State-of-the-Art Article

The language teacher's development

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This paper provides a commentary on recent contributions to the subject of teacher development and growth, focusing particularly on our understanding of some of the processes and tools that have been identified as instrumental and supportive in teacher development. Implicit in the notions of 'reflective practice', 'exploratory teaching', and 'practitioner inquiry' is the view that teachers develop by studying their own practice, collecting data and using reflective processes as the basis for evaluation and change. Such processes have a reflexive relationship with the construction of teacher knowledge and beliefs. Collaborative and co-operative processes can help sustain individual reflection and development.

1. Introduction

This article concerns the subject of the professional development of the language teacher. It presents recent descriptions of, and research into, the nature, processes and tools of teacher development and language teacher education. The emphasis here is on what is possible for the individual who wants to grow and develop as a language teacher. It is mainly concerned with presenting the choices language teachers have in continuing 'with their professional development as language teachers once their period of formal training is over' (Richards & Farrell 2005: 1).

The present article provides a companion piece to the article by Anne Burns 'Action research: an evolving paradigm?' in the previous issue of this journal (Burns 2005). It is clear from Burns' overview that action research has played a huge part in putting the practitioner at the centre of efforts to understand and develop language teaching and learning practice. Action research is clearly a primary 'vehicle for practitioners' personal and professional development' (Burns 2005: 70). However, there are important reflective and developmental processes that need to be considered alongside action research. These are what Burns (2005: 57) calls 'related branches' and include action learning (Zuber-Skerritt 1992; McGill & Beattie 1995), practitioner research (Middlewood, Coleman & Lumby 1999; Zeichner & Nofke 2000), reflective practice (Ramani 1987; Nunan 1989) and exploratory teaching (Allwright & Bailey 1991; Allwright 1992).

There are relatively freestanding procedures that teachers working in any of these 'branches' can utilise, for example, peer observation (Good & Brophy 1987; Day 1990) and journal writing (Gebhard 1999; Hiemstra 2001; Orem 2001). By articulating the full range of choices and resources that a teacher has at his or her disposal when considering routes into professional development, this paper fulfils a complementary function to the Burns article. Indeed, many of the choices described here are resources available for the action researcher too and may be usefully employed in the 'observation' and 'reflection' cycles (Kemmis & McTaggart 1988: 12).

As will be apparent from the above, the focus of the present article is inevitably wider and more inclusive than the Burns' article. However, space dictates some limits. Rossner (1992: 4) includes a very wide-ranging list of teacher development possibilities that includes 'language development, counselling skills, assertiveness training, confidence-building, computing, meditation, . . . cultural broadening'. Consequently, decisions on what to include have been made on the basis of the processes and procedures that are prominent in the language teaching publications in the last few years.

By considering a full range of development possibilities, it is hoped that the article will be useful for

- teachers who want to explore their own professional development; and
- teacher trainers and educators who want to introduce and encourage a range of development tools.

The article is organised into six sections. Following a short introduction in the present section, section 2 reviews important terms in the area of teacher development and foregrounds self-development (Gebhard 1996). Section 3 considers the development of, and the relationships between, different kinds of teacher knowledge. Section 4 presents current thinking in some of the 'related

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branches' of exploration, research and reflection, and section 5 considers options available for cooperative and collaborative development. Section 6 summarises and concludes the article.

2. Defining language teacher development

This section explores distinctions between key terms and draws together some core strands of teacher development. It articulates distinctions between the following terms: teacher training, teacher preparation, teacher education, teacher development, professional development, continuing professional development (CPD) and staff development. It is difficult to sustain watertight boundaries but there are some important differences in emphasis and articulating the slight differences, nuances and subtleties may help to provide a detailed topography of the 'development' landscape.

The core feature of this review is that it places self-development at the centre of a definition of language teacher development. Self-direction is as important in teacher development as it is in language learning (see Nunan & Lamb 1996) and the view of self-development taken here is of a large measure of self-direction. Brockett & Hiemstra (1991: 29) define self-direction as the 'characteristics of an individual that predispose one toward taking primary responsibility for personal learning endeavours'. Nunan (1989) provided the first clear description of a self-developing and autonomously functioning individual, and such a conscious orchestration of individual capacity, environment and available resources is particularly important to our emerging definition. There is a widespread view that it is healthy for professionals to have an active role in their own development processes (Hill 2000; Stuart & Thurlow 2000; Bailey, Curtis & Nunan 2001; Crookes & Chandler 2001).

2.1 Development, training and education

The contrast between 'development' and 'training' is the clearest of the distinctions we need to make. The role of teacher training is to introduce the methodological choices available and to familiarise trainees with the range of terms and concepts that are the 'common currency' of language teachers. The trainer typically demonstrates the range of models and techniques available. He or she might, for example, demonstrate a range of strategies and techniques for correcting errors. Freeman (1989: 27) argued that this kind of knowledge and skill is more 'trainable' than awareness and attitude. He also saw ongoing development as involving context-based awareness of which technique or strategy is appropriate for a particular individual or class in a particular place.

There is widespread agreement that some sort of training or initial preparation to be a teacher is necessary (see Angelova 2005; Attardo & Brown 2005). Parker (2004: 17) states that 'the days of completely unqualified staff teaching languages to adults seems to be numbered, but there are still many staff with low-level qualifications and restricted access to in-service training'. However, necessity does not mean that the concept of training can remain unchallenged. There is also a common belief that training 'imposes' a received approach to it from the outside. Bowen (2004: 1) compares a FROM THE OUTSIDE view of training with a FROM THE INSIDE view of development. Tomlinson (2003: 2) states that on the worst type of teacher development course the teachers are 'surreptitiously pushed in pre-determined directions'. The view taken here is that this is not development at all and forces us to consider whether this is, in fact, appropriate training.

The term 'train' has unfortunate collocations. As Edge (2003a: 7) says 'to train is to instil habits or skills, and the word collocates just as happily with dogs and seals as with teachers'. The negative connotation of the term training has led to greater adoption of the term 'teacher preparation'. While this may be little less than a euphemism, it does allow a greater recognition that development can be part of the remit, even at early stages.

Our emerging distinction is further complicated by different uses of the same terms. Miller (2004: 2) quotes Johnston (2003: 120) as recognising a difference between teacher development from a European perspective and teacher development from an American perspective. The European view foregrounds professional and personal growth 'that teachers themselves undertake and that is guided by the teachers concerned'. This is contrasted with a typical North American view of teacher development that is 'usually conducted by a teacher educator' and 'presented to teachers'. This article takes the European perspective and argues that teacher development is different in nature from both teacher training and teacher education.

2.2 Professional development, CPD and staff development

The distinction between professional development and teacher development is not that marked in the literature but is worth considering. At an institutional level, it is more common to use the term 'continuing professional development', or CPD (see Barduhn 2002). Professional development is career orientated and has a narrower, more instrumental and utilitarian remit. Arguably, teacher development is more inclusive of personal and moral dimensions. Pettis (2002), Johnston (2003) and Miller (2004) present conscious engagement with teacher development as an individual moral commitment.

One distinction that may be worth exploring further is between the professional and the personal.

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The personal more obviously includes dimensions of values, morals and ethics. Johnston (2003) draws together accounts of the role that values play in language teaching. Johnson's aim is to raise language teachers' consciousness of their personal values and specify how these are related to the decisions they make concerning their teaching. Mori (2003) explores the construction of 'personhood'. Teaching is not a simple technical responsibility and has an inherent personal, ethical and moral dimension. Hansen (2001) and Buzzelli & Johnston (2002) explore this moral dimension to teaching. Writers (e.g. Pennycook 2001) consider how language teaching is related to the political and global functions of the language being taught. (Edge 2003b) uses contributions from Templer (2003) and Tollefson (2002) to put forward a view of the relationship between large scale events and individual development.

There are probably few teachers who would not want to be thought of as professional. On the other hand, 'professional' carries a greater claim than the more neutral 'teacher'. Despite Ur's (2002: 392) claim that we have 'seen significant progress towards professionalism', the question of whether language teaching is currently a profession is more open to question. Do all teachers see themselves as having 'careers' or working within a 'profession'? Johnston's (1997) study of Polish and expatriate teachers working in Poland would suggest not. Wanting to develop as a teacher has an obvious relationship with whether the long-term prospects for gainful employment appear rosy or bleak.

Edge (1999) describes how CPD brings together very different contributions at different levels; the self-development perspective (individual or group development), the management perspective (institution), and the professional body perspective (e.g. IATEFL). Edge (2002b) widens these perspectives further to include teachers, trainers, educators, applied psychologists, administrators and managers.

There remains an important difference between top–down professional development as it is presented as a possibility for educational leaders and principals (Glickman 2002; Sparks 2002) and more bottom–up efforts that are instigated by individuals and groups (e.g. Cheng & Wang 2004). Indeed, the term staff development is often used in place of professional development at organisational and systems level. Strong leadership and the ability to build appropriate structures of professional development (e.g. Elmore 2000) undoubtedly have a powerful influence on individual teacher development (see Glickman 2002). However, teacher development is 'independent of, though much better with, support from the organisation, school or system' (Underhill 1999: 2). It is most often a voluntary activity, whereas CPD is 'much more of a requirement for all employees of a given organisation' (Bowen 2004: 1).

2.3 Development inside a training process

Pre-service training or initial teacher education has the function of giving guidance to possible pedagogic choices, teaching strategies, L2 methods, course design and coursebook materials. This can provide stability and security for new teachers and is 'a necessary stage of development for professionals' (Clarke 1982: 447). As well as providing input in such courses, there has been a shift towards ensuring that training integrates and maintains a development imperative. Damron (2005) looks specifically at how pre-service teachers are encouraged to develop professionally. Tomlinson (2003: 2) argues strongly for a teacher development approach within a teacher education programme. The aim of such programmes should be to develop a 'multi-dimensional awareness' and 'the ability to apply this awareness to their actual contexts of teaching'.

There is a developing focus in the literature on the longer-term effect of specific training and knowledge input. In 1987, Bernhardt & Hammadou surveyed articles concerned with language teacher education. Then, the vast majority were taken up with descriptions of teacher education courses, procedures and modules. Now, attention is more likely to be on outcomes and development. For example, Bartels (2005) contains 21 articles which assess impact, uptake, development and changes in knowledge arising from a range of teacher education programmes. Bartels (2005) represents the most significant contribution to date in moving the agenda from description of courses to evaluation of long-term effects on language teacher development.

2.4 Core themes in teacher development

To summarise the discussion above, the following key themes can inform discussion of teacher knowledge, reflection and collaboration. Language teacher development

- is a bottom–up process and as such can be contrasted with top–down staff development programmes;
- values the insider view rather than the outsider view;
- is independent of the organisation but often functioning more successfully with its support and recognition;
- is a continuing process of becoming and can never be finished;
- is a process of articulating an inner world of conscious choices made in response to the outer world of the teaching context;
- is wider than professional development and includes personal, moral and value dimensions;
- can be encouraged and integrated in both training and education programmes.

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3. Teacher knowledge and teacher development

Recent work (e.g. Raths & McAninch 1999) offers a breadth of writing on teacher knowledge. This section considers the variety of knowledge that informs language teachers' practice. Some of this knowledge is received knowledge (Wallace 1991) and some of it is more personal or individual, and arises from experience and reflection on experience. This section considers where this knowledge comes from, what form it takes and how it maintains a reflexive relationship with development. The relationship between teacher knowledge, teacher education and teacher development is one that continues to change and need examination.

Johnson & Golombek (2002: xi) have demonstrated the enormous range of 'teachers' ways of knowing'. The central question of Johnson & Golombek's collection is 'What is knowledge and who holds it?'. As they say, this is a deceptively simple question. What is clear is that knowledge is not in any simple way transferred from educators and trainees to teachers (Richards 1998). Knowledge is at least partly constructed through engagement with experience, reflection and collaboration (Roberts 1998).

This section illustrates the growing appreciation of the complexity of teacher knowledge (Freeman 2002, 2004). Its multi-faceted nature includes received knowledge, personal knowledge, experiential knowledge and local knowledge.

3.1 Knowledge organised into topics

When knowledge is parcelled up, as it is in teacher education programmes, the list is quite varied and extensive. There has long been an understanding that topics such as lexical studies, syntax, SLA, phonology, discourse analysis, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics have an important role in the development of teachers' knowledge base (Bartels 2005). In addition, most teacher education courses will include some more pedagogic components, including methodology, course design, materials and assessment. This content roughly corresponds to received knowledge (Wallace 1991).

Particular attention is often paid to the importance and role of KAL (Knowledge about Language). Trappes-Lomax & Ferguson (2002) provide accounts from language teacher educators working on a variety of types of program researching their practice and reflecting on underlying principles. The collection considers language as social institution, language as verbal practice, language as reflexive practice, language as school subject and language as medium of language learning. Most of the articles in Bartels (2005) focus on the impact of language awareness modules in teacher education programmes. The discussion of how much teachers need to know about language is ongoing (see Wright 2002; Larsen-Freeman 2004). Lavender (2002), Adger, Snow & Christian (2003) and Cray (2003) consider what grammatical knowledge a competent teacher needs to have. Other papers posit that appropriate standards and proficiency need to be developed through education programmes (e.g. Elder 2001; Coniam & Falvey 2002). However, improving language awareness does not necessarily mean a reliance on transmission methodology and awareness can be achieved through engagement with texts, interaction and talking about grammar (Savova 2003).

3.2 Individual knowledge

There has been movement away from a transmission of knowledge framework (Fanselow 1988), in which knowledge about teaching and related topics are delivered, towards a view of teacher education as ongoing engagement between received knowledge and experiential knowledge (Wallace 1991). This approach inevitably draws more attention to the processes of individual development. Johnson & Golombek (2002: 3) talk about a new scholarship that articulates 'an epistemology of practice that characterises teachers as legitimate knowers, producers of legitimate knowledge, and as capable of constructing and sustaining their own professional practice over time'.

Greater interest in the individual teacher has meant greater consideration of types of teacher knowledge, rather than seeing knowledge as a series of topics. A description that focuses more on the individual teacher and various constructs of teacher knowledge would include content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, curriculum and materials knowledge, knowledge about second language acquisition (SLA) and learners, and knowledge about context. It would also include personal knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly 1987), practical knowledge (Golombek 1998), experiential knowledge (Wallace 1991), local knowledge (Allwright 2003) and usable knowledge (Lageman 2002). There are also related constructs such as BAK (Woods 1996), which considers the interplay between beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge.

There is obvious overlap between these types of knowledge. For example, local knowledge, or knowledge about context, recognises that knowledge is situated and socially negotiated. The local (Canagarajah 2005) has a reflexive relationship with existing knowledge. These various metaphorical constructs help to describe the complex nature of teacher knowledge. The recognition that an individual teacher is constantly reshaping knowledge through the complex interplay between declarative or received knowledge, on the one hand, and personal, experiential and local knowledge, on the other hand, means that a full description of any teacher's current knowledge and development needs to take account of

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these constructs. New understanding 'emerges from a process of reshaping existing knowledge, beliefs, and practices' (Johnson & Golombek 2003: 2) and this process of constantly reshaping knowledge takes place in the cognitive space between external knowledge (received knowledge and declarative knowledge), the teaching context (local and situated knowledge) and the individual (personal, practical and usable knowledge).

3.3 Situated knowledge developing over time

The recognition that knowledge is complex and not in any simple or causal way transferred from experts to novices means that there has been interest in how this knowledge is constructed and developed over years of professional practice. McMeniman et al. (2003) detail how teachers draw contextually relevant information from their existing knowledge base. This knowledge base changes over time, through the process of teaching and reacting to local influences (Freeman & Johnson 1998). Accounts are needed of how such professional competence does develop. Turner-Bisset (2001) and Tsui (2003) consider the development of language teaching expertise over a period of time and Tsui uses case studies to highlight ways in which different forms of knowledge contribute to growing proficiency. Freeman & Hawkins (2004: 1) argue that we need to move from 'focusing exclusively on what happens in the classroom' to 'focusing on teacher's work as it evolves'. Larsen-Freeman (2004: 71) feels that teacher educators need to 'do a better job of not only researching teachers' knowledge bases, but also of helping teachers develop their own situated relationship to disciplines which might expand or contribute to this knowledge base'.

Over time, a teacher develops a sense of plausibility or congruence. Prabhu's (1990: 172) influential concept of 'plausibility' puts priority on the development of a teacher's individual understanding of the teaching they do and 'includes local forms of knowledge about language and teaching'. Barduhn (2002) draws on the Rogerian concept of 'congruence', which works in a similar way. As teachers, we need to feel comfortable with what we do in the classroom. It has to be 'real' for us.

3.4 Investigating the knowledge base

The last few years have seen increased interest in evaluating the effectiveness of teacher education processes and 'how teachers and student teachers interpreted and gave meaning to the preservice and inservice development programs they experienced' (Zeichner 1999: 5). This article has already featured in Bartels (2005) edited collection, which is perhaps the most comprehensive and concerted effort from teacher educators to further their own professional development through empirical research into the knowledge base and processes of teacher education. This collection builds on earlier studies which investigate the effectiveness of teacher education programmes through reflective studies and action research (Bailey et al. 1998; Bartels 2002; Irujo 2000; Johnston 2000).

Wharton (2003) looks at the relationship between assessment criteria and the development of language teachers' research writing and knowledge. Other notable efforts to describe and support teacher knowledge include the Teacher Knowledge Project (2003). Lier (2002) reports on the remit of the Teacher Knowledge Project and its role in reflective professional development. The Teacher Knowledge Project examines links between reflective professional development, teachers' knowledge and practice, and students' learning. Freeman (2004) shows how teacher knowledge is built on the teacher's experience as a learner, experiences as a teacher, understanding of theory and research, ongoing reflection on learners and their learning processes, and soliciting and acting on information from students about their own learning.

There is a need for further research into how teachers develop and build knowledge bases, including the influences and sources of these bases. This will include the personal, contextual, pedagogical, linguistic, institutional, intercultural and interpersonal knowledge. Studies need to follow this development over a number of years.

3.5 Knowledge and teacher education

Does this shift from a transmission model of teacher education to a constructivist model (Roberts 1998) meet participants' expectations of teacher education programmes? There may still be tensions between a desire from students for 'hard information' and teacher educators' increasing reliance on, and belief in, the constructivist power of 'collaborative small groups' (Bailey & Willet 2004: 15). Small group learning in teacher education has two core tensions. Students are positioned in new, often unfamiliar, collaborative roles and they may also feel deprived of the instructor's 'voice'. Students therefore need to be prepared adequately for this way of working, as they may have unclear expectations. Essentially, these difficulties with roles and expectations are very similar to language learners' reservations about cooperative learning. An element of 'loop input' (Woodward 1988) can help raise awareness of such issues. Through such parallel processes, it is possible for instructors to 'engage with issues that are similar to the ones our students are going to be dealing with in their own classes' (Bailey & Willet 2004: 23).

One of the main problems for on-campus programmes of teacher education is that teachers are separated from their teaching context. Possibilities for action research or reflective inquiry are therefore

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limited or non-existent. Where a teacher is able to stay in their teaching context, enriched by reading, reflective teaching and action research, the experience usually leads to sustained development (Edge & Richards 1993; Edge 2001). Richards (2002) claims several advantages of such distance modes of teacher education. As well as lower costs (teachers can usually continue with their job and live at home), it is more likely that the teacher will have opportunities to theorise from practice. Evans (2000) offers evidence that distance-learning students tend to do better at assignments that their on-campus counterparts.

4. Reflection, research and development

This section presents recent contributions in the area of reflection and research and considers their importance for language teacher development. It begins by drawing together current terms and discusses their relationship to change and development. It then outlines approaches related to the recall of events or critical incidents and presents thinking on the importance of stimulated recall through audio or video recording. The relationship between reflection and development will be also be explored in section 5 (collaboration).

This section is the closest in content to the Burns (2005) article on action research. However, this article does not set out to provide a thorough examination of the difference between various reflective practices and action research. Instead it takes the position that there is a continuum between, at one end, what Wallace (1991: 56) calls 'normal reflective practice of many teachers' or what 'caring teachers have always done' (Bailey 1997: 1) and, at the other end, the more structured and rigorous forms teacher research which include action research. The shorthand for this continuum would be REFLECTION and RESEARCH, where reflection is a pre-requisite of development and research is a desirable option for development.

Reflection is a process of inner dialogue and 'conversation with self' (Prawat 1991) and in this cognitive space the language teacher develops awareness of practice. Awareness is an outcome of a reflexive dialogue between knowledge and experience and can happen individually and collaboratively (Bolton 2002). The process of making explicit teachers' practice through reflection (Griffiths & Tann 1992) has been influential in shaping our current understanding of current classroom practice. As a profession, we are now in a position where Van Lier's (1988: 37) claim that 'our knowledge of what actually goes on in [language] classrooms is extremely limited' is no longer true.

For teachers who find it difficult to sustain a reflecting approach to practice, there are a number of ways in which this process can be encouraged, prompted, guided and structured. Recent guides to reflective practice (Day et al. 2002; Parsons & Brown 2002) and particular models of reflective cycles have been put forward (e.g. the 'Experiential-Reflective Cycle' in the Teacher Knowledge Project 2003). There are similar accounts that use the term 'reflexive inquiry' (Cole & Knowles 2000) and there are examinations of the construct of 'critical reflection' (see Yost, Sentner & Forlenza-Bailey 2000) and 'structured reflection' (Borg 2003a).

A number of studies have demonstrated that more reflective teachers are better able to monitor, make real-time decisions and respond to the changing needs of learners than less reflective teachers (Yost et al. 2000; McMeniman et al. 2003). Furthermore, structured reflection has been used as a means of investigating teachers' beliefs, cognitive processes and decision-making practices (Borg 2003b).

4.1 Reflection, exploration and evaluation

Roberts (1998) argues that learning and development through teaching is only possible through a process of reflection, self-monitoring and self-evaluation. He sees these processes as 'the only possible basis for long-term change' (Roberts 1998: 305). A process of exploration or investigation in the classroom is often a catalyst for self-evaluation, self-monitoring and reflection. James (2001) and Richards & Farrell (2005) provide a number of procedures for self-monitoring and self-evaluation and suggest various forms of lesson reports, checklists and questionnaires. Ellett (2002) describes advances in implementation of a Web-based support for teacher evaluation and professional growth.

The process of exploration as a reflective tool has been contrasted with the 'research' agenda and problem-orientation of action research (Allwright 2005). As a form of reflexive inquiry, 'exploratory practice' is often presented as a less daunting proposition than research and one that uses 'familiar classroom activities, rather than 'academic' research techniques, as the investigative tools' (Allwright & Lenzuen 1997: 73). Allwright (1999) discusses the inter-relationships and differing contributions of 'reflective practice', 'exploratory practice' and 'action research' as models for language teacher development. Allwright (2003) provides an update on exploratory practice and there have been a number of other recent contributions that provide examples and descriptions of this way of working (Solder, Craft & Burgess 2000; K. A. Johnson 2002; Chuk 2003; Allwright 2005).

Such exploratory and reflective processes create opportunities for ongoing evaluation. Teacher educators have become more conscious that awareness of the role of ongoing, formative and illuminative evaluation needs to be part of programmes. Mann (2004) outlines how experienced teachers combine self-evaluation, peer-evaluation and learner-evaluation

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to provide multiple perspectives on classroom phenomena. Raths & Lyman (2003) argue that summative evaluation of student teachers by trainers creates a one-dimensional view of evaluation. Teacher trainees need guidance in taking on responsibility for self-evaluation and for considering other evaluative possibilities. The case for fostering a more on-going view of self-evaluation, as a necessary requirement for language teacher development, is made by Smith (2005). In particular, she recommends the use of self-evaluation questionnaires in order to provide insight into evaluative processes. Copland (2004) examines the relationship between planning and post-lesson evaluation. Moore (2002) and Tucker et al. (2003) argue for the use of portfolios to challenge language teachers' reliance on summative evaluation. A number of studies (e.g. Holland & Adams 2002; Lee 2002) report on success, when a supervisory relationship is mitigated by an alternative formative-evaluation process.

4.2 Change as development

Innovation and change is a necessary part of teacher development (Bailey 1992; Willis & Willis 1996). Haskins (2002) sees the new and the 'fresh' as helping to maintain interest in classroom teaching. Allwright (2005) argues that the classroom is a site that provides opportunities for experimentation, exploration and change for both teachers and learners. Guskey (2002) explores the relationship between professional development and teacher change, and presents a model where significant change in teachers' attitudes and beliefs occurs primarily after improvements in student learning become evident. Prabhu (2003) argues that some element of change is developmental and linked to a teacher's developing a sense of 'plausibility'. If the teacher becomes over-routinised, there is increasing detachment and plausibility is not engaged (see also McKenna 2002). Plausibility is engaged through change, reflection on experience of teaching, and through interaction with other teachers' versions of plausibility.

Wu (2002) and Tomlinson (2003) argue that changes in course design and materials are developmental. However, despite many claimed advantages, change and development can be a difficult process. Clarke (2003) details the many pressures, constraints and difficulties that need to be overcome, and provides a systems perspective for changing, developing and learning. He also provides suggestions for aligning thought and action in teaching.

4.3 Reflecting on changes and classroom events

An integral part of structured reflection is the recall of particular changes or events in the language classroom. Richards (2004) provides a three-part model that suggests specific reflective strategies on particular pedagogic events. He distinguishes between the event itself, the recollection of the event, and the review and response to the event. Recollection of the event is enhanced by some form of stimulated recall which is a procedure for making visible what is invisible and can bring to the surface some of the values and beliefs underpinning a teacher's classroom practice. A related kind of recall is termed 'critical incident analysis' (Tripp 1993) and focuses on 'commonplace events that are critical in the sense that they reveal underlying beliefs or motives' (Richards & Farrell 2005: 114).

The recall of events, incidents or moments in classroom teaching is a powerful development tool. Tardy & Snyder (2004) draw on the work of Csikszentmihaly (1991) to detail moments of 'flow', where teachers experience a heightening of mental state. Tardy & Snyder argue that recall of these moments can motivate teachers through providing insight into practices, beliefs and values. The authors also argue that the concept of 'flow' can be usefully incorporated into teacher development programmes. Szesztay (2004) investigates the way teachers understand and describe how they know, reflect, and act in the midst of teaching. This kind of reflection-in-action gives us a clearer picture of what can trigger reflection and how this relates to on-the-spot decision making.

There are a number of contributions which detail the role of audio and video recall (e.g. Wallace 1981; Cullen 1991; Laycock & Bunnag 1991; Bailey et al. 2001). Richards & Farrell (2005) argue that a process of audio-taping and video-taping is a key part of self-monitoring and self-reflection. As well as procedures and checklists, they provide a series of questions (2005: 42–47) that can help structure a self-monitoring process. Richards (2003: 174–230) provides a more detailed guide how to prepare for audio and video-taping.

McMeniman et al. (2003) report on the use of video recall to investigate the relationship between teachers' knowledge bases, reflection and changes in practice. Van den Berg et al. (2003) present an account of the innovative role video recordings can play in a hypermedia-learning environment, where teachers reflect on featured events from more experienced colleagues' classes. They also consider the role of hypermedia environments in creating opportunities for theorising from practice from 'video-as-data' (Johnson 1992). Ebsworth et al. (2004) consider the role of videotaping in a teacher education context to create an experiential learning environment.

4.4 Reflective writing

Keeping a journal (Appel 1995) or a diary (Richards 1992) is a productive form of reflection, introspection and self-evaluation. As well as the more usual print or

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handwritten versions, there has been recent interest in the role of 'blogs' or 'weblogs' (Winer 2002; Siemens 2004). Keeping on-line journals (Towndrow 2004) allows more opportunities for interaction and collaboration. Richards & Farrell (2005: 68–84) offer a useful overview of the value of keeping a journal that can include notes, descriptions, reflection and evaluation. A similar guide is provided by Bailey et al. (2001). Journaling can be a useful tool at the early stages of a teaching career (Santana-Williams 2001) and can also be a useful way to give an experienced teacher a new investigative focus (Allwright 2003). MacLeod & Cowieson (2001) present a study using autobiographical writing as a tool for professional growth and change (see also Shin 2003).

Another related form of reflective writing is narrative inquiry (Johnson & Golombek 2002) or story telling (Hazelrigg 2005). Narrative inquiry can involve both written and spoken processes (Harrington 1994; Olson 1995; Golombek 1998). Chamberlin (2002) provides an account of how professional identity is constructed through narrative inquiry and Golombek & Johnson (2004) demonstrate how narrative inquiry creates a mediational space where emotional and cognitive dissonance can be explored. Cowie (2001; 2003) sees narrative inquiry as a valuable tool for exploring the full range of emotional responses to teaching and colleagues. McCabe (2002) and Maley (2004) have used narrative analysis as a reflective tool.

4.5 Research

The concept of the 'reflective practitioner' is less problematic than 'teacher as researcher'. It has long been acknowledged that the division between research and practice is a divisive one (Clarke 1994; Freeman 1996). It is also true that a great deal of the practitioner inquiry and action research detailed in Burns (2005) has gone some way to bridging the gap. The Teachers Develop Teachers Research (TDTR) series of conferences is a good example of an ongoing vehicle for showcasing teacher research projects that has lead to reflection and teacher development (see Edge & Richards 1993; Field et al. 1997; Head 1998; De Decker & Vanderheiden 1999). TDTR 6 (Santiago 2005) is the latest of this series.

Despite the above, problems remain and Borg (2003a) highlights teachers' difficulties with engaging with TESOL Research. The arguments about what constitutes legitimate research continue and these produce very different views (e.g. Jarvis 2001 and Borg's 2002 response). Partly as a recognition that large scale quantitative studies are only possible for 'outsiders', there has been a shift towards smaller scale qualitative studies. Qualitative research offers particular advantages in presenting case studies and researching particular contexts (see Richards 2003). Bailey et al. (2001) and Richards & Farrell (2005: 126–142) provide a discussion of the purpose and benefits of case analysis and suggest procedures for implementation. Allen (2000) argues that conducting an ethnographic interview is helpful in its own right as a strategy in foreign language teacher development. Conducting an interview facilitates the development of understanding and awareness. Richards (2003) provides a comprehensive resource for using qualitative research to further local situated development and understanding. Seedhouse (2004) provides a conversation-analytic model of L2 classroom interaction and a practical methodology for its analysis.

5. Collaborative and cooperative development

Roberts (1998) sees one of the main aims of teacher development as an increased awareness and that this is often made possible through collaboration. This section considers recent contributions that concern the facilitative nature of collaborative and co-operative relationships. If section 3 concentrated on the 'what' of development (knowledge and awareness) and section 4 provided a 'how' (forms of reflective practice), then this section is concerned with 'who' can be involved in a process of reflective development. We said earlier that for Prabhu (2003) a teacher's sense of plausibility is developed though ongoing engagement with the experience of teaching and also through interaction with other teachers' versions of plausibility. This section presents different kinds of collaborative relationship in which such interaction is possible.

It is desirable to collaborate in teaching, through reflection and talk, and through research. Burns (2005) has already highlighted several studies that detail or consider collaborative research. One useful introduction to collaborative research, which is not included in Burns, would be Beaumont & O'Brien (2000). This book provides strong support for the view that collaborative research can cut across boundaries of 'second language', 'foreign language' and 'modern language' which Beaumont & O'Brien see as divisive.

Aside from collaborative research, this section concentrates on other collaborative processes: team-teaching, peer observation, peer coaching, support groups and development discourses. One major theme to be considered will be how differences in status or role are managed in these processes.

5.1 Collaboration in the classroom

Team teaching is one of the most common collaborative partnerships (Shimaoka & Yashiro 1990; Smith 1994; Wada & Brumby 1994; Cranmer 1999). However, there are often difficulties in terms of roles, expectations and attitudes to planning. Benoit &

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Haugh (2001) discuss the dominant form of team teaching that involves one 'native speaker' teacher of the target language and one 'non-native' local teacher. Harker & Koutsantoni (2004) present a successful model for team teaching in such contexts and Johnston & Madejski (2004) include steps for planning team-teaching lessons in a collaborative way. Bailey et al. (2001) provide useful team-teaching material, including a questionnaire (2001: 186) designed to facilitate discussion about team teaching.

An increase in team teaching and co-teaching has led to increasing recognition that classrooms are not the 'one teacher' spaces that applied linguistics literature often assumes (Creese 2001). This has implications for teacher development, particularly in bilingual settings, where there may be two teachers with different responsibilities. In mainstream education in the UK, there is greater provision for teaching assistants and language teachers who increasingly work in teams (Creese 2002). Sometimes they have competing agendas (Arkoudis 2003), and establishing a working relationship may be difficult. Creese (2005) provides a full account of collaborative talk between these teachers and learners but more research needs to be undertaken to consider how such collaboration is managed and developed by participants in multilingual classrooms.

Another common difficulty is establishing development opportunities when the collaborative relationship is a supervisory one (Acheson & Gall 2003). Malderez & Bodoczky (1999) remains the most informative guide for the more experienced practitioner working in such an asymmetrical relationship. Despite differences in role, the supervisor or mentor may deliberately construct a discourse to create an interactional space where self-development is more likely (Basile & Olson 2003; Atay 2004; Kurtoglu-Hooton 2004). The term 'coaching' offers both symmetrical and asymmetrical possibilities (Costa & Garmston 2002). Richards & Farrell (2005: 143–158) include a useful chapter on peer coaching.

Symmetrical (peer) relationships do not always guarantee success and there has long been a tradition of working to overcome the negative connotations of peer observation (e.g. Freeman 1982). A number of contributions have outlined good practice (see Day 1990; Good & Brophy 1987; Pennington & Young 1989). Cosh (1999, 2004) outlines a reflective model which encourages 'active teacher development' (see also Threadgold & Piai 2000). Recent work has involved detailing immediate practical benefits for individual teachers and more medium-term benefits to the institution as a whole (see Richards & Farrell 2005: 85–97). We now have a number of clear statements as to the purpose and scope of observation. One strong theme is that observation is most effective when goals are chosen by the observe.

5.2 Collaboration outside the classroom

'Focus groups' create opportunities for sustained concentration and discussion. Beaumont & O'Brien (2000) and Gibson (2002) provide examples and suggestions, and consider ways to move talk from complaints and chat to focused discussion. Such development groups can focus on teaching, materials and course design. Freeman & Hawkins (2004) highlight 'book talk' (Florio-Ruane 2001), where books and articles are used as a catalyst for professional conversations. Mahoney (2005) discusses the advantages of regular meetings to discuss articles.

What is central about such groups is that understandings are constructed through talk. It is not a matter of simply sharing and transferring information, rather than arguments, understandings, clarifications, and interpretations are constructed though spontaneous conversation with other professionals (see Willet & Miller 2004). Hawkins & Irujo (2004) feature a collection of collaborative peer conversations that are underpinned by non-evaluative discourse. There are clearly a number of possibilities for collaborative groups but a shared understanding of appropriate discourse underpins such group work. Some relationships may have an element of debate and evaluation. Farrell (2001) uses the term 'critical friendships' and offers advice on how colleagues can develop critical friendships. He provides advice about building ground rules at an early stage of the critical friendship. Defining the roles of the participants, deciding time frames, and discussing the teacher's readiness for reflection are all felt to be helpful.

The potential and uses of dialogic rather than debate discourse have been well covered (Yankelovich 1999; Anderson, Baxter & Cissna 2004). Tannen's (1998) work presented evidence that the privileging of debate over dialogue is limiting. Tannen called for experimentation with new forms of communication. Pearce (2002) and Barnett Pearce & Pearce (2004) demonstrate the value of engaging in a process of dialogic communication. Edge (2002a) provides an update on 'cooperative development' (Edge 1992) and shows how a set of agreed discourse moves can facilitate reflection and development in pair or small group work. The discourse moves encourage movement through exploration, articulation to discovery and action. Bartrick (2002) reports on developing a cooperative development relationship through posted audio cassettes. Oprandy (2002) provides a counselling–learning perspective on a listening–understanding support process.

Interest in non-judgemental collaborative inquiry (Sotto 2001) has included description of some of the challenges of developing a non-judgemental discourse over time (Mann 2002b). Boon (2003) considers the reflexive relationship between awareness and action by documenting how an 'Understander' helped him to make progress in two areas of

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his teaching: improving boardwork and presenting language in class. Mann (2002a) illustrates how non-judgemental dialogue has the potential to open up more space for idea development through various forms of reflective discourse moves.

There may also be a link between the promoting of cooperative styles of learning in the classroom (see Jacobs, Power & Loh 2002) and knock-on effects on teacher relationships. Abdullah & Jacobs (2004) demonstrate how cooperative effort with language learners can increase the likelihood of cooperative efforts and mentality between teachers.

5.3 Beyond the school

The importance of the development of an individual sense of plausibility needs to be balanced against the need for teachers to 'share in the community' (Graves 2004). As well as useful contributions on the establishment of focus groups and learning communities in schools (Roberts & Pruitt 2003), there have been a number of papers that document the increasing use of CMC (computer mediated communication) for collaborative teacher development across distance. Cowie (2002) presents details of CMC peer support though use of e-mail. The Internet provides both synchronous and asynchronous possibilities for reflection, exploration, and articulation. There is a greater appreciation of the ways in which distance communities of practice are different from face-to-face alternatives (Royal 2002).

Boon (2005) explores the role of the Internet in establishing communities of practice. The building and sustaining of on-line communities has made a major contribution to providing possibilities for language teachers to connect with other language teachers. In teacher education programmes too, CMC has been used to initiate cross-cultural email correspondence between student teachers. This can be a viable way to foster reflectivity, and Liaw (2003) suggests that such communication should be incorporated into EFL teacher education courses. Specific steps and stages in the cultivation of 'communities of practice' have been clarified (Wenger 1998; Wenger, McDermott & Snyder 2002) and there have been a number of descriptions which have improved our understanding of how such learning communities are best set up (Lieberman 2000; Bowes 2002; Edelstein & Edwards 2002) and how reflection can be encouraged 'on-line' (Seale & Cann 2000).

Beyond the smaller-scale support groups and communities of practice, it is important to recognise the role of national organisations and special interest groups (SIGs) in the professional development of language teachers. There is not space for a full discussion of the roles of national organisations but Bailey (2002) and Nakamura & Nakamura (2002) provide a good overview of the role of such groups in promoting CPD. It is worth looking at Internet links available from IATEFL Teacher Development SIG, ACTFL Teacher Development SIG, NABE Professional Development SIG, Association of Language Learning (ALL) and TESOL's Teacher Education Interest Section. Bolitho (2003) reviews the impetus that organisations have played in the formation of local support groups and he claims that this has led to a bottom–up identification of development priorities rather than having them imposed by those in authority.

6. Summary and conclusions

This article has considered the relationship between teacher development, different forms of knowledge, the process of reflection, and collaborative and co-operative development. There have been strong arguments made that sustaining teacher development is both important for the individual teacher and for the school or organisation (Barduhn 2002). There is also a strong sense that an ongoing sense of confidence and plausibility (Prabhu 2003) is dependent on engagement with reflection on changes in practice. Such engagement creates the conditions for finding a secure footing and confidence (Clarke 2003).

There are varied and well-documented tools and activities that have the potential to shape and sustain individual development. Several resources, in particular Bailey et al. (2001) and Richards & Farrell (2005), provide valuable guidance for the language teacher who wants to further their own development. Sustained teacher development may renew commitment and interest in teaching and thereby help to prevent burnout (Maslach 1982).

There is an important interplay between language teacher education policy, reform and responses in teacher development in particular contexts (Claire & Adger 2000). Particularly in South-East Asia, government policy is encouraging greater numbers of English learners and therefore the number of teachers is increasing fast. Training is often limited (Lee 2002) and there are growing calls for reforms that include greater support for language teacher development (Hare & Thomas 2002; Hu 2002; Ishida 2002). The importance of teacher development beyond teacher education is becoming a priority (Lin & Xun 2001).

Greater appreciation that all teaching is local (Canagarajah 2005) means that there has been movement away from any sense of 'one-size-fits-all' development and a greater appreciation of the context in which teacher education efforts are situated (Lewis 2000). Training and education programmes need to introduce teachers to the range of development tools and processes available in order to encourage engagement and commitment. Bottom–up teacher development is not only crucial to individual language teaching development but for the teaching profession as a whole.

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