spain. In order to claim their inheritance, the eldest sons had to be able to speak, and so the noble families were willing to pay handsomely to have their children taught (one imagines, probably a limited curriculum) by de Leon. Winzer suggests that de Leon’s greatest achievement lay not in the fact that he saw a business opportunity (or, more charitably, a human ‘need’) and was able to develop a system for teaching profoundly deaf children to speak, but in his “*recognition that disability did not hinder learning*” (1993; p. 32). This was a radical belief at a time when only the wealthy had access to education and disabled people were not generally considered as fully human.

This oral method of education for deaf people (in which deafness – and associated ‘dumbness’ – is perceived as a deficit and the emphasis is on teaching deaf people to lip read and produce speech, so as to be better assimilated into the hearing society) seems to have been inextricably linked throughout history with economic concerns, as it was when it first developed. The manual approach, on the other hand (which recognises deafness as a natural difference and perceives sign languages and finger-spelling alphabets as legitimate methods of expression) has tended to be associated with more philanthropic enterprises. There are of course many combined methods, but the oral-manual debate has lasted well into the 21st century, as will be noted in section 3.2.5.

De Leon’s work was continued after his death in 1584 by other Spanish clerics, among them Juan Pablo Bonet, who developed a manual alphabet to complement the oral method commonly used. Although manual alphabets had been known for many centuries, especially in ancient civilisations beyond Europe, this was the first recorded usage of a manual alphabet in the teaching of deaf students; it also played a significant role in bringing ‘special’ education to Britain. According to Winzer, Sir Kenelm Digby (the son of one of the 1605 ‘Gunpowder’ plotters, a philosopher and future member of the Royal Society) met one of Bonet’s students while travelling in Spain in the 1620s. The man’s use of sign language to express himself fascinated Digby, resonating as it did with the philosophical questions of the day relating to the nature of language and the role of language in the development of thought and the expression of ideas.

The 17th century saw some important advances in education for British deaf people. It was accepted that deaf people could learn to communicate and even to speak, given the correct type of tuition. In 1653, John Wallis published his Grammar of the English Language (“Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae”), which included a preface entitled “On Speech”. This preface described some essential elements of English pronunciation and how the organs of speech should be used to produce them, and was described as being “*useful to foreigners and deaf people*” (Wallis, cited in Winzer, 1993; p. 34). It is interesting that learning English as a foreign language is here equated to the experience of deaf people learning to speak English, in recognition that the inability to express their thoughts in the community’s dominant language marginalises people, regardless of their cognitive ability. However, it was not only hearing impaired people who began to benefit from greater access to education at this time, visually impaired learners began to attract attention, and eventually, as will be described below, people with other disabilities.

3.1.2 The development of ‘special’ education in Britain (the 18th and 19th centuries)

The period known as the ‘Age of Enlightenment’ (roughly coinciding with the 18th century) in Europe led to a more open-minded approach to education, and created a political and social climate in which education for disabled people could not only be contemplated, but enacted. Schools for the deaf were the first to open, in the mid-18th century, followed by schools for the blind; only in the 19th century were schools established for physically disabled children in Britain, and it was later still before cognitive impairments were catered for in the education system (DES, 1978).

The first schools accepted only fee-paying students, the children of the wealthy, but eventually charitable foundations provided some places for less well-off disabled children. Borsay (2005) suggests that the driving force was religion: the desire (or the perceived duty) to enable deaf and blind people to access the 'Word of God' led wealthy philanthropists to fund schools. However, she also notes that these educational endeavours were generally assimilatory in approach, with the aim being to 'improve' the pupils. The curricula were designed to "*deliver [a] mix of spiritual enlightenment and economic utility*" (ibid; p.96) that would fit them for manual labour. Moreover, the training was gendered and social class-perpetuating, such that the status quo would not be disturbed. The aspirations and potential abilities of the learners were suppressed, in favour of maintaining a supply of cheap labour which, ideally, was unable to make its voice heard. By replacing 'spiritual enlightenment' with 'civic awareness', a correlation could be drawn here with the current 'Skills for Life' and 'citizenship' initiatives which were described in the previous chapter, as well as current government policies relating to disabled people.

With the introduction of compulsory education for 5-10 year olds in England in 1880, the situation changed considerably. The number of disabled children who had no access to education became apparent, and those who did go to school were often perceived as a disruptive influence. A system of 'payment by results' for teachers inevitably led to greater exclusion of disabled students (Frederikson & Cline, 2002; p. 67) and Barton and Tomlinson suggest that the professional interests and status of the teachers and the medical practitioners were a major contributing factor in the development of

'special' schools, which removed 'troublesome' pupils from the 'mainstream' environment (1984; p. 67). Another factor was of course the national economy; the Introduction to the Egerton Commission Report of 1889 states that disabled children: "*if left uneducated become not only a burden to themselves but a weighty burden on the state.*" (cited in Barton and Tomlinson, 1984). Again, similarities can be found with the discourse of official policy documents for disadvantaged groups such as refugees and asylum seekers and disabled people today.

3.1.3 The 20th century: compulsory education

In 1913 Cyril Burt was appointed as the first Educational Psychologist in the UK, and part of his contribution to the area of special education was to develop the idea of categorising people according to their IQ, as measured using the crude tests of the time (Segal, 1967). Those whose IQ was gauged at 50 or below were classed as 'feeble-minded', and those with an IQ of 70 were deemed to be 'backward', which later became known as Educationally Subnormal (ESN), a designation that remained in use until the 1970 Education Act. Burt also called for separate training for the teachers of these children who were to be 'specially' educated, to bring these professionals into line with the teachers of deaf and blind children, who already had their own training schemes at this time.

Borsay (2005) reports that at the start of the 20th century there were over 500 schools in Britain for deaf, blind or physically disabled learners, all with the basic aim of producing labour for the growing economy, and incidentally helping the 'normal' schools to run more smoothly. Education was thus used as a tool for containing and controlling this potentially disruptive

section of the population, as well as the able-bodied majority. With the 1918 'Representation of the People' Act the size of the male electorate grew threefold, and the education system was also perceived to have a role to play in developing 'good' (or perhaps 'compliant') citizens. The rhetoric of the Royal Institution Annual Report, (cited in Borsay p. 110) speaks of education enabling these new voters to "*take their places in the world as well-behaved, self-respecting citizens...*", words which would now not seem out of place in the ESOL citizenship literature.

The Education Act of 1944 has generally been seen as a significant step towards integrating 'special' and 'normal' education in Britain. Wedell (1990) reports that the Act was looking ahead to post-war Britain and expressed the intention that children who had previously been educated in separate 'special' schools, would be integrated into the 'mainstream' 'wherever possible'. In section 3.2.3 it will be seen that even in the current legislation this loophole has not been closed. However, the gap between the Act's avowed intentions and its actual effect has also been noted by critics. In the preamble to the Warnock report (DES, 1978) these integrationist intentions were recorded, as were the logistical problems that prevailed immediately after the war ended; the shortage of suitable buildings and qualified teachers meant that classes were generally large, and that children who experienced difficulties in learning in the 'ordinary' schools did not get the support they required. Another criticism of the 1944 Act was that it set out categories of every conceivable barrier to learning, while in reality only severely disabled children received the support they needed. For these reasons several commentators suggest that it was not as big a leap in the

evolution of the British educational system as is sometimes claimed, and indeed Borsay goes so far as to remark that it simply “*preserved the hierarchical structure of secondary schooling*” (2005, p.111). Certainly, records show that after 1945, the number of separate ‘special’ schools increased, serving perhaps the interests of the teaching and medical professions rather than those of the learners themselves.

The introduction of comprehensive schools in the mid-1960s threw the issue of integration into sharp focus (Barton & Tomlinson, 1984), since the ideal situation was supposed to be that all children would be educated in the same school. Of course, while there was still the strong tradition of selection, and some LEAS continued to fund grammar schools alongside the comprehensive schools (as is still the case in some towns, forty years after the introduction of comprehensive education) there was no real prospect of truly comprehensive education. The integration of children deemed to require ‘special’ provision was hedged about with caveats that the ‘mainstream’ school might not be the right environment for some, and that parents should be able to choose the school they wished their children to attend (although it is not clear that any real choice was available to most parents), so that the commitment to integration began to look less and less convincing, and the ‘special’ provision sector continued to grow.

In the post-war period there was also an increase in the amount of teacher training for ‘special’ teachers, with several dedicated courses being established in Birmingham, at the newly formed Remedial Education Centre, and at the Institute of Education in London (Segal, 1967). The 1959 Mental

Health Act stipulated that children who were deemed to be '*ineducable*' and therefore unsuitable for schooling were to have practical training provided by the health authorities, which in turn engendered further courses designed to train their teachers. By 1965 dozens of courses for 'special' teachers were available, lasting about a year, but take-up was poor because there were too few teachers to cover their colleagues' classes during the courses, and schools were reluctant to release them. Some non-teachers were recruited to fill the demand, and sent on intensive 2-year courses; they were reputedly preferred in some respects since they had no prior expectations of 'normal' children's abilities and were thus easily moulded into the desired pedagogical mode for delivering a restricted curriculum. Presumably, it was not anticipated that these teachers would ever work in the 'mainstream' classroom, and therefore did not require access to a broader initial training course curriculum.

The 1970 Education (Handicapped Children) Act dealt specifically with 'special' educational provision. The term '*ineducable*' disappeared from the official vocabulary, with a recognition that all children could benefit from education and had a right to participate in it (Rogers, 1980). However, attitudes had not moved on very far, and Borsay (2005) comments that the discourse of this act was essentially 'needs-based', which she feels some parents and children internalised and then endorsed through having low expectations of what they might achieve.

A century after compulsory education was introduced in England, opportunities for disabled students were still very much seen as alternative to rather than as part of the usual range of provision. Between 1955 and 1977

the number of separate 'special' schools rose from 623 to 1,653 (Rogers, 1980), on average about 47 new schools opening every year, or 4 a month, clearly demonstrating that the intended integration of the 1944 Act simply was not materialising. Although there were several teacher education courses available to prepare professionals to work with disabled learners, it was largely assumed that this was not something that every teacher would need to know about. The terminology used in discussing education for disabled students had changed considerably over the century, but underlying attitudes did not seem to have altered a great deal.

3.2 'THE WARNOCK ERA' (1978 onwards)

Throughout the 1970s, Wedell (1990) reports, the realisation that, apart from different categories of disability, social environmental conditions played a role in poor performance in school resulted in an upsurge of sociological research in the sphere of education. This interest in external factors led ultimately to the setting up of the Committee of Enquiry into the Education of Handicapped Children and Young People (usually known as 'the Warnock Report', after the academic who chaired the committee, now Baroness Warnock), whose report was meant to define the start of a new era in the education of children who experience difficulties in school.

3.2.1 The Warnock Report and its initial impact

The Warnock report was intended to rectify the rise in segregation, and reinforce the integrationist ideals of the 1944 Act. The report made 224 recommendations, not all of which made it into the 1981 Education Act that was supposed to implement the committee's findings. For example, it was

recommended in the Warnock report that provision for disabled learners should begin at nursery age and continue in FE colleges beyond the usual school leaving age, but no mention of this appeared in the 1981 Act (Bignell, 1991). However, it was in its guiding principles that the report's significance lay, or such significance as it had. The report asserted that there was no fixed, discrete population of disabled students and suggested that up to 20% of pupils might need some support in their education at some stage in their school career, thus blurring the line between 'special' education and 'normal' education. It stipulated that there was no clear line between being 'handicapped' (to use the terminology of the time) and not, but that it was more appropriate to think of disability as a continuum of need. Ideally support would be provided within the 'mainstream' classroom, but when they could not be accommodated there, the individual's needs were to be recorded on a 'statement of special educational need'. It was envisaged that only about 2% of the school population would require such a statement, but as will be seen below, this assessment did not take into account the financial climate of the day.

This move towards the recognition of every child's needs and the integration of support within the 'ordinary' school was a bold statement, but since there was no extra funding attached to the initiative, unless the statement recorded the need for support that could not be provided by the school, it was hardly the great leap forward that its supporters claimed (Borsay, 2005). Around the country, individual LEAs interpreted the legislation differently, with some taking the opportunity to close 'special' schools and integrate the pupils into 'mainstream' classes, as a money-saving measure.

Where there was little investment in the support or facilities for these students, it is hard to imagine that they were integrated in any meaningful way, other than being physically present in the class (Barton & Tomlinson, 1984). It was, and still is, financial considerations rather than pedagogical goals that governed decision making in many cases, and today more than ever “*political rhetoric supersedes practice*” (ibid; p. 79).

Another important difference in the post-Warnock era was that the complex classification of disabilities previously featured in education legislation was to be subsumed under the term ‘special educational needs’ which was then itself defined as varying degrees of ‘learning difficulty’. Norwich (1990) suggests (perhaps somewhat cynically) that this minor change in the use of terminology constituted the main difference in education before and after the 1981 Education Act. What does seem likely is that changes in terminology, adopted more readily by the educational and medical professionals than by lay-people, caused difficulties in communication between parents and teachers, educational psychologists and students (ibid; p.35). Whether new terminology was or is deliberately used as an exclusionary tactic and a way of asserting authority is a matter for conjecture beyond the scope of this chapter.

The key to the implementation of Warnock’s vision was to be a well-educated teaching body. To this end, all initial training courses were to include elements that would enable teachers to recognise the signs of ‘learning difficulties’ and take steps towards securing help for their learners. Not that they would become specialists, but they would know what help was available and how to access it. Warnock argued that the existing training courses did

not need to be radically redesigned or lengthened, but only slightly modified, to change the emphasis of some of the components on child psychology and development (Warnock, 1978). Crucially, the great majority of serving teachers were expected to attend short intensive in-service courses within five years of the report being published (DES, 1978; § 12.12). There were obvious logistical problems with enacting this: insufficient teacher trainers who were themselves suitably informed, and training facilities, as well as teachers to provide cover for their colleagues who were on the courses, to say nothing of the financial expense of re-educating the entire teaching workforce; all of these issues face ESOL professionals today in the wake of the recent Skills for Life initiative. Warnock recognised the enormity of the task, but insisted that the expense was necessary *“if Special Education is to be extended in ordinary schools and if such provision is not to be inadequate and inferior.”* (Warnock, 1978; p.24). Perhaps the greatest obstacle to be overcome, however, was largely glossed over: teachers’ attitudes towards learners judged to have disabilities. It was simply assumed that teachers would be *“willing to accept the new wide concept of Special Educational Needs and ... learn to expect that they may have up to five or six children in an ordinary class in need of temporary or permanent help.”* (Warnock, 1978; p.22). Such attitudinal changes do not generally happen overnight, nor even through attending a short in-service training course.

Because of the flaws in the system noted above, the Warnock report was not as far-reaching in its reforms as its authors had hoped. Warnock herself admitted with hindsight that the introduction of the statement of need was a *“disastrous mistake”* (Warnock, 1999) since it tied the ‘statementing’ of

children to funding for support, with the result that some LEAs would not give any support at all to a child unless a statement had been issued, and there were suggestions that the statements would record only the needs that LEAs could afford to meet, rather than what was really required. More seriously, she revealed that the committee was “*forbidden to count social deprivation as in any way contributing to educational needs*” (ibid.) despite the strong evidence emerging at the time that the two were linked. The net result was legislation that did not really address the underlying issues of inclusion and exclusion, and so failed to have the lasting effect that had been envisaged.

3.2.2 The post-Warnock era: 1988 – 2000

The ‘Warnock era’ lasted only 7 years until the 1988 Education Reform Act undid some of the tentative advances that had been made towards a more inclusive education system. Many commentators have described the 1988 Act as a retrograde step; Wedell suggests that up until that point the development of education in the UK could be traced “*with optimism*” (1990; p. 17) but that 1988 marked a point of divergence away from the path to inclusion, towards a more individualistic attitude, which in some ways reflected the political climate in the 1980s. Fish (1990), for one, attributes this shift in attitude to the conservative politics that dominated the decade, and which led to the emphasis on ‘raising academic standards’, through a range of measures including standardised curricula for all age groups. The National Curriculum was supposed to be an entitlement for all children, but it was made possible to ‘disapply’ parts of it for certain individuals, so that in practice it became an entitlement for children who did not need support to access it. This meant that

there was less onus on teachers to accommodate particular learning differences in their classes.

The prevalent discourse of the 1988 Education Reform Act was marketing / managerial oriented, exhibited in the determination to make education cost effective and to deliver the pre-determined standards that schools were all to meet. There were strategies to reduce the power of the LEAs, too, by allowing schools to be more autonomous. Parents were co-opted into this, with the promise of more choice and better information in the form of league tables. The net result of this was to reduce education to easily measured targets, particularly exam results, with no value placed on broader learning outcomes, such as those that diversity in the classroom fosters. The introduction of league tables for schools' exam results was supposed to increase accountability and give parents a more informed basis for choice. The actual effect has been to encourage the exclusion of learners who are thought unlikely to contribute positively to the overall results (such as disabled students and those from a non-English speaking background), much as the 19th century policy of paying teachers by results did (Frederikson & Cline, 2002, p. 67). Croll & Moses (2003) found that teachers' perceptions of the number of students in their classes who were deemed to have 'special educational needs' matched the view of the Warnock committee in 1981 (about 18.8% of the school population) but that by 1998 the proportion had risen to 26.1%, an increase that cannot be explained by the policy of integration alone. They suggest that this rise may be due to changes in the curriculum, assessment and identification procedures, and changes in

teachers' perception of what constitutes a 'learning difficulty' in the more competitive climate of the late 1990s.

3.2.3 The Disability Discrimination Act (DDA)

In 1995 the Disability Discrimination Act (DDA) was passed, providing more protection for disabled people in certain areas of their lives, such as employment. It did not apply to education, however, much to the dismay of educationalists and disabled rights activists lobbying for real inclusion (Riddell, 2003). Gooding (2000) suggests that its major contribution to social change was perhaps in its definition of disability (which is more precise than that used in educational legislation, although it uses 'disability' where 'impairment' is preferred by adherents of the social model of disability) and the way that disability is portrayed in our society. According to the DDA a person is deemed to be disabled if "*he [sic] has a physical or mental impairment which has a substantial or long-term adverse effect on his [sic] ability to carry out normal day to day activities*" (Disability Discrimination Act, 1995, part 1). Definitions of 'substantial' and 'long-term' are suggested, but it is still the responsibility of a disabled person to establish that he or she is in fact disabled, which Riddell (2003) notes is an obstacle not put in the path of people claiming protection under the equivalent legislation on race or gender equality. It was only in 2001 that the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act ('SENDA'; DfEE, 2001) came into force, amending the DDA so that it applied to educational institutions, too. Disabled students now have long-awaited protection from discrimination in admission and accommodation in schools and colleges. All education providers, including those catering for adult learners and those in the independent sector, are required under the

terms of the DDA, as amended by the SENDA, to anticipate needs and make *'reasonable adjustments'* to accommodate any disabilities, and not to offer a worse service than they would to other learners. This is highly significant for the ELT sector, since they are now bound by legislation that regulates the way they run courses – not specifically educational legislation, it should be noted, but that regulating all businesses. That said, there are still caveats that mitigate the effectiveness of this legislation, relating to health and safety issues, the safeguarding of other students' education and of course the many possible interpretations of what might constitute a 'reasonable' adjustment (Skill, 2005). As part of the DDA, the Disability Equality Duty will come into force in December 2006; this is a duty to devise and implement institutional policy that is proactive in the recruitment, enrolment and support of disabled people, and organisations are expected to work with disabled stakeholders in producing a Disability Equality Scheme every three years (ibid.).

3.2.4 Post-compulsory Education

With more support available to pupils in schools, it was inevitable that FE colleges and HEIs would have to reassess their ability to provide accessible courses for increasing numbers of successful disabled learners who wished to pursue academic study beyond school. For many institutions providing education to learners over the age of 16 there are financial issues related to how they will afford the alterations to the fabric of their buildings and their curricula delivery that are needed to enable them to comply with the legislation. Two significant enquiries have had an impact on this sector in recent years: the Tomlinson Report (FEFC, 1996) advocated more variety of provision for 14-19 year olds in order to cater for a greater range of ability and

interests, and the Dearing Report (NCIHE, 1997) focussed more closely on the expansion of Higher Education provision.

The Tomlinson report was concerned with the opportunities that disabled learners have to continue studying in the post-compulsory sector, and a number of recommendations were made that were designed to place the learner at the centre of curricula and support provision (Waters, 2002). Some of these recommendations were implemented through the Learning and Skills Act 2000 in England and Wales, which established the Learning and Skills Council, the body charged with overseeing funding for support. In Scotland the Executive has taken advice from the Beattie report which recommended changes in the way disabled people are supported in further and higher education (*ibid.*), ensuring that accessible education remains on the agenda.

Dearing's examination of the general situation in HE highlighted financial deficit as a major barrier in delivering good quality provision for students with disabilities and learning difficulties. Hurst (1999) reports that the original terms of reference for the committee made no mention of this under-represented group, but that the efforts of lobby groups such as Skill were successful in ensuring a place on the agenda. Amongst issues that could affect disabled learners more significantly than their non-disabled counterparts, such as flexibility of course structure and staff workloads, the need for staff development was frequently highlighted (*ibid.*; p.74). It was recommended that an Institute for Learning and Teaching should be established (now amalgamated into the Higher Education Academy) to oversee the professional development of HE lecturers, and specific mention

was made of including a consideration of the needs of disabled students in all its activities.

This is the situation at the start of the 21st century, with many course providers coming to terms with the changes in the law and considering how they will be affected. All in all, it seems likely that there is, and for the immediate future will be, less ‘anticipation’ than ‘accommodation’ of disabilities, and that these requirements will be implemented only when the arrival of disabled learners makes them immediately necessary.

3.2.5 The 21st century: Current debates

At the start of the new century, the issues being debated most heatedly revolve around conflicting aspects of current educational policy, namely the drive for ‘higher academic standards’ through a competitive education market, greater parental choice and more ‘mainstream’ inclusion of learners with ‘special education needs’ (Florian & Rouse, 2001; Cole, 2005). These issues are hard to disentangle, and will therefore be considered together in this section. Many academics have criticised the inconsistencies in the policies of the current (and previous) governments, which appear superficially to espouse inclusive education while actually having the opposite effect. Loxley and Thomas (for example) argue that the government’s “*inclusive commitments sit uneasily against a policy agenda whose consequences are undeniably segregative and exclusive*” (2001; p. 300).

Considering the issue of inclusive education first, arguments for inclusion tend to be either socio-political and refer to the human rights of individuals not to be segregated from their peers, or to focus on the

pedagogical benefits of inclusive education, and point to empirical findings to support the position (Farrell, 2000, Lindsay, 2003); these arguments are not entirely independent, however, as will be seen below.

The 1997 Educational Green Paper (DfES, 1997) appears to recognise the 'right' of all students to be educated in a 'mainstream' school, but also asserts that special schools have a role to play in the education system, suggesting that this 'right' to inclusion does not apply for all learners. Farrell (2001) questions whether it is not more important to have the right to a good education (which for some children, he implies, might be better provided in a 'special' school) and also raises the issue of other 'rights' that should be considered, such as the rights of the majority to have a good education (which he insinuates could be threatened by the inclusion in their classes of disabled children).

Another issue is the right of parents to choose their preferred educational setting for their children, which was strengthened through the 1988 Educational Reform Act. Concerns have since been raised by parents of children with particular disabilities, about the enforced integration of their children into 'mainstream' education. Notably, members of the Deaf community have argued strongly in favour of retaining their schools so that Deaf children can be taught through the medium of British Sign Language, rather than be assimilated into an oral system in which they will always be disadvantaged. Loxley and Thomas note that "*distribution of resources...depends on who shouts the loudest*" (2001; p.292); 'parent power' has certainly become an important issue since 1988, and there is some

evidence that groups of parents who are well organised and motivated can have some influence.

Lindsay (2003) reports that the 2001 SENDA legislation reinforces both the rights of parents to choose to have their children segregated, and the notion that if their presence in the 'mainstream' school is likely to interrupt their peers' education they should be segregated. He notes that the best interests of an individual child are no longer given as a reason to choose a 'special' school as the preferred placement. This begs the question of whether and how human rights should be balanced against effectiveness (the likelihood of the learner making progress) in determining where a child should be educated, and brings the discussion back to the pedagogical benefits of inclusion.

Ideologically, there is a strong argument made by many in the teaching profession that there are great benefits for all involved in integrating students who had previously been segregated from their peers because of physical, sensory or other disabilities. This is backed up by some of the research in the field (Farrell, 2000), but Lindsay (2003) calls for more studies to give a clearer picture of what the benefits might be in different contexts. He suggests that some of the research shows that segregated education may yield benefits in some respects (for example, in building self-esteem) while other studies show better social skills developing in the 'mainstream' school. It could be argued that any study of the effectiveness of inclusive education is redundant, since the main issue is one of human rights and social justice, but in the society we live in, in which qualifications and academic success are all-important, it is an issue that cannot be ignored.

The drive for higher academic standards is a continuation of a Conservative policy that the current New Labour administration has adopted. It seems that educational achievement (measured purely in terms of exam results) is seen by New Labour as “*the main means of delivering economic competitiveness*” (Alexiadou, 2002; p. 27) in an increasingly difficult global market, and as such holds the key to “*economic restoration...[and] cultural and moral regeneration as well*” (Loxley & Thomas, 2001; p. 297). Dyson (2001; p.27) notes that the term ‘inclusion’ from the educational context has been appropriated into social policy, so that ‘social inclusion’ becomes the aim, but he points out that social inclusion is more about being economically active (ie contributing to the nation’s economy) rather than about having equal opportunities for participation, the original sense of ‘inclusion’ in education. Disabled people (as well as refugees and asylum seekers) who can be trained to a certain minimum level are thus seen as a potential source of cheap labour (Grover & Piggott, 2005) whose subsidised wages keep them forever dependent, rather than enhancing their autonomy.

Some ‘absolute’ advocates of inclusion argue from both the human rights and the achievement perspectives, such as Whittaker & Kenworthy who maintain that the practice of segregating certain groups of learners is redundant in an education system that ostensibly aims for inclusivity and that students in segregated provision are generally prepared only for further segregation when they leave school which can “*generate a notion of dependency*” (2002, p. 78). This endorses Barton and Tomlinson’s view (1984) that a ‘special’ education leads to a ‘special’ life career, if there are no

opportunities to gain the qualifications that today are undoubtedly seen as vital in succeeding in our society.

Overall, the general ethos of current education policy can be seen to be counterproductive to the avowed agenda of increasing inclusion. Contributors to the British Journal of Special Education SENCo forum suggest that schools who were managing to further their inclusive agendas “*were achieving success despite – rather than because of – the education system*” (Wedell et al, 2002; p. 151). The (somewhat contentious and emotive) issues raised in this section are significant in any debate around inclusive education, and play an important role in the research reported in this thesis; they will be returned to in Chapter 9 for further discussion in the light of the findings of this study.

3.3 DISCOURSES OF DISABILITY

From the first two sections of this chapter, it is clear that the development of ideas about and strategies for the education of disabled learners has been quite rapid in the 20th century, and particularly in the last two decades. This is reflected in the terminology and discourse employed in the discussion of ideas and policies, which has been touched on briefly above, and is an important aspect of any review of this field, as the use of different discourses not only reflects the attitudes that a society takes towards disability, but also helps to shape and manipulate them. Discourses do not carry meaning so much as perform specific functions, particularly in the socio-political domain in which education is located (Allan, 1999). Murray (1998) points out that acquiring the discourse of the teaching profession is part of the process of taking on the social identity of being a teacher, and being

assimilated into the culture of the chosen field. It allows novice teachers to gain entry to the community and enables them to organise their ideas and understanding of the new concepts to which they are introduced. The dominant discourse reflects and furthers the interests of the powerful (policy makers and professional bodies), while competing discourses seek to challenge this power structure and refocus the discussion, usually in favour of the oppressed or less powerful (disabled students and their families and advocates). Corbett notes that language pertaining to disability “*has always been built on shifting sands...waves move in to wash away one set of words and new shapes are drawn*” (1996; p. 70). This section aims to look more closely at the discourses of education policies and disability noted above, to identify the dominant trends, and attempts to ascertain what impact these have on the education of disabled learners, particularly adult learners of English.

3.3.1 Pre-Warnock Discourses

Much of the terminology used in the pre-Warnock era relating to disabled learners is considered unacceptable in today's terms. Expressions such as ‘imbecile’ and ‘feeble-minded’ betrayed a lack of understanding of the issues that gave rise to difficulties in learning, and a lack of respect for the individuals so labelled. There was an emphasis on the perceived deficits in individuals, resulting in them being designated ‘dumb’ or ‘handicapped’, thus underlining what they could not do as well as their peers. This medical model of disability focussed on physical abnormality and informed many of the developments in education recounted in the previous sections (Oliver, 1990), especially in segregated education which can be seen as analogous to

quarantine, for the students' own good and that of the wider community. Although alternative models have been posited, which take a more socio-cultural view of disability (see Corbett, 1996 for a comprehensive overview of these), the medical model has by no means been expunged from the discourse, and it is still common to see references to 'diagnosis' of learning difficulties for example.

3.3.2 Dominant Discourses since Warnock

Although it has been accepted that some of the terms noted above are unhelpful, insensitive and have no place in official discourse in the 21st century, that is not to say that the terms preferred today will not be regarded by our descendants as derogatory or inappropriate. Indeed, one ongoing debate in education is about the language of difference and disability, and how best to refer to learners who experience difficulties. Since the Warnock report, the accepted terms in 'mainstream' education have been 'Special Educational Needs' and 'Learning Difficulties' (Clough & Corbett, 2000), both of which require further definition in order to play any useful role in the discussion. In FE and HE, there has already been a clear shift towards the terminology of 'disability'.

The use of the word 'special' in connection to the education of disabled learners is seen by some as overly sentimental (Corbett, 1996) but has become quite firmly fixed in the common usage of the literature and in schools and governmental circles. In the USA the term 'exceptional' has come to serve the same function as 'special' in British parlance to indicate that which is not 'normal' (see for example Winzer, 1993), however that is defined (if indeed it ever is), and although both terms have the potential to denote that which is

better than usual and therefore desirable or admirable, all too often they are commonly used as a euphemism for educational provision that is of less value than that which is 'ordinary' or 'mainstream', and ultimately for failure (Barton, 1997). It is worth noting that there is a technical difference between the definition of 'Special Needs' that can be applied to a particular group of people (such as learners from travelling families, or those whose home language is not the medium of instruction at school) and 'Special Educational Needs' which is the legally defined term pertaining particularly to learners with disabilities (Frederikson & Cline, 2002). In practice, however, this distinction is often lost, and the two are often used interchangeably.

The Education Act of 1981 defined a learner as having 'Special Educational Needs' ('SEN') because of 'learning difficulties' if he or she demonstrated "*a significantly greater difficulty in learning than the majority of children of his [sic] age*" or "*a disability which either prevents or hinders him [sic] from making use of educational facilities of a kind generally provided for children of his [sic] age in schools*" (DfES 1981). These definitions assume some expected level of ability from which disabled learners deviate sufficiently to attract the label of 'SEN', and also fail to acknowledge that it may be the educational facilities that are deficient, rather than the learner, even if they are the ones 'generally provided'. MacKay (2006) suggests the use of the expression 'learning difference' for students who are deemed to have a specific learning difficulty such as dyslexia, autism, attention deficit or hyperactivity disorders (AD/HD). The recognition that these are just manifestations of a different way of perceiving the world seems to be a positive acknowledgement of learner individuality, and a convention that will

be adopted in this thesis. From a language teaching point of view, it is interesting to note that under the 1981 Act a learner cannot be deemed to have learning difficulties if the difficulty stems from the student having a different home language from that used in school, even though that would seem to be very likely to give rise to '*significantly greater difficulty in learning*' than that experienced by other members of the class.

There is some ambiguity in the legislation, and the Codes of Practice that accompany it, as regards the categories of disabilities that form part of the definition of 'SEN'. The advice in the 2001 Code of Practice suggests that teachers should avoid categorising learners by the type of disability they are deemed to have, but rather to think in broader areas of SEN: communication, cognition, social development and sensory or physical impairments. In order to recognise these areas of 'SEN', however, it is necessary to define them more narrowly and at that point the definitions begin to resemble the categories that are to be avoided (Farrell, 2001); in practice, therefore, categorisation is still very much in evidence. This ambivalence is in part explained by Dyson as a "*dilemma of difference*" (2001; p.26); he asserts that maintaining the balance between emphasising commonalities and acknowledging difference is an essential feature of educational policy, past and present. The problem is to avoid what MacKay characterises as confusing equity with uniformity (2002; p.160). Florian et al (2004; p. 118) argue that it is misleading and inaccurate to assign a learner one main 'condition', and likely to amplify the deficit notions already prevalent in the education system. Whilst agreeing that extreme care must be taken in the use of these labels, I would still argue that the explicit recognition of these differences has some beneficial

consequences at a practical level for the learners, their teachers and families. In the classroom they provide a starting point for describing the difficulty the learner is experiencing and putting in place some support or accommodatory measures to enable learning to progress; in HE contexts the student is empowered to access funding for support through having a statement for a disability. An analogy can be drawn with English language teachers knowing the main features of each learner's first language, so as to be able to anticipate aspects of English which they might find strange or difficult, and approach them in a sensitive manner. It is important here to avoid essentialism, however, and keep in mind that disabled learners (or even learners who have the same disability) do not form an homogenous group (Barton, 2003), any more than a group of French or Chinese speakers would.

On a social level, knowing the type of labels that may be applied to a particular kind of difficulty empowers learners and their families by enabling them to make contact with others who experience something similar, thereby building valuable support networks, and to do their own research independent of the 'experts' who provide the labels. It could be argued that this merely perpetuates a labelling culture, but as Farrell (2001) points out, we live in a society that categorises us according to numerous criteria, and with this in mind, perhaps it is better for learners and their teachers to be involved in some way with the process.

3.3.3 Competing Discourses

Although the desire to use transparent and non-offensive terminology may be strong, it is not easy to find expressions that all can agree on. MacKay reports from Scotland that the term 'Special Educational Needs' has been

removed from the legislation in that part of the UK, so that Scottish legislation “*unequivocally recognises pupils with a disability*’ (2002;. 159). Even with this apparently straightforward nomenclature, there is scope for debate over the definition of the word ‘disability’, but as Bradley et al (1999) point out, it is not for the non-disabled community to formulate definitions without the input of disabled people. The World Health Organisation recently reviewed its position and produced a definition of “*disability as the outcome of the interaction between a person with an impairment and the environmental and attitudinal barriers he/she may face*”. This has been accepted by the broad-based disability-rights organisation Disabled Peoples’ International (Mulcahy, 2005), as leaning more towards a social view of disability than to medical / deficit models.

Once the definition of disability has been agreed, further discussion is necessary as to whether it is more acceptable to use the expression ‘*disabled people*’, preferred in the social model of disability, and recognise that the disabilities cannot be separated from the individuals (Oliver, 1990), or to talk of ‘*people with disabilities*’ and so acknowledge the individuals’ person-hood first, and the disabilities as subsidiary characteristics (Hamre & Oyler, 2004). This is likely to come down to personal preference, and for the sake of naturalness I have preferred ‘*disabled people / learners*’ in most situations in this thesis. However, other discourse-related issues are not so easily solved.

Some commentators have called for disabled people to reclaim terms that have hitherto been thought of as derogatory, as a means of asserting their right to self-definition (Corbett, 1996; Bolt, 2005) and to try to unify an extremely diverse group of people (Beresford, 2005). The validity of this

suggestion is supported by the success of other minority groups (such as homosexuals and ethnic minorities) in using such a strategy to challenge the dominant discourse and take control from the 'professionals'. It is important to recognise, though, that "*unfamiliar sounds take time to hear*" (Corbett, 1996; p. 74) and there is little point in simply changing current terminology, if there is no corresponding change in attitudes (Bolt, 2005), otherwise the new terminology simply becomes attached to outmoded thinking, and the status quo is conserved.

To some extent, this is the situation with the term 'inclusion' which has been introduced in legislation and is now the 'correct' term to describe policies related to the education of disabled students. However, there appears to be a wide range of understanding as to what it actually means to implement an 'inclusive' education policy (Lindsay, 2003). In its pure form it calls for a radical restructuring of the education system so that it will be equipped to accommodate all learners, (Clough & Corbett, 2000; Frederikson & Cline, 2002) and as such looks beyond the integration of disabled learners in the 'mainstream' to a vision of participation and engagement in education which is accessible to all. This is the ideal set out in the 'Index for Inclusion' (Booth et al, 2000) in which the expression '*barriers to participation and learning*' is preferred to '*learning difficulties*'. Not all practitioners share this vision, however, and there are several competing understandings of the concept of inclusion: Hamre & Oyler (2004) comment that in the USA the term is often used to describe educational settings that strive to include disabled students, rather than those that have an all-embracing ethos, and it thus has a much narrower remit than that expounded in the Index. This ties in with Dyson's

(2001) observation that there are also calls in the literature for '*responsible inclusion*', which he takes to mean, in reality, integration (with the onus on the individual to accommodate the needs of the 'including' institution). Gray (2001) remarks that the 1997 Green Paper describes inclusion as a process rather than a state, which seems to cast doubt on the likelihood of any educational establishment ever achieving a truly inclusive ethos, especially as the term has been usurped and the meaning corrupted in other areas of governmental policy, as noted above.

In terms of establishing new discourses that reflect the type of ethos we wish to foster in our education system, the responsibility is shared among the academics who research and report in the field, the practitioners who use the language on a daily basis and the learners and teachers who are the subject of the terminology, (bearing in mind that these are not discrete groups but include individuals who have more than one of these roles). It behoves us all to reflect on our use of language, and to acknowledge our own dependence on existing terminology (Beresford, 2005), whilst striving at the same time to promote those discourses that are beneficial to an inclusive environment, however we conceive of it.

3.4 INCLUSION IN ELT

In the British EFL sector the issue of supporting students who would be categorised (using the official definition) as having 'Special Educational Needs' has relatively recently appeared on the agenda, largely due to the amalgamation with ESOL in the FE sector, and the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act of 2001, recently amended by the Disability Discrimination Act so that it has an impact on all educational establishments. The prestige

that English enjoys on the global stage is such that learning the language is no longer seen as optional for many people, particularly if they depend on electronic means of communication for their work or social contact (Gutteridge, 2003). As the number of English language learners steadily rises, so too, it should be assumed, will the number of English learners who have sensory impairments, physical difficulties and learning differences such as dyslexia. The Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994) which endorses the principle of inclusive education (albeit with inevitable scope for various interpretations of the concept) should have an impact on the compulsory sectors in every signatory country (including the UK) but this will take time to be manifest itself in curricula reform and teacher education programmes, if indeed the system is conducive to these developments (and there is some evidence that it is not in England, at least, as noted above).

Kay suggests that this is “*a challenge neglected by ELT*” (2000; p.1) but this implies a wilful ignorance by ELT professionals of this area of learning and teaching, which I would contend is an overly-harsh indictment of a generally committed body of teachers. In this section I will begin by explaining why it is that so little mention is made in the EFL literature of disability issues. I will then go on to explain why I feel that Kay’s assessment is unfair, and how British ELT practitioners have hitherto approached the issue of inclusion in their professional lives, overcoming a range of problems to accommodate learners’ requirements and enable them to successfully learn English.

3.4.1 Disabled English language learners

It is perhaps not surprising given the lack of information available about how various disabilities can affect adult language learners (Schwarz & Terrill,

2000) that so few English language students who experience difficulties in learning, regardless of the stage of education they are at, have the cause of their difficulties acknowledged, and the resulting differences in learning style accommodated. Interestingly, practitioners and academics in the field of dyslexia have been among the first to research this issue with relation to second language learning, and are far ahead of the ELT community in researching dyslexia (or other disability) issues. Some researchers have even suggested that English is “*a dyslexic language ..[which].. actually causes greater numbers of dyslexics than other languages*” (Schwarz, 1999). Although this view ignores the fact that dyslexia is essentially an information-processing difference, which can also be manifested in many non-linguistic ways, it is true that the irregularities of English grapheme-phoneme correspondence can cause additional difficulties for learners (Nijakowska, 2001), but because these difficulties are often similar in nature to those due to first language interference, it is almost impossible to be sure of the underlying cause. There seems to be some evidence that ‘learning difficulties’ can also be detected for the first time in a foreign language classroom (Dinklage, 1971; Ganschow, et al, 1995), which leads to the practical question of how ELT practitioners in the UK can or should react to and support these students.

A major issue is the recognition and identification of ‘specific learning differences’, as distinct from general difficulties in learning a second language, in adult learners who have not had their disability acknowledged in their home countries. For some learners it does not matter that they do not have a ‘label’ for their differences, as long as they are able to access the curriculum they wish to follow; for most this is down to the skill and commitment of the

teachers they work with. However, an increasing number of students wish (or are required) to gain formal qualifications and may need specific accommodation of their disabilities in exams. For this, official recognition of their difficulties in learning in the form of an educational psychologist's report is essential, and once they are in the UK it is by no means straightforward to obtain. Firstly, it is very difficult to find educational psychologists who feel they have the appropriate language skills to work with non-English speakers and who are satisfied that the content of their diagnostic measures would be sufficiently culturally transferable to ensure validity. Peer & Reid make the point that the *"lack of clear culture-fair assessment criteria"* (2001; p.2) leads to ambiguous or erroneous evaluations of bilingual students. Even if interpreters are employed, the most widely-used diagnostic tools have been developed with an English speaking population in mind and are designed particularly for school-aged students, so that they may not be suitable for adult use. Finally, students from some cultural backgrounds are extremely resistant to the idea that they may have a 'learning difficulty' or disability, if it is not something that is discussed as openly in their home countries as it is here in the UK.

If, however, these obstacles are overcome and the cause of a student's difficulties can be identified, it is then very unclear as to how extra support will be provided, since the Disabled Student Allowance (DSA – the usual means of funding the support requested by UK and EU students in Further and Higher education) is not available for overseas (i.e. non-EU) students. This is an area that has been clarified under the terms of the amended Disability Discrimination Act of 1995, which now requires the provision of auxiliary aids,

such as British Sign Language interpreters and note-takers, to be available for all students. However, many universities and colleges are having problems funding these provisions, as well as struggling with a shortage of suitably qualified interpreters across the country. The situation in the private sector is worse, since the concept of an academic support department does not exist in private language schools, and each teacher should in theory take responsibility for the progress of the students in his or her own class.

For disabled refugees and asylum seekers the situation can be even more acute, since they face additional barriers in accessing the services they require, due to the “*particular cumulative constellation of oppressions*” they experience as members of minority groups within their own ethnic communities and as members of ethnic minority groups within the disabled community (Harris, 2003; p. 395). These people may have overcome many hurdles even to find out about and access ESOL provision, so it is important that when they do they are fully included in the class.

3.4.2 A neglected area?

It is true that ELT professionals have not been as involved in the debate around ‘special educational needs’ as their counterparts in other areas of British education, and until recently it was difficult to find any mention in the ELT literature of ‘learning difficulties’ or ‘disabilities’. However, it is not clear that this omission is due to a callous disregard by British EFL professionals of students who have ‘significantly greater difficulty in learning’ than their peers. Another possible explanation for the lack of explicit discussion of this aspect of teaching is that there is a different perception of ‘learning difficulty’ amongst EFL practitioners – those who have come through the route of so-called

'legacy' qualifications. The concept of segregating learners on the basis of disability is virtually unheard of in British ELT classes for adults (and here it is important to distinguish between EFL/ESOL for adult learners and EAL provision in the compulsory education sector), and so the idea of 'integration' is equally redundant. (The situation may be somewhat different in other BANA countries according to Platt et al (2003), where state-funded ELT has assumed many of the characteristics of 'mainstream' education, as, to some extent ESOL provision in the UK is beginning to do.) The British ELT community has, in effect, by-passed these two stages of development, and headed straight for the goal of inclusive practice. Classes for adults are formed generally according to proficiency level, but diversity is a given: in any class there is likely to be a range of first languages, ages, motivations, previous education, language learning experience, and of course, varying degrees of success in learning different aspects of English. There have been sporadic attempts in the last few years to raise the issue of disability in the EFL arena (e.g. Kay, 2000; Millrood, 2001; Adoniou, 2001, 2004; Smith, 2005) but it has not gained a high profile in the professional literature or on the conference circuit. My hypothesis is that the development of EFL in the UK, focussing as it always has on learners' needs, has led to the inclusion of *all* students being a pre-requisite of a successful English language classroom, making protracted discussion of individual disabilities seem unnecessary, although individual learners' differences are commonly discussed (e.g. Dornyei & Skehan, 2003).

Having said that, however, it could be argued that fewer language learners with disabilities would make the journey to the UK to study, and so

the numbers of disabled learners has until now been low enough not to impinge significantly on the management of the classroom. This may have been the case in the past, but given the increased demand for English noted above, as well as the greater governmental pressure to encourage all refugees and asylum seekers to gain language qualifications as a requirement for citizenship, the situation in this respect is changing. Most recently, the Skills for Life pathfinder project 'Learning for Living' (DfES, 2006a; DfES, 2006b) has focussed on the accommodation of disabled learners in the ESOL classroom, and has produced materials and guidelines for teachers, as well as running workshops at various venues. The emphasis in these publications on understanding the relevant legislation and how it applies to the adult education classroom, rather than on the practical application of more inclusive teaching techniques, suggests that the motivation is instrumental rather than pedagogical, in line with many of the current initiatives in ESOL.

The successful inclusion of increasing numbers of learners with a greater range of disabilities than has hitherto been the case does, I believe, call for some specific discussion of the related issues to be included in the initial and in-service education and training aimed at ELT professionals. As Root (1994, p.1) points out, a lot of English language classes are taught "*in settings where [teachers] do not have ready access to consultation, guidance or referral advice and special needs professionals*", particularly in the private sector in this country. This would suggest that EFL teachers in particular need to know more about 'learning difficulties' than ESOL teachers or their 'mainstream' EAL counterparts, who are likely to have access to much more support in this field. There is therefore the need to find appropriate language

to discuss the issues and the question for the EFL community here is how to sustain existing ELT discourses (that highlight a learner's strengths as well as specific areas of difficulty) in the face of increasing pressure to adopt the 'special' discourses of the 'mainstream', particularly in contexts where EFL and ESOL have a high degree of overlap, such as the FE sector.

3.5 CONCLUSIONS: COMPARING ELT AND 'SPECIAL' EDUCATION

This chapter set out to trace the development of what is usually referred to as 'special' education in the UK, and specifically in the UK. The similarities between the development of ELT (charted in the previous chapter) and 'special' education were noted, in respect of the position they originally occupied outside the 'mainstream' framework (and to some extent still do), and their distinctive teacher training entry routes. It was also demonstrated that the learners in both 'special' educational settings and adult ELT settings – at least in the state sector – can be among the more vulnerable members of society. They have been identified as sources of cheap labour for the national economy, so that the expectations of their academic achievement tends to be low, and the systems surrounding their education could be construed as being designed to maintain these low expectations. Both areas of education have, late in the 20th century experienced radical shake-ups of policy, to bring them more into line with the 'mainstream', and this has necessitated radical changes in teacher education and resources.

The dominant discourses in the state sector pertaining to the education of disabled learners were examined and found to largely betray a medical model of disability, focussing on the 'special' provision they are deemed to require; competing, more inclusive discourses are emerging but have yet to

attain widespread usage. In contrast, within the field of EFL there was found to be less explicit discussion of disabilities, although it seems likely that where practitioners have contact with the 'mainstream', for example, in FE settings, the discourse of 'special needs' will become more influential. Almost 30 years after the Warnock report was hailed as a radical re-examination of 'special' education, it seems that government policy is the single factor that militates most against the implementation of inclusive practice across the education spectrum. If education is to become truly inclusive the debate must, in Lindsay's words: "*develop beyond concerns about input and settings to a focus on experiences and outcomes*" (2003; p. 10).

The emphasis placed on teacher training and education as a driving force in implementing policies of integration or inclusion (for example in the Warnock report) played a major role in the conception of the study described in this thesis. The main aims of the study have been outlined in Chapter 1, and Chapters 2 and 3 have provided an overview of the educational and political contexts in which the participants work. The influence of these environmental factors will be evident in the next chapter, in which the methodology employed will be explained.

CHAPTER 4 : METHODOLOGY

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This methodology section describes the way in which this study was undertaken and explains the rationale behind the project design. The data collection methods used will be examined in detail here, including a discussion of the pilot work that was undertaken before the main study, and how that influenced the final design. This explanation is contained within a separate 'methodology section', in line with usual practice, but the methodology of the study should not be thought of as in any way distinct from or additional to the actual data collection and analysis. Rather, the design of the study and the research questions that drove it developed simultaneously as part of an iterative process. As Clough and Nutbrown point out:

“Research is, by definition, a search for form quite as much – and at the same time – as it is a search for ‘content’ or knowledge to report” (2002: p.67)

Any study can only begin to take shape once the research questions have been formulated, but the questions continue to be refined in the light of the practical demands of data collection, once it is known what is possible. Blaxter et al describe research as “...*the art of the feasible*” (1996: p.144), and the methods of data collection in this study naturally continued to be reassessed as the work proceeded. The particular constraints and factors that shaped this project will be discussed later on, but first it would be useful to begin with a description of the project, and an outline of the questions.

4.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The initial starting point for the research, as outlined previously in Chapter 1, the Introduction, was the desire to find answers to some questions that had arisen for me in my professional life. Originally, these were:

- 1) *What views do British ELT practitioners (teachers, trainers, course leaders and accrediting bodies) hold about the teaching of students who have disabilities or learning differences?*
- 2) *How does initial TEFL training in the UK (the Certificate courses) approach the issue of 'inclusion'?*
- 3) *Does existing provision of in-service training and professional development meet the needs of ELT practitioners in the UK?*

In the course of the research project these questions came to be refined, in order to be more precise and allow separate concepts to be teased out.

4.1.1 Question 1

Once some of the data had been collected, and the picture of the field had begun to take shape, Question 1 (*'What views do ELT practitioners hold about the teaching of students who have disabilities and learning differences'*) could be refined as follows:

- 1a) *How are the views of ELT practitioners affected by the development of 'expertise' (the combination of classroom experience and further study)?*
- 1b) *How does a person's employment sector (private or public) affect these views?*
- 1c) *How are these views affected by the specific experience of working with people who have disabilities?*

1d) *How do these views differ for different disabilities and perceived degree of disability?*

4.1.2 Question 2

There is an assumption implicit in Question 2 (*‘How does initial TEFL training in the UK approach the issue of inclusion?’*) that one of the features of ELT initial training is that it does in fact address the issue of inclusion. This demands further investigation, formulated thus:

2a) *What are the aims of the initial certificate courses?*

Assuming that the answer to this question will reveal some intention to prepare new teachers to work supportively with learners in heterogeneous groups, both meanings of ‘how’ (i.e. *‘in what ways’* and *‘to what extent’* this is achieved) demand attention separately, so that the question must be further refined:

2b) *What aspects of the courses are identified by the respondents as being important for preparing new teachers to support their learners?*

2c) *To what extent do the initial certificate courses successfully prepare new teachers to support their learners.*

4.1.3 Question 3

Question 3 (*‘Does existing provision of in-service training and professional development meet the needs of ELT practitioners in the UK?’*) was extremely complex, so in order to unpack it, first it seemed important to explore the full range of opportunities available to English teachers. Question 3 was first refined thus:

3a) What opportunities do ELT professionals have for professional development?

From this it became possible to examine how well the opportunities that are available fit with teachers' own perceptions of their development needs, in respect of different aspects of their professional lives. The following three questions facilitated this examination:

3b) What opportunities do ELT professionals (in both sectors) have to develop their abilities to support learners with disabilities?

3c) To what extent do ELT professionals take advantage of the opportunities for CPD that they have?

3d) What kind of professional development do ELT practitioners feel they would like or need access to?

These questions, as expanded here, helped to keep the research focussed, and to make sense of the data as they were collected and analysed.

4.2 THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

As explained in Chapter 1, these questions have arisen directly from a unique combination of experiences that make them personal to me; in this way the choice of topic reflects my identity as a researcher. It has relatively recently become more widely accepted that in social research the researcher's own world-view will have an enormous impact on the entire study (see for example Clough & Nutbrown, 2002; Cohen et al, 2001). The methods for collecting and analysing the data, and the way in which conclusions are drawn and reported will all be determined in a large part by the individual who is conducting the research. Since, as Sayer points out, "...*meaning has to be*

understood, it cannot be measured or counted” (2000: p.17), a level of subjective interpretation is necessarily involved. Indeed, it can be argued that it is precisely the interaction between researcher and informant that creates new knowledge, and this is “*often something to be welcomed and celebrated*” (Blaxter, et al, 1996: p.76); trying to keep the research “*value-free*” would risk reducing it to the level of an empty intellectual exercise (Rosenberg 1998: p.187).

The way in which a person interacts with the world is dependent on his or her experiences to date: education, political and religious beliefs and even family life all play a role in constructing the personal theories we use to make sense of these experiences. In a wider sense, O’Brien helpfully suggests that our theories are the kaleidoscopic lenses through which we view the world, and that:

“...by shifting theoretical perspective the world under investigation also changes shape.” (1993: p.11).

The theoretical perspective that provides the subtext to the research questions in this study is clearly the assumption that teachers *should* seek to include all students in their classes, and thus contribute to the development of an inclusive education system and ultimately an inclusive society. From this follows a need for them to be suitably trained in the best ways of empowering students to fulfil their potential (perhaps particularly important for those who are often disadvantaged because of disability). This assertion reveals the “*essential emancipatory impulse*” that Bhaskar (1986: p.169) considers a key characteristic of social research. It cannot be denied that this study, like most in the field, has a clear agenda, with its underlying intention to improve the

inclusiveness of English language teaching and learning, and enable the participation for hitherto underrepresented sections of the population. In this respect it is fair to say that my methodological approach displays many of the characteristics usually associated with critical research theory (Cohen et al, 2001; Sayer, 2000) although I do not feel that giving research (or researchers) a philosophical label is generally helpful, especially when, as Held asserts, "*Critical Theory...does not form a unity; it does not mean the same thing to all its adherents.*" (1980: p.14).

Attempting to fit a social research study into a particular pigeonhole, when not everybody agrees on the shape of the hole, may result in a skewed perception of the study, and an eclectic approach to methodology may be preferred. The notion of a dichotomy between qualitative and quantitative research no longer goes unquestioned (Bell, 1993; Blaxter, et al, 1996; Flick, 1998); Robson asserts that the differences between the two are "*more apparent than real and ...there is in practice a considerable underlying unity of purpose.*" (1993: p.6), so I defend my decisions to design research tools that draw on both normative and interpretative traditions by appealing to the overarching tenet that in any research project the instruments for gathering the data must be matched to the questions being asked. There should be "*fitness for purpose*", as it is often termed (Cohen et al, 2001).

Apart from theoretical and ideological considerations there will always be other factors that shape the research design. As Kahle (1984) notes, these include temporal and financial constraints, as well as the personal circumstances and qualities of the researcher. In this case I feel I was well placed to conduct the research: as a member of the community under

discussion, I am an insider who could empathise with the voices of the informants, and this helped to inform my interpretation of their words and actions. Simultaneously, as an academic support tutor at a British university, I could see the world of TEFL as an outsider, and maintain the distance needed to examine the data honestly. Flick acknowledges the effect that a researcher's personality has on a project when he claims that "*Researchers and their communicative competencies are the main 'instrument' of collecting data and of cognition*" (1998: p.55). One of the personal strengths that I believe I was able to exploit in this research was the ability to communicate well with a wide range of people, and to reassure them that I was a sympathetic listener. In this study I was helped by the fact that I was not an outsider, but a fellow ELT professional. As for time and money, these were somewhat limited, and the study was necessarily designed as an attempt to reach as many informants and 'hear' as many voices as possible in a relatively short time, and in the most efficient way, bearing in mind that the informants were all educational practitioners with full schedules.

The issue of access to informants is one that has a great impact on the design of any study, and must always be handled with delicacy and professionalism. Some commentators aptly describe it as a multi-layered problem (Denscombe, 1998; Flick, 1998), Arber (1993) sees an additional level: that of gaining access to internal documents which may not be generally available to the public. In this study it was not enough to obtain permission from a 'gatekeeper' to physically be at an institution, or send questionnaires there, the individual members of staff also had to be persuaded to play their parts as informants. As Hornsby-Smith notes, this required the researcher to

be continually negotiating access and “*informed consent directly from each participant*” (1993: p.63), being aware of possible power differentials within the organisation, and being alert to the different pressures that the informants may have been under. These may have influenced the way in which the researcher was perceived, and any misgivings that informants might have had, had to be allayed by explicit assurances of the integrity of the research. One condition of gaining access was that the researcher was under certain ethical obligations, which needed to be thought through before the study began, and articulated for the informants. The participants were reassured that the information they provided was to be used only for the purposes of the study, and that they would remain anonymous in the final report, in accordance with the Data Protection Act (1998). This formed part of the negotiated access with each informant, some of whom also wished to have an overview of the whole study, and an indication of who might have access to the results.

4.3 THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This research was undertaken exclusively in the ELT community in Britain, the first country to develop a TEFL sector, and – arguably – still one of the leaders in this global business. This was partly a matter of geographical convenience, but it had the additional merit of narrowing the focus of the study, by avoiding a detailed comparison of the many different types of training programme found around the world (although some similarities and differences are noted in the study). It also gave me the scope to compare EFL training practices with ‘mainstream’ modern foreign language teacher training in the UK, and assess the differences in approach. In seeking answers to the research questions, there were two main methods used to gather data: i) a

postal survey to explore the wider landscape of ELT in the UK and ii) face-to-face interviews with trainers to yield much more detailed information about the training courses. These complementary tools were designed to collect overlapping data which would contribute to answering the research questions above.

The precise procedure followed in collecting data using each of the tools is explained in detail below, after a brief description of the work that was carried out as a preliminary exploration of the field.

4.3.1 Pilot Study

During the pilot stage of this study a questionnaire was distributed to teachers in the large EFL department of a city-centre university, to investigate how common the experience of teaching disabled students was amongst UK teachers. The response rate was about 60%, perhaps due to the timing (many teachers were finishing for the summer). Some of the responses received indicated that the questions were too ambitious in their complexity, and were open to several interpretations, encouraging respondents to give too much information! However, it was clear from these data that the issue did warrant further investigation, and was not just one person's idiosyncratic perspective of the situation. The results informed subsequent question design, so that the respondents were led through the questionnaire step by step, even though this made the questionnaire much longer. An attempt was also made to simplify the questions as much as possible, although it appears that even so, in Section C there remained some confusion as to how to record the answers. This will be revisited in Chapter 9.

Pilot interviews were conducted at two educational establishments: one in the private sector, one publicly funded, but both located in the same town. At each, three trainers were interviewed (including in each case the course co-ordinator or manager of the department). Two of the lead administrators at one of the main accrediting boards were also interviewed, in a joint interview. From this it became clear that it was preferable to interview people alone, rather than try to factor in the group dynamics of people unknown to the researcher, but this was not always possible, due to the nature of teachers' timetables.

An attempt was also made to follow a cohort of newly qualified teachers through their first year of teaching, in order to assess what impact their training had had on them, and how well it equipped them for their first posts. A group of 17 trainees was identified and interviewed at one of the pilot study sites, and all expressed willingness to take part in the study, which involved communicating with the researcher and the rest of the group through an on-line discussion forum. (15 supplied their e-mail addresses, 2 did not have an e-mail address at that time.) However, once their course finished the group dispersed and few of the trainees ever posted messages, despite regular encouragement from the researcher. Whether this was due to lack of time or access to the internet, or because they did not get jobs immediately, or simply because they changed their minds about the study is not known, but it indicated the difficulty of tracking the movements of people involved in such a fluid and diverse career. On reflection, it became clear that the best way to hear the voices of novice teachers was through the instrument already

designed for gathering the views of the broader population of ELT professionals in the UK, namely the postal questionnaire.

4.3.2 The Design of the Questionnaire

The first stage of data collection took the form of a broad survey of ELT practitioners: a short questionnaire intending to ascertain how the issue of inclusion is experienced and perceived generally in the British ELT community. The terminology used here can be seen as problematic in itself; there is little agreement among psychologists or sociologists as to what exactly a 'perception' may be, and the term 'attitude' has even been described as "*somewhat slippery*" (Robson, 1993: p256). For the practical purposes of this study, I took Oppenheim's definition of an attitude being "*a tendency to respond in a certain manner when confronted with certain stimuli.*" (1992: 174). However, I accept Fielding's (1993) caution that attitudes may be held independently of the actual practice or behaviour of the professionals in the sample. The definition of 'inclusion' is equally contested, but as noted in the previous chapter, is in this study used in the 'pure' sense of "*understand[ing] and engag[ing] with difference in constructive and valued ways*" (Barton, 2003; p. 9) rather than seeking to assimilate and impose conventions on individuals who do not conform in some way to the institutional norms.

If definitions can be problematic, the measurement of attitudes is a further challenge; there are many reasons why there may well be a large gap between how people report themselves and what they truly believe or feel, not least the fact that they may wish to appear in a good light, to please the researcher or maintain a positive self image. For this reason, the questionnaire comprised a mixture of question types including

quantity/information items about the respondents' experiences of teaching students who have disabilities, and several statements on a Likert-type scale about their perceptions of inclusive approaches to education. A qualitative aspect was sought by providing open spaces to encourage informants to elaborate on their responses. This proved to be important in gaining an holistic view of individuals' beliefs, and to strengthen the content and construct validity of the questionnaire. Although the data thus produced may lack depth, the questionnaires revealed a wide picture of current experience and prevailing attitudes across the country, and to some extent increased the generalizability of the findings.

Appendix A contains the questionnaire, as it was sent out to the respondents. Section A was intended to collect background information about the informants, which would later inform the analysis of the data by allowing the responses to be grouped according to different, potentially significant characteristics. Section B elicited information about the informants' initial teaching qualifications and training experiences, including how well they thought they had been prepared for the job that they then went on to do. This was particularly relevant in answering Question 2. Section C was designed to provide data for Question 3, regarding professional development in various areas of ELT, after initial training. This was also related back to Section A to determine how well the respondents' professional development had kept pace with their career development, and the roles that they had subsequently assumed. Sections D and E explored the respondents' attitudes to supporting learners who have disabilities, and helped to answer Question 1. Section D also investigated how many of the respondents had had experience of

working with learners with disabilities, and what kind of experience that had been, with a view to determining what effect experience would play in forming attitudes. In this section several different categories of disability were presented, with a view to determining whether they would evoke different attitudes. The intention was not to compartmentalise different students, but to explore whether the varying types of accommodation necessary for different impairments and disabilities were perceived equally by the respondents. In this sense it is akin to asking teachers about their responses to learners from different language backgrounds, each with their own particular areas of difficulty. The statements in Section E were developed from the responses to the pilot study questionnaire and informal discussions held with colleagues.

The order of the questionnaire was designed to lead the respondents from simple, factual questions to the more complex attitudinal ones, so as to help them gain confidence in their ability to answer. It did not reflect the order in which the research questions arose or would be answered, and in practice there was a great deal of overlap in terms of which sections contributed to formulating answers for each of the questions, particularly in the qualitative data.

4.3.3 Sampling for the Questionnaire

68 institutions were initially identified, from a sampling frame which consisted of all EFL schools in the UK which are accredited by the British Council and FE and HE departments that are accredited by the British Association of Lecturers of English for Academic Purposes (BALEAP- lists of such institutions are easily available from the organisations' web sites). This frame does not include *all* English language teaching environments in the UK;

there are many small, specialist language schools who are accredited by neither the British Council nor BALEAP. However, I considered that it was important to focus on those institutions which have accreditation because it ensures certain levels of qualification for the course leaders as well as the teachers, and – crucially – guarantees that the marketing materials “*accurately reflect what is provided*” (British Council, 2004), which was important for the second stage of the study, described below. Sampling was random, using stratification to ensure that there was a mix of type (private and state funded) and location of schools, (large cities (populations of over 300,000) as well as medium sized towns (population of 100,000 – 300,000) and smaller towns (population less than 100,000)), thereby controlling for any potential difference that the location of the institutions might produce. The institutions chosen for the later interview stage of the study were excluded from the questionnaire stage, to avoid overloading any single institution, and repeating the same questions to the informants.

4.3.4 Questionnaire Data Collection

The institutions chosen were approached first by e-mail, which was followed up by a telephone call, so that, if they were willing to take part, the timing of the questionnaire could be negotiated to take into account the routine of their academic year, avoiding periods of intense activity, such as exam preparation months. The number of questionnaires to be sent to each school or department was negotiated with the Director of Studies, or another person who held a position of authority, and who became my named contact in that institution. It was crucial to have somebody in the institution who would be responsible for distributing and collecting the questionnaires; it was so much

the better if they were able to exert some influence with their colleagues, even though each individual was free to decide whether to take part, or not. The informants in both the questionnaire and the interview stages were thus, to a large extent, self-selecting, and this may have had some effect on the types of responses that were given.

During the initial phone call, a date was also agreed by which the questionnaires would be returned; in order to ensure the maximum return rate possible, a follow up e-mail was sent to any institution which had not returned the questionnaires a week after the agreed date, to make sure there was no problem with the questionnaire, and to encourage completion. If there was still no return after another week, another 'phone call was made to the named person at the institution. If they were unwilling, or unable to take part, another school was substituted, until the fourth round of recruitment had been completed (in February 2005), when time constraints dictated that this stage of the study had to be brought to an end. At this point, 461 questionnaires had been sent out to practitioners working in 51 institutions across the country. By making personal contact with each institution the hope was to maximise the return rate, and this was useful to some extent, yielding a return rate of 41%, which is within acceptable limits to maintain the validity of the data (Cohen et al, 2001).

The questionnaire itself was 6 sides of A4 paper, with plenty of space for additional comments on most of the sheets. Attached to each questionnaire were a small blank envelope and a brief introductory letter to each of the individual participants (shown in Appendix B), which aimed to make personal contact with them and thus negotiate the second level of

access. The participants were asked to complete the questionnaires and then place them in the envelopes provided, to return to the named contact person who had distributed them. This was to ensure anonymity and reassure the participants that their responses would not be read by anyone other than the researcher. A large pre-paid, addressed envelope was also provided for the return of the completed questionnaires. In a few cases, the school requested an electronic version of the questionnaire to distribute, since this suited their communications systems better. This request was complied with, as it was deemed best to take any opportunity to gather information, rather than to quibble over a matter of format, and in these cases envelopes were sent out separately, with the pre-paid return envelope. Although some schools chose not to use them, it is not believed that this constituted a serious breach of confidentiality; the questionnaires returned 'open' did not show any obvious signs of tampering or coercion, so far as it was possible to judge.

The questions were couched in vocabulary designed to be familiar to the recipients, using phrases current among ELT practitioners, as Newell recommends (1993). This meant that for Sections D and E which asked the respondents about students they had worked with who had disabilities, a balance had to be struck between using expressions the respondents would recognise, (such as 'learning difficulty') and more inclusive language, the exact meaning of which may not have been as easily understood. My involvement in the field was an advantage in this respect, but nevertheless the help of a small group of well qualified and trusted EFL teachers was elicited in piloting the questionnaire, who gave feedback on the design and made

suggestions about the timing and incentives needed to ensure the success of this survey, as suggested by Frazer & Lawley (2000).

4.3.5 Questionnaire Data Analysis

On receipt of the completed questionnaires, each respondent's data set was given a unique identifying number which showed the sector in which they worked, and a code number for their institution, but which otherwise did not identify them, thus ensuring their anonymity. (For example, respondent *PL7-5* works in the 7th private school based in a large town from the sampling list, and was the 5th envelope opened from that school; *SC4-4* works in the city-based state institution which was 4th on the sampling list, and was the 4th envelope opened from that school.) The data were then entered into the SPSS computer package, facilitated by pre-coding for most of the questions, so that statistical tests could be run, the results of which are found in the following sections. The substantial amount of qualitative data gained through the additional comments added had to be post-coded according to the common themes that emerged, using the first few returns to set up a coding frame. These results are likewise reported in full in the following chapters.

Flick (1998: p.43) suggests employing a "*circular model*" of research, which seems more useful – as well as being more realistic – than a linear model in which, for example, all sampling should be completed before any data collection can begin. Using this circular model, initial analysis of the data collected through the questionnaire was used to inform the subsequent phases, to refine the field questions and especially to highlight any themes that should be followed up in the interview stage. For example, the interview questions formulated from the schedules were slightly differentiated for

informants in the state and private sectors to reflect the differences that were appearing in the responses to the questionnaire, and the sample that had been chosen for the next stage was broadened to include more institutions that were running the 'new' ESOL training courses.

4.3.6 The Structure of the Interview

The second strand of the study was a series of interviews with teachers, trainers and managers at selected training institutions, and course designers. These, in Denscombe's (1998) terms, were conducted as semi-structured interviews in which the interviewees were encouraged to speak freely about the topics raised (Appendix C shows the schedule of topics that was used in these interviews, including pre-coding prompts and examples of questions formulated for Section 3.) In each interview, the same topics were addressed, although the order in which they arose depended to some extent on the interviewees, and how they responded to each question.

Section 1 elicited the informants' personal backgrounds, qualifications and experience. These data triangulated with those gained from the questionnaire to give an overview of career progression in ELT, and added to the information available to help answer Question 3. Section 2 explored the trainers' views of the courses they were involved with, and any changes in curriculum that they were currently implementing or anticipating, contributing to a better understanding of the issues raised in Question 2. The third section sought information about the informants' experiences of working with learners with disabilities, and how well they felt they had been prepared to support their learners; these data in conjunction with the questionnaire data were vital in formulating an answer for Question 1.

Because of the open format of the interviews, there is less uniformity in the data collected than would have been the case in structured interviews, but I believe that the benefits of allowing informants to speak freely, and therefore to reveal information that the researcher may not have anticipated, far outweighed the difficulties of later analysing and comparing responses. In all cases the interviewees willingly opened up in response to the questions and seemed happy to discuss the issues candidly and fully, and I remain confident that this method of data collection proved to be extremely fruitful.

4.3.7 Sampling for the Interviews

The schools and colleges where EFL/ESOL training is carried out (as opposed to teaching alone) are limited in number and tend to be clustered in a few towns and cities which attract large numbers of language learners from overseas (it is a pre-requisite of a TEFL Certificate course that the trainees have access to a certain number of language students to 'practice on'). These places include Bath, Cambridge, Canterbury, Cheltenham (where the pilot studies were carried out), Edinburgh, London, Manchester, Oxford, York, and several seaside towns, especially along the south coast. From a researcher's point of view this is convenient, in that these towns afford the opportunity to find samples from more than one school in each place, thus increasing the breadth of the sample and reducing travelling time. However, in the choice of samples for this study, besides convenience there was also an element of purposive sampling, since it was hoped, through building a typology (Silverman, 2000), to choose institutions which represented different types of educational provision in the same towns, and followed different curricula (either the Cambridge ESOL or the Trinity course). Hence, the pilot work

focussed on two colleges in Cheltenham, one an internationally known commercial school offering the Trinity Cert TESOL, the other a large FE college offering the Cambridge Certificate. (An additional reason that Cheltenham was chosen as the pilot town was because of personal contacts between the researcher and the college, which allowed easier access than might otherwise have been the case.) This pattern was to have been replicated in other towns in the UK, the final choice of which would have been equally influenced by the issue of access. Initially I intended to visit a private school and an FE / HE college in four to six more locations – a mixture of large cities and smaller towns – to allow for the fact that any differences that arose could be due to location or type of institution.

In practice, the changes in the training courses for teachers wishing to enter the state sector that were implemented in 2004 meant that the difference between the new 'ESOL' courses and the old 'EFL' courses became much more pertinent to the study than the relatively small differences between the older 'legacy' courses offered by the two main accrediting boards. Some of the institutions originally identified as potential informants were in transition, attempting to set up and market their new courses, and closing down their old ones. This meant that in the event there was very little choice about which institutions participated in the interviews, although a balance was maintained of state- and privately-funded institutions, as this had been identified as a key factor by the initial analysis of the questionnaire data.

4.3.8 Interview Data Collection

Institutions were approached initially by e-mail, which were followed up by a telephone call to the Director of Studies, or another person suggested by

the institution. As described above, there was a high rate of 'self-exclusion' from the study on the grounds that the courses I expressed interest in were either no longer being run or had not yet been successfully set up. In each of the 5 institutions which agreed to take part, interviews were sought with as many of the trainers and managers as were willing and able to participate; in some cases this was, unfortunately, only one. This was in part due to the layered issue of access discussed above; in a few cases the head of department or lead trainer was willing to meet me, but his or her colleagues were not available (or not willing) to talk to me on the day I visited. These data therefore came from a relatively small sample, but the opportunity for detailed questioning was valuable, to follow up on any ideas that had not yet been fully explored, as well as to elicit the informants' own views of what the salient issues were. This meant that the data were in fact extremely rich, as is shown in the chapters that follow.

All the interviewees agreed that their interviews could be audio-taped, and the researcher later transcribed them. Each interview lasted between forty minutes and an hour, during which time notes were made of non-verbal responses which would otherwise have been lost in the recording, as well as the main points raised, using a partly pre-coded schedule. The data from the interviews provided a means of triangulating the data gleaned through the survey, as well as providing more detailed information than the questionnaire could.

4.3.9 Interview Data Analysis

I transcribed the recordings of the interviews myself, as a way of immersing myself in the data, and picking up on all the nuances that may have

escaped me while the interviews were in progress. Each transcript was given a unique identifying number to protect the identity of the informant, beginning with 'I' to denote interviewee, either 'P' or 'S' to indicate the sector in which he or she worked, and then a letter to signify the role of the participant: 'T' for trainer, 'C' for co-ordinator (head of department, or lead trainer) or 'D' for (course) designer. The interviewees who took part in the pilot stage of the study were also given a prefixed 'p-' to distinguish their comments from the main study interviewees. Finally, a number was allocated, in chronological order. The transcripts were then sent to the interviewees for verification and the occasional clarification of any misheard or inaudible sections (often names and acronyms), before being post-coded and annotated according to the themes that were raised in the interview. Common themes were then collated and organised according to the light they shed on the research questions.

4.4 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter charts the development of the project from the original three questions, through exploratory work, some of which was discovered to be less feasible than other approaches, to the final analysis of the data that were collected, using a much more refined set of questions. In qualitative analysis of the sort carried out in this study, there is always a danger that the researcher perceives or reports only the opinions that corroborate the original hypothesis, and contradictory views are easily neglected. In a bid to safeguard the reliability of this study, where opinions are reported in the following chapters, an indication of how representative they are is also given. However, a degree of subjectivity must be acknowledged, and is not only to be expected, but even embraced, as has been discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 5 : THE PARTICIPANTS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is the first of four in the results section of this thesis and provides an overview of the people who took part in this study, focussing on their professional backgrounds and environments. Chapter 2 provided a general overview of the field of ELT, but this chapter could be seen as offering a snapshot of the type of work patterns that are followed by a sample of ELT practitioners at the beginning of the 21st century. The information reported here was drawn from the first section of the interview schedule and Section A of the questionnaire. The aim was to provide background information that would enhance the interpretation of the following sections, particularly with regard to the variables that may prove to be significant in answering the research questions, such as working environment and length and type of teaching experience.

The first section gives information about the interview informants, where they work, how they came into the ELT profession, and how they progressed from being classroom teachers to their present roles, using their own words to give a flavour of the career routes open to them. The second section focuses on the questionnaire respondents, and provides a statistical breakdown of the different places of work and types of teaching that they are engaged in.

5.1 THE INTERVIEWEES

Interviews were conducted with 15 professionals involved in a range of capacities with the training of new teachers: 7 in the pilot stage of the project, and 8 in the main study. Table 5/1 shows an overview of the key

characteristics of the interviewees (the first seven are the informants from the pilot stage, denoted by the prefix p-). Although a year separates the pilot and the main studies, in some important respects there is little difference between the data collected in each phase, and for this reason the important contributions made by the pilot interviewees to the understanding of the issues under discussion have not been discarded. Where they are reported in the following chapters they are easily distinguished from main study informants by their ID code.

ID number	Sector	Gender	Role or Title	Total years of teaching experience	Years of training experience	Type of course
p-ISC-1	state	female	EFL Co-ordinator	22	15	Cambridge CELTA
p-IST-2	state	female	Trainer	19	12	Cambridge CELTA
p-IPT-3	private	female	Trainer	10	5	Trinity Cert TESOL
p-IPD-4	private	female	Chief Examiner	?	7	Trinity Cert TESOL
p-ID-5	private	female	Chief Examiner	12	10	Trinity Dip TESOL
p-IPC-6	private	male	Director of Studies	13	5	Trinity Cert TESOL
p-IPT-7	private	female	Trainer	5	0.5	Trinity Cert TESOL
ISC-8	state	male	TESOL Co-ordinator	30	10	Level 4 Cert ESOL
ISD-9	state	female	Head of ESOL	20	15	Level 4 Cert ESOL
ISC-10	state	male	TESOL Co-ordinator	23	15	Level 4 Cert ESOL
ISC-11	state	male	Senior Lecturer, ESOL	20	3	Level 4 Cert ESOL
ISC-12	state	male	Senior Lecturer, ESOL	13	5	Level 4 Cert ESOL
IPC-13	private	female	Director of EFL	14	7	Cambridge CELTA
IPT-14	private	male	Trainer	10	3	Cambridge CELTA
IPT-15	private	male	Trainer	15	3	Cambridge CELTA

Table 5/1: Key characteristics of the interviewees.

5.1.1 Gender and place of work

The group represented a mixture of people involved with the two main accrediting bodies (Cambridge and Trinity) as well as a mixture of types of

course (short ‘legacy’ Certificate courses and longer ‘new route’ courses). The balance of male and female participants was roughly equal, as was the balance between private and state sector employees, as illustrated in Table 5/2:

	Women	Men	Total
Private institutions	5	3	8
State institutions	3	4	7
Total	8	7	15

Table 5/2: Profile of interview informants by gender and place of work.

5.1.2 Length of Teaching Experience

The interview informants had at least 5 years experience in the field of ELT, and had generally been involved in training for at least 3 years (with one exception, who was new to training). The average number of years experience of teaching for this group of respondents is 15.53 (standard deviation 6.72) and the average number of years involvement in training is 7.70 (standard deviation 4.85). Although the figures are too small to run statistical analyses, it seems that the informants from the state sector tended to have more years experience in both teaching and training than their private sector counterparts, as illustrated in Table 5/3 and Figure 5/3, below. This matches the data obtained from the questionnaires.

Sector	Mean years experience of teaching	Mean years experience of training
Private	10.75 (standard deviation: 3.45)	5.06 (standard deviation: 2.96)
State	21.00 (standard deviation: 5.10)	10.71 (standard deviation: 4.99)
Both	15.53 (standard deviation 6.72)	7.70 (standard deviation 4.85)

Table 5/3: Number of years experience of teaching and training by sector.

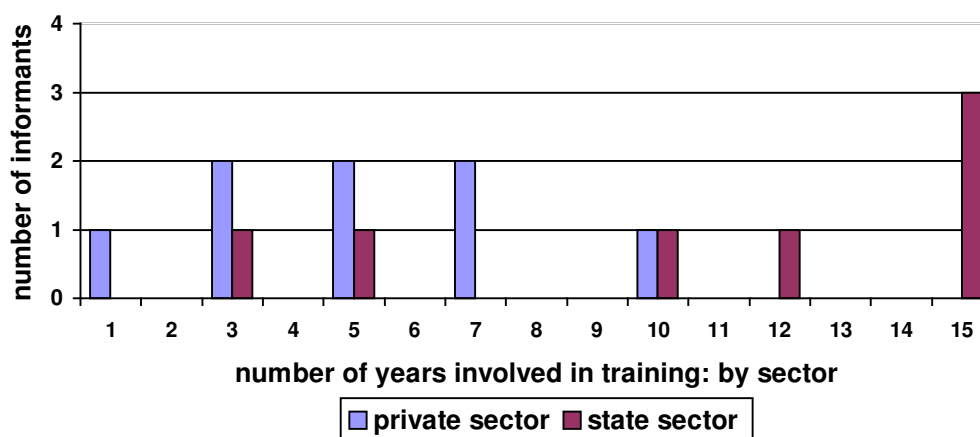


Figure 5/3: Number of years experience of training by sector.

5.1.3 Early Career Structure

Of the 15 informants, the majority had worked overseas at the start of their careers. 2 trainers (in the state sector) stated that they had never worked abroad, and 1 (a course designer in the private sector) did not disclose whether she had or not. Except for two course designers in the private sector, about whose early career no information is available, all the informants reported having taught general English. All but four had also taught other

types of classes, for example, in schools, or English for a specific purpose, such as Business, before getting involved in training.

5.1.4 Current Working Patterns

All but one of the informants were working full-time in the institutions at which I interviewed them. Apart from their duties training new teachers, 7 of the interviewees were also engaged in teaching English learners, and indeed some stated that they thought it indispensable for a trainer to maintain that contact with language learners. Others, however, devoted all their time to either training or administrative work. This appears to be institutionally dependent, rather than a function of sector or the requirements of accrediting boards.

5.1.5 Trainer Training

Making the transition from being a teacher to being a trainer of new teachers was something that none of the interviewees had deliberately planned, according to the accounts of their career development. Most often it was an opportunity that had arisen, either while they were teaching abroad, or on returning to Britain, following further qualifications. Only 6 of the informants stated that they had undertaken specific training or professional development in order to help them make the transition from teacher to trainer, and it seems that it is required by some institutions, but not others, since 2 of the informants stated that they had not had any specific training in how to go about training others. At one extreme of the sample, the route taken from teaching into training began with being asked to do some in-service training sessions for colleagues, and gradually taking on more responsibility; at the other end, one

trainer undertook a formal academic course in order to become a trainer, although this individual (ISD-9) seems to be very much the exception in this respect. One interviewee who began training when abroad admits that he

“wasn’t qualified really, but in Poland by virtue of staying at a school for any length of time, or having some kind of ‘nouse’ you were put in a position of responsibility.” (p-IPC-6)

A similar experience was reported by trainers in both the state and private sectors who had begun training while in Spain (ISC-10), and China (IPC-13), suggesting that by virtue of being a ‘native’ speaker of English, opportunities arose for them which may not have arisen at home until later on in their careers. However, there was also a feeling that this was not always satisfactory, as one co-ordinator (IPC-13) reported: *“I didn’t know what I was doing, I had no training, really, for teacher training.”* There are mechanisms in the UK to help teachers make the leap into training successfully, which involve a novice trainer going to another school to *“experience a CELTA course and shadow it...over the month, having extra assignments to do at home with the admin and the assessment criteria etc.”* (IPT-14). These are not formal courses, but nevertheless the process was described as being *“incredibly hard work and very stressful”* (IPC-13).

There appears to be, historically, some discrepancy between the ‘training up’ procedures followed by Trinity trainers and the Cambridge requirements, which are felt to be more rigorous than the former. This may be something that will change with the new qualifications, but certainly the interviewees who had been training for a while had not all followed the prescribed route:

“Normally you had to do four [courses] with the IH, but because needs required me to train up, I went to do a course in May, over a month, shadowed a course and worked as TP tutor. It wasn’t as rigorous as it is now. The system wasn’t set as it is now by Cambridge.” ISC-10

And in several cases, including trainers running the new courses in the state sector, the teacher had not undertaken any ‘trainer-training’ or shadowing of other trainers, but *“just went straight into it”* (ISC-8) on the strength of their qualifications and years of teaching experience:

“My pedagogical models have come through my reading, but also through my experience of working with people whom I regarded as knowing what they were doing ... working collaboratively in those days as a support teacher, that was when I learnt the most.” (IST-11)

This did not seem to be regarded by the interviewees as strange; it was, for them, a natural career path. The education and expertise of teacher educators can hardly fail to have implications for the content of the training courses for new teachers, as well as the model of education that is promoted. This is an issue that will be discussed more fully in Chapter 9.

5.2 THE QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENTS

In total 194 teachers and trainers completed and returned the questionnaire (a 42% return rate). Section A of the questionnaire consisted of 8 questions, exploring the demographic make up of the respondents in terms of gender, type of work place, number of years of teaching experience, variety of teaching experience, professional roles and working patterns.

5.2.1 Gender and place of work

61.9% of the questionnaire respondents were women and 38.1% men. 68.6% of these individuals work in private language schools, 31.4% in the state sector (see Table 5/4 below). The ratio of men to women was roughly the same in both sectors, as illustrated in Figure 5/4:

	Women	Men	Total
Private institutions	81 (67.5%)	52 (70.3%)	133 (68.6%)
State institutions	39 (32.5%)	22 (29.7%)	61 (31.4%)
Total	120 (100%)	74 (100%)	194 (100%)

Table 5/4: Profile of respondents by gender and place of work.

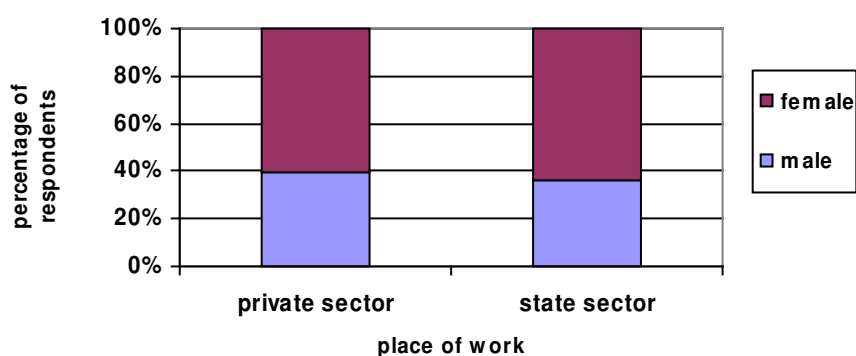


Figure 5/4: Profile of respondents by gender and place of work.

This state / private split closely mirrors the distribution of the schools in the UK accredited by the British Council and BALEAP, which formed the basis of the sampling frame (see section 4.3.3 in Chapter 4). No figures are available for the gender distribution of teachers within those institutions, so it is not possible to gauge how representative the sample was of the population as a whole. It seems unlikely that any accurate figures could be gathered, given the general fluidity of English Language teachers' careers, which was discussed in Chapter 2 and will be further demonstrated in the following sections.

5.2.2 Length of Teaching Experience.

The respondents ranged from experienced teachers with up to 40 years of teaching behind them to newly qualified teachers in their first year, as shown in Table 5/5 and illustrated in Figure 5/5, below. The mean for the whole group was 11.04 years (standard deviation=8.07).

Years Taught	Frequency	Percentage of the sample
1-10	118	60.8
11-20	51	26.2
21-30	21	10.8
31-40	4	2.1

Table 5/5: Number of years of teaching experience.

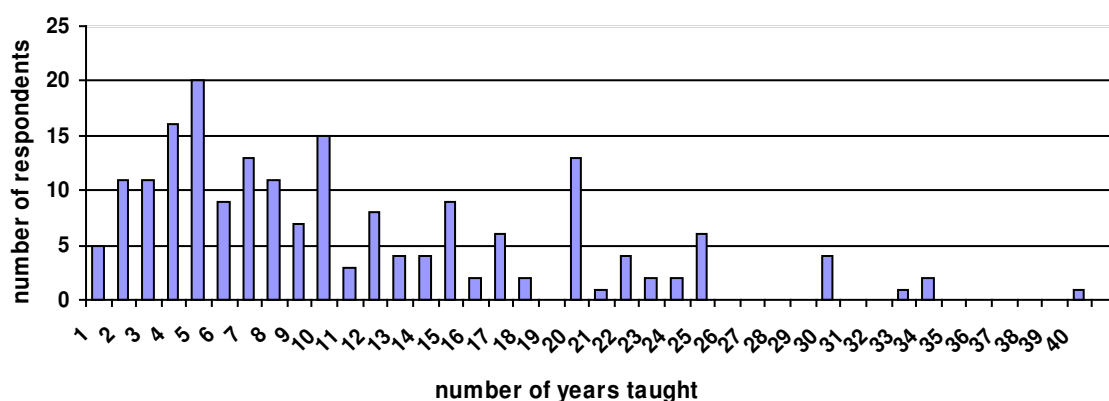


Figure 5/5: Distribution of number of years of teaching experience.

It is interesting to note the difference in distribution of years of experience between the two sectors, as illustrated in Table 5/6 and Figure 5/6:

Number of years served	Private sector		State sector	
	frequency	%	frequency	%
1-10	92	69.2	26	42.6
11-20	27	20.3	24	39.3
21-30	11	8.4	10	16.4
31-40	3	2.3	1	1.6
Mean	9.57		14.25	
Std. Dev	7.916		7.529	

Table 5/6: Number of years of teaching experience, by sector.

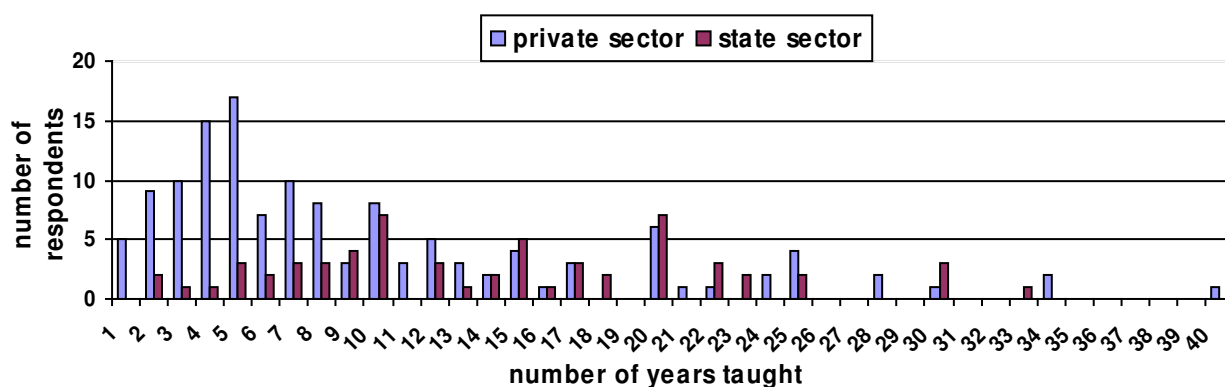


Figure 5/6: Distribution of number of years of teaching experience, by sector.

The state sector had a higher mean number of years service than the private sector: 14.25 (standard deviation=7.53), compared to 9.57 (standard deviation=7.92), as illustrated above, in Table 5/6. This proved to be significant ($t(194) = -3.88, p < .01$), confirming that respondents from the state sector tend to have more years of experience than their private sector counterparts. This may be a function of a common career path of EFL / ESOL teachers, many of whom begin working in private schools, and then move into

(relatively) more secure posts in the state sector when they have gained experience, as discussed in Chapter 2.

5.2.3 Work Overseas.

156 of the respondents (80.4%) reported having worked abroad as well as in the UK (Table 5/7 below):

	Private Sector	State sector	TOTAL
Number of respondents who <i>have</i> worked abroad	101 (75.9%)	55 (90.2%)	156 (80.4%)
Number of respondents who <i>have never</i> worked abroad	32 (24.1%)	6 (9.8%)	38 (19.6%)
TOTAL	133 (100%)	61 (100%)	194 (100%)

Table 5/7: Respondents who have worked abroad, by current place of work.

There were more respondents from the private sector (24.1%) who had never worked abroad, than from the state sector (9.8%), as illustrated in Figure 5/7 below:

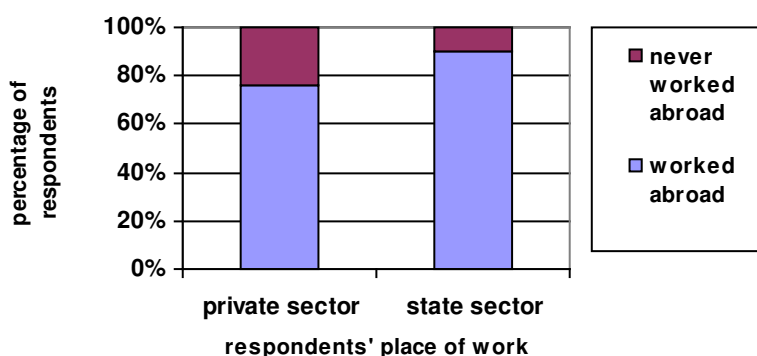


Figure 5/7: Percentage of respondents who had worked abroad, by current place of work.

The Chi-squared test confirmed that there is a relationship between place of work and likelihood of having worked abroad ($X^2=5.37$ (df=1); $p<.05$). The fact that more of the state sector respondents had worked abroad than those from the private sector may appear surprising, given the typical routes into different areas of the profession, as discussed in Chapter 2. However, evidence from the interviews conducted with trainers (reported below) seems to suggest that these routes, as well as the profiles of new recruits to the profession, are changing. In addition, it seems likely that this difference will disappear, or even be reversed, with the introduction of the new qualifications for teachers in the state sector, which will not be recognised outside the UK.

The respondents who had worked abroad reported having lived in more than 70 countries or territories between them (see Table 5/8 for the countries most commonly cited as places of work). 71 of them had lived in only one other country, besides the UK, but the most-travelled respondent had worked in 8 different countries (Austria, Russia, South Africa, Taiwan, Japan, Slovenia, China, Hong Kong and the UK) over a 14 year career. This was the most extreme case of mobility in this population, but it illustrates a general point alluded to above, that EFL teachers do have a reputation for staying only a short time (one or two years) in any one post, making the gathering of longitudinal data about them extremely problematic.

Country	Number of respondents Who reported working there
Spain	38
Italy	28
Japan	24
France	22
Australia	18
Hungary	17
Poland	16
Turkey	12
Greece	11

Table 5/8: Countries most commonly cited by respondents as places of work.

5.2.4 Types of English Taught

All the respondents reported that they had experience of teaching General English, which is the basis of most initial training courses. 70.6% had also taught Academic English, and 66.5% Business English. Experience of many other specific types of English was reported, including medical English and 'English for exams' (see Table 5/9).

Types of English taught	Frequency of responses	Percentage of respondents
General English	194	100
Academic English	137	70.6
Business English	129	66.5
Other type of English teaching	68	35.1
Including: exams	(14)	
ESOL	(11)	
medical	(10)	
young learners	(10)	

Table 5/9: Types of English taught.

What is interesting here is the number of teachers who claim experience of teaching business English and Academic English, when compared to those who report having received training in these areas, which will be reported fully in Chapter 8.

5.2.5 Roles

173 (89.2%) of the respondents were working as teachers in their institutions. The majority of those who did not describe themselves as teachers were managers, and there were many who had multiple roles. The interview data confirms that most trainers of new teachers also continue to teach language learners, for example (Table 5/10 shows the figures):

Respondents who described themselves as working:	Private sector	State sector
as teachers	117 (88%)	56 (91.8%)
as trainers	14 (10.5%)	15 (24.6%)
as course leaders	14 (10.5%)	19 (31.1%)
as managers of departments or schools	26 (19.5%)	7 (11.5%)

Table 5/10: Roles of the respondents, by current workplace.

In both sectors most of the respondents describe themselves as teachers, irrespective of other roles that they fulfil. It appears that a larger proportion of the state sector respondents than the private sector respondents also work as trainers and course leaders, and this discrepancy may at least in part be due to the self-selecting nature of the survey, as mentioned earlier, in Chapter 4. It also points to the possibility that in the state sector managers are expected to maintain a teaching role alongside their administrative duties.

5.2.6 Professional Expertise

As well as measuring the number of years of experience that each individual had accrued, information was also gathered about further qualifications that they had gained. The combination of experience and study can be said to indicate the level of expertise that an individual may have. Drawing on the field of expertise studies (e.g. Ericsson and Smith, 1991), a typology was constructed, in which practitioners are classified as 'novice', 'intermediate' or 'highly experienced', according to the following criteria:

Novice: <3 years of teaching (before undertaking further qualifications)
or <6 years of teaching, without further qualifications

Intermediate: 3-10 years of teaching,
or 6-15 years of teaching without further qualifications.

Highly Experienced: >10 years of teaching,
or >15 years of teaching without further qualifications.

Figure 5/11: Criteria for determining expertise status.

It should be noted that two years' teaching experience is the usual requirement for acceptance onto a Diploma course or Masters degree in TEFL/ TESOL. These cut-off points are necessarily arbitrary, but they provide a useful way of differentiating between respondents at different stages in their careers, and taking into account not only time served, but commitment to the profession, as manifested by on-going training and development. Table 5/11 illustrates how the sample is split using these criteria:

Status	Criteria	Number (percentage)
Novice	<3 years =	16
	<6 years, no further qualifications =	30
	total =	46 (23.7%)
Intermediate	3-10 years of teaching =	53
	6-15 years, no further qualifications =	21
	total =	74 (38.1%)
Highly Experienced	>10 years =	63
	>15 years, no further qualifications.	11
	total =	74 (38.1%)

Table 5/11 Expertise status of respondents.

When the population is further split according to sector, some significant differences are apparent ($X^2=14.77$ (df=2); $p<.01$) which link with the findings reported above, regarding length of service.

Status of practitioner	Whole sample	Private sector	State sector
Novice	46 (23.7%)	40 (30.1%)	6 (9.8%)
Intermediate	74 (38.1%)	53 (39.8%)	21 (34.4%)
Highly experienced	74 (38.1%)	40 (30.1%)	34 (55.7%)

Table 5/12: Expertise status of respondents by sector.

Table 5/12 shows that there are roughly equal proportions of intermediate practitioners in the state and private sectors (39.8% and 34.4% respectively), the proportion of novices in the state sector is roughly a third of the private sector figure, whereas the proportion of highly experienced practitioners is much higher.

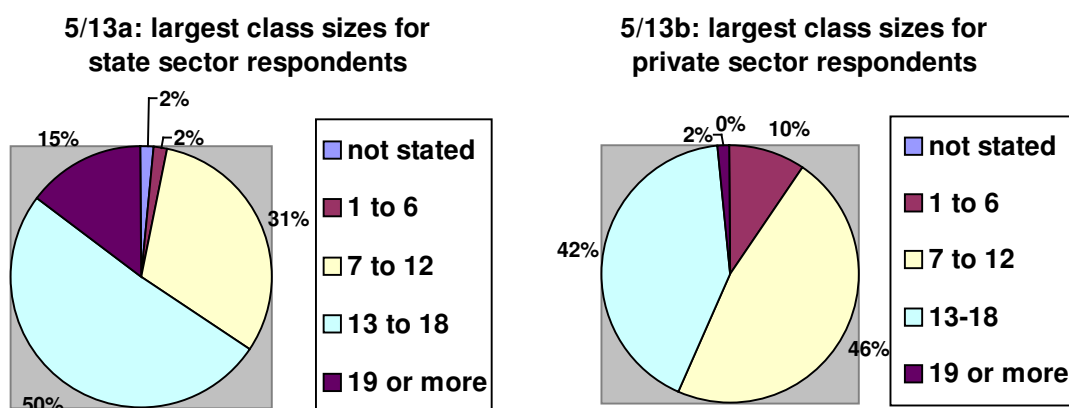
5.2.7 Class Sizes

Table 5/13 shows the distribution of (largest) class size for all groups, revealing that there were more larger classes in the state sector, and more smaller classes in the private sector. Since many private language schools set limits of 12 in a class, as a marketing strategy, this is to be expected.

Number of students in the largest class	Private sector	State sector	TOTAL
Not stated	0	1 (1.6%)	1 (0.5%)
1-6	13 (9.7%)	1 (1.6%)	14 (7.2%)
7-12	62 (46.6%)	19 (31.1%)	81 (41.8%)
13-18	56 (42.1%)	31 (50.8%)	87 (44.8%)
19 or more	2 (1.5%)	9 (14.8%)	11 (5.7%)
Total	133 (100%)	61 (100%)	194 (100%)

Table 5/13: Number of students in the largest class.

Figures 5/13a and 5/13b illustrate the differences between the state sector and private sector institutions, notably in the number of classes of 19 or more, as opposed to classes of between 7 and 12 students.



Figures 5/13a and b: Number of students in largest classes in state and private sector institutions.

5.2.8 Current Working Patterns

139 (71.6%) of the respondents described themselves as working full-time, and 51 (26.3%) as part-time; 4 gave no answer (see Table 5/14 and Figure 5/14 below).

Respondents who work:	Private sector	State sector	TOTAL
Full-time	100 (75.2%)	39 (63.9%)	139 (71.6%)
Part-time	29 (21.8%)	22 (36.1%)	51 (26.3%)
No answer	4 (3.0%)	0 (0%)	4 (2.1%)
TOTAL	133 (100%)	61 (100%)	194 (100%)

Table 5/14: Respondents working full- or part-time, by place of work.

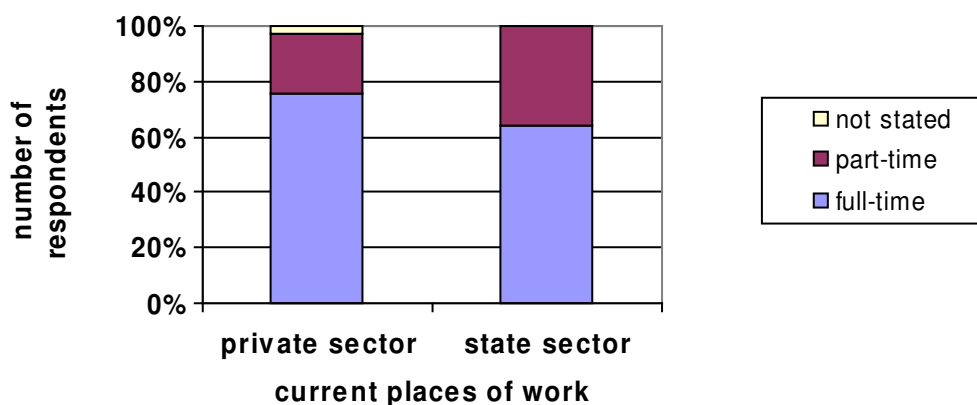


Figure 5/14: Percentage of respondents working full- or part-time, by sector.

It might be expected that more respondents from the private sector would be working part-time, since there is a general perception that it is more difficult to find secure, full-time posts in the private sector than it is in the state sector, but this appears not to be the case. The association between place of work and full- or part-time work was explored using chi-squared tests (having excluded those who did not give an answer, n=4) and it was found that there

is a significant relationship between the two variables ($\chi^2=3.89$ (df=1); $p<.05$), confirming that more teachers work part-time in the state sector than in the private sector. No data was available about the types of contracts (fixed term, hourly-paid or permanent) that the respondents hold, however.

5.2.9 Other Places of Work

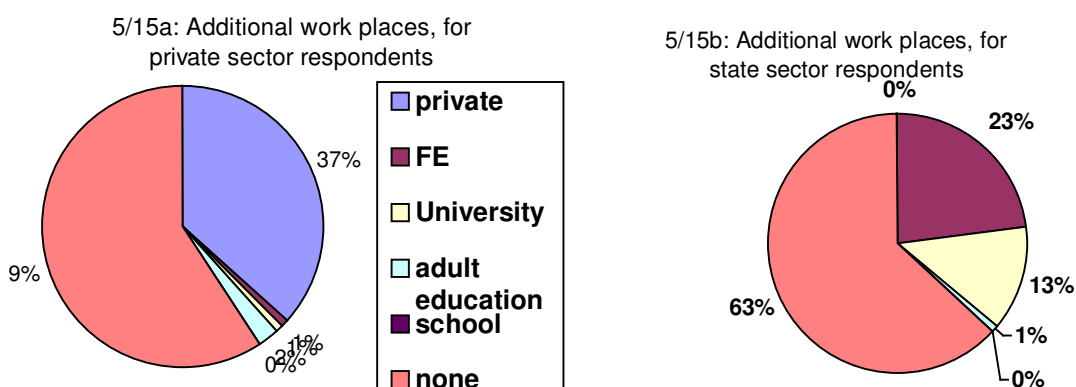
When asked whether they worked in other institutions (besides the one in which they had received the questionnaire) 78 of the respondents (40.2%) stated that they did. The proportions of private sector respondents and state sector respondents who had additional jobs in other institutions were 40.7% and 36.9% respectively; this difference was not found to be significant.

The difference between the two groups seems to be that respondents from the private sector have additional work in other private institutions, while state sector employees find other work in FE colleges and universities. The figures are shown in Table 5/15 and Figures 5/15a and 5/15b, below:

Type of institution	Percentage of private sector respondents (n=133)			Percentage of state sector respondents (n=61)			TOTAL (all respondents)		
	No answer	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	No answer	Full-time	Part-time	ALL n=194
None	2.3	43.6	12.8	39.3	23	1.5	87.2	16	59.8
Private school	0.7	27.8	8.3	0	0	0.5	19.1	5.7	25.3
FE College	0	0.7	0	8 13.1	9.8	0	4.6	3.1	7.7
University	0	0.7	0	11.5	1.6	0	4.1	0.5	4.6
Adult Education	0	2.3	0	0	1.6	0	1.5	0.5	2.1
School (ages 5-16)	0	0	0.7	0	0	0	0	0.5	0.5
TOTAL	3	75.2	21.8	63.9	36.1	2.1	71.6	26.3	100

Table 5/15: Places of additional work, by sector and working patterns.

19 (37.3%) of the 51 respondents who described themselves as working part-time reported also working in a different institution from the one in which they received the questionnaire. Of the 139 who described themselves as full-time, a greater proportion (57=41%) reported working in another institution. This may be explained by the number of teachers who work part-time hours in more than one institution, on short-term contracts, and sometimes on an ad hoc basis, and who have thus created for themselves full-time 'portfolio' timetables.



Figures 5/15a and 5/15b: Places of additional work, by type of respondents' main place of work.

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

The respondents represented a split between the two sectors that was expected, given the sampling frame, with a similar distribution of gender in each sector. Some differences have emerged between the two sectors which were to be expected, in light of how ELT provision has functioned up to the present (see Chapter 2). These include the larger classes, and the higher mean length of teaching experience in the state sector, which is partly responsible for the greater numbers of practitioners with higher expertise levels in this sector. Others were not predicted, for example the greater

number of private sector teachers who have never worked abroad, and the greater number of respondents working full-time in the private sector; these may be the result of recent changes in the structure of the profession.

In the following chapters this demographic data will be utilised in the analysis of other data, leading to answers being formulated for the core research questions laid out in Chapter 4. The main characteristics discussed here will also be combined to enable a more refined analysis of the sample's responses to the questionnaire and interview questions. This is perhaps particularly important in understanding attitudes, the subject of the next chapter, since people are complex and their belief systems are constructed through the interaction of many different factors.

CHAPTER 6: THE VIEWS OF ELT PROFESSIONALS REGARDING STUDENTS WHO HAVE DISABILITIES OR LEARNING DIFFERENCES

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on answering the first of the three main research questions, namely: *What views do ELT practitioners hold about the teaching of students who have disabilities or learning differences?* This question was further sub-divided in order to explore the fine distinctions that became apparent between different groups of respondents. The refined questions are as follows:

- 1a) How does the sector in which a person is employed (private or state) affect these views?*
- 1b) How are the views of ELT practitioners affected by the development of 'expertise' (the combination of classroom experience and professional development)?*
- 1c) How are these views affected by the specific experience of working with people who have disabilities?*
- 1d) How do ELT practitioners' views differ for different disabilities and perceived degree of disability?*

The issues raised in these questions can not in any way be seen as discrete, since it is the complex interaction of these factors in an individual's experience that forms opinions and attitudes. Nevertheless, these questions will be addressed individually, in an attempt to tease out the precise effect that the different factors have on the attitudes of ELT professionals.

It should be noted that in a study of this kind, in which over 200 practitioners' voices are heard, there is inevitably a wide range of opinion (although no absolute claims can be made for the generalizability of the findings to the population of ELT professionals nationally, much less internationally). At either end of the spectrum extremely positive and extremely negative attitudes will be found (in this case correlating to 'absolute inclusionists' and 'absolute segregationists') but these are not necessarily representative of the majority who cluster somewhere around the middle. Questions 1a, 1b, 1c and especially 1d will prove to have particular significance in differentiating the nuances of these people's opinions.

First, though, a more general picture of the prevailing attitudes in the field of ELT will be established, through an analysis of the final section of the questionnaire, which elicited the respondents' reactions to a series of statements about supporting learners with disabilities.

6.1 ATTITUDES TOWARDS LANGUAGE LEARNERS WITH 'LEARNING DIFFICULTIES' AND DISABILITIES

In Section E of the questionnaire, respondents were presented with 12 statements (a – l in the table below) and asked to indicate how far they agreed with each one. (Table 6/1 shows the results for the whole sample, where 0 = no answer given; 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree. For each statement the modal response is highlighted).

STATEMENTS		Percentage of the sample who responded:				
		0	1	2	3	4
A	Teaching students who have 'learning difficulties' should not be part of an EFL / ESOL teacher's job.	3.6	39.2	45.4	8.2	3.6
B	Where I work, some particular support needs can be met (for example: by providing magnified or differently coloured handouts).	1	10.8	24.2	47.4	16.5
C	I think that EFL / ESOL teachers should expect their students to have differing needs, which it is the teachers' job to accommodate in class.	1.5	1.5	8.8	51	37.1
D	The situation has never arisen, so I do not know what support would be available for an EFL / ESOL student who has 'learning difficulties'.	5.7	25.8	27.3	27.8	13.4
E	It is the responsibility of the classroom teacher to organise any support needed for the students in that class.	2.1	11.9	57.2	23.7	5.2
F	Students who have 'learning difficulties' unfairly take teacher time away from the other learners in the class.	3.1	13.9	53.6	25.8	3.6
G	It is the responsibility of the management to provide the classroom teacher with the resources needed to teach all students.	3.1	1.5	9.3	39.7	46.4
H	It is a form of cheating if students receive extra support; if they are unable to study independently at the required level, they should not be accepted onto the course.	2.6	58.8	34	3.6	1
I	Where I work there is an established system of support in place for all students (for example: trained staff, specialist equipment, adapted materials, or financial support to access or acquire these).	3.1	30.4	40.2	17.5	8.8
J	Students should organise their own support if they need it.	3.6	33.5	50	11.3	1.5
K	There is no support available in my place of work for EFL / ESOL students who have 'learning difficulties'.	4.1	19.6	36.1	29.4	10.8
L	Working with students who have a wide range of needs is what makes English language teaching particularly rewarding.	6.2	1	25.8	49.5	17.5

Table 6/1: Respondents' reactions to the 12 statements in Section E.

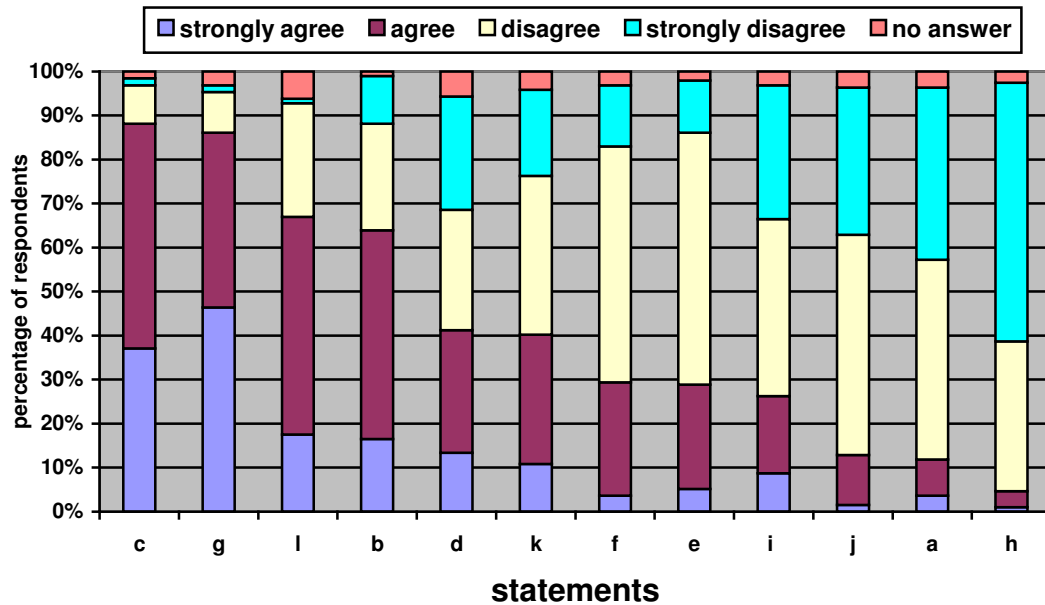


Figure 6/1: Responses of the whole sample to the Section E statements, arranged by strength of overall agreement.

A small number of the respondents found this section difficult, since some of the statements were necessarily controversial, but enough data were gathered to make some interesting observations possible. Statements *b*, *c*, *g* and *l* met with general approval from the respondents, while statements *a*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *h*, *i*, *j* and *k* were all generally disagreed with.

The statement that met with the highest level of agreement was statement *c*: ‘teachers should expect their students to have differing needs, which it is the teachers’ job to accommodate in class’ (88.1% agreed or strongly agreed). Statement *g*: ‘It is the responsibility of the management to provide the classroom teacher with the resources needed to teach all students’ also had a high approval rating (86.1% agreed or strongly agreed). This issue of where responsibility for organising support should lie is a theme

that re-occurs throughout this chapter, and will also be discussed further in Chapter 9.

The statement at the other end of the approval scale was *h*: '*It is a form of cheating if students receive extra support*' (92.8% disagreed or strongly disagreed). There was also general disagreement with the idea expressed in statement *a* that '*teaching students who have 'learning difficulties' should not be part of an EFL/ESOL teacher's job*' (84.6% disagreed or strongly disagreed) and with statement *j*: '*Students should organise their own support if they need it*' (83.5% disagreed or strongly disagreed). All the other statements received moderate reactions overall.

From these results, it seems that attitudes towards learners with disabilities are generally quite positive among ELT professionals, and that most teachers would expect to support their learners to some extent. However, there was also an indication that the role of management in providing the necessary support was important to classroom practitioners. A more detailed analysis of the results, examining different sections of the sample, may ascertain which factors were important in shaping individual views. The first factor to be examined is the sector in which the respondents were employed.

6.2 EMPLOYMENT SECTOR: PRIVATE VERSUS STATE

The preliminary work (described above in Chapter 4) indicated that one of the key factors that might affect the way an ELT professional approaches the issue of inclusion is the environment in which he or she works, and the support networks that are in place in the different sectors. This was clearly

evident in the main study data, too, particularly in the qualitative data, and will be examined in more depth in this section.

6.2.1 The effect of employment sector on the support available

There was a strong feeling among private language school employees that they had fewer resources available than their state sector colleagues, and that because they as teachers were “*not trained, prepared or equipped to deal with students with learning difficulties.*” (PL6-1), additional support was not something that could be provided as easily as in state funded colleges. One respondent expressed it thus:

“it is not possible for a small private language school to support the many and varied needs of ‘SEN’ as is done in the state sector” (PL15-1).

It was interesting that there were no comments from respondents in the state sector which referred to this difference between the sectors, however, one respondent who worked in both sectors was able to compare them thus:

“There is practically no support for students with learning difficulties [in this private school] because it is a private business and nobody really cares about individual students in the classroom...The money we get in the private sector does not encourage the teacher to pay a lot of attention to individuals...I say: “teach and go”. The other school [I work in] is ESOL which gets money from the government, and the groups are much smaller, and more money for the teachers. There is support for the learners with difficulties and for the teachers, although it is often not enough.” (PC7-6).

As well as describing the support that is offered in different institutions, this teacher also touched on other issues such as class size and the role that remuneration plays in encouraging good practice. One private sector teacher remarked that

“In most classrooms in the EFL sector the groups are fairly small, therefore it is easier to deal with students’ differing needs.” (PL14-1).

This ties in with the findings reported in Chapter 5 (section 5.2.6), that, on average, the largest classes in the private sector are smaller than the largest classes in the state sector. There are of course exceptions to this rule, as was demonstrated by the comment above from PC7-6, and it should also be borne in mind that in the private sector attendance tends to be much higher than in the state sector, where, for a number of complex reasons, attendance and retention are notoriously low (Grover, 2006; § 40). This has the effect of reducing the actual number of learners in the classroom on any given day, although there may be more names on the register than in a private school.

Generally, the respondents in the private sector were less positive about the support available to them and their learners than their state sector counterparts, but this attitude was not shared by all. One state sector teacher and trainer reported that in her institution there was *“support [available], but not specific to EFL students’ needs.”* (SC4-4), a comment that echoed other informants’ views, including PC7-6, above, and some of the interviewees, indicating that all is not as rosy in the state sector as it might seem from the private school perspective.

The data gathered through the interviews suggest that in terms of institutional support systems there may be some difference between the two sectors, but not in terms of practitioner confidence in the field of supporting learners with disabilities or learning differences. From the point of view of the trainers who were interviewed, there seemed to be little difference between the two sectors in terms of attitude towards supporting learners with disabilities. One private sector informant reported that teachers relied on their abilities *“to adapt and react”* (IPT-14) to learners’ needs and another thought that most were willing to do *“a bit of research: how bad is it? What do they do? What do they need?”* (IPC-13) but all were unanimous in expressing a feeling of being under-prepared and ill-equipped for this aspect of their work. Their state sector counterparts echoed this sentiment, in this trainer’s words:

“It’s just very much a case of having to think on your feet, and via a tutorial with those individuals enter into a discussion as to whether or not you feel that you are actually responding to their needs as an individual. Because basically you don’t have that specialist support or training.” (IST-12)

This reference to lack of specialist support may surprise respondents from the private sector, but although trainers agreed that on paper *“there are specialist counsellors...there is a support network”* (ISC-8) there was also a perceived problem that the support is rarely provided by staff who have a specialist background in language teaching, and so there may be discrepancies between what is needed and what can be provided, as informant IST-12 went on:

“Within FE colleges, the reality is whilst there are learner

support units...they tend to be centred very much around the domestic market...so when it comes to ESOL learners with any kind of difficulty, the reality is that your hands are tied, there's not very much you can do... So in that situation I've found, in my experience, you're relying on the good will and collaboration of the fellow students to help them out.” (IST-12)

The important aspect of peer support is addressed later in this chapter, in section 6.5.1. Despite the imperfect support systems operating in many institutions, there were grounds for optimism for the future, with the trend being towards improved facilities and increased awareness of how to support learners. One highly experienced teacher in the state sector noted that:

“it is becoming increasingly important with many of our students coming from countries in a state of war, civil-war, repression or with resulting traumas.” (SC2 – 14)

While another state sector teacher and trainer remarked that in the twelve years she had been teaching it had become

“much easier to support students with learning difficulties.... When I first trained, schools were less equipped, eg no lifts, support systems etc.” (SC3-7)

Among the private sector respondents, too, there was an acknowledgement that *“there is an emerging need for TEFLers¹ to focus on the area.” (PL20-2)*, which could lead to better resources becoming available.

¹ Informal term for EFL teachers.

One respondent commented:

“Disability access to classrooms and facilities is generally poor especially in private language schools. These schools are inspected by the British Council which at present does not seem to cover disability access for overseas students. This serious problem needs to be rectified urgently to put private schools in line with universities and FE colleges.” (PC6-3)

Whilst this teacher acknowledges that it is an issue that needs attention, what is interesting here is that he is nominating the British Council as the overseer of good practice (and he is not alone in doing this), thus suggesting that the responsibility for supporting learners should be borne not only by the teachers but also by an external agency. Whose responsibility it should be to organise and provide support is an important issue which is addressed in the next section.

6.2.2 Responsibility for providing support

One of the comments reported above about the difference between state and private sector institutions hinted at the rates of pay that teachers could expect to receive. This (amongst other factors described in Chapter 2) has an effect on morale among ELT professionals, and those who do not feel valued are unlikely to be willing to support learners by putting in extra (unpaid) time, particularly if time is short. This was a clear message that came through from the comments that were added to the questionnaire, as these two comments from teachers demonstrate:

“Our low pay is not commensurate with taking responsibility for people with special needs.” (PL4-1)

“Quite honestly we are so overworked and underpaid that it’s difficult to take a lot of these issues on board. I think the only way to deal with special needs students would be to have classroom assistants.” (PC4-5)

This suggestion that a classroom assistant would be necessary in order to ‘deal’ with the ‘special needs’ of some students is another means by which some teachers sought support for the burden of responsibility they bear for their learners’ education.

When appropriate support or equipment was not made available, the responsibility for the inadequacy was generally attributed to management, and the lack of *“...specific information....and a policy.”* (SC8-5). The complaint expressed by respondent PC6-2, that *“Management didn’t really give much help except to say ‘Do the best you can’.”* Was very common; this course leader in an FE college, almost replicating the words used by respondent PL6-1 in the previous section, reported that:

“The difficulty was in the fact that I wasn’t properly prepared, supported or trained in knowing how to deal with the students’ difficulties.” (SC1-1)

The implication here is that it was somebody else’s responsibility to prepare, support or train her. These failures on the part of the management were sometimes put down to the tensions between running a business and providing quality education. This school manager describes the situation he had found himself in as a teacher:

“The student was a source of income so the school did not turn

anyone away, but they didn't provide any training for teachers or staff to be able to deal with such problems. Ever the problem in profit-making schools.” (PC11-8)

However, there was also some praise for supportive managers; at least one teacher was able to report that her *“DoS is always supportive.”* (PL20-4). There was also some suggestion in a few of the comments that there is more support available in the UK than in other countries, as was recognised by this experienced course leader:

“... in the west we are privileged to have a wider awareness, and to make greater provision for learners with disabilities.” (SC3-4).

Although there were several comments that seemed to indicate an unwillingness to take full or sole responsibility for supporting disabled learners, this was not the full picture. Some contributions revealed very positive attitudes among the respondents to this issue, even if they had not had formal training, or indeed much direct experience of supporting learners. One experienced teacher and trainer who had never worked with disabled learners was confident that if necessary she

“could adapt activities or materials to make them more accessible or user friendly, and/ or change the emphasis.”

(PC13-1)

And as this school manager suggests, most teachers adopt a pragmatic approach to support: *“I would try to accommodate (help as best I could). In all situations I used my common sense...”* (PL20-1) because ultimately it is seen as *“...the teacher's job to help them understand.”* (PC7-1).

A couple of comments indicated a belief in the fostering of learner autonomy and that students:

“should be involved in the overall support plan.... There is room and a need for students to be as independent as possible” (PL14 – 4)

Other respondents from both sectors accepted that at least some of the shortcomings in the accommodation of learners’ needs were due to their own lack of expertise and training. One experienced school manager admitted:

“Often students with learning difficulties in my ignorance were simply labelled as ‘difficult’. Unfortunate but true.” (PS3-1).

A key difference between the two sectors is the way in which government initiatives are taken up and implemented, as discussed above in Chapters 2 and 3; this extends to the implementation of legislation. In Britain, the Disability Discrimination Act (1995) has been amended by the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act (2001) so that it now covers all educational institutions, requiring them to anticipate students’ needs and to work towards removing barriers to learning. Only two respondents mentioned this legal imperative, or other institutional policies of Equal Opportunities, both of whom were working as directors of studies in the state sector:

“This isn’t really a situation of choice for teachers, since the SENDA covers all students including international students.” (SS3-2)

“...our EOP² requires us to provide support and not to place obstacles – I agree with it.” (SL6-1)

² Presumably: ‘Equal Opportunities Policy’

There were some indications from the private sector that if clear policy was in place, then it was not yet widely enough understood. Again, responsibility was entrusted to external agencies, as these quotes illustrate:

“It’s up to organisations like the British Council to establish sound procedures in this area.” (PL20-2)

“[learner support] is so neglected both in language institutes and initial teacher training that it cannot be reasonably catered for without sufficient guidelines and informed decision-making from policy makers.” (PL9-1)

These comments reinforce the suggestion made in Chapter 2 that the private sector is some way behind the state sector in addressing the issue of inclusion in a systematic way. The responsibility for this is generally located in the management or other external agencies, with teachers seeming unwilling or dis-empowered to take full responsibility themselves for the lack of organised support.

6.2.3 The effect of employment sector on response to the Section E statements

Analysing the responses to the statements in Section E of the questionnaire revealed some clear differences between the agreement rates in the private sector and state sector respondents, particularly with respect to the statements that refer to support systems (*b*, *l* and *k*). The figures are given in Table 6/2, below, where the responses ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ have been conflated to give an ‘overall agree’ category, as have the ‘disagree’ and

strongly disagree’ responses. Those who gave no response are also shown, and it is noticeable that in the state sector there was a much better rate of response than in the private sector (the mean proportion of non-answers over section E was only 1.75%, compared to 4.025%). The highlighted responses are the modes.

Summary of statement		% Private Sector respondents who			% State Sector respondents who		
		agree overall	Disagree overall	gave no answer	agree overall	Disagree overall	gave no answer
a	‘should not be part of an EL teacher’s job’.	14.3	82	3.8	6.5	90.2	3.3
b	‘some particular support needs can be met’	53.4	45.1	1.5	86.8	13.2	0
c	‘it is the teachers’ job to accommodate differing needs in class’.	86.5	11.3	2.3	91.8	8.2	0
d	‘the situation has never arisen so I don’t know about support’.	48.1	45.8	6.0	26.3	68.8	4.9
e	‘support is the responsibility of the classroom teacher ‘	26.3	70.6	3.0	34.4	65.6	0
F	‘unfair to take teacher time from the other learners’	33.8	62.4	3.8	19.6	78.7	1.6
g	‘support is the responsibility of the management ‘	86.5	10.6	3.0	85.2	11.5	3.3
h	‘cheating to receive extra support’	6	90.4	3.8	1.6	98.3	0
I	‘an established system of support is in place for all students’	9.1	86.5	4.5	64	36.1	0
J	‘support is the responsibility of the student’	16.6	78.2	5.3	4.9	95.1	0
k	‘there is no support available ‘.	48.9	46.6	4.5	21.3	75.4	3.3
L	‘it’s what makes teaching particularly rewarding’.	64.6	28.6	6.8	72.2	23	4.9

Table 6/2: Differences in responses between private and state sector respondents.

Chi-squared tests determined that there is a significant relationship between place of work and response to statement *b* ($X^2=20.35$ (df=1); $p<.01$), statement *l* ($X^2=65.07$ (df=1); $p<.01$) and statement *k* ($X^2=13.21$ (df=1); $p<.01$), indicating that practitioners based in the state sector feel more strongly that there is support available for them and their learners than their private sector colleagues do. There was a significant relationship between place of work and the response to statement *d* ($X^2=8.27$ (df=1); $p<.01$), which suggests that in the private sector, the respondents were much less familiar with the situation of trying to find support for their learners. The comments added by the respondents to Sections D and E, which are discussed in Section 6.2.2, reinforce this interpretation.

The relationship between statement *j* and the respondents' place of work was also significant ($X^2=5.03$ (df=1); $p<.05$), which could be interpreted in two ways: either it indicates a greater willingness in the private sector to allow students the autonomy to organise their own support, should they need it, or, on the other hand, it may be an indication that teachers wish to share some of their responsibility, by putting the onus to some extent on the learners to set up the support they need. Again, reference to the comments reported in the previous section seem to favour the latter interpretation as being the more plausible.

No significant relationship was found between place of work and statements *a*, *c*, *e*, *f*, *g*, *h* or *l*. This suggests that workplace environment was not the only factor influencing response to these statements, and these other influences will be investigated in the following sections.

Practitioners' attitudes and views regarding learners who experience barriers to learning and participation seem to be influenced to some extent by the sector in which they work, and especially the support systems that are in place to enable full access for all their learners. Respondents from the state sector on the whole seem to have a more positive attitude towards helping learners overcome any barriers they may face, perhaps because they feel more confident that appropriate support will be available for them and their learners. However, from the analysis of the responses to the statements in section E it is clear that the sector in which the respondents work is not the only factor that contributes to the formation of attitude. In the next section, another potentially important element of identity is explored, that of degree of professional expertise.

6.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF 'EXPERTISE'

It seems reasonable to suppose that attitudes might change as a function of expertise, which was defined in Chapter 5 as a combination of years of experience and further study. Using the expertise status typology described there, the data were analysed to determine whether it did indeed have any effect on the way in which the questionnaire was completed.

6.3.1 The effect of 'expertise' on response to the statements in Section E

The responses to the statements in Section E were analysed according to the status classification described above, to examine what effect, if any, the 'expertise' level of the respondents might have on their attitudes. For some of the statements it seems that the respondents' 'expertise' status was a

significant factor. The results are shown in Table 6/3 below (modal responses highlighted).

Summary of statements		% novice respondents (n=46) who		% intermediate respondents (n=74) who		% highly experienced respondents (n=74) who	
		agree overall	disagree overall	agree overall	disagree overall	Agree Overall	disagree overall
A	'should not be part of an EL teacher's job'	23.9	76.1	6.8	93.2	9.5	90.5
B	'some particular support needs can be met'	50	50	70.3	29.7	66.2	33.8
C	'it is the teachers' job to accommodate differing needs in class'	89.1	10.9	87.8	12.2	87.8	12.2
D	'The situation has never arisen'	52.2	47.8	48.6	51.4	27	73
E	'support is the responsibility of the classroom teacher '	23.9	76.1	32.4	67.6	28.4	71.6
F	'unfair to take teacher time from the other learners'	37	63	25.7	74.3	28.4	71.6
G	'support is the responsibility of the management '	87	13	87.8	12.2	83.8	16.2
H	'cheating to receive extra support'	4.3	95.7	6.8	93.2	2.7	97.3
I	'an established system of support is in place for all students'	13	87	25.7	74.3	35.1	64.9
J	'support is the responsibility of the student'	17.4	82.6	9.5	90.5	13.5	86.5
K	'There is no support available'	47.8	52.2	37.8	62.2	37.8	62.2
L	'it's what makes teaching particularly rewarding'	69.6	30.4	68.9	31.1	63.5	36.5

Table 6/3: Responses to Section E statements by expertise status.

Although all groups disagreed overall with statement *a*, that supporting learners should not be a part of their job, novices were more likely to agree with it than the more experienced respondents ($X^2=8.65$ (df=2); $p<.05$). This may reflect the expectations that are raised in training courses, or a lack of awareness of what is usual in ELT. Novices were also more likely to agree with statement *d*, that the situation had never arisen for them, ($X^2=10.16$ (df=2); $p<.01$) which may also explain why they did not think it should be a part of their job. It is interesting to note that statement *l* (relating to support systems) gained more agreement from the more experienced respondents ($X^2=7.17$ (df=2); $p<.05$), which ties in with previous findings. There are more novices in the private sector, where, as was shown above, there is less likely to be an established system of support in place; in addition, the novice teachers may not have been aware of any systems that are in place, because the need to access them had not (yet) arisen.

The comments provided by the questionnaire respondents shed little light on how this aspect of their identities affected their opinions. These two comments are both from novices in the private sector, but express very different sentiments in terms of attitude to supporting learners:

“Wide range of needs can mean many things – to some degree one has enough to consider with cultural, educational, social backgrounds as well as the normal range of aptitudes and problem areas – without trying to meet more complex and time-consuming demands. Sad but true.” (PL14 – 5)

'It should be a team effort. Including the DOS, teacher, and even other students. We need to be tolerant of culture, why not special needs? Learning English is more than language acquisition, it is also an exchange of culture, religion, beliefs etc.' (PL7 – 7)

It seems that the 'expertise' status of an individual does not have as much impact on attitudes as the type of institution in which they are working, a finding that merits further discussion (see Chapter 9). It is possible that the expertise an individual develops as a result of general experience does not significantly alter attitudes, but that specific types of experience may have a greater impact on professionals' views. One variable which seemed likely to affect the views of the respondents was their personal experience of working with learners who faced these kinds of barriers to their learning; this factor is explored in the following section.

6.4 EXPERIENCE OF WORKING WITH DISABLED LEARNERS

The perception of a divide between the two sectors, at least among the private sector respondents, was noted above, in section 6.2.1. One way that this was manifested was in the relative (in)frequency with which teachers reported being called upon to support learners with disabilities and learning differences, and their subsequent (lack of) familiarity with the support systems available to them. One highly experienced respondent went so far as to suggest that this is "... a subject that does not pertain to private language schools." (PC13-4). Others were less categorical, but stated that private language schools "*tend not to attract students with severe difficulties*" (PL20-

4) so that *“this situation rarely arises...we have much less experience than many ESOL centres.”* (PL6-1). However, there was also evidence from the state sector respondents that the situation was similar for them, as one experienced course leader explained:

“students from other countries who come here to study / work tend to be those without learning disabilities, as they need to survive and make money.” (SL1-2)

Perhaps because of this lack of experience, some teachers felt that students with disabilities or learning differences were problematic in the classroom, as this teacher reveals:

“[W]e don’t often get such students, so it is a problem which only occurs infrequently....I am not sure I would welcome an increased number of such students, especially if they were seen to take up a lot of time in the classroom.” (PC6-2)

In order to explore this area of specific experience, as opposed to the general experience that contributes to ‘expertise’, the respondents were asked in Section D of the questionnaire to indicate how many students they had taught English to (throughout their careers), whom they knew, or believed, to have any of 10 given types of ‘learning difficulty’ or disability. The disabilities to be considered are labelled a-j in table 6/4 (below), which shows the answers given to this question. They were chosen to cover a range of disabilities which would affect language learning in different ways, using terminology which the respondents were likely to be familiar with.

Although it was clear that some respondents had ‘guestioned’ (or rounded off), making the exact figures unreliable, it was still possible to determine which teachers had taught at least one student with each given disability. The figures for the two sectors were compared, and the results are shown below, with the modal result highlighted.

Category of learning difficulty / disability:		Mean number of students per respondent	Percentage of respondents who reported having taught					
			None			At least 1		
			ALL	state sector	private sector	ALL	State sector	private sector
A	slight hearing loss	0.93	59.3	50.8	63.2	40.7	49.2	36.8
B	profound deafness	0.1	93.8	95.1	93.2	6.2	4.9	6.8
C	slight visual impairment	1.35	53.1	44.3	57.1	46.9	55.7	42.9
D	total loss of sight	0.24	87.1	86.9	89.5	11.3	13.1	10.5
E	slight mobility difficulty	2.99	49	39.3	53.4	51	60.7	46.6
F	severe mobility difficulty	0.9	66.5	59	69.9	33.5	41	30.1
G	Specific learning difficulty	4.6	37.6	37.7	37.6	62.4	62.3	62.4
H	AD/HD	1.87	68.6	73.8	66.2	31.4	26.2	33.8
I	Severe autism	0.08	96.4	98.4	95.5	3.6	1.6	4.5
J	Asperger’s syndrome	0.42	84	83.6	84.2	16	16.4	15.8
ALL TYPES		13.52	18.56	16.4	19.5	81.44	83.6	80.5

Table 6/4: Numbers of students with each type of disability taught by the respondents, divided by sector.

Only 36 (18.56%) of the respondents reported that they had never worked with any learner who had any of the given disabilities. The most commonly encountered disability was a specific learning difficulty (dyslexia, or dyspraxia, for example), which 121 (62.4%) respondents had had experience of, in roughly equal proportions across both sectors. The least common disability was severe autism, which only 7 (3.6%) teachers had encountered. Chi square tests did not confirm that there was any significant relationship between sector and likelihood of working with learners who experience the difficulties named in this question. Therefore it seems that the differences perceived by the respondents in the private sector are simply that: perceptions that do not have any foundations in reality. However, although it is interesting to note this, the aim of this chapter was to determine what views are held by the respondents, so it is largely immaterial whether they are based on fact or not.

From this section it can be deduced that there is no correlation between sector and direct experience of working with disabled learners, and so it is not necessary to maintain this sector distinction. Instead, it might be more fruitful to focus on the differences between those respondents with specific experience and those without.

6.4.1 The effect of experience of teaching learners with disabilities on responses to the statements in Section E

The responses of teachers who had experience of working with at least one learner who had a disability (n=158) were compared to those of their inexperienced colleagues (n=36). The figures are shown in Table 6/5.

Summary of statement		% experienced respondents (n=158) who			% inexperienced respondents (n=36) who		
		gave no answer	agreed overall	disagreed overall	gave no answer	agreed overall	disagreed overall
a	'should not be part of an EL teacher's job'.	2.5	12	85.4	8.3	11.1	80.6
b	'some particular support needs can be met'	0.6	67.1	32.3	2.8	50	47.3
c	'it is the teachers' job to accommodate differing needs in class'.	0.6	88.6	10.7	5.6	86.1	8.4
d	'The situation has never arisen'.	5.7	33.6	60.7	5.6	75	19.5
e	'support is the responsibility of the classroom teacher '	1.9	29.1	69	2.8	27.8	69.4
F	'unfair to take teacher time from the other learners'	1.9	27.2	70.9	8.3	38.9	52.8
g	'support is the responsibility of the management '	2.5	86	11.4	5.6	86.1	8.3
h	'cheating to receive extra support'	1.9	4.5	93.7	5.6	5.6	88.9
I	'an established system of support is in place for all students'	1.9	29.1	68.9	8.3	13.9	77.8
J	'support is the responsibility of the student'	3.2	12	84.8	5.6	16.7	77.8
k	'There is no support available '.	3.8	38.6	57.6	5.6	47.3	47.2
L	'it's what makes teaching particularly rewarding'.	5.1	70.9	24	11.1	50	38.9

Table 6/5: Responses to section E statements, by specific experience.

There are clearly differences in the number of non-answers for each question, with more of the inexperienced teachers declining to answer (on average 6.27% over section E) than their experienced counterparts (4.51%), as might be expected. Having explored the relationship between response and experience of working with any disabled learner through chi-squared tests of these results (conflating 'agree' with 'strongly agree' and 'disagree' with 'strongly disagree', as well as discarding those who made no answer), it appears that there is no relationship for the majority of statements; only two – *d* and *l* – proved to be affected by specific experience.

For statement *d* (*The situation has never arisen, so I do not know what support would be available for an EFL / ESOL student who has 'learning difficulties'*) there is a significant relationship ($X^2=21.62$ (df=1); $p<.01$), which is to be expected, given that this was the premise on which the groups were formed. What is surprising here is that 33.6% of those who have taught disabled learners agree with this statement, and 19.5% of those who have not taught disabled learners disagree with it. One explanation could be that these respondents simply misread the statement, or marked the wrong answer box by mistake. Alternatively, it could be that the 33.6% of experienced respondents have taught learners with difficulties but have never sought support for them, and that the 19.5% of inexperienced respondents have never taught disabled learners themselves, but have an understanding of how the systems in their institution would work, perhaps from having observed their colleagues set up support for learners.

The only other statement for which the relationship between experience and response was significant was statement *l*: *'Working with students who*

have a wide range of needs is what makes English language teaching particularly rewarding' ($X^2=4.38$ (df=1); $p<.05$). Those who do have experience of working with students with disabilities were more likely to agree with this statement. This is interesting in that it seems to indicate that negative attitudes are perhaps due to fear of the unknown and apprehension of imagined difficulties, rather than a real lack of commitment to social equality.

Apart from this, there is little evidence that this general criterion of having some experience of working with disabled learners was an important factor in the formation of attitudes towards inclusion. In the next section a more precise criterion is investigated: how having experience of working with learners with particular types and degrees of disabilities or difficulties changes professionals' perceptions of the issue.

6.5 DIFFERENT 'LEARNING DIFFICUTIES' AND DEGREE OF 'NEED'

When the respondents were invited at the end of section D to give any further information here about their first experience of working with a learner with a difficulty, 130 (67%) took the opportunity to recount their experiences. Because of the large number of comments provided, it seems worthwhile to examine them quantitatively, before analysing the content thematically.

Impressionistically assigning each of the comments to a category according to how positive they felt about their experiences, it is possible to observe a fairly even split between the respondents who felt 'positive' (61) and those who felt 'negative' (56), with another much smaller group who either expressed mixed experiences ("*Have had college support for dyslexic students though sometimes takes a while to identify and get support.*"), or no emotion at all (for example: "*He is an Arabic student who has severe learning*

difficulties – I think he is dyslexic.”). The break down of comments by type of disability was as follows:

Type of disability or difficulty mentioned	‘Positive’ Comments	‘Neutral’ Comments	‘Negative’ Comments	Total number of comments
Specific Learning Difficulties	10	3	13	26
Emotional and behavioural difficulties	7	2	11	20
Visual impairment	15	0	5	20
Hearing impairment	14	0	13	27
Physical disabilities	10	0	1	11
non-specified difficulties or disabilities	5	8	13	26
total	61	13	56	130

Table 6/6: Comments provided in section D by type of disability.

It is interesting to note that of the 11 comments relating to physical disability, only one was negative in overall tone, and only 5 of the 20 comments about visual impairment reflected a negative experience. The comments about the other categories of disability were all more evenly divided between positive and negative, indicating that the decision to share their experiences was not determined by how well or badly the respondents felt they had coped with the situation.

Two important themes that emerged from these comments were: the effect that learners who are experiencing difficulties have on their classmates, and the degree of difficulty that learners experienced.

6.5.1 Classroom dynamics

Several teachers commented on the effect that students who experience difficulties in learning have on the classroom environment, mostly seeing it as a negative influence, from which their other students should be protected.

These respondents apparently failed to see the irony of statements such as: *“The attention given to them takes away from that needed for the others and is unfair.”* (PL15-2). This section of the sample argued, for example, that *“...it is simply not fair [to anybody, least of all the students with special educational needs] to mix students with severe learning difficulties with ‘able bodied’ students.”* (PL6-2) and recommended that teachers should discuss whether to *“contain them in special schools.”* (PL7-3), thus segregating learners who already face barriers to participation on the grounds that *“...the rest of the class are effected [sic].”* (PL14-6).

In fairness, one teacher had had a bad experience with a young student deemed to have AD/HD who would *“run around the class, disturbing and threatening the other students.”* (PS1-2) but this was the only report of actual disruption, amongst several accounts that students *“...would lose patience listening to [a hearing impaired student]”* (PC6-2) or *“...were reluctant to work in pairs / small groups with the [autistic] student...”* (PS5-3), and that *“[d]ifficulties included making them part of the group and well accepted.”* (PL10-3). These comments seem to point to a problem for the teacher in

managing the class (including the group dynamics) rather than a real problem for any of the learners; having a group which co-operates well no doubt makes teaching much easier. However, the blame for poor group relationships was often put on “...*the other students who don't know how to react or work with these students.*” (PL10-1), rather than on the teacher's ability to manage the classroom. One teacher had found that the average age of the class was significant and that:

“... adult students [are] less accepting and tolerant of students in their class who can't keep up, for whatever reason. Young learners are more willing to integrate and help or support their peers.” (PL7-5)

However, another, very well-travelled course leader believed that it was cultural differences in attitudes towards disability that were “*an added pressure which we can do little to influence.*” (SC3-4). This voice from the state sector was backed up by another experienced teacher in the private sector who also felt that “*the problem is often with the attitude of the other students and this might be difficult to overcome.*” (PL10-1). The issue of international perceptions of disability, which is particularly pertinent in the ELT context, will be revisited in Chapter 9.

From the state sector there is some evidence that the situation is not as difficult for other class members or the teacher as the respondents quoted above feared. These teachers' comments show that the reality of including students with sensory impairments was not as taxing as they had anticipated:

“At first I found it daunting to teach someone with hearing difficulties, but he was well integrated into a class he'd been with for a long time. They made many allowances for him

and he was good at seating himself where he could see me speaking...” (SS2-2)

“I think I was more shocked than anything and it made it a bit strange for me, not for anyone else in the class. (SC2-2)

Nor were the other students – apparently – adversely affected. Indeed, one teacher went so far as to suggest that she would “...*learn from these students and hope other members of the class do*” (SC2-9), and one highly experienced private school manager, although he reported having no direct experience of working with a learner with a particular disability, suggested that

“probably all students have a learning difficulty of one kind or another, to a greater or lesser degree. Focus in EFL on all aspects of learning difficulty will assist all students, therefore, and not just those with obvious difficulties.” (PS3-1)

These examples seem to strengthen the idea of a split between state and private sector institutions in terms of attitude towards inclusion. Some teachers seemed to be using an avowed concern for their learners’ well-being as an excuse for their reluctance to include certain members of the class. Although these were not the majority of teachers, it does point to a limited willingness, at least among some of the private sector respondents, to significantly alter their practice or routines in order to accommodate all their learners’ needs. This is also reflected in comments related to the degree of difficulty that the learners face.

6.5.2 Degree of 'need'

The degree of willingness or ability to accommodate their learners' needs professed by the respondents was dependent upon several factors, not least among these was *"[t]he severity of the 'difficulty'"* (PL20-3) and *"how well or easily this can be accommodated in a usual kind of class for the institution."* (PC13-1). It was generally thought to be *"OK if students have mild difficulties ...or physical difficulties that don't interfere too much"* (PC4-3) but if the student made *"more complex and time-consuming demands"* (PL14-5) of the school, this was less easy to accommodate. Indeed, one part-time teacher was clear that *"[s]everely handicapped students [sic] cannot be accommodated in a normal ESOL class"* (SL1-3) and even a much more experienced course leader could *"envisage real problems with trying to integrate students with some conditions (e.g. profound deafness)"* (SL6-1).

From the interviewees there was also a consensus that degree of difficulty was the crucial factor in deciding whether students could be accommodated, both as language learners and on teacher training courses. At one college, the policy was that applicants could be admitted to the short intensive TEFL certificate course, on the understanding that:

"they will get no support whatsoever. If they do want support they can come on the part-time courses....If a person has got serious learning difficulties, then how can they be a teacher of English. They, in a sense, disqualify themselves.....Basically, if you're deaf you can't teach English" (ISC-8)

Other schools had less clear-cut policies: one trainer in a private school explained that a candidate who had had a stroke and used a wheelchair had been invited to:

“see the trainees perform and ...to make a judgement whether she would be able to do what they were doing” (IPT-15)

and there were several reports of trainees being accepted onto courses who had successfully found strategies to overcome the barriers they faced (ISC-1, IPT-7, ISC-10), when these were physical or mobility difficulties or acquired hearing or visual impairments.

In general, the severity of the barriers faced by learners proved to be a key factor that influenced the attitudes of teachers and managers. This aspect was also explored in the questionnaire, where questions relating to specific types of disability were put to the respondents.

6.5.3 Teachers’ estimates of participation in class

In Section D of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to estimate the extent to which they thought a student with each of the given difficulties could meaningfully participate in their EFL / ESOL class. The aim was to gain an impression of whether a hierarchy of disability existed in the opinions of the respondents, and to build up a picture of which disabilities were perceived as being ‘manageable’, and which as ‘problematic’ in class.

This proved very difficult for many teachers who commented that they had no experience at all of some of the given disabilities and so had little idea how students’ learning might be affected. Nevertheless, most of the respondents (all but 6) gave some answer to the questions. Table 6/7 gives the figures in percentages for the answers recorded, where 0=‘no answer given’, 1=‘not at all’, 2=‘less than 50%’, 3=‘50% or more’ and 4=‘as fully as any other student’. The modal responses are highlighted.

Disability or 'Learning Difficulty'		% of respondents who estimated:				
		0	1	2	3	4
a	Hearing loss (e.g. student communicates verbally, and lip-reads)	5.7	7.2	34.5	41.2	11.3
b	Profound deafness (e.g. student communicates using sign language)	6.7	44.8	40.7	6.2	1.5
c	visual impairment (e.g. student has some residual sight)	4.6	1.0	33.5	49.5	11.3
d	total loss of sight	6.2	24.3	45.9	19.6	4.1
e	slight mobility difficulty (e.g. student uses a stick)	4.1	0	1	6.7	88.1
f	severe mobility difficulty (e.g. student uses a wheelchair)	4.6	2.1	4.6	17.5	71.1
g	Dyslexia /or other Specific Learning Difficulty	6.2	1.0	17	51	24.7
h	Attention Deficit / Hyperactivity Disorder	8.2	2.6	43.8	35.6	9.8
i	severe Autism	13.4	40.7	39.7	5.2	1
j	mild Autism (e.g. Asperger's syndrome)	13.9	6.7	39.7	32.5	7.2

Table 6/7: Potential participation in Class (as estimated by all respondents).

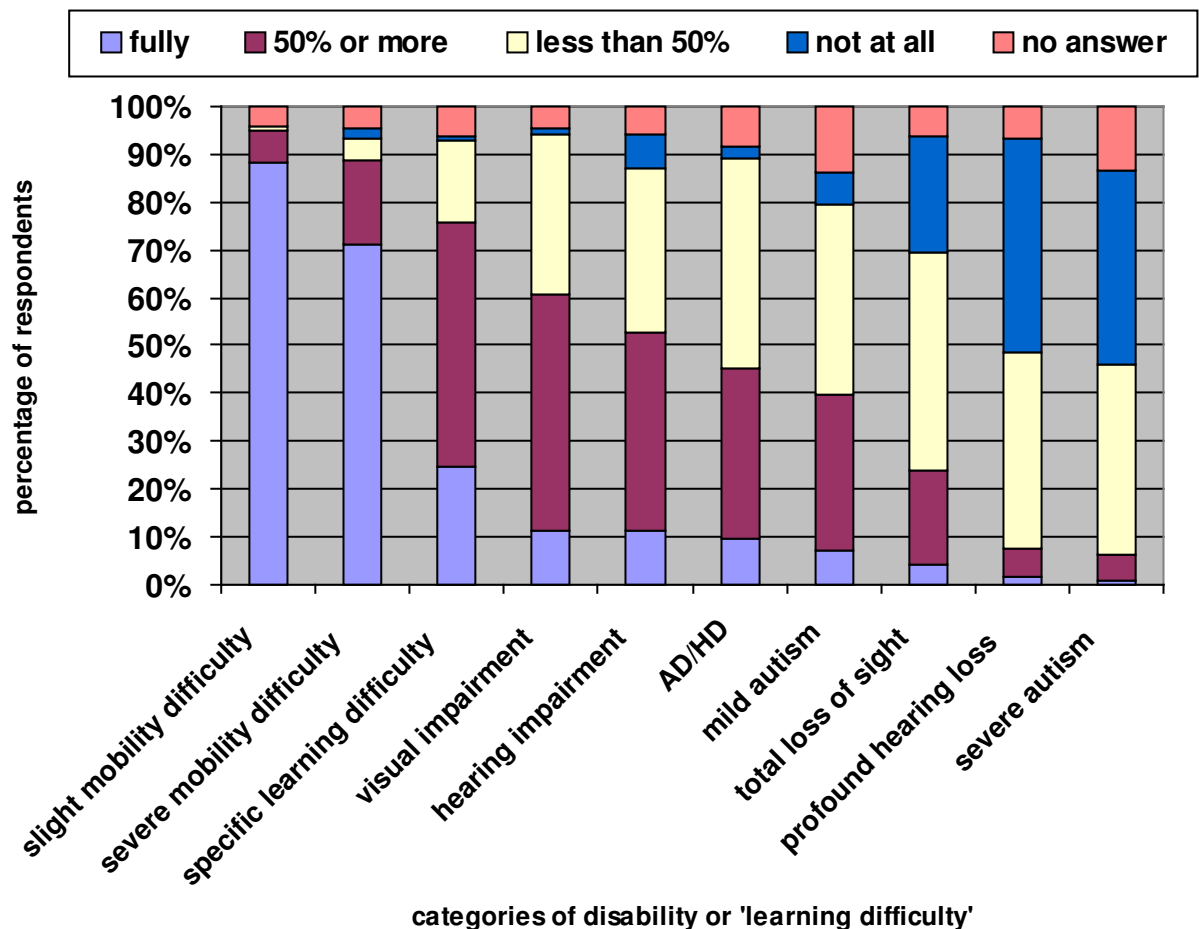


Figure 6/7: Potential participation in Class (as estimated by all respondents) arranged by degree of participation.

From Figure 6/7 it is clear that students who experienced slight restrictions in their mobility were deemed to be the easiest to accommodate in an English language classroom, with 94.8% of all teachers feeling confident that they would be able to participate more than 50%, or fully (and none feeling that no participation would be possible). This group was closely followed by students with more severe mobility impairments (for example, wheelchair users), with 88.6% of all respondents estimating more than 50% or full participation. Students with severe sensory impairment or autism were rated lowest; only 7.7% of respondents thought that profoundly deaf students would be able to participate more than 50% or fully (44.8% judged that they would not be able

to participate at all) and only 6.2% rated students with severe autism as being able to participate more than 50% or fully (40.7% estimated no participation at all). The concept of a hierarchy of disability will be further discussed in Chapter 9.

6.5.4 The effect of prior experience on respondents' ability or willingness to accommodate learners with given disabilities.

Contrasting teachers who had experience of working with at least one learner with a given disability or difficulty with teachers who had never encountered learners with the particular problem revealed differences between the two groups in their ability to accommodate some of the given disabilities. The figures for the non-answers in each category, and for the conflated groups ('not at all' / 'less than 50%' and '50% or more' / 'fully') are shown in Table 6/8 below. The modal answers are highlighted in each case.

		Percentage of respondents with experience of this particular difficulty				Percentage of respondents with NO experience of this particular difficulty			
		n	No answer	Less than 50% / not at all	50% or more / fully	n	No answer	Less than 50% / not at all	50% or more / fully
Anticipated degree of participation	'Category of learning difficulty':								
a	hearing loss	79	1.3	35.4	63.3	115	8.7	46.1	45.2
b	profound deafness	12	0	75	25	182	15.9	86.3	6.6
c	visual impairment	91	1.1	23.1	75.8	103	7.8	44.6	47.6
d	total loss of sight	22	0	45.5	54.5	172	7	73.3	19.7
e	slight mobility difficulty	99	3	0	96.9	95	5.3	2.1	92.6
f	severe mobility difficulty	65	0	3	97	129	7	8.5	84.5
g	specific learning difficulty	121	4.1	12.4	83.4	73	9.6	27.4	63
h	AD/HD	61	3.3	44.3	52.5	133	10.5	47.4	42.1
i	severe autism	7	14.3	71.5	14.3	187	13.4	80.7	5.9
j	Asperger's Syndrome	31	6.5	32.2	61.3	163	15.3	49.1	35.6

Table 6/8: Respondents' judgements of potential participation, divided according to prior experience.

For the respondents who have experience of these types of disability, there are substantially fewer non-answers (1.5 for the whole section, compared to 12.3), which might be expected, since without experience it would be extremely hard to make any judgement of this sort. There are also differences apparent in the opinions of the experienced respondents (as regards the potential levels of participation) and those of their less experienced colleagues. In every category, a higher proportion of the experienced teachers seem to believe that students with these disabilities could participate at least 50% of the time in their classes, than the inexperienced respondents. Only learners with a profound hearing loss and those diagnosed as autistic were considered by the majority of teachers who had worked with them to be unable to participate at least 50% of the time. In order to confirm whether there is indeed an association between prior experience and the willingness or ability to accommodate students with a given disability, chi-squared tests were run on these figures, excluding those respondents who gave no answer.

The tests indicate that there is a significant relationship between prior experience and inclusion of hearing impaired students ($X^2=3.86$ (df=1); $p<.05$), deaf students ($X^2=4.72$ (df=1); $p<.05$), visually impaired students ($X^2=12.59$ (df=1); $p<.01$), blind students ($X^2=11.35$ (df=1); $p<.01$), students with a specific learning difficulty ($X^2=8.17$ (df=1); $p<.01$) and for students with Asperger's syndrome ($X^2= 5.32$ (df=1); $p<.01$). This group includes some of the 'less severe' disabilities that were considered 'manageable' in the comments reported in the previous section (slight sensory impairments, dyslexia, mild autism) and also, interestingly, the more severe sensory impairments that

some teachers thought would be too difficult to accommodate in the classroom. This perhaps indicates that teachers had in fact found it possible to overcome barriers, when required to do so.

No significant relationship could be found between experience of teaching and inclusion of students with slight mobility problems or severe mobility problems, students with AD/HD or autism. The figures for some of these groups were too small to test successfully, for example, very few of the respondents had had any experience of working with learners deemed to have autism, and so the tests were not really feasible. Mobility problems were considered by almost all the respondents to be relatively easy to accommodate, so it is not surprising that there is no correlation with prior experience of these types of disability. The responses regarding accommodating students diagnosed with AD/HD were evenly balanced among both the experienced and the inexperienced teachers, so no difference could be seen here. It could be that the experiences of those who had worked with students said to have a hyperactivity disorder had not all been positive ones, as evidenced by some of the comments reported above, thus diminishing their confidence in their abilities to successfully include learners with this disability.

6.6 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR QUESTION 1

The analysis of the data in sections D and E of the questionnaire, using the demographic data reported in Chapter 5 to isolate certain characteristics of the sample, reveals some interesting attitudinal trends. At first glance, it seemed that teachers were generally positive about their role in supporting students who face barriers to learning and participation. On further

investigation, however, a number of important conditions imposed on this support became apparent.

The role that the type of institution in which the respondents were working proved to be crucial in forming and / or reinforcing attitudes. Teachers were generally happy to support their learners as long as they felt supported themselves by the management of their institutions, and in this respect, the state sector respondents fared much better than the private school teachers; systems were seen to be in place in state-funded institutions, even if these systems were not always comprehensive or entirely adequate. There was also a greater awareness of the legal obligations under which they were working than was apparent in the private sector.

Amongst private sector respondents there was a perceived gap between themselves and their state sector counterparts not only in terms of the amount of support they could rely on receiving, but in how much experience they had of working with students who encountered difficulties in learning. Although no empirical evidence was found relating to differences in amount of experience, it is significant that teachers felt this to be true.

Teachers who had developed less expertise (i.e. novices in the first few years of teaching and those who had not undertaken any further study in the first 5 years of teaching after initial qualification) were less willing or confident in their abilities to accommodate disabled learners, and this was connected to the fact that there were more novices in the private sector, where less support was available to them. The level of professional expertise that each individual had developed was not found to be as significant in the formation of attitudes as the sector in which they were employed, perhaps because expertise was

calculated using general experience (number of years teaching), rather than specific experience of the issue under discussion.

Those teachers who had actual experience of working with disabled learners exhibited generally more positive attitudes (at least in respect of the specific types of disability of which they had experience) than those who had no experience. They were more likely to agree that working with a diverse group of people made teaching rewarding, and were more likely to estimate greater degrees of participation in class for students with given disabilities.

As a crude generalisation, all teachers were reasonably happy to include disabled learners in their classes, as long as some of the responsibility for organising and providing support was shared by another party, and that there was minimal disruption to 'normal' procedures. The desire to share responsibility with the management, the government or other external agency, or even (in a couple of cases) with the student, was evident in the data from both sectors, but particularly so in the private sector, perhaps because support systems were not so well developed there. Including learners with relatively minor difficulties (e.g. a slight hearing loss, restricted mobility) was also regarded more favourably than accommodating students with more severe disabilities (e.g. profound deafness, autism). There was a tendency to shy away from the inconvenience these more 'demanding' students might cause. One way that some teachers justified these reservations was by expressing concern for the other students in the class, and citing the need to shield them from the disruption that – they believed – may be caused to their education.

There were some indications that teachers who were negative about including learners with disabilities felt that they were under-prepared for the

role, which they seemed to consider as additional to the main task of teaching. In the next chapter the initial training that many English language teachers have undergone will be examined to ascertain to what degree they are justified in feeling this.

CHAPTER 7: APPROACHES TO INCLUSION

IN INITIAL ELT TRAINING

7.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter has as its aim the formulation of an answer for Research Question 2, which is the key question of how ELT professionals are prepared through their initial training to include learners who have disabilities or learning differences. This was originally formulated as:

2) How does initial TEFL training in the UK (the certificate courses) approach the issue of inclusion?

It was refined, as explained in Chapter 4, into the following three questions:

2a) What are the aims of the initial certificate courses?

2b) What aspects of the courses are identified by the respondents as being important for preparing new teachers to support their learners?

2c) To what extent do the initial certificate courses successfully prepare new teachers to support their learners?

Using these three questions to provide structure, the following chapter will draw on qualitative and quantitative data from Section B of the questionnaire and the contributions of interviewees in both the pilot and the main studies to provide answers to the main question.

7.1 THE AIMS OF THE INITIAL CERTIFICATE COURSES

The short courses are discussed in some detail in Chapter 2, but briefly the aim of the Cambridge certificate course (CELTA) is that trainees should acquire: “*essential subject knowledge [and]...a range of practical skills for*

teaching English” (Cambridge ESOL, 2006). Trinity College states the main aim of its Cert TESOL as being, like Cambridge, that trainees should be equipped with *“the basic skills and knowledge needed to take up a first post as a teachers of English”* and also that they should be given *“a firm foundation for self-evaluation and further professional development”* (Trinity College, 2004). This last aim was particularly prioritised by those respondents involved in designing the short course, in that they felt the course should *“[produce] considered reflexive practitioners”* (p-IPD-5). This differed from the main aim of the ‘new’ Cert ESOL courses, which the designer described as being *‘to enable teachers to have the linguistic knowledge....to teach about language’* (ISD-9). These two elements of teacher education were also seen as the main aims of the course by some of the trainers, but not exclusively so.

7.1.1 The trainers’ aims

When asked to nominate one main aim of the training course, there was a three way split in the answers of the trainers.

Language Awareness

One of the needs that trainers on all types of courses were aware of in their trainees was the ability to analyse and describe language. One trainer in the state sector described her trainees as *“weak... in terms of their grammatical awareness and knowledge”* (p-ISC-1) and one private sector trainer was clear that: *“Their main needs are to be reassured – certainly with native trainees – about their ignorance of the language”* (IPT-15). This was true even for those trainees who had some prior experience of language teaching, as one trainer on the ‘new’ Cert ESOL courses lamented: *“You wouldn’t expect the levels [of language awareness] that you do see with*

practising teachers.” (IST-12). The aims of these trainers were thus in line with the aims of the new ESOL specialist courses, to raise the level of linguistic expertise in their trainees.

Confidence

Another group of trainers considered the most important aim of the courses to be building self-confidence, so that the trainees would have:

“the resources to think ‘I know where I can find out something about that’, and the confidence to go and research things, and the confidence to go and ask other people for help” (p-IST-2).

It was felt that until the trainees had confidence in themselves and their ability to manage a class they would not *“actually realise what’s going on with the learners”* (p-IPT-7), and so develop a more student-centred teaching style. Self-confidence was also considered crucial in improving the technical aspects of teaching, which most trainers, especially in the private sector, considered the most important aim of the short intensive course.

Technical Expertise

There was a clear bias among the respondents towards the development of practical skills over awareness of the theoretical methodology. One head of department expressed it as *“giving them the tools they need to survive”* (p-IPC-6), and the idea that the Certificate course should provide *“basic survival skills for the classroom”* (IPT-14) was a popular metaphor. Other trainers cited *“classroom management”* (ISC-8) and *“Good basic classroom practice”* (p-IPT-3) as key skills to be gained. One trainer summed up others’ comments about the nature of TEFL when she said they had a duty

“to prepare these people to be adaptable in any situation ... they meet.” (p-IPT-3).

Equipping trainees with the technical skills and confidence to initially survive in the classroom, including sufficient linguistic awareness to be able to analyse and describe how language works, were most commonly seen as the main aims of the certificate courses. There was also agreement with the course designers' views that the development of critical thinking skills was an important aim, as a response to the limitations of the short, intensive courses.

Reflection and Critical Thinking

It was felt that novice teachers needed to have the skills *“to consistently learn, not only on the course, but ... to develop as teachers, when they actually leave the course, as well”* (IPC-13). Their continuing professional development after initial qualification would ideally be assisted by their more experienced colleagues and line managers, but often, in practice, they would be working independently, and would need to:

“develop a sense of awareness of how they've managed... evaluate what [they]'ve done and then if [they] have done things that [they] would change [they] are aware of why it hasn't worked and how [they] could improve.” (p-ISC-1)

Of course, how far trainees were able to travel along this route depended to a large degree on their previous experience of work and study, as well as their individual long-term goals and talents; as seen in Chapter 2, the profile of the typical trainee has undergone some changes over the last few years.

7.1.2 Different Types of Trainee

Some of the trainers felt that the people currently enrolling on the ELT certificate courses came from a more diverse range of backgrounds than had previously been the case. From the 'traditional' cohorts largely comprising young 'backpacking' graduates there is now a perceived increase in the average age of the trainees, who have different motivations for embarking on the courses. Both in the state and the private sector, this phenomenon has become common, as these two trainers attest:

"There's a tendency now when people are taking early retirement and want to leave the country for sunshine, or whatever reason...So I think there's quite a lot of people in that category, that you might not have seen ten years ago, and a lot of people just changing careers". P-IPT-7

"The CELTA course tends to attract a certain type of person, particularly the part-time courses, who might be in life changing moments. So they're either changing from one career to another, or their career has ended, and so they're having to look for another, they've become less mobile or less able to maintain full-time posts, so want the opportunity of going part-time." ISC-10

and inevitably this has both positive and negative consequences for the way the courses are run. These *"more mature trainees"* (p-ISC-1) are often able to draw on professional experience in other fields and have already developed the *"ability to organise people, stand up in front of people, [and] motivate them."* (p-IPC-6). Some drawbacks were noted, though, particularly if the prior

experience had been gained in other areas of education, which have a markedly different ethos from ELT. One trainer remarked that:

“the most challenging trainees to come onto the CELTA courses tend to be the trainees who have been involved in state education. Because they’re having to unlearn an awful lot ...[in order to]...make that transition from teacher as authority figure, to teacher who tries to let his [sic] students become autonomous by participation.” IPT-15

Although some of these older novice teachers may wish to retire to their continental holiday homes (as some of the interviewees suggested) there are also those who have family responsibilities that prevent them from going abroad, or whose intentions were always to stay in the UK. Unfortunately, some of these new teachers may find that their hopes of finding work in the state sector are unrealistic, since they are competing with qualified teachers returning from posts abroad where they have gained wider experience (and possibly, as mentioned above, have had the opportunity to take on positions of responsibility in their schools). One trainer explained that she had *“felt stuck abroad”* until she had studied further and gained a Diploma (p-IPT-3), and that even then she had found it hard to find permanent work in the UK. Unless new teachers are willing to study for the new qualifications specifically designed for the state sector, they may find that their options are limited to posts abroad, or in the (often poorly-paid) UK private sector. On the other hand, the state sector qualifications are not recognised abroad, leading them to be equally ‘stuck’ in the UK. As these new qualifications supersede the certificate courses the situation may change, but it is questionable whether these

“people who have reached a crossroads” (p-IST-2) would think it worthwhile to invest upwards of a year in study, as opposed to the four- or five-week course currently on offer.

7.1.3 The teachers’ perceptions of the initial training courses

The comments relating to this section (added by 36% of the respondents) showed that generally people had found the initial training courses they had attended tough but rewarding. Not all the respondents had taken the Certificate as their first teaching qualification, but those who had not done so and still answered could be assumed to be commenting on their own initial training, or comparing the certificate that they had subsequently taken to their first experience of teacher training.

Foundation for a career

The certificate courses were only ever designed to be a starting point for new teachers, to prepare them to begin their teaching career. When evaluated in these terms, generally, they were thought to have *“provided a good grounding for an initial post”* (SC4-4) and to be *“excellent...but only a foundation”* (PL7-5). Many trainees, unfortunately, do not seem to appreciate the preliminary nature of the certificate course, as this comment illustrates:

“At the time, I thought I was qualified to teach but as soon as I started my first job I quickly realised that the CELTA was simply an introduction and an awareness raising exercise.” (PL7-5)

This misunderstanding of the aims and scope of the course perhaps leads to criticism, such as the points raised below.

Intensive Training

One of the major themes of the comments was the short, intensive nature of the typical certificate course. For some this was accepted and did not alter their overall positive assessment of the course:

“It was great, but how can a month – however intensive – prepare you for every kind of teaching scenario.” (PL2-2)

However, there were many more who felt that the intensity of the course had a negative impact on learning, in that it did not allow *“enough time to digest what we were learning or to practice different teaching methodology”* (PL14-8), and that the course was *“too superficial for realistic teaching needs”* (SL2-1), *“too reliant on ‘instant’ lessons rather than [the] deeper theory behind approach and methodology”* (PL4-3). There were criticisms of the approach taken, too, in that *“the course tended to focus on ‘the teaching’ and not ‘the learning’”* (PL20-3), and that overall it was *“too focussed on one teaching style – doesn’t accept other approaches.”* (PC2-1). These drawbacks associated with the intensive courses - it could be argued – are inevitable given the limited time available.

It appears that the avowed aims of the courses vary from provider to provider, who adhere to differing degrees to the aims intended by the validating institutions. It is also clear that the trainees may not share those aims, or appreciate the limitations of the courses on which they enrol. Given the difference in economic climate between now and the 60s (when the intensive courses were first run to quickly provide a source of better-prepared teachers for the expanding EFL market) and the change in the profile of the typical trainee, it might be argued that the aims of the courses, and the model

of initial training itself are both due for reassessment. This will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 9.

However, there are also positive aspects of this model of teacher preparation, which include the opportunity for intensive practical classroom experience with immediate feedback, and the introduction to the student-centred ethos that I argued in Chapter 2 is still the dominant approach in EFL.

7.2 INCLUSIVE ASPECTS OF THE COURSES

One key question in this study is whether teachers are prepared during their training to support learners who are having to overcome particular barriers. This is a question put explicitly to the trainers in the interviews, and was the subject of several of the questions in the survey, in sections B and C. The responses to these questions are reported here.

7.2.1 Explicit elements of the courses

There was a general consensus that there is little in the intensive courses that explicitly tackles disability issues. The trainers themselves recognised that disability is “*not something that’s addressed from the special needs aspect*” (p-IPT-7) in their courses, and even in the state sector it was acknowledged by one trainer that ELT professionals “*don’t talk about ‘differentiation’ as a buzz word.*” (p-IST-2). However, the course designers who took part in this study were well aware of the differences between the institutions that run their courses around the country. One course designer believed that “*in...FE colleges, they do tend to add their own layer of special needs awareness*” and added: “*...it’s explicit in as much as you’re looking at a*

learner, you should try and identify why they're having problems, and these are the tools you have" (p-IPD-5).

One respect in which the longer courses do seem to be superior is in their coverage of disability issues; in line with the DDA (1995) they explicitly discuss the needs of disabled learners, and attempt to make teachers aware of their responsibilities. One trainer involved with the new qualifications reported that it is written into their syllabus that the courses should *"deal with sensory impairment, and physical impairment, dyslexia and so on. [There is] a whole session on that."* (ISC-8). This seems to be a promising start to a more explicit approach to educating teachers about issues of inclusion. However, one of the interviewees who had been involved with designing these new courses, felt that she would still like to see: *"...more integration of the 'access for all' aspects, the support for learners with learning difficulties and disabilities."* (ISD-9). The question of which model of disability is presented in the courses is of course left for the individual course providers to decide. It seems likely that in state-funded institutions, and especially where the input of 'special needs' experts is elicited, that the training will draw heavily on the dominant ('special') discourse and that the associated medical models of disability will be perpetuated.

Despite the fact that the new qualification (ESOL subject specifications) includes modules on 'the social context of ESOL' and 'current issues in teaching ESOL', both of which cover disability issues, the course designer was not much more positive about how well teachers would be prepared to support and include learners. In her institution they had tried to *'integrate bits*

in, throughout' (ISD-9), but she did not know for certain how other providers would tackle the issue.

Even allowing for the differences due to the individual approaches taken by the providers, in the shorter, intensive courses there was no discernible content regarding disability issues. However, that is not to say that the teachers coming through this route do not learn to include every member of the class. Despite their initial misgivings, the interviewees were able to identify aspects of the training that would naturally lead to an inclusive attitude in the English language classroom.

7.2.2 Implicit elements of the courses

There were a number of elements of the courses that seemed to be consistent with an inclusive approach to education, even if the terminology used did not reflect that of the 'mainstream' 'special needs' discourse.

Individual learning styles

The language used commonly in this respect employs terms such as "*addressing learner styles, the learner needs*" (p-IPC-6) "*student involvement, student-centredness*" (p-IPT-7). One state sector trainer summed it up thus: "*I think in the CELTA training we are quite hot on: 'Are you addressing individual students' needs?'*" (p-IST-2) and this certainly reflected the general consensus. The onus, it seems, is on the teacher to be sensitive and attentive to the way in which each learner is developing. In the (typically) smaller groups of the private sector this is, of course, more feasible than in the large class situation. It is common for courses to include an activity in which trainees are asked "*to develop case studies of particular learners who had a particular area of difficulty or whatever, and to research the barriers to them*

learning English” (IST-11), that is to prepare a detailed profile of one learner in their teaching practice group. Some of the questionnaire respondents commented on the fact that *“The topic of learning difficulties was not featured in my CELTA, and none of the students in my teaching practice class had any. The wide range of needs covered were all concerned with language and cultural differences”* (PS8-2). There were indications that although courses might not include *“enough on emotional issues that can disrupt or impede a student’s learning and progress.”* (PC12-11) they might *“very quickly cover kinaesthetic, visual and oral [sic] learners”* (PC11-7), with a view to introducing the concept of the range of learning styles that learners bring to the classroom. The learning styles and needs of the trainees were also sometimes exploited by the trainers to illustrate this point, as the next section demonstrates.

Modelling inclusive practice

One feature of ELT training that was identified by several respondents as being characteristic of the field was that the style of teaching and the techniques employed for language teaching were also deemed suitable for teacher training, and were modelled throughout the course by the trainers. This was seen as contrasting with other forms of initial teacher education by trainers in both sectors. As one state sector head of department put it:

“In the CELTA input, you are using methods that you are suggesting can be used in the English language classroom. Whereas in the PGCEs you get your person giving a 60-minute lecture on the absolute necessity of varying the style of teaching in the classroom, and different learning styles.” (ISC-10)

This strategy (known as 'loop input', Woodward, 1987) is consciously applied to aspects of teaching, such as encouraging cyclical learning, which was described as:

"the same as EFL teaching as well, because you're recycling, you're going forward but you're going back to what you've done before, going 'oh, remember what we've said about this in this session.'" (IPT-14)

As well as these practical approaches to teaching, the ability to react to learners' / trainees' needs was valued and incorporated into the training courses, as this trainer in the private sector further suggests:

"...it is very much dealing with individuals on the course and reacting to those needs as they develop, and putting in place extra sessions, remedial work, trouble-shooting sessions to meet those needs...So you are reacting to the group as you go along, so to speak." IPT-14

A comment from one of the questionnaire respondents attests to the effectiveness of modelling inclusive teaching:

'When I trained I had a disability, and [another trainee] was partially sighted. Throughout the 1 year course we became used to the way in which our disabilities were handled by the course tutors, so we were aware of what we needed to do if / when we came across others with disabilities.' (SL1-3)

although this must be balanced against the next comment from a course leader in the state sector, suggesting that the structure of the intensive course

she had attended and the teaching methods employed did not model inclusive education:

“The Initial Certificate worked against any individuals with specific learning differences and I believe a number who may have been in this category left the programme or failed to complete.” (SS3-2)

These contrasting experiences clearly illustrate the variability of the courses on offer, due to the range of individual providers’ expertise and approaches. However, generally it can be concluded that the certificate courses have as a key aim the introduction of the trainees to a student-centred, inclusive approach to teaching. The emphasis on seeing students as individuals and responding to their needs is modelled in (many) training courses and encouraged through activities such as discussing how cultural and language backgrounds can affect language learning, and the preparation of detailed learner profiles. However, there are few explicit references, if any, to supporting learners with disabilities, and although it could be argued as an advantage that the ‘special’ discourse of the ‘mainstream’ is avoided, the question of how effective these courses are in empowering teachers to support disabled learners should also be addressed.

7.3 THE EXTENT TO WHICH COURSES ARE SUCCESSFUL IN FOSTERING INCLUSIVE PRACTICES

In the previous section some aspects of the initial training courses were identified that might help to prepare new teachers to support students who faced barriers to learning and participation. In this section, the efficacy of these training methods are assessed by examining the views of the

respondents in respect of how well prepared they felt to accommodate a diverse range of learner needs immediately after completing their initial training.

7.3.1 The respondents' views of their own preparedness

In section B of the questionnaire, respondents were asked about their experiences of initial TEFL / TESOL 'Certificate' training courses. Questions 1 and 2 sought to uncover in more depth the qualifications that the respondents had gained, and when they had taken them (i.e. before they began to teach, or after having gained some classroom experience). Question 3 elicited their perceptions of the initial training they had received, with regard to how well they felt they could cater for the needs of a diverse class, and Question 4 invited further comments on any aspect of their initial training.

In Question 3 the respondents were asked to rate four statements a-d (shown in Table 7/1 below) where 0 = no answer given, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree. The highlighted figures are the modal response in each case.

Statements:		% of the whole sample who answered:				
		0	1	2	3	4
A	After finishing my Certificate course I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	7.2	27.3	44.3	18	3.1
B	After finishing my Certificate course, I needed to gain some experience in the classroom before I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	7.7	4.6	9.3	35.6	42.8
C	After finishing my Certificate course, I needed a lot of support from my colleagues in order to be competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	8.2	6.7	34	39.2	11.9
D	After finishing my Certificate course I needed more formal training, before I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	8.8	11.3	42.3	30.9	6.7

Table 7/1: Reactions to section B statements; all respondents.

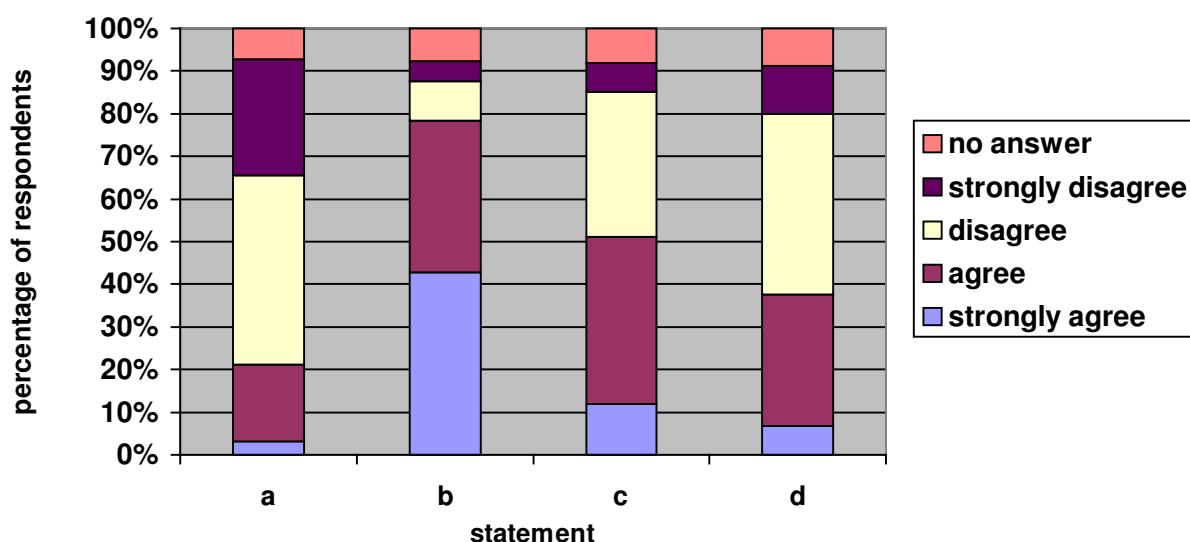


Figure 7/1: Reactions to section B statements; all respondents.

From Figure 7/1 it can be seen that statement a gained the least support; only 21.1% agreed (or strongly agreed) that they had felt “competent in

teaching students with a wide range of needs” after completing their Certificate. Overwhelmingly, the respondents felt they had needed more experience (78% agreed or strongly agreed with statement b), and colleagues’ support and formal training were perceived as less important (agreement rates for statements c and d were 51% and 37.6% respectively). This is the first indication of one of the common themes that emerged from the data, which reveals that many of the respondents regard practical experience as more useful and more important than theoretical understanding or awareness.

7.3.2 Respondents whose first qualification was a TEFL certificate.

For 135 (69.6%) of the respondents, their first teaching qualification was initial TEFL training: a Cambridge CELTA, a Trinity Certificate in TESOL, or the equivalent. 7 did not give any information about their first qualification, but for the 52 others, the most common entry to teaching was through a PGCE (n=19) or a Cert. Ed (n=13). The full range of first qualifications in teaching or education is given in table 7/2 below:

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Initial TEFL Certificate	135	69.6
PGCE	19	9.8
Cert. Ed.	13	6.7
Diploma in TEFL	5	2.6
B. Ed.	4	2.1
City and Guilds 7407	2	1.0
MA	2	1.0
College of Preceptors Diploma	1	0.51
Management training	1	0.51
Nursery school teaching	1	0.51
PhD	1	0.51
Teaching Diploma at St. John's College Durham	1	0.51
University of Philology Teaching Qualification	1	0.51
VSO EFL Certificate	1	0.51
No information	7	3.6
TOTAL	194	100

Table 7/2: First Qualification in Teaching or Education.

When the group was narrowed to include *only* those who had taken a Certificate in TEFL as a first qualification (n=135), the reactions to the statements were in some ways different. It is perhaps not surprising that the number of non-answers dropped dramatically (from an average of 7.97 per statement to 1.47 per statement), probably because the question was seen to be much more relevant to this sub-group than to the total respondent population. Table 7/3 and figure 7/3 show the figures for this group (highlighted figures are the modes):

Statements:		% of the whole sample who answered:				
		0	1	2	3	4
A	After finishing my Certificate course I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	1.5	34.1	46.7	17	0.7
B	After finishing my Certificate course, I needed to gain some experience in the classroom before I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	0.7	2.2	8.1	41.5	47.4
C	After finishing my Certificate course, I needed a lot of support from my colleagues in order to be competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	1.5	3.7	35.6	45.2	14.1
D	After finishing my Certificate course I needed more formal training, before I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	2.2	7.4	46.7	35.6	8.1

Table 7/3: Reactions of respondents whose first qualification was a TEFL certificate to statements in B3.

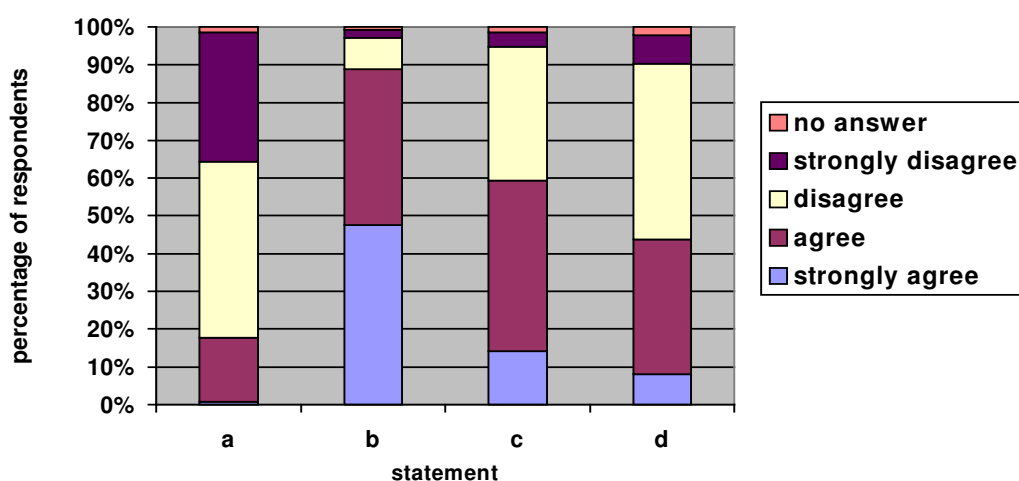


Figure 7/3: Reactions of the respondents whose first qualification was a TEFL certificate to the statements in B3.

Statement a met with overall disagreement amongst those who had taken the certificate as a first qualification; only 17.7% agreed or strongly agreed, which is comparable to the agreement level of the whole population (21.1%). However, comparing the initial certificate group to the group of respondents who took a different first qualification the difference is striking: 28.8% of this group agreed that they had felt competent after qualifying. The levels of agreement for statements *b*, *c* and *d* (i.e. they felt they needed more experience, support or training) seemed to be slightly higher among the respondents in the initial certificate group, than among the other respondents. The figures are compared in Table 7/4 (highlighted figures are the modes):

B3 Statement	Respondents who took the certificate as an initial qualification (n=135)		Respondents who did NOT take the certificate as an initial qualification (n=59)	
	Agreed overall %	Disagreed overall %	Agreed overall %	Disagreed overall %
A (felt competent)	17.8	80.7	28.8	52.5
B (needed classroom experience)	88.9	10.4	54.2	22.0
C (needed support from colleagues)	59.3	39.3	32.2	44.1
D (needed more formal training)	43.7	54.1	23.7	52.5

Table 7/4: Comparison of reactions to the statements between those respondents who had taken a Certificate in TEFL as a first qualification, and those who had not.

In order to explore whether there is indeed a significant association between taking the certificate as a first qualification and agreeing with the

statements in section B3, chi-square tests were conducted on the responses for these statements, comparing those who had taken the certificate first and those who had not. The positive responses 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were conflated, as were the negative responses 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' for the purposes of this analysis. Those who had given no answer were excluded from the calculations.

The tests confirmed that there was an association between the two variables for statement a ($X^2=6.49$ (df=1); $p<.01$), statement b ($X^2=8.94$ (df=1); $p<.01$), and statement c ($X^2=4.38$ (df=1); $p<.05$). However, the tests did not show an association between the two variables for statement d. For all the statements except d, the respondent's first qualification and their reaction to the statement was significant. It seems that most respondents disagreed with the statement that they needed more formal training, regardless of what their first qualification had been. This is an attitude that comes through strongly in the comments made by respondents in Section B.

7.3.3 Practice versus Theory

The belief, manifested in the reactions to the statements above, that *"[r]eal experience was the biggest need after the certificate – not more academic material"* (PS5-1) was reiterated in many of the comments that the respondents added to this section of the questionnaire. One teacher thought that he had *"learnt more in the four weeks following (in class) than on the course."* (PL14-8) and another that it was *"through practical experience and observing other teachers."* (PL20 -5) that his teaching had developed. As well as practical experience in the classroom, one experienced teacher and trainer reported that after her initial course she had:

“learnt some things from colleagues, but a lot from [her] learners, and the experience of struggling in a foreign language, living abroad.” (SC4-4)

Even with respect to specific skills such as supporting learners, this manager felt that;

“it is experience with learners with different needs rather than formal training that allows newly qualified teachers to become competent.” (PS5-2)

and this was corroborated by his counterpart in another school who stated that

“It was not the ‘cert’ that gave me relative competence in covering needs – it was from previous and personal experience.” (PC4-1)

Those who had gained experience beforehand, like this manager, were in a different position when it came to assessing the certificate course. On the whole, these respondents felt much more positive about their training, as this manager demonstrates:

“Excellent TEFL CELTA course, coupled with experience I had before, made me competent to teach immediately, I believe.” (PC11-1)

And often this confidence seems to stem from the reassurance they got from the course rather than from new skills they developed:

“My initial cert mainly confirmed I was following suitable methodology as I had over 20 years of teaching behind me already.” (PL16-5)

These confident statements were added by only a small percentage of the respondents, but an analysis of the responses to the section B statements will reveal more accurately to what extent they are representative of this subset of the sample who had taught before gaining a qualification.

7.3.4 Respondents who had gained experience prior to qualification.

The respondents were asked to state in which year they had taken the certificate (or their first qualification), so that it could be compared with the number of years they had been teaching (given in section A of the questionnaire), in order to determine how many had taught before they had been awarded a qualification. The responses to this question spanned 33 years: the earliest year given as year of qualification was 1971 (n=1), the latest was 2004 (n=9). 21 respondents (10.8%) did not give a year; 14 of these had taken a different qualification and 7 did not give any information about their first qualification. Table 7/5 groups the years stated by decade, with their frequencies:

Decade of course completion	Frequency	Percentage of whole sample
Not stated	21	10.8
1970s	7	3.6
1980s	28	14.4
1990s	89	45.9
2000 ->	49	25.3

Table 7/5: Decade in which first qualification was gained.

Comparing the year of first qualification with the number of years experience stated in Section A, it was possible to determine which of the

respondents had gained pre-training experience, with a view to exploring whether that altered the way they perceived their training courses. There were 40 respondents who fell into this category (see table 7/6), and their perceptions are examined in more detail in this section.

	Frequency	Percent
Had worked before becoming qualified	40	20.6
Had not worked before becoming qualified	133	68.6
Not enough data to classify	21	10.8
Total	194	100.0

Table 7/6: Percentage of respondents who had worked before gaining their first teaching qualification.

In table 7/7 (below) the responses ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ were conflated, as were the ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ responses, to give two overall ‘agree’ / ‘disagree’ categories. The modes are highlighted for each statement. Those about whom there was not enough data to make a decision regarding their membership of either of the groups were excluded at this point (n=21).

B3 Statement	% of respondents who had worked before qualification (n=40) who		% of respondents who had NOT worked before qualification (n=133) who	
	agreed overall	disagreed overall	agreed overall	Disagreed overall
a (felt competent)	42.5	55.0	15.8	83.5
b (needed classroom experience)	52.5	42.5	93.2	6.0
c (needed support from colleagues)	35	60.0	60.9	37.6
d (needed more formal training)	35	60.0	41.3	57.1

Table 7/7: Comparison of responses to section B statements from those who had worked before qualifying to those who had not.

There appeared to be some marked differences between the groups, as might have been expected, since the extra classroom experience should have given the group who worked before qualifying an advantage over their inexperienced counterparts, at the very least in terms of confidence. This is perhaps the reason that more of them agreed with statement *a*, that they were competent to work with a wide range of learners. Fewer of the group who had prior experience agreed with statements *b*, *c* and *d* than the other group, and this too, perhaps reflects their greater confidence in their own abilities. More than half (52.5%) of them agreed with statement *b*, that they still needed more experience in the classroom, but compared to the total population figure of 88.9% who agreed with this statement, and the 93.2% of the group who had not worked before qualifying, this is not a high percentage.

The relationship between group membership and agreement with the statements was explored using chi-squared tests, which confirmed that there was an association between prior experience and response for statement a ($X^2=13.35$ (df=1); $p<.01$), statement b ($X^2=35.19$ (df=1); $p<.01$), and statement c ($X^2=7.47$ (df=1); $p<.01$). However, there was no association shown between prior experience and response for statement d ($X^2=0.32$ (df=1); $p>.05$). Again, for all the statements except *d* a significant relationship was shown to exist. The homogeneity of the negative response to statement *d* (that more formal training was *not* needed after the initial training was completed) is clearly corroborated by the comments added to this section, reported above, and was not dependent on sector or prior experience.

7.4 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR QUESTION 2

In this chapter three important topics have been addressed: the aims of the intensive courses, the manner in which they prepare teachers to support their learners, and the degree to which they are successful in achieving this. It seems that there are discrepancies between the aims of the courses as envisaged by the course validators, and the providers who run them. These aims may also sometimes conflict with the expectations of the trainees who enrol on them, and who are not sufficiently experienced in teaching to perceive the necessary limitations of a four-week course. However, it emerged that among the aims that trainers have when running a course is to enable trainees to grow in confidence sufficiently to overcome their self-consciousness, so that they can focus on their learners' needs, rather than their own. There was also an acceptance on the part of the trainers that what the trainees often wanted, and would be required to demonstrate, were

technical skills, rather than critical thinking skills. This inevitably has become a main focus of the short course, with the hope expressed by many trainers that their trainees would recognise the certificate as being only an introduction to teaching, and would continue to seek professional development throughout their careers.

In terms of how the issue of inclusion was introduced to the trainees on the certificate courses, it was shown that a number of strategies are in place that would encourage the new teachers to consider the learning needs of each of their students on an individual basis. However, strategies for accommodating specific disabilities were rarely explicitly spelled out, and there was little awareness among the trainers (particularly in the private sector) of the legal responsibilities that all teachers are under since the amendment of the DDA. On the longer 'ESOL specialist' courses for FE sector teachers there was better coverage of disability issues, through some specific modules, but even this was felt to be inadequate by the trainers involved in the courses.

It is therefore no surprise that when asked whether they felt their initial training courses had prepared them for working with learners with a wide range of needs, the vast majority of teachers reported that they had not felt prepared at first. More of the teachers who had taken a different initial qualification (for example, a PGCE or Cert. Ed.) said that they had felt prepared, but still the figures were low. Those who had gained experience before qualifying were more likely to say that they felt they had been able to cope with a range of needs, but they put this down to their previous experience, and not to the training course. From this it might be concluded

that the certificate courses are not successful in enabling teachers to support all their learners confidently. It may be that in fact teachers are able to provide the support needed, but that they doubt their abilities because they have never had specific guidance in this matter. In either case, there is an argument for the courses to be more explicit in their treatment of disability issues, and this argument is backed up by legislation.

Since many teachers report feeling under-prepared to accommodate a range of learning needs when they had completed their initial training, it seems that there is a need to encourage teachers to pursue further training. This could be in particular areas of education (such as learner support, or working with young learners) or to develop a range of skills that would allow them to progress in their careers (e.g. managing courses, training new teachers). In the next chapter the issue of professional development is examined, to ascertain what opportunities are available to ELT professionals, after they have completed their initial training.

CHAPTER 8: PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

OPPORTUNITIES AVAILABLE TO ELT PROFESSIONALS

8.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the third of the three main research questions is addressed, which was formulated in these terms:

Does the existing provision of in-service training and professional development meet the needs of ELT practitioners?

In order to answer this complex question it was unpacked so as to pose the following four questions:

3a) What opportunities do ELT professionals have for general professional development?

3b) To what extent do ELT professionals take advantage of the opportunities for CPD that they have?

3c) What opportunities do ELT professionals (in both sectors) have specifically to develop their abilities to support learners with disabilities?

3d) What kind of professional development do ELT practitioners feel they would like or need access to?

These questions will be answered by drawing on the data gathered through section C of the questionnaire (both quantitative and qualitative) and the interview transcripts.

Section C of the questionnaire elicited information about any *formal* training the respondents had undergone since completing the Certificate course. It was explained that this would include any courses they had been on (whether or not they led to a qualification) and any workshops or lectures they

had attended, at a conference or as part of an In-service Training Day, or Professional Development Programme. The aim of this section was to gauge to what extent and in which areas the respondents' initial training had been supplemented, and by means of which forms of training or teacher education. It enabled comparisons to be made between the roles that respondents reported playing, and their training profiles, and provided an opportunity for the respondents to volunteer information about topics they felt they still required more training on. Perhaps most importantly, it provided a means to analyse the attitudes and opinions elicited in Sections D and E in the context provided not only by length and type of experience, but also of level of qualification, as detailed in Chapter 6.

8.1 OPPORTUNITIES FOR CONTINUOUS DEVELOPMENT

The results reported in Chapter 7 showed that the type of career development that many ELT professionals found most valuable was the professional experience that they had gained. In Section C of the questionnaire there was an opportunity for the respondents to report both the formal training they had undertaken and the informal experiential learning they had gathered throughout their careers. It is this type of professional development which is examined first in this chapter, followed by a detailed analysis of how formal training helped to supplement the experience they gained in the course of their professional lives.

8.1.1 Professional experience

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they had had any professional experience in each of six given aspects of teaching (listed in table

8/1, below) independent of any training they had received in that area. The number of respondents who reported that they had had some experience of each area in their professional lives is shown here as a percentage of the group as a whole, and of the sample divided by sector:

	<u>TRAINING TOPIC</u>	Whole sample	Private sector respondents	State Sector respondents
a	Teaching young learners	68%	72.2%	59%
b	Teaching Business English	73.2%	73.7%	72.1%
c	Training new teachers	40.2%	35.3%	50.8%
d	Teaching students who have 'learning difficulties'	47.4%	47.4%	47.5%
e	Teaching English for academic purposes	72.2%	66.2%	85.2%
f	Course management	48.5%	39.8%	67.2%

Table 8/1: Respondents who reported having had professional experience of the given areas of teaching, as a whole sample and by sector.

There are some interesting apparent differences but the only topics which proved to have an associative relationship with sector of employment were topic e (Teaching EAP; $X^2=7.58$ (df=1); $p<.01$) and topic f (Course Management; $X^2=12.54$ (df=1); $p<.01$). It should be expected that more teachers in the FE and HE institutions would have experience of teaching academic English, and the results in previous sections have indicated that the state sector respondents were on average more experienced and better

qualified, leading them to be natural candidates for course leadership. In the next section the extent to which this experience was backed up with formal education or training will be assessed.

It is worth noting that there is a discrepancy between some of the figures yielded in section A of the questionnaire (respondents' roles, reported in Chapter 5) and those who later report 'some professional experience' of these areas, in section C. The figures are shown here in table 8/2 for comparison:

Area of English teaching	Section A figures (%)	Section C figures (%)	Discrepancy (%)
<i>Teaching Academic English</i>	70.6	72.2	1.5
Teaching Business English	66.5	73.2	17.0
Training New teachers	14.9	40.2	25.3
Managing / leading courses	31.4	48.5	17.1

Table 8/2: Comparison of figures from section A and section C.

In these four areas, more respondents consider that they have some professional experience in the given field, than are actually doing (or have done) the job. The explanation is that professional experience may not equate to actually teaching the subject, or being in the role at the time of answering the questionnaire. There may be respondents who have come into ELT from a business background (or an academic one), and so feel they can claim to have some experience, without actually having taught a business (or academic) English course. Some respondents may have had responsibility for training new teachers or leading courses in previous posts, perhaps in schools abroad, as previously reported results have indicated.

8.1.2 Formal Training

The questionnaire respondents were asked to indicate whether they had ever had the opportunity to go on a course or attend a workshop or seminar in each of the six given topics. The results of this part of section C, question 2 are shown below in table 8/3:

TRAINING TOPIC		Percentage of respondents who		
		Gave no answer	had had training in these areas	had <i>never had</i> the opportunity for training in this area
A	Teaching young learners	20.6	32.5	39.7
B	Teaching Business English	29.9	21.1	41.8
C	Training new teachers	33.5	27.3	34
D	Teaching students who have 'learning difficulties'	34	13.4	49.5
E	Teaching English for Academic Purposes	33.5	27.3	35.1
F	Course management	33	26.8	38.1

Table 8/3: Opportunities for Professional Development in the given topics.

In each case, less than half of the sample said that they had never been offered the opportunity for training in that area of teaching. This does not mean that most of the respondents had had opportunities for training in these areas, however, since there were large numbers of respondents who gave no answer, and a few who had had the opportunity but had not taken it up. Around a third (slightly fewer for topics a and b) of all respondents did not answer this section (or answer it clearly enough to determine their true responses), indicating a

degree of confusion either around what would constitute a professional development opportunity, or how to fill in the grid. Topic d '*teaching students who have 'learning difficulties'*' was the least commonly offered training opportunity: 49.5% had never had this opportunity and only 13.4% had actually received any training. This is examined in more detail in section 8.3 later in this chapter.

One interesting point to note is that the figures for respondents who have undertaken formal training in these areas do not necessarily match those who are currently working in the associated roles. The next section explores the match between professional development and the current roles of the respondents.

8.1.3 Matching training to roles

Two areas of teaching that most obviously require further training after an initial certificate course are management of courses or schools, and training new teachers. These two aspects of professional development form the focus of this section.

Management

94 respondents reported having had experience in managing or leading courses at some point in their careers (not necessarily at the time of completing the questionnaire). Of these 94, 46 (48.9%) had received some training in the role. 6 respondents who did not claim any experience had also received some management training. Figure 8/4 shows that half of the respondents who had worked in a management capacity had had the opportunity for training, and most of these had taken advantage of it.

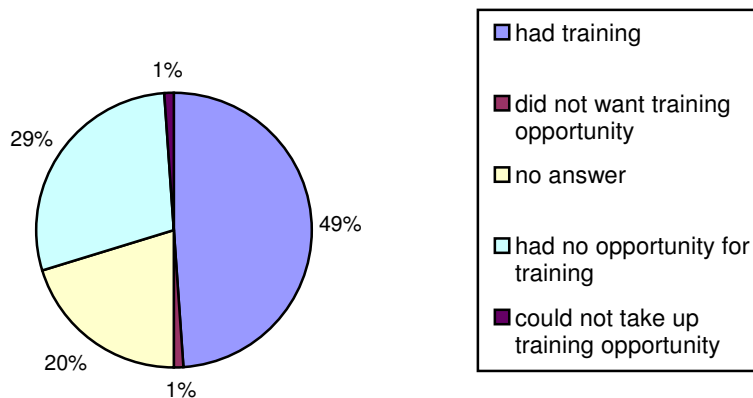


Figure 8/4: Proportion of respondents with management experience who had had training in this area.

For the 61 questionnaire respondents who reported that they were currently working as either course leaders or departmental managers (5 were both) in their schools, the training rates were similar. Only 27 (44.3%) had had some training for this role. 18 (29.5%) had never had the opportunity for management training, 2 had been offered the opportunity for training but had either declined or been unable to take it up, and 14 gave no answer to this question.

Teacher Education

When it came to the important role of teacher educator, the training figures were much better, in that more practitioners had received appropriate training. 78 respondents reported having had experience in this capacity at some point in their careers (not necessarily at the time of completing the questionnaire). Of these 78, 46 (59%) had received some training in the role and so had 7 who did not claim any experience. Figure 8/5 shows that the

majority of respondents had had the opportunity for training and had taken it up.

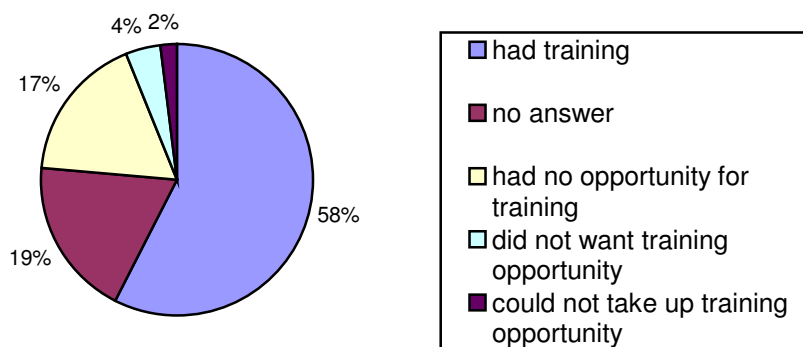


Figure 8/5: Proportion of respondents with experience of training new teachers who had had training in this area.

For the 29 questionnaire respondents who reported that they were currently working as trainers in their schools, the training rates were much higher: 25 (86.2%) had had some training for this role. 3 had never had the opportunity for further training in teacher education, and one gave no answer to this question.

From this section it can be seen that for some roles, such as the training of new teachers and management positions, ELT professionals are less well trained than might be considered desirable. Some of the respondents recognised this and one manager went so far as to state that she believed:

“... it is imperative that all teachers have some management training before taking up the role of

ADOS or DOS³. They have the DELTA, but in no way does this prepare them to be managers.” (PC11 – 3)

In Chapter 5 it was shown that not all of the interviewed trainers had had any formal education related to their new responsibilities, and the extent to which this is the norm is demonstrated by the analysis of the larger sample of questionnaire respondents. Table 8/6 shows the proportion of respondents who had had experience of different aspects of teaching, with or without training.

TRAINING TOPIC		Percentage of the whole sample who had experience in teaching these areas	Percentage of experienced respondents who	
			had had training in these areas	had <i>never had</i> the opportunity for training in this area
A	Teaching young learners	68	38.6	35.6
B	Teaching Business English	73.2	26.8	41.5
C	Training new teachers	40.2	59	17.9
D	Teaching students who have ‘learning difficulties’	47.4	25	46.7
E	Teaching English for Academic Purposes	72.2	36.4	30
F	Course management	48.5	48.9	28.7

Table 8/6: Proportion of respondents who had experience of different aspects of teaching, with or without training.

In fact, from this table, it appears that training new teachers is the area of professional development that is the least neglected, with 59% of trainers

³ (Assistant) Director of Studies

having had some training for the role. This is far from ideal, but reflects the general picture of professional development in the ELT field.

8.1.4 Other professional development / training opportunities

In some of the institutions in which the interviews were carried out, it was reported that there were regular opportunities for in-house professional development, in others it was not clear how easily the participants could access further training. In the state sector the ELT teams were generally required to attend the college-wide CPD sessions, and indeed, to *“actually deliver some of the in-service training”* (ISC-8). This was also the case in some of the private sector schools, where trainers would contribute to a programme of seminars for their colleagues. One school director explained that *“as part of being accredited, it’s got to be important that you can show evidence of the training that you do in-house. But it really is down to you, what you do.”* She went on to suggest that this was another source of tension between management and staff, because *“With EFL profit margins being so small, as a school owner, it’s a consistent thing: ‘oh, we’ve got to cut costs – cut the training’”* (IPC-13). However, another director was very positive about the fact that *“the diploma and the drive to fund people and encourage people to do further stuff like Mas is actually having the knock-on effect of... [changing] what we’re doing”* (p-IPC-6).

With professional development opportunities being so scarce, and somewhat haphazard, it is inevitable that many teachers will miss out on further training completely. However, the responsibility for seeking out and pursuing professional development does not lie only with the schools and

employers; individual teachers have to be willing to invest their own time as well, if real development is to take place.

8.2 THE UPTAKE OF CPD

Being offered the opportunities for professional development and actually taking them up are of course two very different things. There may be a number of reasons why teachers do not feel able or inclined to take advantage of the opportunities that are offered. In previous sections the issue of how many practitioners take advantage of the available training opportunities has been alluded to. This section investigates the issue in more detail, and suggests some reasons why not all opportunities are taken. First, though, a survey of how many of the respondents hold further qualifications provides the background for this issue.

8.2.1 Further qualifications in TEFL / TESOL gained since the initial certificate

The question relating to further qualifications following the initial certificate was of most direct relevance to the 135 respondents (69.6% of the total) who had done the initial certificate as their first teaching qualification, although others answered, presumably in terms of further training they had undertaken since their own first qualification. Of the group for whom the certificate was the first qualification (n=135), 81 (60%) had gained a further qualification, and 54 (40%) did not report having gained a further qualification. The most common further qualification was a TEFL diploma (53.3%) followed by a Master's degree (15.6%). Some of the respondents had taken more than

one further qualification. Other qualifications included a PGCE and a PhD, as shown in Table 8/7:

Type of Further Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
TEFL Diploma	72	53.3%
Master's degree	21	15.6%
PGCE	2	1.5%
M/Phil or PhD	2	1.5%
City & Guilds 7407	1	0.7%
CELTA trainer Certificate	1	0.7%
Certificate in Business English	1	0.7%

Table 8/7: Qualifications gained since the Initial Certificate (n=135).

From this analysis it seems that the majority of teachers do pursue professional development following the certificate, and gain further qualifications. There are also opportunities for training that do not lead to qualifications, and these are discussed in the next section.

8.2.2 Other Training Topics Covered

Respondents were asked to state what other topics they *had* had training in. 141 of the respondents did not give any answer, but the following areas (represented in table 8/8 below) were reported by the remaining 53 (sometimes without further elaboration!).

Topics	Frequency	Topics	Frequency
Educational Use of ICT	9	Using dictionaries	1
Exams	8	Distance learning	1
Personnel and management topics	7	Teaching gifted students	1
Literacy	6	Learner autonomy	1
ESOL	5	Languages Other Than English	1
Curriculum and material design	4	Medical English	1
Drama	3	Using NLP in the classroom	1
Learning Difficulties (not necessarily EFL-oriented)	3	Observations	1
Challenging behaviour	2	Pair work	1
Mentoring + coaching teachers	2	PGCE	1
Teaching Pronunciation	2	Research	1
Teaching Adults	1	Skills For Life	1
Teaching Beginners	1	Developing video skills	1
Counselling	1	Working with students 1:1	1
Cultural issues	1	Wrong word	1

Table 8/8: Topics that training had been received in.

It would be interesting to know why the majority of respondents did not give an answer to this question. It could be that they had not had access to any training, or that they simply chose not to answer. Or, it might be that they could not remember any particular topic they had attended training in,

indicating that it had not been as stimulating or meaningful a course or session as might be hoped. Unfortunately, no data are available to shed light on this particular question, but in the next section some of the factors that prevent people from accessing professional development are investigated.

8.2.3 Barriers to Professional Development

A number of barriers to undertaking further training were identified, the most important of which seemed to be that: “*[t]here do not seem to be many courses widely available.*” (PC1-1). This state sector teacher agreed and explained that for her “*...a PGCE...seems to be the way forward*” (SL1-3). One much-travelled and highly experienced course leader had found that in-service training tended to be:

“very hit-and-miss, depending on what kind of institution you work in, in which part of the world. There is not always provision for professional development –it is not always seen as a priority by many institutions.” (SC3-4)

A part-time teacher corroborated this view, reporting that where he had worked:

“in private language schools overseas, there was little if any staff development...an ad hoc series of workshops given by colleagues was the norm.” (SL2-6).

Even if staff development is available, this manager who confessed himself to be “*...rather unaware of what is available in terms of formal training other than the DELTA*” (PC11-8) is probably not alone in his ignorance. It seems that many teachers do not actively seek out training opportunities, and that motivational factors were another problem associated with CPD.

While some respondents recognised that it was “*essential*” (PL11-3, PL7-1) and “*a must*” (SC2-2), one respondent complained that “*Not many teachers are motivated enough to do it.*” (PL7-2). On the other hand it was suggested that “*Most teachers need as much as they can get, but most employers have no interest in providing it!*” (SC5/6-1). These last two comments point to the lack of incentives on both sides.

These incentives could be in the form of time allowed for training, since it was reported that “*[t]ime is always a problem.*” (SL2-2) or in financial support, in recognition of the fact that: “*[i]t’s expensive for a teacher’s wage*” (PC7-5) as this teacher testifies:

“I would have loved to take the diploma but could not afford it and was never offered any financial help” (PL10-2).

Lack of motivation, time or funding inevitably leads to low take up, with the result that those who do wish to pursue opportunities find that:

“It’s often difficult to get what you want in training because institutions don’t run what you want or cancel at the last minute due to lack of numbers.” (SL2-3)

The quality of training courses was also perceived to be inconsistent; one course leader recalled that he had enrolled for a DELTA course but found it “*profoundly disillusioning*” (PL20-3) whereas another teacher was finding his diploma course “*exciting and relevant*” (PL11-1).

Interestingly, the course leader quoted above went on to comment that “*too much emphasis is put on academic qualifications, rather than practical expertise and reflection.*” (SC3-4) which reflects the commonly held belief

revealed previously in Chapter 7, although her similarly well-qualified colleague in another school disagreed, believing that :

“...[training] often lacks a grounding within ‘mainstream’ education theory and practice which is included in a PGCE. Most of the training seems geared to the requirements of private language schools...not schools and ESOL needs” (SL2-4).

This is a criticism that others have also levelled at EFL training, notably in connection to the Certificate courses discussed in Chapter 7.

It seems that there are difficulties in finding suitable, accessible and affordable opportunities for general professional development, but the situation pertaining to what are regarded as ‘specialist training courses’ is even worse.

8.3 CPD OPPORTUNITIES IN SUPPORTING DISABLED LEARNERS

Question 2 in Section C of the questionnaire asked respondents about the opportunities they had had to explore specific training topics, one of which was ‘teaching students who have ‘learning difficulties’. Table 8/9 shows the full range of responses to this particular topic:

Percentage of respondents who:				
Gave no answer	had had some formal training in this area	had been offered the opportunity of formal training in this area... ...but <i>was unable</i> to take it up (financial or time constraints etc)	...but <i>did not wish</i> to take it up.	Had <i>never been offered</i> the opportunity for training in this area.
34%	13.4%	1.5%	1.5%	49.5%

Table 8/9: Opportunities to access training in supporting learners.

As stated above, this was the most neglected of all the training topics cited in the questionnaire. Almost half of the sample had never been offered the opportunity to develop to their skills in supporting learners with disabilities, and only 13.4% had had formal training in this area. 6 (3%) had been offered the chance, but 3 (1.5%) had not been able to take up the opportunity and 3 had declined the offer. A third of the sample had given no clear answer to this question.

In terms of in-service training offered in institutions, none of the interview informants were able to state definitely that supporting (disabled) learners was a topic that had appeared on the programme in their school, although one trainer reported that at his institution they had had

“input on making sure classes are inclusive, to cater for shy people, extrovert people, making sure there’s a variety of activities to deal with different learner styles, so we do it from that angle, but not really specifically to do with learning problems.” (IPT-14)

One respondent felt confident to cater for a range of needs, despite having undertaken no further training since his certificate, either general or specific:

“Although I haven’t had formal training in these areas, I feel I have sufficient experience at this point in my career to cope with most of these teaching requirements.” (PC6-2).

This is another clear example of experience being valued over academic or theoretical education. Other respondents put it quite simply, that :*“Learning Difficulties were not covered.” (PL2-6)* and an experienced assistant director

noted that she “...observed lots of new CELTA teachers and feel they don’t have enough training in teaching students with special needs.” (PL7-6).

This certainly seems to be “...an area neglected in TEFL / TESOL.” (SC8-3) and generally “ignored” (SC8-1) by the profession. Some respondents thought that it should be mandatory for all, “as part of the Certification courses for TEFL/TESOL” (PC11-8) i.e. the initial training for all ELT professionals. Others seemed to be suggesting that “special teaching staff are required to teach these students” (SL1-3) and that it was something that some teachers might choose to specialise in:

“It’s not a question of purposefully ignoring students with learning difficulties, but providing trained professionals to deal with difficulties.” (SC1-1)

Many respondents expressed a desire to access more training in this area; whether this was an effect of the questionnaire or a genuine response is unclear.

8.4 ELT PRACTITIONERS’ VIEWS OF THE CPD OPPORTUNITIES THEY WOULD LIKE OR NEED TO PURSUE

At the end of section C of the questionnaire respondents were asked to comment on the formal training they had received since completing their initial certificate (or equivalent). 59 (30%) of the respondents added a comment to this section; most agreed that it was important to maintain professional development, but there were also suggestions, noted above, that it was a lack of opportunity that prevented them from undertaking further training.

There were also many respondents who had concrete suggestions to make about the kind of further training opportunities they would like to have. A

common theme, of course, was that *“It needs to be practical and relevant. Not theory!”* (SL3-1) and there was agreement that *“In-service support seems to be the most valuable method of teacher development.”* (SC4-3), with a suggestion that *“...it could tie training into specific lessons, following up what has been learned.”* (PC13-5). One department manager suggested that:

“CELTA should be supported by ongoing professional development at all schools. We need a bridge between CELTA and DELTA exams....I’d like to see a more accessible modular diploma” (PL7-5)

There were also indications that on a local level there were positive moves being made towards sharing expertise through workshops and seminars organised by teachers’ associations.

These comments revealed an overall dissatisfaction with the professional development opportunities available to the respondents. The recurring preference for practice over theory was apparent here, too, and a sense that there was no clear norm for the pattern or provision of further training throughout a teacher’s career.

8.4.1 Desired Training Topics

Respondents were also asked which topics they *would like* to have training in, and the following responses were recorded:

Topics	%	Topics	%
None stated	42.3	Exams	1.0
Teaching students who have 'learning difficulties'	23.7	Observations	1.0
Training new teachers	16.5	Careers	1.0
Teaching English for academic purposes	15.5	Alternative teaching methods	0.5
Course management	12.4	Counselling	0.5
Teaching business English	10.3	Measuring improvement	0.5
<u>Teaching young learners</u>	6.7	Copyright issues	0.5
ESOL issues	6.2	Pronunciation	0.5
Educational Use of ICT	3.1	Study skills	0.5
		Tourism	0.5

Table 8/10: Topics in which respondents desired training.

A large number (42.3%) of respondents did not identify any area of teaching that they would like to have further training in, for reasons not explained. Some of the most commonly cited needs were related to roles that the respondents were perhaps already fulfilling or foresaw that they would progress into (teacher training, teaching EAP or business, and managing courses), but which the data suggest that at least some had not been adequately prepared for. The most common requirement was training in working with students with 'learning difficulties', and this need, or interest, was also expressed in the comments added to this section and those following, which were reported in Chapter 6.

8.5 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR QUESTION 3

For each of the given aspects of professional development, the number of respondents who have never been offered any training in the topic is consistently the highest figure for each topic. The numbers of respondents who were offered training in each of the given areas but either did not wish to take it up, or were not able to, due to time or cost constraints, are relatively low. (The full results of question 2 in section C, from which these data are drawn, are reproduced overleaf in table 8/11 for ease of reference.)

What is more worrying is the mismatch between the training that ELT practitioners receive and the roles that they perform, especially when it comes to being involved in training new teachers. This area showed better figures for those actually working as trainers at the time of the questionnaire, but it is by no means clear that every trainer has the opportunity to develop appropriate skills in this field prior to embarking on that stage of their career.

It is also clear from these results that very few ELT practitioners have received any formal training in supporting students who face barriers to their learning such as disabilities. This is an aspect of teaching that demands urgent attention from the validating bodies, in order to come into line with the legislation in this country, which now applies to all educational establishments.

These, and other issues which have arisen from these four results chapters, will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Table 8/11: Results of Section C, question 2 for the whole sample.

CHAPTER 9: DISCUSSION

9.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous four chapters a full report of the findings of the study has been presented based on the three main questions and the sub-questions that they engendered; some indication was also given of which of the many issues raised merited further discussion. This final chapter begins by summarising the main findings and identifying the issues that require further discussion. These are then explored more fully in the second section, where some preliminary recommendations will be proposed. At this point the unique contribution that this study makes to the body of knowledge about English language teacher education and the issue of inclusion will be established.

At the end of any research project there is a natural temptation to wish that more could have been done, that more time and resources had been available, or that some things could have been done differently; some of these concerns will also be addressed in this chapter. It is not possible to resolve all of the issues that arise, but some promising avenues will be identified for future research later in this chapter.

As noted in Chapter 1 of this thesis, the study focussed on learners with disabilities as the last group of people still to be fully included as a matter of course in English language classrooms. This is not intended to suggest that working towards an inclusive education system is only about accommodating disabled learners, but that this is the situation that pertains in ELT, where student diversity in other respects, such as ethnicity, nationality, language background, language learning ability, and age has already been largely embraced. The thesis therefore ends by concluding that ELT could be well

placed to lead other fields of education towards the ideal of fully inclusive practice, if the recommended steps are taken that would enhance the inclusive ethos of the field.

9.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In this section the intention is to reprise the key points of the findings, and then to identify the most important issues that they raise.

9.1.1 ELT Practitioners' views on inclusion

The first of the three main research questions asked was: *What views do British ELT practitioners (teachers, trainers, course leaders and accrediting bodies) hold about the teaching of students who have disabilities or learning differences?* Generally, most teachers in this study were positive, at least in theory, about accommodating students who experienced barriers to learning and participation, although the degree of acceptance and inclusion seemed to be influenced by several factors. Respondents from the state sector were more positive generally about inclusion, due to the greater amount of support that they could access from established college systems, in contrast to private institutions where no support was usually available. They also tended to be more highly experienced than the private sector respondents, which gave them greater confidence in their abilities to support learners who experienced difficulties. Teachers who reported that they had taught at least one student with a given disability were more confident about their ability to include other learners with the same given disability, and more positive generally about the concept of inclusion. The perceived degree of difficulty that the learners were experiencing also affected teachers' views, with less 'severe' disabilities being

more readily accepted than those that seemed to pose greater difficulties in the language classroom. Another major factor that influenced the respondents' views was how the responsibility for providing any support necessary to facilitate the inclusion of disabled learners was shared. Teachers, particularly in the private sector, who reported getting no support at all from their managers, understandably held more negative views about inclusion.

The key issues raised here were to do with how exclusive attitudes can be challenged and inclusion promoted. One question is where responsibility should lie for promoting inclusion in British ELT establishments, and this is connected to questions about the relative influence that initial training programmes, individual teaching institutions and national organisations have in forming practitioners' attitudes. Linked to this is the added complication that ELT practitioners necessarily operate in an international environment. This means that even if individual teachers are running inclusive classrooms, and the institutional culture is supportive of their efforts, perspectives of disability from many different cultures also have to be taken into account, and not just BANA or western European attitudes which tend to be relatively similar.

9.1.2 ELT initial training

The second main research question was framed thus: *How does initial TEFL training in the UK (the Certificate courses) approach the issue of 'inclusion'?* The respondents who had taken an initial TEFL certificate course as a first qualification reported that they were generally happy with the course as a foundation for their careers, but that they did not feel adequately prepared to work with learners who experienced a wide range of difficulties. It was found that there were several elements of the courses which would be

likely to encourage an inclusive approach to teaching, for example focussing on the individual learning styles of students, but because these aims were not made explicit, new teachers did not always feel confident in including disabled learners in their classes. They felt overwhelmingly that once they had gained their initial qualification, they needed more practical classroom experience to enable them to become more competent, rather than support from colleagues or further academic study.

The issues here are concerned with the manner in which teachers are prepared in their initial qualifications for the inclusive classroom. While there is some evidence that the training courses typically do promote a broadly inclusive approach to teaching, it is important that teachers are aware of this, especially when the input is not presented in terms of the dominant discourse. This is perhaps the major challenge for the EFL profession: to find ways to ensure that teachers are aware of and well-informed about the issues surrounding disability without adopting the dominant 'special' discourse which might be detrimental to the inclusive ethos. The pressure from courses providing the 'new' route into the state sector will probably start to have an impact on the private sector quite soon, and there are questions to be addressed about how the 4-week courses will survive in the present economic climate.

9.1.3 Professional Development for ELT Professionals

The last main research question was: *Does existing provision of in-service training and professional development meet the needs of ELT practitioners in the UK?* After completing the initial certificate, 60% of the respondents had gone on to do some further study, many of them a

TEFL/TESOL diploma or Master's degree in ELT. In theory this should then qualify them to work as Directors of Studies, or as teacher educators, but in reality many of the respondents who were working in these roles had not had sufficient or appropriate preparation for the responsibilities they assumed. Even fewer had had the opportunity to undertake professional development (at any level) in the area of working with disabled learners, and it was not cited as a component of any diploma course.

The issues raised here centred on how ELT professionals can be enabled to access suitable further development opportunities that provide appropriate preparation for the roles they will move into as their careers progress. One worry is that teachers do not seem to have (or are not aware of) opportunities to develop professionally, particularly in the area of adapting their practice to include an ever-widening range of learners. The big question, though, is how well trainers are equipped to further an inclusive agenda, particularly with regard to disability issues. The professional development opportunities of EFL teacher educators must be examined to ensure that the demands made of them in an inclusive education system can be met.

9.2 DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section will address the main issues raised in relation to the findings of each of the research questions, as identified above. Since this is an under-researched field in ELT, research and experience from other fields of education will be enlisted in formulating responses to the topics of most concern for ELT. There is a certain amount of overlap between the issues at certain points, and they should not be seen as entirely discrete, but for the

sake of convenience each will be addressed separately here, with apologies for any repetition that might unavoidably ensue.

9.2.1 Challenging Exclusive Attitudes

As noted in Chapter 4, it is never straightforward to gauge individuals' attitudes, since responses to questions may be the result of different interpretations of terminology, or simply an attempt to please the researcher. Wedell et al (2002) report that teachers largely appear to support the principles of inclusion, as the teachers in this study did, but they caution that in some cases it may be the '*responsible inclusion*' that Dyson (2001) encountered, that is, something actually closer to integration. This was an issue in the Skills for Life Pathfinder project 'Learning for Living' (DfES, 2006b; p. 3) and is also likely to have been an issue in this research study. Croll & Moses (2003; p. 742) found that teachers in their survey demonstrated "*a considerable degree of commitment in principle to the policy of inclusion*" but warned that the reality might prove to be somewhat different. Where teachers were already supporting disabled learners, they were often happy to retain them as members of their class, so it seems that, as was indicated in this study, it is sometimes the fear of the unknown that leads to un-inclusive attitudes. Equally, the 'Learning for Living' project found that this was an issue in persuading academic support staff to work with ESOL learners, who represented a clientele with particular difficulties beyond their usual experience (DfES, 2006b; 14). This relates back to the prioritisation of teacher training (largely mechanical preparation for everyday situations) over teacher education (which develops a teacher's ability to cope with unpredictable situations) at least in the short intensive courses. Perhaps more time is

required within the courses leading to initial qualification for the discussion of these issues, and a greater emphasis on education as opposed to training.

Taking responsibility

One of the barriers that teachers reported experiencing in their efforts to include their learners was a lack of clear leadership in terms both of policy, and practical support. This begged the question: where does responsibility for promoting inclusion lie? If full inclusion is to become the dominant paradigm in ELT, each individual teacher will have to take ownership of the principles of inclusive education, otherwise superficial compliance with the law may be achieved, but not long term sustainability of the inclusive model (Booth, 2003). For this to happen, leaders must demonstrate their own commitment to inclusion, and be prepared to face challenges of and questions about their own practice as well (Ainscow, 2003). If ELT professionals are committed to the values of inclusive education (and this is an assumption to be made warily) and ultimately contributing to an inclusive society, then the support and leadership of institutions and national organisations, such as IATEFL, NIACE, NATECLA, BALEAP and the British Council will be essential.

Formation of Attitudes

There is evidence from other contexts that teachers' attitudes are formed not on the training course, but in the institutions in which they undertake teaching practice and ultimately begin their careers (Su, 1992), resulting perhaps in the sorts of differences that were observed in the data. Of course, many EFL teachers undertake their initial training in institutions where they later find work. In these cases, it might be assumed that the dominant attitudes of the training classroom and the language classroom will coincide. However, few EFL teachers will work all their professional lives in one

institution, and if they then move to another institution whose prevailing ethos differs markedly, they need a strong position from which to argue if they wish to effect change. My suspicion is that few newcomers to an established team would have the strength of character to attempt to challenge the status quo. The fact that the respondents' employment sector seemed to be more influential in determining their attitudes than their degree of expertise supports this supposition (bearing in mind the discrepancy between the number of novices in the two sectors). Research can help to provide a strong basis from which to argue for inclusion. Sparks et al (2005), synthesising their comprehensive series of research projects in the USA, reported that students deemed to have a 'learning disability' do not necessarily perform worse in the language classroom than their peers, and if they do experience difficulties, they are not different from the types of problems that students without such a 'diagnosis' might encounter. This would suggest that teachers do not need to be unduly worried about how to include learners deemed to be disabled, especially since there is some evidence that rather than seeking to implement a specific '*SEN pedagogy*' it is more helpful to think in terms of a continuum of teaching practices (Norwich & Lewis, 2001) whereby the '*unique differences*' of each learner are acknowledged and accommodated in the curriculum. This is the position, in fact, that many of the respondents in this study suggested they were adopting in their practice, but they seemed to need affirmation that they were doing the right thing by their students, and often looked in vain to their managers and colleagues for support.

Inter-cultural perspectives

Where the teachers' role is clear is in challenging exclusive attitudes where they encounter them in their own classrooms. It is not really acceptable to argue that the other students do not want to share the class with disabled learners, and so they should be excluded. This argument would not stand up for racist, sexist or homophobic objections, and nor should it for disablist points of view. When adults from disparate cultural backgrounds meet in the language classroom, it is inevitable that at times there will be disagreements about some issues. Mulcahy (2005) notes that even the Disabled Peoples' International committee had problems agreeing on a definition of disability partly because of problems of translation and cultural viewpoints. Disagreements that arise in the language classroom should not be glossed over, but can, if sensitively handled, become the basis of an important teaching point. Wedell et al (2002a) suggest that the value of peer support has been recognised by many teachers in including disabled learners in 'mainstream' classes. This is backed up by Senior (2002) who points to the importance that experienced EFL teachers place on attending to the social needs of their class as well as their pedagogic needs and describes a "*class-centred approach*" (p. 402) which builds a community spirit and so enables learning to take place. Learning a language (for most people) is not just about learning the words, but includes an element of exposure to other cultures and an understanding of other ways of living and thinking; this becomes particularly important if the learners intend to settle in the country where the language they are learning is spoken.

International and inter-cultural differences in perspectives on disability should be respected, but this does not mean that differences should not be

explored, alternatives presented and debate encouraged. Indeed, through discussion it may become clear that assumed differences do not exist to the degree imagined, and that almost certainly a range of attitudes exist in any one group, as was shown from a study of the Eritrean community in London (DfES, 2006a; p. 7). ESOL and EFL teachers need to be aware that learners they consider to be disabled may not perceive themselves as having a difficulty, if it is not seen as such in their home cultures. Having a chronic but managed illness such as diabetes or asthma may not be perceived as a disability by some students (including many British people) but they are classed as such under the terms of the DDA. Exposure to British support systems may therefore pose a serious threat to their self-identities and should be introduced sensitively. Perspectives may be culturally slanted, but we live in changing times, as Potts found in a study of inclusion in China (2000). Although the pressures for exclusion were still stronger in China than those of inclusion, as they are in the UK, she found some reasons to be optimistic in the increasing awareness among teachers of the need to provide additional support for some learners.

The degree of acceptance accorded to different types and degrees of disability is a comparatively well-researched area. Alghazo and Gaad's (2004) study of 'mainstream' teachers in the United Arab Emirates showed that, like the respondents in this study and other studies they surveyed, students with physical disabilities were deemed to be the easiest to include in the classroom, followed by students with specific learning difficulties. Those with 'emotional' or 'behavioural difficulties' were the least welcome to the UAE teachers, while the British ELT teachers in this study estimated less

participation possible for learners with severe sensory impairments than for learners deemed to have AD/HD or Asperger's syndrome. However, the more experienced UAE teachers (measured only in years of teaching experience) were found to be much more accepting of disabled students than their novice colleagues, which tallies with the findings of this study, too. That there is a 'hierarchy of disabilities' among teachers should not come as too much of a shock, particularly in view of the fact that there appears to be a similar hierarchy amongst disabled people (Deal, 2003) in terms of how they perceive people with the same impairments as themselves or different ones.

Teachers need space to examine and discuss their own attitudes before they can be expected to confidently lead discussions around these topics, however, and this leads to recommendations about how teacher education could be improved.

9.2.2 Reforming Initial Teacher Training

Initial teacher education and training for 'mainstream' teachers in the UK has been the subject of several reforms in the past decade, with the establishment of the Teacher Training Agency and the introduction of new routes into teaching for graduates. These tend to focus on predominantly school-based, experiential learning, and even the more traditional PGCEs have been altered to include more teaching practice with, consequently, less time for the academic discussion of theories and concepts. This worries some commentators who see increasing "*evidence that points to the conceptual and practical unpreparedness of many newly qualifying teachers*" Garner (2000; p.14). This model of teacher education is similar to the TEFL certificate approach, in that it prioritises practice over theory, and the standards required

for attaining qualified teacher status emphasise subject knowledge over theoretical and pedagogical expertise. In the case of the TEFL certificates this is not necessarily a problem in itself, as they are deemed to be only an introduction to the profession, but there was some indication from the data that not all of the respondents had understood the preliminary nature of the courses, which is more worrying. Certainly, these short intensive courses are not considered by the government to be sufficient preparation for teaching in the state sector. Changes in government policy as regards the qualification of English Language Teachers in the state sector (FE colleges) means that the TEFL certificates will no longer be accepted; instead, teachers will have to take the 'ESOL Specialist' qualifications, and possess a PGCE or equivalent qualification.

As noted above, there is, sadly, reason to doubt that even these year-long full-time courses prepare teachers adequately to include all their learners; as a graduate of both a short intensive TEFL certificate course and a PGCE I am well placed to compare the two, and my experience bears this out. Although inclusion as a concept is on the PGCE syllabus, and there may even be modules devoted specifically to the discussion of the related issues, in the stipulation that newly qualified teachers should know where to access help in supporting learners Garner (2000; p. 112) detects a tacit admission that they will not be capable of meeting their pupils' needs themselves. In reality, the most common approach to covering the issue of inclusion is to try to incorporate it into every module, so that it 'permeates' the training curriculum. This, however, raises questions about how aware the teachers are that they

have covered the topics, which is precisely the difficulty with the short TEFL courses.

The end of the 4-week course?

The respondents in this study exhibited a marked degree of confusion (not to say bad feeling) about how teachers will gain access to the profession if they are not allowed to teach before they qualify, and not allowed to qualify unless they are teaching. The place of the 'legacy' qualifications (certificates and diplomas in TEFL /TESOL) is the subject of review and debate (Grover, 2006; §59), and it is not clear that anybody wishing to enter the profession who thinks that they might one day want to work in the UK will choose to take a certificate or diploma course over a PGCE with ESOL specialist modules. On the other hand, the 'new' qualifications are not recognised internationally in the same way that the 'legacy' qualifications are. Optimistically it might be argued that where there is a problem there is an opportunity, and this might be the impetus that the EFL community has been waiting for to reform the initial certificate programme, and at the same time provide a state-recognised PGCE-equivalent qualification that does prepare teachers for an inclusive classroom. Some providers are already marketing the TEFL certificate as a preliminary module of a longer course leading to a PGCE. This might prove to be the best way forward, but only if that which is good about the certificate can be retained, and the opportunity is taken to increase input in areas that are clearly lacking, such as discussion of the issues around including learners who have disabilities. It should be borne in mind, though that: "*Inclusive schooling is not secured by having trainee teachers take units in special needs education*" (Corbett & Slee, 2000; p. 135), but by trainers

demonstrating their commitment to inclusive education in practical ways in the teacher training classroom.

This study has shown that the certificate courses contain some elements that are consistent with an inclusive approach to education, using terminology that does not reflect that of the 'mainstream' 'special educational needs' discourse. This more inclusive discourse should be fostered, in order to provide some competition to the 'special' discourse which tends to promote 'special' attitudes. At the same time, new teachers need to be made aware that they are competent to include all their learners, and that they have the practical and personal skills necessary to do this. This is not an easy task, as any focus on 'special' accommodation is going to be counter-productive to furthering the inclusive agenda if it is couched in the dominant discourse. Florian and Rouse (2001) found that 78% of 'mainstream' teachers in their survey reported having had no training in Special Educational Needs in the previous 5 years, a figure which at first glance seems shocking. However, they suspect that many of their respondents may have received training that was more inclusion-oriented, but that the use of inclusive discourse meant that they did not fully realise how well prepared they were. This still poses a problem, in terms of teachers being confident in their own abilities, and achieving the right balance between overtly 'special' training and implicit inclusive education represents perhaps one of the biggest dilemmas facing EFL in the 21st century.

Positive Role Models

If an inclusive culture is to be fostered among new recruits to the ELT profession, it needs to pervade the staffroom and the training classroom as well as the language classroom. Unfortunately, Booth (2003; p. 35) notes that

barriers to inclusion in the training institution are many, and not least amongst them are the number of official initiatives and directives that have their bases in a variety of underpinning (and often conflicting) principles, which does not bode well for ESOL in the new era of government regulation. He further remarks that not all schools are seen as 'suitable' for trainee teachers' placements, and that mentors who are perceived to have 'problems' are simply not asked to continue in their roles, without these problems being addressed in a constructive manner. These are examples of policies which he suggests do little to contribute to the development of an inclusive culture, and are issues that the ELT profession needs to learn from, if full inclusion is to be achieved.

Another challenge that EFL is going to have to face up to is the inclusion of disabled people on teacher training courses. The respondents in this study did provide some reports of inclusive recruitment processes, but there was also evidence of doors remaining closed. Cooke (2001) shrewdly notes that what he calls the 'disparity' often found amongst the trainees in a training situation, in terms of their starting points in the process of becoming a teacher, echoes the EFL classroom quite closely. This is a resource that can and should be exploited in the trainees' learning, and indeed some of the interviewees did seem to suggest that this was happening in some institutions. Warnock (1978) was adamant that the key to furthering an inclusive policy lies in appropriate teacher education, and if this aspect of EFL is not inclusive, there is little hope that any other will be. As Haug (2003) notes, in relation to the failure of reform in Norwegian teacher education: "*to change teacher education you have to convince and motivate the lecturers*" (p.106); without

the trainers on board there is little chance that anything will change at a fundamental level.

9.2.3 Creating Appropriate Opportunities for Professional Development

When asked what they would like in terms of CPD, the respondents in this study were able to articulate several areas of teaching that they would welcome additional input in, as well as the models of CPD that would best suit their work patterns. The topic that garnered the greatest support was supporting learners with 'learning difficulties', followed by topics that would enable career progression such as managing courses and teacher training, and specific subject areas such as EAP and BE. There is no way of knowing whether the first topic would have been requested if the respondents had not just spent time filling out a questionnaire on working with disabled learners; although it appears to be a promising sign that so many of the respondents were interested in being better informed, this may be due to the effect of taking part in the research rather than an accurate representation of the degree of real interest in the ELT community.

The level of detail in the responses to this question was impressive, but there appears to be a gap between professionals knowing exactly what is needed and their being able to access the appropriate training opportunities. This is not unique to ELT, as Bradley et al (1999; p. 4) report: "*recent evidence from NATFHE indicates that colleges have been unable to meet the range of professional development needs identified*". Most importantly for this study was the quality and consistency of preparation for trainers of new teachers, something that was called into question by the findings of this study. The present situation is not acceptable, that some trainers are qualified by

virtue of having been through a short shadowing process and others simply by having been doing it for some time. Some moves have been made by institutions such as LLU+ at Southbank University to address this issue, and new courses for 'training the trainers' are beginning to appear (although of course this begs the question of who is qualified to train the trainers, and so on indefinitely!).

Of particular concern is the ability of teacher trainers to provide appropriate input in the area of inclusive practice, if, as seems likely, they themselves have not had the opportunity to explore and discuss the relevant issues. This is particularly pertinent in EFL, where modelling good practice plays such a vital part in the training process. There are some ELT professionals who have experience and expertise in academic support situations, and a few support professionals who have some experience in ELT contexts, but we 'hybrids' are few and far between. The findings of the 'Learning for Living' project recommend that ESOL tutors and support staff observe each other working and liaise more often and more fully, and, crucially, that they are given paid opportunities to do so (DfES, 2006b, p. 25). It is essential that more opportunities for ELT professionals to develop their abilities to work with disabled learners are made available and well publicised, perhaps even to the extent of making it a mandatory requirement for teacher trainers, or for schools to receive accreditation from the British Council or BALEAP. As noted above, one important component of these opportunities would be for the participants to understand which aspects of their current practice are conducive to inclusion, and to be aware that they are in fact already familiar with many of the recommended strategies.

If English language professionals are to have any influence in shaping the system they work in, they need to raise their professional standing in the eyes of the government, and of the British people in general. ELT professionals, and EFL teachers in particular, will never throw off their reputation as 'backpack TEFLers' until a firmer career structure is available to them. One way that this can be achieved is for schools and colleges to invest in their employees and offer secure posts, even if they are fractional rather than full-time, instead of the ad hoc hourly paid work each term which is currently the most common model. For this to be a realistic request, government funding must become more predictable and not diverted to a different high profile area every year. Teachers, too, must play their parts and invest in themselves by pursuing professional development opportunities in areas of educational expertise such as management, materials development, assessment and teacher education. All of these additional skills must be developed with an inclusive slant, so that the inclusive culture pervades all aspects of ELT. Most importantly, and certainly more controversially, the concept of the 4-week training course must be reconsidered, and if possible replaced with more substantial, although equally learner-centred, initial preparation for the language classroom. As Spiro (2004) suggests, there are many benefits to be gained from blending the learner-centred and creative aspects of ELT training with the political contextualization of the state sector PGCE.

9.3 WHAT DOES THIS STUDY CONTRIBUTE?

Although this study has its origins in the personal enquiry I outlined in Chapter 1, it clearly has a contribution to make to the development of the ELT profession, and even more widely, to British education generally. From my vantage point straddling the two worlds of ELT and academic support, I have been able to identify aspects of both fields that are of great value to educational good practice, and which ought to be shared more widely among teachers in all settings. The specific technical knowledge about the range of disabilities and learning differences that many learning support professionals have at their disposal would be invaluable to language teachers (or teachers of any subject) in devising inclusive curricula. Likewise, the ability to see a class of students as a group of individuals, and the strategies to utilise diversity as a catalyst for learning, as many ELT practitioners do on a daily basis, are crucial in building a truly inclusive education system.

9.3.1 Contributions to ELT

The timeliness of the research has been noted, coinciding as it does with a much greater push in ESOL to inform teachers and managers about issues of disability, exemplified by the 'Learning for Living' initiative (DfES, 2006a). I believe that the process of collecting the data and reporting preliminary findings back to the respondents has already had some impact on the informants, albeit in a small way. Some of the respondents commented that it was the first time they had been asked to consider their practice from the point of view of supporting disabled learners, and I hope that by taking part in the study, some seeds of self-reflection may have been planted in their minds.

No comprehensive survey had been conducted before in this country which sought to gather the experiences of ELT practitioners with regard to working with learners with disabilities and learning differences, and few of the respondents had had the opportunity to share these experiences before. The common feature of many of the stories related was an overwhelming sense of inadequacy and frustration, and I believe that many of the respondents will have taken heart from the knowledge that they were not alone in their experiences, or in their responses to the situations they found themselves in. Only by pooling our resources and acknowledging areas of professional limitation can we hope to make progress, and I believe that in this way this study has made an important step forward in the process of making the ELT profession truly inclusive.

9.3.2 Personal reflections

On a personal level, I have been able to step back from my own teaching practice to evaluate it in the light of my findings. Through tracing the history of English language teaching and 'special' education back to their roots, I have developed a better understanding of how we (English language teachers) have arrived at this point in our history, and this enables me to form a clearer view of where we may be heading. What has been most interesting for me in this respect is the number of shared features of the two fields, in terms of how they developed as auxiliaries to the main education system, how they have been perceived through the centuries by the establishment, and how they have been, and are now, being controlled by the government in order to serve particular political agendas. In the light of this information, the responsibility that professionals working in these areas bear to examine each

new initiative and to resist those that threaten our students' autonomy or rights is immense. This is particularly important at this time of transition in the profession, when policy decisions will be made that will have far-reaching consequences.

9.4 FUTURE RESEARCH AND ACTION TO BE TAKEN

It was beyond the scope of this study to resolve all the issues that arose from the data, but herein lies the potential for further fruitful research, some suggestions for which are outlined in this penultimate section. Here I will also reiterate some of the steps that could be taken towards a more inclusive English language teaching sector by ELT professionals and national bodies.

9.4.1 Language Use

As language professionals, it behoves English language teachers to be sensitive to the effect that our choice of language has on others. The 'new' ESOL subject specialist courses are supposed to contain input on aspects of language such as semantics, stylistics and pragmatics, and this could easily incorporate a discussion of the discourses surrounding various aspects of teaching, such as inclusive and exclusive language.

A discourse analysis of the language used in the qualitative data might be illuminating, to discover how far the 'special educational needs' discourse has pervaded the ELT community. It must be borne in mind that language choice will have been led to some extent by the questionnaire or the interview prompt material, but generally care was taken to avoid the use of 'special needs' expressions, so this could provide some indication of the extent to which these types of expressions are currently being used by ELT

professionals. This information could also be compared to an analysis of official documents, such as course outlines and syllabi and government publications, to ascertain whether there are any discursal differences between the various organisations.

9.4.2 Promoting Inclusion Nationally

In the data there were some calls from teachers for managers and professional bodies to take a lead in clarifying policies and encouraging good practice, and there would appear to be some justification for this. Further work could be done with the professional bodies in the UK (the British Council, IATEFL, NATECLA and BALEAP) to ascertain in what ways they are already promoting inclusive practice, and how they could work more effectively with schools and colleges to ensure parity of provision across the country. One possible way forward could be to make the demonstration of inclusive practices and fully accessible curricula a pre-requisite for accreditation by the British Council or BALEAP, or for validation of teacher training courses. If implemented intelligently, this would ensure that inclusion remained high on the CPD agenda in any institution that required accreditation or validation of courses.

The government has its role to play, too, especially in encouraging teachers in the state sector to invest in their own professional development. This would entail fostering a climate of security and stability within adult education, and ESOL in particular, so that college managers are assured of funding for courses more than one term ahead, and can employ teachers on more secure contracts that at present is the norm. Linked to this is the need to

encourage more potential teachers who are disabled to enrol on training courses, by ensuring that funding is in place to provide the appropriate accommodation and adjustments that would enable them to access the course confidently.

9.4.3 Teacher Training and CPD

In order to provide relevant and accessible professional development courses for ELT professionals, providers need to know more about why the respondents in this study seemed to be so unaware of what opportunities were available to them in terms of CPD, and why uptake was so low. Research could usefully be conducted into the specific question of how teachers can be encouraged to seek out training opportunities that enable them to play their parts in developing an inclusive education system. Unfortunately, in section C of the questionnaire the respondents exhibited a degree of confusion in filling in the table for question 2, because of uncertainty either about what would constitute a training opportunity or how to fill in the grid. This meant that the data collected in this section was not comprehensive, and there is scope for a more in-depth investigation into how well teachers are prepared for the roles that they take on as their careers progress.

The element of expertise was calculated for the purposes of this study using general experience (number of years teaching) in addition to qualifications gained, but other methods would perhaps have shown slightly different results. For example, taking into account specific experience of working with disabled learners as an additional dimension, or instead of years

of general experience, might produce a significant measure of expertise that would be more informative for course designers.

This year the first of the courses leading to the 'new' qualifications for ESOL specialists are being run, and it would be interesting to compare how the first graduates felt about their professional preparation, compared to graduates of the 'legacy' certificate courses. Specifically, it would be useful to gauge how confident they feel in supporting disabled learners and those with learning differences, and to conduct longitudinal studies following graduates of both types of course to see how their careers, and their responses to the challenges they meet, differ. The longitudinal study planned as part of this project was, unfortunately, not successful (as described in Chapter 4) but other researchers who were able to forge firmer relationships with the trainees on short courses have been able to obtain some information about their career progression (see for example Watkins (2006) who was a course tutor, and Hobbs (2006) who was a participant on a short course). The models used in these studies could be exploited to find out at what stage of their careers teachers feel the need to supplement their initial training, particularly in the field of learner support.

In addition to hearing the voices of the novice teachers, research that focuses on the experiences of disabled English language learners will be vital in informing policy and practice. Much more information is required in this area, but the research needs to be done sensitively, in collaboration with disabled learners.

9.5 CONCLUSIONS: FINAL THOUGHTS

It seems likely that the building of an inclusive English language education system will be a cyclical and gradual process, beginning not with initial teacher education, but at all levels of teaching simultaneously, from TEFL certificate courses to trainer training. Since ELT professionals demonstrate such a strong preference for learning through experience, any number of reforms to the training courses will probably prove to be ineffectual unless and until they are backed up with practical experience. This means that more disabled students need to be encouraged into the language classroom, and more disabled trainees need to be recruited into the profession, so that the trainers gain the valuable experience of working with a wider range of trainees, and can then pass this on to the next generation of teachers.

This may seem like a chicken-and-egg situation, where experience is needed to boost professional confidence, which will in turn foster better practice and encourage more learners to enrol who before may have felt that their disabilities would be insurmountable barriers to participation. However, a start could be made by strengthening links between the academic support staff and the language teaching staff of colleges, so that both sides understand the contexts that the others are working in. In private schools, directors and managers must take the responsibility that would in the state sector be borne by the support staff for implementing the legislation, and at the same time lobby the British Council and IATEFL for clearer guidance on including disabled learners.

Throughout its history, the development of education for disabled learners has been characterised by missed opportunities and empty rhetoric. In Chapter 3 it was shown that even the Warnock report of 1978 which

promised so much actually delivered relatively little in terms of lasting reform, and the present legislation in the form of the DDA has not managed to close the loopholes that will allow exclusion of learners on the basis of disability. For EFL professionals, at least, there is now an opportunity to transcend the flaws inherent in 'mainstream' practice and work towards a truly inclusive approach. From the examination of the history and development of ELT with which Chapter 2 began, a predisposition towards inclusion is apparent, as is a strong tradition of innovative and creative teaching. It is clear that at the heart of the profession is a belief that the learner's needs are of paramount importance, and this has been instrumental in determining the direction that the profession has taken, being the impetus for innovations in practice, from the 17th century bilingual handbooks, to 21st century virtual learning environments. ELT in the UK has benefited in this respect from the much looser relationship that it has hitherto enjoyed with centrally controlling authorities (such as the British government) than other branches of education have.

Despite the greater constraints that are now being imposed on some ELT professionals it seems likely that learner-centeredness will continue to be one of the strongest influences informing ELT practice, and that, if the recommendations outlined here are implemented, this will lead to the English language sector becoming ever more fully inclusive. In this respect we would be well placed to show the way forward for other educational professionals, and a closer exchange of professional experience and discussion of practice would undoubtedly be beneficial for all.

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APPENDIX A: Survey of English Language Teachers

Section A: About you

For these 8 questions please circle the number which applies in each case.

1. Are you (1) female or (2) male ?
2. How long have you been teaching English as a foreign or second language? _____ year/s
3. Have you ever taught English outside of the UK? (1) no (2) yes
If yes, where? _____
4. What type/s of English have you taught? Please circle all that apply:
(1) General (2) Academic (3) Business
(4) Other (please describe): _____
5. Do you work (1) full-time or (2) part-time ?
6. What is/are your role/s at this institution?
Please circle as many as apply at the moment:
(1) EFL / ESOL teacher (2) TEFL / TESOL trainer
(3) Course Leader (4) School / Department Manager
7. How many students do you *usually* have in your largest class at this institution? Please circle only one:
(1) 1 – 6 (2) 7 – 12 (3) 13 – 18 (4) 19 or more
8. If you are teaching EFL / ESOL at any other institution/s *at the moment*, please indicate which type/s of institution/s by circling all that apply:
(1) Private language school (2) FE College (3) University
(4) Adult Education Centre (5) School (5-16 year-olds)

Section B: Initial teacher training for EFL / ESOL teachers

There are 4 questions in this section about initial TEFL / TESOL 'Certificate' training courses.

1. In what year did you (or do you intend to) take your initial TEFL training course (e.g. Cambridge CELTA, Trinity Certificate in TESOL, or equivalent) ?

2. If this was NOT your first teaching qualification, what had you done before?

3. Please read each of the statements below (a – d). For each, please circle only one number on each line, indicating how well it fits with your views:

		<i>I strongly disagree; I think this is totally incorrect</i>	<i>I disagree; I don't think this is quite correct</i>	<i>I agree; I think this is mostly correct</i>	<i>I strongly agree; I think this is absolutely correct</i>
a	After finishing my Certificate course I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	1	2	3	4
b	After finishing my Certificate course, I needed to gain some experience in the classroom before I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	1	2	3	4
c	After finishing my Certificate course, I needed a lot of support from my colleagues in order to be competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	1	2	3	4
d	After finishing my Certificate course I needed more formal training, before I was competent in teaching students with a wide range of needs.	1	2	3	4

4. What other comments would you like to make about your initial training course?

Section C: Further TEFL / TESOL training and Professional Development

There are 5 questions in this section, which asks about any formal training you have had since completing the Certificate course. This would include any courses you have been on (whether or not they led to a qualification) and any workshops or lectures you have attended, at a conference or as part of an In-service Training Day, or Professional Development Programme.

1. Have you gained any further qualifications in TEFL / TESOL since being awarded your initial Certificate? (1) No (2) Yes

If yes, please state which: _____

2. Please consider the six training topics (a – f) in the box below. For each topic, indicate whether you have any professional experience in that area (the first column), *and* whether you have been offered opportunities for formal training in that area of teaching (one of the other columns).

In each box in the 5 columns please tick for “yes” or cross for “no”.

	<u>TRAINING TOPIC</u>	I have some professional experience in this area.	I have had some formal training in this area.	I have been offered the opportunity of formal training in this area...		I have <i>never been offered</i> the opportunity for training in this area.
				...but was <i>unable</i> to take it up (financial or time constraints etc)	...but <i>did not wish</i> to take it up.	
A	Teaching young learners					
B	Teaching business English					
C	Training new teachers					
D	Teaching students who have 'learning difficulties'					
E	Teaching English for academic purposes					
F	Course management					

3. Which topics not mentioned here *have you had* formal training in?
4. Which topics *would you like to have* formal training in?
5. Would you like to make any other comments about post-certificate TEFL / TESOL training or professional development?

Section D: Categories of ‘Learning Difficulties’

There are 3 questions in this section. In the table below you will see a list of some conditions, labelled (a – j), which are often classed as “Learning Difficulties”.

1. Please grade each condition according to the extent to which you think a student with that difficulty could meaningfully participate in your EFL / ESOL class. Please circle one number for each condition:

	<u>Condition or ‘Learning Difficulty’</u>	Not at all.	Less than 50%.	50% or more	As fully as any other student
A	hearing loss (e.g. student communicates verbally, and lip-reads)	1	2	3	4
B	profound deafness (e.g. student communicates using sign language)	1	2	3	4
C	visual impairment (e.g. student has some residual sight)	1	2	3	4
D	total loss of sight	1	2	3	4
E	slight mobility difficulty (e.g. student uses a stick)	1	2	3	4
F	severe mobility difficulty (e.g. student uses a wheelchair)	1	2	3	4
G	Dyslexia /or other Specific Learning Difficulty	1	2	3	4
H	Attention Deficit / Hyperactivity Disorder	1	2	3	4
I	severe Autism	1	2	3	4
J	mild Autism (e.g. Asperger’s syndrome)	1	2	3	4

2. Please use this table to indicate how many students you have taught English to (throughout your career), whom you knew, or believed, to have any of the conditions labelled a-j in question 1:

Category of learning difficulty:	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	l	j
Number of students taught:										

3. Please use this space to tell me about *your first experience* of teaching English to a student who seemed to have one of these difficulties (e.g. What was the difficulty? How did it affect learning? What support was given?) or to make any other comments you wish about this section:

Section E: Support for EFL / ESOL students with ‘learning Difficulties’.

This section asks about your views on students who have ‘learning difficulties’ and the support given to them. There are just 2 questions.

- For each statement (a – l) below and on the next page, please circle one number on each line, indicating how well it fits with your views:

		<i>I strongly disagree; I think this is totally incorrect</i>	<i>I disagree; I don't think this is quite correct</i>	<i>I agree; I think this is mostly correct</i>	<i>I strongly agree; I think this is absolutely correct</i>
A	Teaching students who have ‘learning difficulties’ should not be part of an EFL / ESOL teacher’s job.	1	2	3	4
B	Where I work, some particular support needs can be met (for example: by providing magnified or differently coloured handouts).	1	2	3	4
C	I think that EFL / ESOL teachers should expect their students to have differing needs, which it is the teachers’ job to accommodate in class.	1	2	3	4
D	The situation has never arisen, so I do not know what support would be available for an EFL / ESOL student who has ‘learning difficulties’.	1	2	3	4
E	It is the responsibility of the classroom teacher to organise any support needed for the students in that class.	1	2	3	4
F	Students who have ‘learning difficulties’ unfairly take teacher time away from the other learners in the class.	1	2	3	4
G	It is the responsibility of the management to provide the classroom teacher with the resources needed to teach all students.	1	2	3	4

Section E: (continued)

		<i>I strongly disagree; I think this is totally incorrect</i>	<i>I disagree; I don't think this is quite correct</i>	<i>I agree; I think this is mostly correct</i>	<i>I strongly agree; I think this is absolutely correct</i>
H	It is a form of cheating if students receive extra support; if they are unable to study independently at the required level, they should not be accepted onto the course.	1	2	3	4
I	Where I work there is an established system of support in place for all students (for example: trained staff, specialist equipment, adapted materials, or financial support to access or acquire these).	1	2	3	4
J	Students should organise their own support if they need it.	1	2	3	4
K	There is no support available in my place of work for EFL / ESOL students who have 'learning difficulties'.	1	2	3	4
L	Working with students who have a wide range of needs is what makes English language teaching particularly rewarding.	1	2	3	4

2. Do you have any other comments to add about supporting students with 'learning difficulties'?

***Thank you very much for your help with this.
Please now place it in the envelope provided
and give it to [NAMED PERSON] as soon as possible.***

APPENDIX B: Introductory letter attached to the questionnaire.

Dear Colleague,

Thank you very much for agreeing to help me with my research. After several years teaching EFL, I am taking some time out from the classroom to follow up some of the issues that have been puzzling me, but that I never had time to address whilst I was teaching. I hope that the results of this study will be useful to teachers across the EFL / ESOL sector, and I will certainly send you a summary of the findings of this questionnaire as soon as I have processed the data.

My main interest is in the area of classroom inclusion, especially of learners who appear to have particular difficulties in learning. These are sometimes referred to as “special educational needs”, but here I use the term “learning difficulty” to cover physical disabilities, sensory impairments (such as a hearing loss), specific processing difficulties (such as dyslexia) as well as emotional and behavioural problems. This is an area that has received a lot of attention in the ‘mainstream’ sector recently, but seems to have a comparatively low profile in the field of ELT, and I would like to find out why.

Through this questionnaire I hope to gain an insight into how the issue of ‘learning difficulty’ is perceived by ELT practitioners. Please answer it as honestly as you can – you do not need to put your name on it, and all data will be treated in the strictest confidence. (The questionnaires are numbered purely for purposes of analysis.) It should only take about 15 to 20 minutes to answer the questions, although I would be delighted if you wish to add your own comments, as well. When you have finished, please place it in the small envelope attached, and then give it to [NAMED PERSON] to send back to me with the others in the large stamped addressed envelope provided; I would be grateful if you could return it by [DATE ONE WEEKS TIME].

If you have any questions at all please do contact me by e-mail :

a.m.smith3@lancaster.ac.uk

Best wishes,
Anne Margaret Smith

APPENDIX C: Interview Schedule for trainers and course leaders

name: _____

job title:	trainer	course leader	manager
------------	---------	---------------	---------

SECTION 1: overview of ELT career:

1. Entry into EFL / ESOL

Eng lang/ling	MFL	travel	Lit / Num
other:			

2. first teaching qualification

3. years teaching EFL / ESOL

<2	2-5	6-10	11-20	21-30	31+
----	-----	------	-------	-------	-----

4. Where?

5. situations ?

Adult Ed.	Comm. Ed.	Ed.Bus	YL	school	FE / Uni	1:1
priv						
other:						

6. How into training?

Quals	Experience	right place + time
-------	------------	--------------------

7. How long training ?

8. trainer training

On the job	mentoring	course
------------	-----------	--------

9. future career development

SECTION 2: experience as an ELT trainer

1. main needs of trainees

technical skills	reflective practice
other:	

2. main aims of course

3. changes in ESOL / EFL training

4. other changes?

SECTION 3: students with 'learning difficulties'

1. Have you ever worked with English learners or trainee teachers who had (or seemed to have) any 'learning difficulties'?

<p>YES 1a) Do you feel that your training had prepared you for that situation? <i>In what ways? Specifically? Implicitly?</i></p> <p>2a):How did you feel at the time? What did you do?</p>	<p>OR NO 1b) Do you feel that you would be prepared for that situation if it arose? <i>Because of training? Experience?</i></p> <p>2b): Why do you think that might be?</p>
--	--

2. If a student who had a recognised learning difficulty were to arrive at this institution, whose responsibility would it be to organise the support s/he needed to complete the course?

Teacher	student	management	Support Dept.
---------	---------	------------	---------------

3. Does this institution offer any in-service training (or professional development courses) on this issue to teachers?

Or do you know of any other providers offering courses in this field?

APPENDIX D: Glossary of Terms

The descriptions provided in this glossary are intended as a quick reference (or reminder) for the reader and not as full or comprehensive definitions.

<u>Acronym</u>	<u>term</u>	<u>definition / description</u>
AD/HD	Attention Deficit / Hyperactivity Disorder	Learning differences which often co-occur, although they can appear separately.
ADoS	Assistant Director of Studies	See DoS
	Backpack TEFLers	Derogatory term for travellers who earn some money as they travel by teaching English – usually without any training or qualifications.
BALEAP	British Association of Lecturers of English for Academic Purposes	Professional body for FE / HE lecturers involved in EAP
BANA	Britain / Australasia / North America	The English speaking countries who are perceived to dominate the international EFL community in terms of teacher and materials supply, research and methodological innovation.
BE	Business English	English language provision for those who wish to use it in a business context.
CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults	An initial teaching qualification in EFL, accredited by Cambridge ESOL.
Cert Ed	Certificate in Education	Level 4 generic teaching qualification.
Cert TESOL	Certificate in Teaching English as a Second or Other Language	An initial qualification in EFL, accredited by Trinity College, London.
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching	A method of teaching that gained pre-eminence in the 1980s, based on the view of language as a tool for communicating in real situations.
CPD	Continuous Professional Development	On-going training or education for professionals.
DELTA	Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults	An advanced teaching qualification in EFL, accredited by Cambridge ESOL.
Dip TESOL	Diploma in Teaching English as a Second or Other Language	An advanced teaching qualification in EFL, accredited by Trinity College,

		London.
	Disability	An impairment lasting a considerable amount of time which has a significant effect on a person's ability to do things on a day-to-day basis.
	Discourse	The customary way of denoting concepts that a speech community agrees upon in order to further a particular agenda.
DoS	Director of Studies	Senior teacher, often with other responsibilities such as for curriculum development, or staff development.
EAL	English as a Additional Language	English Language support provided in the compulsory education sector for those whose L1 is not English, or who speak another language at home.
(T)EFL	(Teaching) English as a Foreign Language	English language provision for adult learners whose L1 is not English. (Not state-funded in the UK)
ELT	English Language Teaching	An umbrella term for all forms of provision where English is taught to those who have a different L1.
(T)ESOL	(Teaching) English for Speakers of Other Languages	State-funded English language provision for adult learners whose L1 is not English
(T)ESL	(Teaching) English as a Second Language	Name by which (T)ESOL was known prior to the 1990s.
ESP	English for Specific Purposes	English language provision for those who have a particular motivation for learning the language (e.g. air-traffic controllers)
EYL	English for Young Learners	English Language provision for pre-teenage and teenage learners.
FE	Further Education	State-funded post-compulsory educational provisional.
HE(I)	Higher Education (Institution)	(Place of) education at degree level, usually state funded.
IATEFL	International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language	International professional organisation for EFL teachers

IELTS	International English Language Testing System	English qualification recognised both in the UK and internationally as a measure of proficiency.
	Inclusion	A policy of providing education that is accessible to everyone, and embraces diversity.
	Integration	A policy of making provision for disabled learners and those with learning difficulties within the 'mainstream' system, but without altering the structure of curriculum or the fabric of the buildings to any significant extent.
L1	first language ('mother tongue')	The language that a person learns first and / or uses most fluently.
	Learner	Person involved in learning a language
	Learning difficulty	A difference in learning style or ability that has a significant effect on a person's ability to study.
	'Legacy' qualifications	Qualifications conferring TEFL initiated status (level 4) or TEFL qualified status (level 5) which are not recognised by the government.
LLU+	(formerly the London Language and Literacy Unit)	A national consultancy and professional development centre for staff working in the areas of literacy, numeracy, dyslexia, family learning and ESOL.
	'Mainstream'	The section of the compulsory education system that is state funded and follows the National Curriculum.
MFL	Modern Foreign Languages	Languages that are taught in a country where they are not the L1, usually for communicative purposes rather than instrumental purposes (e.g. French in the UK).
NATECLA	National Association for Teaching English and other Community Languages to Adults	Professional body for ESOL teachers in the UK.
	'New' qualifications	Level 4 Qualifications conferring ESOL Subject Specialist status in the state sector.

NIACE	National Institute for Adult Continuing Education	A non-governmental organisation for adult learning in England and Wales.
NQF	National Qualifications Framework	The NQF sets out levels at which British qualifications can be recognised, from Entry level (e.g. a certificate in Adult Literacy) to Level 8 (a doctorate for example).
Ofsted	Office for Standards in Education	The inspectorate body for children and learners in England.
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education	Level 4 teaching qualification.
	Practitioner	An educational professional involved in any of a number of activities, which may or may not include teaching
	Professional	See practitioner.
	Professional development	See CPD.
QCA	Qualifications and Curriculum Authority	The regulatory body for public examinations in the UK.
RSA	The Royal Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures & Commerce.	An independent, non-aligned, multi-disciplinary charity, whose mission is to encourage the development of a principled, prosperous society and the release of human potential.
	Segregation	A policy of providing education for disabled learners and those with learning difficulties outside of and separate from the 'mainstream' provision.
	Student	see learner
SVUK	Standards Verification UK	The body responsible for endorsing initial teacher training qualifications and approving specialist qualifications for teachers of ESOL, literacy and numeracy in the learning and skills sector in England.
	Teacher	Person involved in facilitating learning in the classroom
	Teacher education	Preparation for teaching that enables the trainee to deal with unpredictable situations in the classroom.

	Teacher training	Preparation for teaching that enables the trainee to deal with predictable situations in the classroom.
TESEP	Tertiary / Secondary / Primary	Countries where English is not spoken as L1 but where it has an important place in the education systems.
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language	English qualification recognised both in the UK and internationally as a measure of proficiency.
	Trainee	Person involved in becoming a teacher, or developing new skills as a practicing teacher.
	Trainer	Person involved in inducting new teachers into the profession, or providing ongoing professional development