An Exploration of the Factors that shape the Early Professional Development of New Teachers: the experiences of non-teacher trained graduate teachers in Nigeria

Olufunke Abosed Fasoyiro
July, 2018

UCL Institute of Education
University College London

Thesis submitted for the award of Doctor in Education (EdD)
ABSTRACT

This thesis explores the experiences of unemployed non-teacher trained graduates who became employed by secondary schools in Lagos State, Nigeria. These graduates were required to undergo teacher training in form of a Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) within two years of their employment. The study is therefore about the initial teacher education and in-school development of school teachers in urban Lagos. Situated within an education context indicted for the low quality of its graduates, the study provides an opportunity to explore the potential of graduate recruitment as a solution for educational improvements in Lagos State and indeed Nigeria.

The study aimed to uncover and examine the context and learning factors that influence new teachers’ early professional development (EPD). An interpretive phenomenological paradigm was adopted, and literature concerning teacher learning and professional development anchored the main propositions of the study. The study uses a qualitative design, comprising in-depth interviews and thematic analysis of data generated from teachers, school principals, and an education leader from Lagos State Ministry of Education.

The study revealed gaps in the learning experiences of new teachers both during formal teacher training and upon arrival in schools. It showed that sociocultural factors and a lack of synergy between teacher preparation and in-school support placed a limit on new teachers’ EPD, while new teacher’s sense of self-efficacy acted as enabling influence in determining their behaviour. This study highlighted problems faced by secondary school teachers in Nigeria; along with the need for commissioning further studies to evaluate undergraduate and postgraduate teacher training routes, it is essential that immediate attention be given to the content and delivery of post graduate teacher training curriculum, with a view to improving the quality of teachers
produced in Nigeria. In this way, the prospects that graduate recruitment brings for improvements in teaching and learning can become a reality.
Impact Statement

As this thesis is based on the interpretation of views expressed by a small sample of respondents, its direct impact specifically relates to non-teacher trained graduate teachers working in schools. Nonetheless, being an exploratory study, the findings bear great potential to influence system wide scholarship of teacher education practices and curriculum reforms.

The study’s findings indicate: recognition of the need for a well-qualified teacher workforce to meet the education needs of children and the teaching profession; that graduates with secure subject knowledge trained through the PGDE route might provide better quality education; that non-teacher trained graduate teachers need support to develop their repertoire of teaching and subject pedagogies in order to become effective. At the school level, there is no infrastructure to support the development of a joined up training programme to support non-teacher trained graduate teachers to develop their subject knowledge pedagogy as well as their pedagogical skills. Considerations about teacher quality are positive indicators of government commitment to achieving inclusive and equitable quality education for all (Sustainable Development Goal, (SDG) 4) but the process in place is reactionary in the attempts to provide more and better teachers, it is not based on any theoretical insights or evidence. There is therefore a gap between government aspirations and the realities of new teachers at the school level.

To better understand the factors at play, provide an evidence base for policy changes and realise potential impact of the study, a multidisciplinary teacher research panel (MTRP) is deemed necessary. MTRP will undertake a national survey to identify dominant stakeholder conceptions of teachers work either as craftsmen, technicians or professionals; and the extent to which non-teacher trained graduate teachers’ experiences of schools reflect aspirations about new teachers’ support as indicated in the national policy on teacher education. Drawing
from Hattie’s (2012) meta-analysis which provided indicators for high quality teaching and learning and the impact of different interventions, MTRP is needed for desk analysis of current knowledge about teacher education practices in Nigeria and outcomes of best practice approaches applied in similar contexts.

The yearly deployment of large number of graduates to schools during their NYSC and recent deployment of a large number of non-teacher trained graduates to schools as teachers under the Buhari government N-Power teacher corps initiative would support conceptions of teachers as technicians, but teaching is regarded as a profession in Nigeria. MTRP can examine government, teachers, principals, teacher educators, education managers and other stakeholders’ views nationally as a prelude to the inevitable reform of teacher preparation practices that takes cognisance of Nigeria’s economic, cultural and socio-political history. The impact of such a large scale research is the potential it has for system wide changes that address Nigeria’s educational challenges holistically. At the macro level, teacher education policy and curriculum reforms are envisaged. For example, acquisition of teaching skills can be incorporated into every curriculum for undergraduate studies in Nigerian Universities. Graduates who end up in schools during their NYSC or who are recruited specifically for their subject discipline arrive with basic teaching skills. In addition, teaching resources and materials like lesson plans, workbooks, and exercises that have been prepared centrally can be made available to new teachers. Knowledge of evidence informed practice in teacher education can help schools develop context specific teacher training frameworks to help non-teacher trained graduate teachers develop their subject knowledge pedagogy as well as their pedagogical skills. Crucially, children are not left in the hands of non-teacher trained graduate teachers who have limited professional support. Non-teacher trained graduate teachers can benefit from structured support which helps them to develop their practice and improve children’s learning outcomes.
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that, except where explicit attribution is made, the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own.

Signed: O Fasoyiro
Date: July 2018

Word count (excluding appendices, the list of references and bibliographies but including footnotes, glossary, diagrams and tables): 49,519 words.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The successful completion of this doctoral study is attributable to the academic, moral, and emotional support provided by many people, for which I am grateful.

I would like to first thank my supervisors Dr. Victoria Showunmi and Dr. Christine Callender whose guidance, constructive criticisms and signposts contributed to the successful completion of my thesis. Special mention goes to Dr. Bayo Oladipo of the Faculty of Education, University of Lagos and everyone who helped me to navigate access to key stakeholders as well as participants who took part in my study. I appreciate the director of the Centre for Entrepreneurial Development (CED) at Federal University, Lafia (FULAFIA) Prof. Josephine Odey, for being a dedicated teacher, mentor, and coach. Mention and appreciation goes to the management of FULAFIA for endorsing my academic pursuits, and the entire staff of CED, especially Nfeseer Bako and Mrs. Cecelia Acem – thank you both for your dedication, and support. I also appreciate Prof. and Dr. Mokuolu for their interest, and support of my academic pursuits.

Special mention goes to my friends and family whose encouragement and enthusiasm helped me to see the doctoral journey to a successful completion. To Angel - Mrs. Jessie Sampah, I say thank you so much for your prayerful encouragement and commitment from the beginning. To Lola Durodola, I say thanks for your consistency; your financial support towards my studentship trip to Japan was most handy. A huge thank you goes to Pastor Lydia Field for your resourcefulness and charitable example of Christianity. Thanks Shola Hingston for your prayerful encouragement, and for sacrificing your study/office for the writing of my thesis. To my sister, Funso, I say thanks for the candid advice to take a deep breath at a crossroad; the use of Dele’s house in Dorking helped me to gain momentum when I could have been distracted. Thank you all for believing in my dream.
Finally and most importantly, I say thanks be to God who has caused me to triumph. What began as a desire to chronicle a short eventful entry into the teaching profession, and help other teachers ultimately became an academic pursuit coloured by many deep breaths. I now have an esteemed qualification as a result of God’s faithfulness each step of the way. I dedicate this thesis to God the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract .................................................................................................................................................. 2
Impact Statement ..................................................................................................................................... 4
Declaration .............................................................................................................................................. 6
Acknowledgement ................................................................................................................................... 7
Table of Contents .................................................................................................................................... 9
Glossary of Terms .................................................................................................................................... 14
Abbreviations .......................................................................................................................................... 15
Reflective Statement ............................................................................................................................... 16

## PART ONE: BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

### Chapter One: Introduction and Research Questions ........................................................................... 24

1.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................................................... 24
1.2 Background ........................................................................................................................................ 24
1.3 Research setting and professional context ......................................................................................... 26
1.4 The research problem and questions ................................................................................................. 31

### Chapter Two: Contextual Background of Teaching and Learning in Nigeria ........................................ 34

2.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................................................... 34
2.2 The environment of education in Nigeria ......................................................................................... 36
2.3 Teaching as a profession in Nigeria .................................................................................................. 41
   2.3.1 The Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) programme .................................................. 43
2.4 The concept of teacher professionalism in Nigeria ............................................................................. 46
Chapter Three: Review of Literature ............................................................... 53

3.1 Introduction .............................................................................................................. 53
3.2 Teacher preparation and support ........................................................................... 54
  3.2.1 Teacher preparation ......................................................................................... 54
3.3 Teacher professional development .......................................................................... 62
  3.3.1 The prevalence of cognitivism ........................................................................ 65
3.4 Eraut et al.’s context and learning factors: a framework for understanding new teachers’ development ................................................................. 69
  3.4.1 Early career learning at work .......................................................................... 71
  3.4.2 Teacher learning at work ................................................................................. 75

PART TWO: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

Chapter Four: Methodology ....................................................................................... 86

4.1 Introduction .............................................................................................................. 86
4.2 Theoretical and methodological framework ........................................................... 86
4.3 Methods .................................................................................................................. 90
4.4 Ethical considerations ............................................................................................ 94
4.5 Sampling ................................................................................................................. 99
  4.5.1 Sample selection ............................................................................................... 100
  4.5.2 Data collection .................................................................................................. 102
4.6 Data analysis .......................................................................................................... 104
  4.6.1 Data description, organisation and coding ...................................................... 106
4.7 Methodological limitations .................................................................................... 108

PART THREE: RESEARCH FINDINGS

Chapter Five: Data Presentation and Interpretation .................................................. 111
5.1 Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 111
5.2 Defining and naming themes .............................................................................................. 111
5.3 Thematic analysis ................................................................................................................. 113
  5.3.1 School readiness for teachers ....................................................................................... 113
  5.3.2 Teacher readiness for schools ...................................................................................... 120
    5.3.2.1 Self-readiness ........................................................................................................ 121
    5.3.2.2 Task readiness ....................................................................................................... 126
  5.3.3 Impact .......................................................................................................................... 131
    5.3.3.1 Access to education .............................................................................................. 132
    5.3.3.2 Learning enhancement ......................................................................................... 136
  5.3.4 Motivational factors ..................................................................................................... 139
    5.3.4.1 Teachers doing their best ..................................................................................... 140
    5.3.4.2 Teachers as education’s panacea ......................................................................... 143
  5.4 Summary .......................................................................................................................... 147

PART FOUR: RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS, REFLECTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Chapter Six: Discussion and Reflections on Findings .............................................................. 150

  6.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................................... 150
  6.2 Summary of research findings in relation to the research questions ................................. 150
  6.3 New teachers’ EPD in Lagos State schools ....................................................................... 153
    6.3.1 Context factors .......................................................................................................... 155
    6.3.2 Learning factors ......................................................................................................... 161
    6.3.3 Eraut et al.’s Two Triangle and new teachers’ EPD ....................................................... 164
  6.4 Personal and professional reflections .................................................................................. 169
Chapter Seven: Conclusions and Recommendations .................................................. 178

7.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................... 178
7.2 ‘The time is right’ ................................................................................................. 178
7.3 Understanding new teacher EPD in Lagos State .................................................. 179
7.4 Implications and recommendations ...................................................................... 185
7.5 Study limitations ................................................................................................ 190
7.6 Summary ............................................................................................................... 191

List of Tables

Table 1: Proportion of qualified teachers in Nigeria by gender and region .................. 40
Table 2: A Schematisation of Teacher Categories in Nigeria ................................... 43
Table 3: An Adaptation of Eraut et al.’s Topology of Early Career Learning for New Teachers ........................................................................................................ 72
Table 4: An Adaptation of Roth and Mehta’s Summary Features of the Interpretative Paradigm ........................................................................................................ 88
Table 5: Profile of Interviewees .................................................................................. 102
Table 6: Non-Teacher Trained Graduate Teacher Data Set (N-TTGTDs) ................. 237
Table 7: Education Leader Data Set (ELDS) .............................................................. 238
Table 8: Table of Superordinate Themes (TST) ......................................................... 240
Table 9: Table of Final Data Set (TFD) .................................................................... 244
Table 10: Summary of the Process of Data Coding and Transition into Themes ......... 244

List of Figures

Figure 1: Factors affecting learning at work: Eraut’s Two-Triangle Model ................ 74
Figure 2: Factors influencing decisions on work allocations .................................. 78
Figure 3: Factors affecting support and feedback .................................................... 81
Figure 4: A conceptualisation of Eraut’s Two-Triangle Model for Teachers .......... 82

12
Figure 5: A conceptualisation of the relationship between new teachers’ work allocation and confidence ............................................................................................................................................................................................. 83
Figure 6: A conceptual model for exploring new teachers’ EPD ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................ 84
Figure 7: The relationship between paradigm, epistemology, methodology and method ..... 93
Figure 8: Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model ................................................................. 108
Figure 9: A summary model of key themes emerging from the research questions ................. 153
Figure 10: A further adaptation of Eraut et al.’s Two Triangle Model for Teachers ......................... 168
Figure 11: A conceptual model of support for new teachers’ EPD in Lagos State .................. 176

References ......................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................... 193

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics Approval ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................ 224
Appendix B: Letter of Introduction ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................ 227
Appendix C: Research Information Leaflet ......................................................................................... 229
Appendix D: Consent Form ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................ 232
Appendix E: Interview Schedule for New Teachers ............................................................................ 234
Appendix F: Interview Schedule for Education Leaders ........................................................................ 236
Appendix G: Tables ........................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................................ 237
Appendix H: Concept Maps and Diagrams used in Analysis ......................................................... 240
Glossary of terms
CMS – Church Missionary Society
ECL – Early Career Learners
EPD – Early Professional Development
FME - Federal Ministry of Education
ITE – Initial Teacher Education
JSS - Junior Secondary School
NCE - National Certificate in Education
NPE - National Policy on Education
NUC - National Universities Commission
NUT - Nigerian Union of Teachers
PLC – Professional Learning Communities
SIP – Social Investment Programme
SSS - Senior Secondary School
TDP - Teacher Development Programme
UBE - Universal Basic Education
UCL – University College London
UPE - Universal Primary Education
**Abbreviations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BERA</td>
<td>British Educational Research Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BME</td>
<td>Black Minority Ethnic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continued Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEEPEN</td>
<td>Developing Effective Private Education Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>The Department for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECL</td>
<td>Early Career Learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPD</td>
<td>Early Professional Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESSPIN</td>
<td>Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td>Education Leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCT</td>
<td>Federal Capital Territory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information, Communication and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSET</td>
<td>In-Service Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LGEA</td>
<td>Local Government Education Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MTRP</td>
<td>Multidisciplinary Teacher Research Panel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NTEP</td>
<td>National Teacher Education Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCCE</td>
<td>National Commission for Colleges of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NQT</td>
<td>Newly Qualified Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NTI</td>
<td>National Teachers’ Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>Non-Teacher Trained Graduate Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NYSC</td>
<td>National Youth Service Corps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTT</td>
<td>Overseas Trained Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSFNT</td>
<td>Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGCE</td>
<td>Postgraduate Certificate of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>Postgraduate Diploma in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QA</td>
<td>Quality Assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QTS</td>
<td>Qualified Teacher Status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUBEB</td>
<td>State Universal Basic Education Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub Saharan African Countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TDP</td>
<td>Teacher Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF</td>
<td>Teach First</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRCN</td>
<td>Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTISSA</td>
<td>Teacher Training Initiatives in Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TALIS</td>
<td>Teaching and Learning International Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TGT</td>
<td>Trained Graduate Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Education Scientific Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reflective Statement

This statement presents an account of how the experience of undertaking doctoral studies shaped my personal and professional development and expanded my academic and professional knowledge. It describes how undertaking EdD shaped my career during the period of study and its implications on my future career.

Background to undertaking doctoral studies

I have been working on a supply¹ basis, teaching science in secondary schools on and off for more than ten years. Set within a background of the British Government’s internal efforts to recruit qualified black minority ethnic (BME) participants onto initial teacher education (ITE) courses, and a deliberate policy to recruit teachers directly from overseas countries in response to the shortages experienced in UK in the 1990s, I had limited insight into the widespread problems and ramifications of teacher shortages when I started teaching. Although supply teaching offers a flexible choice for both teachers and schools, especially in London, a circuitous route to finding permanent work and the fact that many overseas-trained teachers (OTTs) are only able to get employment as supply teachers, meant I was coming in contact with a number of career changers, BME teachers and OTTs who were also working as supply teachers. The fact that a large number of these were women was also noticeable. Knowledge of the challenging circumstances that supply teaching involves raised personal and professional concerns for me. I came in contact with OTTs who, despite years of experience and prior positions of responsibility, were working on a supply basis and structurally positioned as new teachers. I also learnt about the impact of negative association between the presence of BME supply teachers and the failings of the UK education system. In the face of these realisations, I wondered why these teachers worked on a supply basis and why they could not get or indeed

¹ Supply teaching is the British education system’s temporary cover (Shilling, 1991). The Department for Employment and Skills (DfES) defines ‘occasional teachers’ as teachers employed for the whole day but having a contract of less than a month. Teachers work on long-term contracts to fill temporary or permanent vacancies on a permanent basis in one or many schools.
had left permanent employment. I began to ponder the advantages supply teaching conferred on these teachers and the implications it might have on their professional status, professional development and future career progression.

My teaching career started with a permanent role within an establishment with very difficult institutional constraints, characterised by critical incidents which culminated in my resignation. I became disillusioned after experiencing what I considered inadequate support as a newly qualified teacher (NQT) in my induction\(^2\) year. I left convinced that working on a permanent basis could not guarantee my future retention in the profession. Supply teaching offered me the advantages of choice, varied experience and flexibility, as well as reduced workload and responsibility. However, I began to wonder whether the disadvantages – feelings of lack of security (employment and financial), being undervalued, deskilling, lack of relevance, and exclusion from wider school involvement and socialisation with colleagues – would overshadow the gains in the long term. Questions of pay and progression became issues of concern as the process for threshold assessment was not entirely appropriate in relation to the working patterns of supply teaching. My reality was that of limited choice. I began to question whether, like me, BME teachers, female teachers, career changers and OTTs really had much choice between supply teaching and permanent work.

Supply teaching helped to retain my interest in classroom teaching. The limited access supply teachers have to professional development opportunities and the ease with which I got my first long-term supply position made me realise the complexity and implications of the problem of teacher supply in UK schools, especially regarding teachers of shortage subjects. I also wondered what the professional future would be (if any) for new career entrants who end up working on a supply basis from day one. I was naturally drawn to the experiences of new

---

\(^2\) Induction is a period designated to help new teachers consolidate the knowledge and skills gained during initial teacher training and provide a framework for continuing professional development.
teachers who were either struggling in their permanent roles or were already working on a supply basis. I started to offer informal support through reflections and coaching conversations so that these new teachers did not end up in what I believed was the inevitable destination for supply teachers: a professional cul-de-sac. These experiences, combined with anecdotes from colleagues on my PGCE cohort (some of whom abandoned teaching straight after induction), made me aware of the inconsistencies in provisions and variations in new teachers’ experiences. Aside from supporting new teachers through the hurdle of obtaining QTS, a desire had been birthed in me to document my short but eventful entry into teaching. I applied for lottery funding to scale up the informal support I was offering so that others would not experience what I and other supply teachers were experiencing. Despite being refused, the unrelenting desire to help new teachers culminated in my enrolment for doctoral studies. I wanted to extend professional understanding of my concerns and develop the skills to communicate them appropriately.

A professional doctorate route was chosen because my starting point was not necessarily what I knew but rather a motivation founded on personal feelings about aspects of professional practice. I wanted practical outcomes for new teachers in terms of effectiveness of in-school support arrangements and access to permanent employment in schools. As a BME teacher of Nigerian origin, I was coming into contact with realities (both mine and of others) which made me question the influence and interrelationships of race, gender and culture in new teachers’ work-life and professionalism within English schools. It became apparent that the universes occupied by these realities were not parallel. I believed that, for new career entrants, lived experiences of these realities would be rooted in their culture, past experiences and interactions with others. Although I was already becoming drawn to the subject of support and professional development for new teachers, it was not immediately apparent what my thesis focus would be. Undertaking doctoral research offered me the avenue to start to engage with theoretical underpinnings of my concerns and subject my evolving assumptions to intellectual and professional scrutiny.
The taught courses

The taught elements of the EdD programme affirmed its suitability to help with acquisition of skills and knowledge to transform me from a professional to a researcher. The requirement for critical reflection on professional life and work in the Foundations of Professionalism (FoP) assignment presented an early opportunity to critically examine my experiences and motivations. I began to question the professionalism of supply teachers on a personal and professional level. In engaging with the Methods of Enquiry 1 (MoE1) module, I developed the skills for critical engagement and scrutiny of literature. Although I had studied at Master’s Level, my experience had become dated through years of work and lack of engagement in academic discourses. Through FoP and MoE1, I was reminded of scholarly language and acquired much-needed practice in presenting my ideas and perspective through academic writing at doctoral level.

At the time I completed the taught modules, teacher shortage was still an enduring problem in the UK. There was no shortage of work for me as a supply teacher, and I had a measure of control in terms of pay and working conditions. Nonetheless, it was not possible to progress beyond being a main scale teacher. Like other supply teachers, I had no involvement with wider curriculum, or pastoral and teacher development responsibilities in schools. I was also excluded from professional development opportunities. As a career changer with usable experience and transferable skills, my competencies were recognised but not adequately deployed or stretched. The chances that this would change without permanent employment

---

3 The professional standards document describes QTS as one of the five career stages for teachers in England. Qualified classroom teachers start on the main pay scale, usually on point M1. Each September, main pay scale teachers move to the next point, subject to satisfactory performance. Those who reach the top (M6), can apply to be assessed against eight national standards and cross the ‘threshold’ to the upper pay scale. Threshold assessment provides an opportunity for good classroom teachers to progress from M6 to a higher salary range (see DFE, 2010).
seemed quite limited. To enhance my pay and progression, I accepted a peripatetic teaching position at a tuition centre working across different locations within a local government education authority (LGEA).

**Institution Focused Study (IFS)**

For my IFS, I explored the factors that influence how OTTs (re)construct their professional identity in UK schools. Exploring the experiences of OTTs who often worked on supply basis resonated closely with my own experiences. IFS was a qualitative study that explored OTTs experiences through life history interviews. Notions of identity and intersectionality underpinned the study. Findings indicated a circuitous route to permanent employment, induction difficulties and racism as barriers and constraints to OTTs. This was clear evidence that my concern about the inadequacy of a ‘one-cap-fits-all’ support arrangement for new teachers was not unfounded. An important finding of my IFS study was the recognition that OTTs do exercise personal agency that help them resist factors limiting their freedom. This finding resonated with my experience of choosing supply teaching and the relative agency I could exercise. IFS provided empirical evidence of what made me undertake doctoral research as a practitioner. I also became more confident in the way I engaged with literature and what attracted my interests. As a BME teacher of African descent, I was drawn to wider literature surrounding new teacher support in African contexts.

The change in my professional role involved teaching students who could not access mainstream schools for medical, emotional and social reasons. Students were taught one-to-one or in small groups. I also took the lead in adapting the KS4 Science curriculum for GCSE students who would follow the academic pathway later. Operating from the centre provided opportunities for engagement with a wider range of approaches to teaching and learning, thereby making links between practice and theoretical insights gained from literature. For example, in collaborating with staff, parents and education specialists, I gained more
understanding of the importance of relationships and feedback in furthering children’s access to education. This was important in designing the scheme of work and activities to support students’ engagement with an academic route, given their social, medical and emotional needs. This experience is an example of a collaborative community of practice where teachers share understanding about students’ engagement with particular subjects and cross-curriculum learning opportunities for children’s holistic development. The promotion of collaborative professional learning communities (PLCs) later arose as a way of furthering teacher development in my thesis.

By the end of IFS, I had begun to theorise about the intersecting factors that could influence teachers’ work in the context of teaching and learning in Nigeria. My interests still lay in new teacher support, but the target of my enquiry had changed to Nigerian teachers – whom, I felt, despite teaching in their own country, did not perhaps have the power to exercise the agentic influence that I and other supply teachers exercised within UK schools.

**The thesis stage**

In writing my thesis proposal, it was crucial to situate my arguments within relevant theoretical models underpinning my experience of practice and current practice discourse within the context of my research. I had started to explore literature regarding new teacher support, teacher preparation and continued professional development; linking theoretical models to my context of practice helped me select appropriate literature in relation to the themes I was exploring.

The change in my academic writing and research skills was also happening at a time of noticeable changes at my workplace. Severe budget cuts and general reorganisation of out-of-school education provisions had reduced my working hours and caused general uncertainties about the future of my work at the tuition centre. This uncertainty culminated in a change in
my professional role: from teaching to a teacher support role for an education charity. My work involved mentoring and coaching trainee and early-career teachers, supporting their further professional development towards the UK Teachers’ Standards and in the areas of subject knowledge pedagogy. This was a natural progression from my classroom teaching experience and it was a welcome opportunity to provide practical support about an area of practice in which I wanted to see improvements. This role included observing teaching and giving feedback, setting targets for improvement, and quality assuring the suitability and effectiveness of school-based professional learning. In this role, I experienced first-hand the impact of theories and research on teaching and learning approaches, how the context of practice can influence teacher development and effectiveness; and the difference that teachers can make in closing the gap in access to quality education. By this time, my thesis research interest was firmly situated within the Nigerian context, and issues surrounding the early learning experiences and development of new teachers had become the themes I was going to explore.

Writing a doctoral thesis is a lonesome and intense endeavour. Coupled with the typical challenges that doctoral students experience, my professional role underwent another change, which meant living and working in a higher institution in the capital town of a state in north central Nigeria. I was therefore approaching the writing of the bulk part of my thesis under unfamiliar conditions. Regular power supply, internet access and a functioning library – basic enablers of academic pursuits – were not readily and constantly available. Having lived in the UK for most of my working life, it felt as though I were reading and writing my thesis in darkness under tropical hot conditions, compared to the temperate conditions to which I had become accustomed. When ideas popped up, especially at night, writing them down and exploring them depended on availability of power and internet access. This transition is worth mentioning for two reasons. Firstly, it offered first-hand experience, and a true reflection of conditions surrounding teaching and learning in Nigeria generally and in a tertiary institution in particular. Secondly, considering castigations about the quality of teachers produced in Nigeria
and several reviews of Nigeria’s educational reforms and national policy on education, I began to ponder the chances that Nigeria’s education had to respond to societal needs and aspirations in the face of global development challenges, including information and communication technology.

Despite these challenges, the endless academic journals and reports I read were both stimulating and challenging. Being in an academic environment allowed me to ‘think out loud’ by talking to colleagues, and question assumptions I had made about teaching and learning in Nigeria. I reflected constantly on my professional experiences and my doctoral journey. Undertaking doctoral studies helped me develop an authoritative authorial voice and critical thinking skills. Having fulfilled the aim of writing about my experiences and those of other new teachers, I now provide professional development services through training, mentoring and coaching of teachers in low-income schools in Nigeria. This is in fulfilment of my desire to bring about practical outcomes for new teachers.
Chapter One: Introduction and Research Questions

1.1 Introduction
This thesis is about the context and learning factors that shape the early professional development (EPD) of new teachers working in an urban education setting of Nigeria. Using a qualitative design, the study explored what happened when fifteen graduates (referred to as non-teacher trained graduate teachers: N-TTGTs) were employed as teachers in Lagos State. These N-TTGTs were required to obtain formal teaching qualifications within two years of their employment in schools. To start with, a brief discussion of relevant issues concerning teacher education and development is presented as a backdrop to the study.

1.2 Background
Many writers (Barlin and Hallgarten, 2001; Hutchings et al., 2006) have drawn attention to the wide variety of definitions encompassed by the term ‘professional development’ (PD) and the interchangeability of the meanings it connotes. Bubb (2004) says it is everything teachers do to improve and keep up-to-date, starting with teacher training and continuing throughout their careers. The consensus is that teachers play a crucial role in the delivery of quality education in any country, and teacher preparation and training is therefore vital (Buckler, 2011; Day, 1999; Yates, 2007). In the understanding that teachers make a fundamental difference to pupil learning, emphasis is often placed on the professionalisation of the teaching workforce as a tool for school improvement (Bennell and Akyeampong, 2007; Bubb and Earley, 2007). It is clear that teachers need support to move from novice (pre-training) to expert, and PD (encompassing teacher preparation and continued development) is integral to the capacity of schools to deliver quality education.
An important dimension of quality of education, closely linked to teachers’ PD, is the issue of teacher supply and demand. This remains a topic of collective concern in many countries, especially in some sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries, which have a dire need for not just more but better teachers. This concern is exacerbated by, on the one hand, the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) inspired demand for schooling and; on the other hand, reduced teacher supply as only high-calibre graduates are recruited, in the belief that teacher quality is key. In many countries, the postgraduate teacher-training route has become a quick-fix remedy for expediting teachers into schools. These developments have drawn increasing attention and raised concerns regarding the best route for teacher preparation and the type of training needed. This has led to several publications on the matter (Ferry et al., 2004; Johnson, 2009; Kervin et al., 2006; Kirby et al., 2006; Mahon et al., 2010; Marvron and Meletion-Mavrotheris, 2013; Rooffe and Miller, 2013; Stronge et al., 2011; Stavroulia, 2015; Wolfenden, 2008).

Debates over whether to locate initial teacher education at undergraduate or postgraduate level are underpinned by difficult, often complex considerations. In countries that produce high-quality graduates, such debates focus on the relative merits of Bachelor of Education (BEd) versus Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) or PGDE programmes. In countries like Nigeria, graduate quality is fundamental to the question of postgraduate teacher preparation. While modest preparation may be adequate for graduates in places like the UK, this may not suffice in contexts where the graduates produced are of questionable quality (Okechukwu, 2014), and the quality of teacher education is often under scrutiny (Unterhalter, 2018).

An undeniable consideration central to the subject of teacher preparation is the impact of contextual factors on the pedagogy and practices of teacher education in different settings. For example, commentators describe the agenda for continuous professional development (CPD) which SSA countries pursue as a remedy for the low quality of teachers produced; Bennell, 2004; Bennell and Akyeapong, 2007; Junaid and Maka, 2015). Matsko and Hammerness (2014) suggested that the particular ways that setting affects teacher education and teacher
preparation programme design must be explored. This suggests that pedagogies and practices that underpin teacher preparation programmes are rooted in context-specific ontologies. In Nigeria, there is a paucity of studies about the influence of context on the effectiveness of teacher preparation practices. Attention is drawn to this point in Humphreys and Crawfurd’s (2015) assertion about the lack of information on the extent and the ways that teacher education prepare students for the realities of classroom teaching in Nigeria. It is also not evident from extant literature what Nigerian teacher educators’ opinions are, and whether these opinions echo the dissatisfactions (Ahmed, 2006; Babalola, 2011; Johnson, 2009). For Humphreys and Crawford, (2015), it is not just enough to understand that time and resources are needed to derive required transformations from pedagogical innovations, questions about who should educate the teacher educators and how should also be asked.

Viewing PD as ongoing throughout a teacher’s career made the exploration of new teacher professional development a subject of professional and ontological enquiry for me. Essentially, my early perception was that the learning and development teachers acquire from initial preparation and the continual training they undergo are subject to their interpretation – and their environment has a bearing on this interpretation. This study not only fulfils a professional quest for knowledge, but lends voice to the discourse about teacher preparation thus filling a gap in available literature concerning teacher preparation discourses in Nigeria and SSA. In addition, it provides usable information that could inform improvements in the design and development of teaching pedagogies and practices in these contexts.

1.3 Research setting and professional context
The teaching profession has long been recognised as key to any successful education system (Owohottu, 2013). The weighting that Nigeria accords teacher quality as a determinant of education quality is evident in the declaration that ‘no education system can rise above the
quality of its teachers’ (NPE 2004). Education is deemed necessary for national socio-economic transformation, and is essentially a ladder to escape poverty.

The failings of Nigeria’s public school system have placed limitations on possible socio-economic transformations and it’s education is described as being of low quality. EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR) 2005 emphasize cognitive development, creative and emotional growth of learners and equity as principal quality objectives at stake in societies’ conceptions of the purpose of education. The report indicated that high performance in achievement surveys of learning outcomes, high primary and secondary enrolment rates as well as equality of gender ratios of enrolment contributed to Cuba, Canada, Finland and Korea’s high standard of education quality. These high performing countries are reported to have high esteem for the teaching profession favouring rigorous training, and sometimes restrictive admission that offer no concessions on teacher quality, even where shortages exist. Continuity of policy through the use of advisory bodies and strong education knowledge bases as well as high level of public commitment to education are characteristic of these countries’ education systems. Unterhalter et al.’s (2018) study showed that current system of teacher education do not provide well-trained and motivated teachers in Nigeria. Babalola (2011) opined that the ‘average Nigerian teacher seems to be half-baked, lacks mentorship and is an amateur in pedagogy’. Singly or collectively, these structural weaknesses affect teachers’ capacity to provide quality education for the socio-economic transformations envisaged in Nigeria.

On the basis of questionable quality of its teacher education system, the low esteem accorded the teaching profession, and ineffective policies; Nigeria’s education practices fall short of what high performing countries do. The system is challenged by a lack of resources and infrastructure, poor working conditions, falling standards in training institutions, poor quality teachers and insufficient funding (Ogiegbaen, 2005; Omoreghie, 2006). Although it has been recognised that these challenges all contribute to low teaching standards and lack of basic
learning opportunities, teachers continue to take the brunt of the blame for the low quality of Nigeria’s education.

**Rationale**

The assertion by Wolfenden (2008) that much pre-service training in SSA may be ineffective makes this research both pertinent and timely. A fundamental aspect of teachers’ early experiences is their initial training and opportunities for CPD. Studies have shown the centrality of early years of teaching to teachers’ professional development and their determining influence on teachers’ immediate effectiveness and future development (Bubb and Early, 2007; Day et al., 2005; Hobson et al., 2009; McNally et al., 2008). These studies as well as Jensen et al.’s (2012) study of the experiences of new lower-secondary teachers offer useful insights; but they are about non-African education contexts. This study fills a gap in the literature regarding teachers’ formative years in a SSA educational context.

This study adopts the view that, as questions are raised about low teacher entry standards, it is logical to examine new teachers’ prior educational experiences. Despite government awareness of low literacy and numeracy skills, and inadequate pedagogic knowledge of qualified teachers (FME, 2007; Johnson, 2009), there are no indications of research about perceived benefits of undergraduate and graduate routes into teaching in the context of Lagos State, and in Nigeria. In fact, this appears to be an undiscussed subject, and it foregrounds some fundamental pedagogic concerns, such as how the pedagogic design of current teacher education programmes supports the professional development of teachers in Nigeria, and what the relative merits and quality of teachers produced on Bachelor of Education (BEd) and PGDE programmes could be. Despite continued attention given to the recruitment and retention of more and better teachers, there remains a paucity of studies in Nigeria on teacher capability and the comparability and perceived quality of different routes of teacher preparation.
What distinguishes this study is its context: the employment of non-teachers in a crisis-ridden education sector, where graduates lack employability skills (Okechukwu, 2014) and teachers have taken the brunt of the blame for poor student learning outcomes. Aspects of teacher development such as the inadequacy of teacher education programmes and the quality and quantity of intakes onto ITE programmes have been documented (Adeleke, 1999; Ahmed, 2006; Ejieh, 2009), but there is no evidence from extant literature that the subject of how teacher preparation and school environments equip and support teachers to function in secondary schools has been explored in this context. It is notable that this research is happening during an international trend of attracting graduates directly into teaching and providing alternative pathways for suitably qualified hires as quick-fix solutions to teacher shortage problems (Barber and Moushed, 2007; Hobson, 2003; Reid and Weir, 2008). The recruitment of non-teacher trained graduates of particular disciplines may be following this pattern but there is no indication that any research was conducted to assess likely impact of such a move on children’s learning outcomes in Lagos State schools.

**Focus on Lagos State**

Lagos State is arguably the most economically important of the Nigerian States, and has the largest proportion of public and private schools. Many of the educational challenges faced in Nigeria have a manifestation within Lagos State. The increased demand for qualified teachers has only been compounded by a lack of skilled graduates, high levels of graduate unemployment, and local efforts towards attaining the millennium development goals (MDG) now social development goals (SDGs).

Federal and individual state governments have used different strategies to shore up the supply of teachers in Nigeria. Local efforts in Lagos State include international collaborations such as
UNESCO TISSA (2005–2012), the World Bank and Lagos State Government Lagos Eko Secondary Education Project (2009–2016), and projects by the UK’s Department for International Development (DFID) and Cambridge Education (CE): Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN: 2008-2014), Teacher Development Programme (TDP:2013-2019) and Developing Effective Private Education in Nigeria (DEEPEN: 2015-2021). Most of these target in-service training within primary and junior secondary phases. There is a dearth of research about interventions towards secondary ITE, and what seems apparent is a broad strategy which prioritises CPD over ITE. While CPD can promote engagement with development opportunities and higher career aspirations (Coldwell et al. (2008), cited in Walker et al., 2011), Johnson’s (2009) contention regarding new teachers’ skills and knowledge renders the idea of in-service teacher development futile, especially for those in Nigeria who do not hold teaching qualifications. In exploring new teachers’ EPD in an environment that seemingly accords low importance to secondary teachers’ ITE, this research aims to ascertain key factors that shape secondary teachers’ preparation and professional development in this context.

For the sake of clarity, it may be necessary to specify what is meant by EPD and other terms used in this study which are not universally defined. EPD or early professional learning (EPL) is a fairly recent notion which typically refers to years 2-6 of a teacher’s career (Fenwick and Weir, 2008; 2010). Some writers use the concept of EPD widely to cover the first five years: the first year or induction year, when teachers benefit from intensive support, and the second to fifth years (Bubb, 2007; Ashby et al., 2008). The increasing recognition of the need for continued support beyond the first year has led to a growing number of studies about teacher development in different contexts (Ashby et al., 2008; Jones, 2003; Wilkins et al., 2012). In contexts where EPD is recognised, support and attention is concentrated on the first year (the induction year), and new teachers become starved of professional development from their second year onwards, on a wrongly-held assumption that they are experienced and don’t need further training. This study is interested in the first three years of teachers’ careers, and
therefore refers to the initial training and professional development teachers undergo during the first three years when referring to EPD.

Literature focusing on individuals undergoing teacher training while employed (trainee teachers) and teachers in their first year after obtaining formal qualifications (beginning teachers or NQTs) is considered relevant in understanding new teachers’ EPD. The term ‘new teachers’ is used broadly when referencing literature about beginning teachers, trainee teachers and NQTs, and when discussing early-career teachers generally. In some contexts, not-yet-qualified teachers are referred to as ‘pre-service’ teachers; the position taken is that this is inaccurate in the context of this study because individuals without teaching qualifications can be found employed as teachers. There are different motivations for obtaining formal and/or additional teaching qualifications in Nigeria and possession does not reflect experience. In this study, the term ‘non-teacher trained graduate teacher’ (N-TTGT) is used when referring specifically to teachers who fit this study’s definition of new teachers: graduates employed as teachers, without teaching qualifications, who have been working as teachers for no more than three years.

This study focuses on N-TTGTs working in public secondary schools in Lagos State as a microcosm of new teachers’ experiences in Nigeria as a whole. It explores the learning that takes place as a result of teacher preparation and CPD resulting from maximum experience of such activities available in Lagos State.

1.4 The research problem and questions

Research aim and objectives

The focus of this research is on teachers with three years or less of teaching experience who, were required to undergo professional teacher training within two years as a condition of their employment. The aim of this research is to uncover how learning experiences and work
contexts shape new teachers’ EPD in Lagos State. The objective is to examine how in-school arrangements and the experience of undergoing teacher training affects new teachers’ EPD. The core investigation of this research concerns experiences, perceptions and views held about new teachers’ EPD.

A statement of the problem

Johnson (2009) raised concerns about the low quality of teachers produced in Nigeria, and posed a question rarely asked but pertinent to this research:

Can in-service teacher development programmes remedy the effects of low entry standards and increase the academic and professional competencies of teachers, both those who hold teacher qualifications and those who do not? (p.131)

Fundamental to this problem is the quality of pre-service teachers’ qualifications. By focusing on new teachers’ EPD, it is possible to gain understanding of whether new teachers build on a baseline of existing knowledge. Understanding can then be gained on how this knowledge affects a teacher’s capacity to maximise in-service training opportunities.

Research questions

This study will address the following:

Main research question
What are the context and learning factors that influence the professional development of new teachers in Nigeria?

Sub-questions
How do new teachers understand and negotiate their professional development as they move from being trainees to working in schools?
In what ways do new teachers consider their roles and responsibilities as professionals within the context of their school?

**Structure of the thesis**

This thesis is divided into four main parts. Part One is made up of three chapters, starting with a general overview of the study and its structure in Chapter One. Chapter Two presents the sociocultural context of education plus the background of teaching as a profession in Nigeria. Chapter Three reviews relevant literature about core disciplines underpinning the study. Part Two comprises Chapter Four, which describes the research design and methodology, and Part Three consists of Chapter Five, where the findings of this study are presented. Part Four discusses and reflects on these findings in Chapter Six and concludes the thesis with Chapter Seven, which presents emerging issues, conclusions drawn, and implications and reflections of the research.
Chapter Two: Contextual Background of Teaching and Learning in Nigeria

2.1 Introduction
The chapter will provide an overview of Nigeria’s educational system, highlighting key developments in the structure, management and delivery of education as a tool for advancement, and emphasising the role of the teacher as central to this purpose. It will also examine the concept of teaching as a profession and the related concept of professionalism, in order to contextualise teaching as a profession in Nigeria. To help the reader situate the research within a geographical and professional practice space, this chapter begins by introducing background information on the educational setting of Nigeria as a country and Lagos as a state.

Described as one of the fastest growing African economies, and the most populous African country at more than 140 million at the time of the last census in 2006 (NPC 2010). Nigeria is Africa’s greatest exporter of crude oil and holds the continent’s largest gas reserves, and boasts of annual GDP per capita growth of over 8% over the last decade (Litwack et al. 2013). Nigeria comprises 36 states, including the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja and is grouped into six geo-political zones: South East, South South, South West, North Central, North West and North East. According to Humphreys and Crawfurd (2015), the South West region is generally seen as the most developed zone, while the North East, is usually considered the least developed. Nigeria is endowed with human and natural resources, but serious inequalities remain between areas, states, regions, households; and there are gendered barriers to wealth, income and educational opportunities. Unterhalter et al.’s (2018) research showed that literacy levels for men in north central zone is comparable to men in the southwest, and the percentage of literate women in that zone is much lower than in any of the southern zones. The percentage of men and women who are literate in the North-East and North-West zones are very much lower than in the southern zones. The percentage of qualified teachers mirrors these literacy
patterns whereby in the North East and North West, well under half the teachers are qualified whereas in the South West almost all teachers are qualified (Humphreys and Crawfurd, 2015). Nigeria operates a three-tier government - Federal, State and Local. LGEAs fund and manage primary education in their areas of jurisdiction, while secondary schools are funded by Federal and State Governments.

Lagos State was created in 1967 and was the capital of Nigeria until 1991. Lying in the south west of the country, it stretches for 180 kilometres along the coast of the Atlantic Ocean in the south, Benin in the west and Ogun in the north and East. It is the smallest state in Nigeria, the second-most populous and arguably the most economically important; it contains Lagos, the nation's largest urban area. The population of about 15 million was estimated to rise to 24.6 million by 2015 and around one third (5 million) is estimated to be of school age, of which 1.5 million (about 30%) are in government schools (Lagos State Economic and Empowerment Development Strategy (LASEEDS), 2004, cited in Tooley et al., (2005)).

Lagos State has the highest number of both primary and secondary schools in the country, which translates to the highest student population in Nigeria. Unterhalter et al. (2018) said high levels of participation are indicative of the huge demand for education in Lagos, where private providers outnumber state provision. Lagos they said has the smallest supply of public school services of any state in Nigeria and private schools fill a need the state has not been able or willing to provide for. Harma (2013, cited in Unterhalter et al. (2018) observed that 12, 098 private schools catered for 57% of total enrolment in schools.

Cameron and Ruddle (2015) reported that slight increase in student enrolment and declining teacher numbers has resulted in substantial increases in pupil–teacher ratios (PTR); and the proportion of primary schools with more than 50 pupils per teacher rose from around 9% in 2009 to 21% in 2013. Although moderately above the recommended national average (35:1),
Humphreys and Crawfurd (2015) emphasize the possibility of flawed data pointing to studies involving classroom observations that showed class sizes of up to 70, 100 and even 200 pupils in Kaduna, Kwara and Kano States. PTR in secondary schools is reportedly 100:1. Other challenges include: flooded school premises, leaking roofs, overcrowded classrooms, an unsafe and unhealthy school environment and decaying infrastructures, plus a poorly-motivated, underpaid and overburdened teaching force.

2.2 The environment of education in Nigeria

Nigeria’s educational philosophy is based on five educational goals stipulated in the National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004): a free and democratic society; a just and equalitarian society; a united, strong and self-reliant nation; a great and dynamic economy and a land of bright opportunities. The journey to having a national policy on education began before independence; by 1950, Nigeria had developed its own three-tiered system using the British model 8-6-2-3 (Fafunwa, 1991). By 1954, the British system of 6-5-2-3 had been adopted.

As a former colony, it is no surprise that Nigeria’s education system reflects its colonial history and the educational heritage of the British system. Maylor et al. (2006) described the influence of shared language and similarities in educational systems between former British colonies and the UK. Shared language makes communication easy but has contributed to what commentators describe as a dominance of English language in the African academy. Opinions are divided on whether British influences remain dominant in Nigeria’s education system but Nwangwu (2003) emphasized continued British influences in many aspects of educational organisation and administration, despite occasional romances with American and other systems. For nationalists such as Achebe (1976, cited in Mazrui, 2002), dominance of the English language remains a hotly debated topic; it is believed by some literary commentators to have deepened Africa’s epistemological and intellectual dependency on the West (Marzui, 2002; Tollefson, 2013).
Despite the multilingual realities of a multicultural Nigeria, an epistemological dependence may not be far-fetched given the critical role language can play as a vehicle for communicating the socio-economic and political agenda of a nation. Emenanjo (2000) presents an ‘official’ view of the English language (which both history and use have foisted on Nigeria), but attention is also drawn to the government’s increasing emphasis on the use of Nigerian languages in formal and informal education and the use of developed languages as co-official languages with English. It is important to highlight thecompounding effect of second language on the effectiveness of Nigeria’s subject-based curriculum (Odey, 2013). Nonetheless, an explicit language policy may have emancipated Nigeria’s education from Western influences over the years and the benefits of bilingual education may have become realisable sooner, given compelling evidence suggesting a preference for education in both English and mother tongue rather than English alone (Igboanusi, 2008; Igboanusi and Lothar, 2015).

After the civil war (1967-1970), the government assumed responsibility for education but recorded limited success (Edoh, 2009; Okugbe, 2009). The first curriculum conference in 1969 was Nigeria’s attempt to adopt newly acquired patriotic values gained through independence (Odey, 2013). Following a review of the conference’s recommendations, this period saw the establishment of Nigeria’s NPE (Adaralegbe, 1972; Adeyinka, 2009; Odey, 2013) and paved the way for an American system comprising six years of primary, three of junior secondary, three of senior secondary and up to four of tertiary education (Ololube, Egbezor and Kpolovie, 2008). Launched in 1976, Universal Primary Education (UPE) gave rise to Universal Basic Education (UBE) in 1999. The NPE has continued to provide the framework for educational reforms in Nigeria.

In 2000, Nigeria pledged to achieve Education for All (EFA), and halve extreme poverty through the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which in 2015 became the Social Development Goals (SDG). Teachers are the key channels for delivering relevant skills and knowledge that
facilitate these socio-economic transformations. The emphasis on minimum organised pre-service and in-service training as an indicator for meeting SDG4c target for substantially increasing the supply of qualified teachers in order to meet the goal for free quality education for all by 2030 (SDG4) makes it apparent that quality is perceived in terms of teacher qualifications. Local efforts to attain these targets include the enactment of Nigeria Universal Basic Education (UBE) Act (2004); establishment of a National Commission for Teacher Professionalism and Quality Assurance to oversee the effectiveness of examination bodies and teacher training programmes, as well as a manual entitled Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers (PSFNT). PSFNT considers the appointment of academically and professionally qualified persons and constant in-service training as the best way to raise the quality of Nigerian teachers. Johnson (2009) discovered a widespread lack of capability amongst qualified teachers in an assessment of teachers’ minimum knowledge and capability threshold in Nigeria. The thrust of teacher quality in delivering SDG4 in Nigeria rests not just on supplying more teachers who are adequately trained but ensuring their on-going professional development. The question of teachers being able to do what is expected of them remains fundamental to constant flux in policy coupled with various education reforms which have contributed to a pattern of systemic and institutional weaknesses. In addition, Nigeria recorded high net enrolment rates (NERs), which were not matched by provision of infrastructural facilities.

Unterhalter et al.’s (2018) observation corroborate other commentators findings about teacher trainees who do not have a strong interest in working in education. Employment as a teacher is often that of last resort for Nigerian graduates (Babalola, 2011; Yusuf, 2011), especially in public, and low-income private schools. Nonetheless, high levels of graduate unemployment and increasing demands for schooling means the employment of graduates without teaching qualifications is not uncommon at various levels in Nigerian public and private schools. Some
graduates, who may have been employed as teachers during their national youth service\textsuperscript{6} year, may become permanently employed in schools they served in. Graduates who do not find other employment continue to teach, adding to the number of unqualified teachers in the system. The total number of new teachers entering the profession annually is unknown but Isyaku (2006) suggested that about 75 colleges of education producing up to 40,000 NCE graduates annually. The absence of a systematic way of absorbing successful graduates of education courses into teaching roles (Unterhalter et al., 2018) means qualified teachers are not gainfully employed as teachers. These factors reduce the chances of children’s access to qualified teachers.

In their review of literature on basic education in Nigeria, Humphreys and Crawfurd (2015) drew attention to the challenge of unavailability, paucity, and unreliability of available statistical data on education, particularly in the private sector. The market in private education has thrived due to years of failings of the public school system, which commentators say has had limited effective regulation. ESSPIN (2011) reported that up to 43\% of teachers in low fee paying private (LFP) schools were unqualified. On average, between 1999-2003, 45.1\% (primary) and 58.7\% (secondary) teachers were qualified, and a considerably large number of graduate teachers were without teaching qualifications (average 38.9\%) at the secondary school level (National Policy Brief, Nigeria 2005). Table 1 shows the latest (2016) available data on teacher numbers and percentage of those with qualifications.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline
Level & Qualified Teachers \%
\hline
Primary & 45.1
\hline
Secondary & 58.7
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Teacher Qualifications by Level}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{6} National Youth Service Corps is an organisation set up by the Nigerian Government to involve graduates in the development of the country. Since 1973, graduates of universities and polytechnics are required to take part in the NYSC programme for one year.
Table 1

Proportion of qualified teachers in Nigeria by gender and region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Total Teachers</th>
<th>%FT</th>
<th>%MT</th>
<th>%QT</th>
<th>%QFT</th>
<th>%QMT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South West</td>
<td>308757</td>
<td>62.81</td>
<td>37.16</td>
<td>88.13</td>
<td>36.95</td>
<td>32.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>84159</td>
<td>69.99</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>75.20</td>
<td>25.01</td>
<td>50.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>1,454,951</td>
<td>50.39</td>
<td>49.60</td>
<td>71.01</td>
<td>37.07</td>
<td>33.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled using statistics obtained from Nigerian Education Indicators (2016) document published by the Statistics and National Education Management Information System (NEMIS) division of the Federal Ministry of Education; and Humphreys and Crawfurd’s (2014) compilation from the Nigerian Digest of education Statistics (FME2011)

T = teachers; F = female; M = male; Q = qualified

The 2017 launch of Nigeria’s Digest of Education statistics 2014-2016 and Nigeria Education Indicators for 2016 by the Nigeria Education Management Information System (NEMIS) is a positive development. The inconsistency, mismatch and incomplete nature of the data published made it difficult for accurate aggregates to be made from available data. The figures in table 1 are therefore presented as indicative of possible trend had the source data been more reliable.

The challenge of more and better qualified teachers, and subject specialists in particular (FME 2011a; UBEC 2013) has been identified as a root cause of low quality of education in Nigeria. There appears to be no impediment curbing unqualified persons’ access to the teaching profession. Beyond the desire for career progression and self-sought professional development, it is only in recent times that the call has been made by TRCN for unqualified

7 South West geopolitical zone is made up of Ekiti, Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Osun and Oyo States. Data not available for private schools in Ekiti and Oyo states (primary and JSS); inconsistent data for Osun and Ekiti states.

8 No data for JSS and SSS private schools

9 The Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria is an agency of the Federal Ministry of Education that was established by Act 31 of 1993. It was set up to control and regulate the teaching profession in all ramifications.
practitioners to become qualified. In 2011, Lagos State commenced the recruitment of non-teacher trained graduates as teachers with a proviso to obtain teaching qualifications within two years. The Buhari Government enacted a national recruitment policy tagged N-Power under a Social Investment Programme (SIP) in 2016. N-Power Teacher Corps is the fulfilment of a campaign promise of President Buhari which set out to deploy unemployed graduates of tertiary institutions for engagement in critical sectors like education, agriculture and health. Nigeria’s greatest educational challenge remains that of building a high-quality education system that guarantees future employment and social mobility for all.

2.3 Teaching as a profession in Nigeria

In every society, a teacher's role is ever-changing and continues to undergo redefinition. In Nigeria, education was regarded as a means to an end rather than an end in itself, and approaches to teacher preparation were informed by functionalism (Fafunwa, 1974).

In the pre-independence era, teacher education approaches included apprenticeship or on-the-job education whereby able students taught less able students. Another approach was a pupil–teacher system whereby primary school graduates were employed as pupil-teachers and placed under instruction for one hour a day. On passing the pupil-teacher examination, they were awarded a Grade III Teaching Certificate. Institutionalised teacher education was run by institutions established by the Church Missionary Society (CMS) and, upon graduation after two years, teachers were awarded a Grade II Teaching Certificate. Increasing demand for teacher training led to the advent of correspondence teacher education involving distance learning, with Nigerians obtaining foreign teaching certificates while in Nigeria.

The Diploma in Education course was introduced with the founding of Yaba Higher College, and a three-year course for teachers was started in 1932. The era of university-based teacher education began with the amalgamation of Yaba Higher College with University College, Ibadan, after which the diploma course was discontinued. Another outcome of the notable 1969
curriculum conference was the declaration of the National Certificate in Education (NCE) as the minimum requirement for entry into teaching in Nigeria (Odey, 2013). To ensure quality teacher training, the government established the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), responsible for the regulation, supervision and production of quality teachers in the primary sector.

Graduate teacher training by way of concurrent studies in teaching subjects and professional courses in education was started by the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, in 1961 (Nwagwu, 2000). As an additional approach, holders of the Higher National Diploma (HND) and degrees (BSc, MSc, PhD) who wish to be teachers can spend a full year in an Institute of Education to obtain a PGDE, which qualifies them to teach. Owing to increasing demand for postgraduate teacher training courses and requirement by high-profile private schools for graduate applicants to become qualified, most Nigerian universities established their own PGDE programmes to support and equip graduates with the knowledge and skills of the teaching profession.

Available teacher training routes in Nigeria currently include the National Certificate in Education (NCE); BEd/BA Ed or BSc Ed; PGDE, MEd and PhD. Table 1 is a schematisation of teacher categories in Nigeria as described by PSFNT. Entry at any level is based on possession of required qualifications.
The structure of teacher training in terms of duration is 6-3-3-3 for NCE and 6-3-3-4 for first degree programmes, including teaching practice which takes about 12 weeks (Adeyinka, 1988). It is expected therefore that prior to teacher training, participants would have spent six years in primary schools, three years in junior secondary school (JSS) and three years in senior secondary school (SSS). Determining the structure and function of teacher training has remained challenging due to the questionable quality of schooling that teachers themselves have had, poor consolidation of academic and pedagogical skills required for effective teaching by the end of teacher training, as well as poorly supervised and too short teaching practice content (Adeyanju, 2005; Johnson, 2009; Junaid and Maka, 2015; Ottevanger et al., 2007).

### 2.3.1 A Description of the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) available in Lagos State

For a considerable period, Nigerian universities operated divergent PGDE curricula with vaguely related aims and objectives, which were never accredited or supervised by National Universities
Commission (NUC)\textsuperscript{10}. Professor (Mrs) Rufai, the Minister for Education in 2010, commented on the chaotic situation, which resulted in Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) being charged with the responsibility for accrediting, monitoring and supervising the quality of training given to individuals who intend to register as teachers in Nigeria. TRCN’s work with deans and directors of Education in Nigerian universities; and other stakeholders resulted in the creation of a National PGDE Benchmark starting from 2010/2011 academic session. Universities were required to ensure compliance of their PGDE courses with these minimum standards. Students were also expected to undertake benchmark-compliant PGDE courses; otherwise, they would not be registered by TRCN as professional teachers. Some of the participants interviewed for this research began their PGDE either at the University of Lagos (UNILAG) or at the National Teachers’ Institute (NTI)\textsuperscript{11} in 2012. This study assumes that the PGDE courses that participants undertook were in compliance with the National Benchmark and that they would have been eligible for registration by TRCN.

**Aims and Objectives of the benchmarked PGDE programme**

The extract below is an outline of the educational aims of the PGDE, taken from the *National Benchmark for PGDE* document published by TRCN in 2010.

All courses offered in the programme aim at:
- Developing professional background and expertise of educators;
- Producing educators who are knowledgeable and committed to the implementation of our National Policy on Education;

---

\textsuperscript{10} NUC is a government commission promoting quality higher education in Nigeria. It acts as an advisory agency in the Cabinet Office as part of the Federal Ministry of Education.

\textsuperscript{11} The National Teachers’ Institute was established in 1976 in Kaduna with the given mandate as stipulated in Decree No. 7 of 1978 of the Federal Military Government of Nigeria. Its mandate is to provide courses of instruction leading to the upgrade, development, and professional certification of Nigerian teachers using the Distance Learning System (DLS). NTI offers undergraduate (NCE, BEd), postgraduate (PGDE), CPD and other teacher professional development courses.
• Producing educators who can propel social change intellectually in attitudes, skills, values and worldviews;
• Developing educators who can give Nigerian education a national outlook while making it relevant in a global context;
• Producing educators who are committed to reforming educational delivery through effective application and utilization of ICT in both national and global contexts;
• Producing educators who would teach and provide leadership at different levels of education;
• Providing leadership for basic, secondary and tertiary academic institutions and other sectors of the national economy;
• Producing media specialists, designers of training programmes and evaluators of educational programmes/products in the schools, Ministry of Education, industries, health services and government agencies;
• Providing opportunity for the professional training and personal improvement in teaching for serving teachers;
• Enabling the acquisition of knowledge, skills and techniques necessary for teaching the special subjects and the effective use of the library;
• Conforming to all regulations contained in the National Benchmark for the PGDE programme in Nigeria.

The context where participants work and participants’ social mobilisation are two themes evident in these aims. It is therefore anticipated that context-specific enquiry into teaching, and an environment that encourages high levels of professional learning underpinned by conformity to professional ethics would be promoted on the course.

The PGDE programme is offered full-time or part-time with no specialism along subject lines and is not phase specific. It equips trainees from different disciplines with skills and knowledge to teach in different contexts and employments as educators of children or adults, in schools, colleges, universities or other establishments. PGDE participants often include professionals from various domains, at various stages of their careers. Of particular interest is the generalist nature of the course in training educators from different professional disciplines. This research will expect participants to reflect on what teacher training equipped them to do that they could not do before; this will aid the examination of the impact of teacher training on their EPD and why.
2.4 The concept of teacher professionalism in Nigeria

Teacher preparation and growth have been mentioned as pertinent constructs anchoring this research. These aspects of teacher learning do not happen in a vacuum; writers agree that, in order for initial and in-service education to be effective and meaningful, careful attention must be paid to the geographical context of teacher professionalism (Buckler, 2011; Mansaray, 2011). This section presents contextual information about teacher professionalism and its influence on teacher preparation and development in Nigeria.

The term ‘profession’ connotes different meanings to different people, and its usage determines the meaning assumed for a particular person at a particular time. According to Cruess et al. (2004), a profession is an occupation whose core element is work based upon the mastery of a complex body of knowledge and skills – a vocation in which knowledge of some department of science or learning or the practice of an art founded upon it is used in the service of others. This emphasises the conception of profession as a vocation that contributes towards public good. It also illuminates the expectation that specialist training and certification is required. Lawn’s assertion (2006) makes the notion of teaching as a profession sound like a given and straightforward agenda: ‘the highly skilled practices of teachers are informed by a specialized knowledge base’ (p.142). However, Goodson and Hargreaves (1996, p.3) argue that the aspiration for teachers to have professional lives is a contested idea. Attributes of professions as listed by Hoyle (1995) include practitioner autonomy, collective autonomy, certified training and a body of knowledge. The claim that teaching is a profession remains contestable on many fronts.

Hoyle and John (1995) describe ‘professionalisation’ as a term used to denote the way semi-professions meet alleged criteria to become full professions. Hoyle (1995) introduced the term ‘professionality’ to categorise professionalism and professionality as two distinct aspects; the
status-related aspect as professionalism, and the elements of the job that constitute the knowledge, skills and procedures as professionality. Gewirtz et al.’s (2009) ideal and critical conceptions of ‘profession’ and ‘professional virtues’ present useful directions for understanding Nigerian teachers’ professionalism. It is sensible to view both conceptions as necessary and adopt a dialectic approach. The idea that professionals have an understanding of themselves, with a clear definition of their terms within the context of their practice, resonates with my conception of teaching as a profession. Using the ideal conception, I would surmise there is a need for teachers to work as closely as possible to this, within the dictates of the professional standards of their schools. This way, the question of teaching as a profession or semi-profession becomes less significant than a teacher’s effectiveness and how their practice and indeed the profession might be enhanced as a result.

In most countries, including Nigeria, teacher professionalism has been impacted by diverse educational reforms such as marketisation and centralisation (Babalola, 2010; Whitty, 2006). Global shifts from narrow conceptions of education as a tool for national development to more liberalised views has contributed to the realignment of national economies and education sectors to become more competitive through national and global policies and regulatory tools. Examples of these are Education for All (EFA), a campaign in the 1990s to secure global access to education; the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development’s (OECD) Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) every 3 years and Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) every 5 years; the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and UNESCO’s Global Monitoring Report. Robertson (2015) summarised these developments as a move away from norm setting in education development and governance towards learning development, national competitiveness, and governance through ‘competitive comparison’, with education sectors increasingly being opened to the ‘logic of capital’ (privatisation, monetisation, and commodification). The emphasis in the ‘logic of capital’ is on the global, national and individual influences that shape learning in different
countries (even those with limited statehood (Risse, 2010)), who now view access to (quality) education for all as a human right. This call for improvement in quality and quantity of teachers has resulted in a period of change which has raised new questions for teacher professionalism. In Nigeria, such questions revolve around who is qualified to teach and what training is required. Framing and answering these questions depend on who is asking and the impact such persons have on policy. Babalola (2011) suggested that the objectives of teacher education were far from being realised and the resultant ineffectiveness had caused a lowering of the status of teacher professionalism; it is therefore unarguable that teacher professionalism in Nigeria and the status accorded the profession are in great need of re-examination.

When assessed against the attributes of the ideal profession using Hoyle’s (1995) criteria, the notion of teaching as a profession in Nigeria seems conceivable in terms of its social relevance and professional values. Nigerians attach cultural values to education; it is seen as a vehicle for social mobility. As key drivers of this, teachers arguably have professional status as it relates to individuals and society as a whole. Section four of PSFNT details expectations of professional values, attitudes and behavioural conduct. Section five describes professional membership obligations in terms of induction at point of graduation, registration, licensing, internship, CPD, professional excellence and commitment, to mention a few. Beyond these stated intentions, there is limited extant literature that suggests Nigerian teachers have articulated a set of core values that define the profession. Using Gewirtz et al.’s (2009) ideal and critical conceptions of ‘profession’ and ‘professional virtues’, the extent to which Nigerian teachers work closely to the professional virtues of teaching within the dictates of the professional standards can illuminate understanding of teaching as a profession in Nigeria.

The NPE as a policy document accords legal recognition to teaching as a profession in Nigeria. The government set up the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) to control and regulate the practice of teaching as a profession (FME 1998, p.34), and registration was made
compulsory for teachers for the purpose of professionalism (article 64a). The deadline set for meeting this requirement was 2006 for serving teachers, and unqualified teachers were mandated to upgrade their qualifications by 2007 (article 64b). The fact that these provisions were made for teachers of different categories, with dates set for compliance, shows government commitment to teacher professionalism. In reality, however, compliance has been low (TRCN, 2009) and many unqualified teachers are still working in the system (Babalola, 2011). TRCN organises continued professional development courses to help in-service teachers improve their knowledge and skills, and has set up the Teachers Investigation Panel (TIP) to address issues of breaches of professional standards, which could be in the form of professional misconduct, incompetence, or negligence of one’s professional responsibilities and obligations.

The organisation of teaching into professional groups is another indication of intent for the professionalisation of teaching in Nigeria. Groups such as the Nigeria Union of Teachers (NUT) advocate for teachers and ensure the smooth working of the education system. However, the NUT has also been criticised as having poor standards and lacking extended educational training (Dada and Fadokun, 2010; Fareo, 2015). In Dada and Fadokun’s (2010) analysis, NUT is not a professional body but rather an organisation that sees to the welfare of its members:

    Unfortunately, it has little or no influence in matters of policies for auditing and registering professionally qualified persons into the profession. In addition, it lacks the control and the legal backing to enforce the standards set by it. (p.25)

Despite concerted efforts, commentators agree that teaching in Nigeria has not met all the characteristics of full professionalisation. A recurring theme is the low status accorded the profession (Aklahyel and Bawa, 2015; Akinyeye and Opeloye, 2013; Lawal, 2011; Oyeleke; Yusuf, 2007) and the poor education of teachers (Fareo, 2015; Yusuf, Afolabi and Oyetayo, 2014). The multiplicity of professional groups and the autonomy that relevant organisations lack has also been raised (Dada and Fadokun, 2010). Despite provisions made in the NPE, the
existence of TRCN and numerous policies geared at education reforms, recommendations for full professionalisation have called on the government to provide policies and an environment which would enable this (Owhotu, 2013).

Commentators describe the wide gap between policy provision and implementation as resulting from communication difficulties, lack of resources, inadequate manpower, inconsistency, bureaucracy, inadequate monitoring and evaluation and poor data recording and sharing. Despite rhetorics about teacher professionalism, policy effectiveness can only be judged on the control it affords government versus the level of autonomy granted the profession. Frequent policy initiatives have impacted teachers’ work in Nigeria, but the cumulative effect appears to have strengthened government’s control on the profession rather than enhanced the profession’s status. Whitty (2006) argued that teaching has never enjoyed the ‘licensed autonomy’, free of government control, that classical occupations such as medicine and law have traditionally enjoyed:

While contemporary governments have been enthusiastic about making schools more receptive to parents’ wishes, they are generally unwilling to relinquish control over the outcomes that schools should achieve. (p.4)

There are defined roles and expectations for government, individuals, professional groups and possibly society in the agenda for teacher professionalism in any context. Considering the role of individuals, although awareness triggered positive responses (Adelabu, 2005; Ogiegbaen, 2005; TRCN, 2009), the presence of unqualified teachers in many schools (especially private) after the TRCN deadlines would suggest non-adherence to their profession’s code of conduct. Using Gewirtz et al.’s (2009) critical conceptions, unqualified teachers are not demonstrating the professional virtues stipulated. Evans (2008) states that functional and attitudinal developments are necessary for teacher professional development and for a reform to be effective. There is no empirical data to indicate teachers’ awareness of the role of TRCN or teachers’ reactions to the mandate for compulsory registration. The presence of unqualified
teachers in the system after the deadline casts a shadow on the professionalisation agenda for teaching in Nigeria.

On the part of the government, initiatives such as regular in-service PD through NTI remain a tool for school improvement, although there is a dearth of literature to indicate whether such reform-driven professional development has enhanced teacher professionalism. The National Policy on Teacher Education, which forms part of the framework for PSFNT, states that, ‘a structured process of deployment and supporting graduates. . . in their first year of service as teachers shall be developed’ (p.12). Despite these assertions, induction was rarely organised for newly recruited teachers, neither were they assigned mentors (NSG, 2005). For Goodson and Hargreaves (1996), ‘persuasive rhetorics of professionalization all too often seem to be accompanied by conditions where professionalization is actually being dismantled’. Again, there are limited empirical studies into how government action (or inaction) enhances teacher professionalisation or, ultimately, de-professionalisation in Nigeria. There is also no evidence available to suggest TIP activities in relation to the continued presence of unqualified teachers in the system and breaches of professional standards and ethics.

Teacher education is described by Pickering (2007) as ‘predominantly concerned with measuring the impact of CPD in terms of student achievement through the implementation of policy initiatives’ (p.192). Evans (2008) says requirements imposed by reform-driven professional development have the capacity to create new professionals and ultimately improve services (p.29). Nigeria’s limited compliance with these requirements explains to some extent why services have not improved, and Pickering’s social and political construction of teacher professionalism resonates with the contention surrounding the individual and collective autonomy of teachers in Nigeria.
Beyond the question of professionalisation of teaching in Nigeria, teacher quality plus the lack of an induction period, and lack of mentors are of significant concern to this research. Questions that this research considers pertinent in this regard are: the purpose of teachers’ CPD in the agenda for teacher professionalism, how the impact of CPD is measured, and the ways that CPD enhances or constrains teacher professionalism and, by extension, new teachers’ EPD in Nigeria.

Campbell (2003) argues that society demands professionals be open about their professionalism with easily accessible evidence of their moral accountability. To this end, the attitudes and practices of teachers in Nigeria come under scrutiny in terms of how they see themselves, how others see them, and whether these perceptions align with Gewirtz et al.’s (2009) model of the ideal professional.
Chapter Three: Review of Literature

3.1 Introduction

Studies on new teachers’ EPD have provided insights into the complexities of teachers’ career journeys. This has resulted in a growing awareness of the multifaceted nature of teacher development. In this chapter, I examine literature on teacher preparation, professional growth and learning contexts to present a brief narrative about how teachers manage the transition from trainee to teacher. Eraut et al.’s (2004) ‘two-triangle model’ is discussed as the substantive framework for understanding the context and learning factors that shape new teachers’ EPD.

There is consensus on the idea that pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes are fundamental to achieving good quality education for all children (Buckler, 2011), and are critical for the achievement of universal access to effective primary education in developing countries (Coultas and Lewin, 2002). The teachers in this study are graduates with no more than three years’ teaching experience, who completed or enrolled on PGDE courses within two years of employment. Consequently, the main propositions of this research are anchored on literature about teacher learning and professional development. A study of the impact of context and learning factors on new teacher EPD naturally lends itself to an exploration of literature on ITE, induction and CPD. In addition, this research examines the contexts of the educational spaces in which teachers learn and develop. The relevant literature falls under the following sections:

- Teacher Preparation and Support
- Teacher Professional Development
3.2 Teacher preparation and support

An important contribution of teacher education is its development of teachers’ abilities to examine teaching from the perspectives of learners who bring diverse experiences and frames of reference to the classroom. (Darling-Hammond, 2000, p.166)

Despite recent debates about whether teachers should have formal qualifications, there is consensus that teachers who have been prepared for teaching are more confident and successful than teachers with limited training (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Orchard and Winch, 2015). Ahmad’s (2006) observation about past and present teacher education programmes in Nigeria centres on its overall inadequacy, and the insufficiency of the importance attached to CPD. Wolfenden’s (2008) comment on the ineffectiveness of pre-service teacher training in SSA corroborates Ahmad's (2006) assertion about teacher preparation in Nigeria. The pertinent question is: to what extent do teacher preparation programmes encourage the development of professional teachers who think about what they are doing in the way Darling-Hammond (2000) suggests above? I would argue that the context where teachers work can support the development of this reflective capacity, particularly with regards to teacher education policies and resource allocation. A stipulated goal of NPE (2004) is to ‘produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our education system’. It is thus expected that due emphasis be accorded educational planning and development so that teacher preparation programmes equip teachers with necessary skills and competencies.

3.2.1 Teacher Preparation

Babalola (2011) condemned university admissions processes that allow faculties of education to become dumping grounds for what he called ‘cheaters’, contributing to the existence of practicing teachers who are ‘uninterested’, ‘unattached’ and ‘apathetic’. Seeking admission to colleges of education for reasons other than a desire to teach (Adeleke, 1999) and the profusion of students in faculties of education who failed to gain admission onto courses of their first choice (Ejieh, 2009; Johnson, 2009) in the nations universities is common knowledge.
The problem of dwindling demand for education courses is compounded by the possibility that students enrolled on such courses may not complete them if they are able to transfer onto courses of their first choice – or, failing that, remain in education faculties with limited enthusiasm to teach. The expectation that such faculties will produce interested and committed teachers instead of Babalola’s (2011) ‘cheaters’ can hardly be a reality.

It is clear from the foregoing that the quality of teacher education processes, participant recruitment and quality of teachers produced are pertinent in the subject of teacher preparation and support in Nigeria. The big question here is beyond whether teachers are trained, but pertinent to this consideration is the subject of what they learn during teacher training as well as how best to recruit and ensure completion by the right participants. Freedman et al. (2008) contend that conversations about recruitment, training, CPD and pay have been held separately in most education contexts but that they are linked and the same arguments hold in each area:

Not only is training new staff within schools the best way to teach them the skills that they need, [...] School-based training can also embed continuous development within schools: older teachers benefit from improving the techniques of younger staff, creating a virtuous circle (p.6).

In making a distinction between what can be learnt academically and what needs to be practiced in teacher preparation, Lawlor (1990) argued that teachers need thorough academic grounding plus experience, trial and error and careful individual supervision in the practice of teaching. Both Freedman et al. (2008) and Lawlow’s (1990) views advance the importance of schools as the skills acquisition sites for teacher preparation. Lawlor’s (1990) ideas are viewed by Orchard and Winch (2015) as an attack on teacher education practices, that contributed to employment-based teacher preparation in the UK. Banks et al. (2001) described a ‘knapsack approach’ to course content review which eventually gave rise to a partnership model between schools and higher education institutions (HEIs) in the UK. This partnership model meant
trainees spent longer time in school, mentoring was introduced to support teachers and it led to the recognition of schools as sites for professional learning.

The move towards an all-graduate, all-trained requirement for teachers (Lai, Chan and Li, 2002) makes it possible to categorise entry routes into teaching broadly as graduate or postgraduate in most education contexts. Entry routes into teaching in Nigeria follows the same pattern but the non-graduate route is still applicable for teaching in primary schools. A distinguishing feature of teacher preparation in England is the availability of various routes, which are differentiated by whether they are school-centred (for example, School Direct) or higher education led (for example, B.Ed; BA with QTS; BSc ; and PGCE) and whether the trainee pays tuition fees or receives a salary (for example GTP; RTP; Teach First) (Forster, 2018). A trainee following the employment based route is employed as an unqualified graduate teacher for a programme of one year or two years at the end of which a postgraduate qualification is awarded. Recent trends in teacher education in the Netherlands has been towards a school-based model whereby in the fourth year trainees on primary and lower secondary teacher education programmes, and the one year post graduate teacher education for upper secondary become employed using a paid student–teacher model (Buitink, 2009). Lai, Chan and Li (2002) posit that multiplicity of routes provide options and allow people to decide to enter teaching at different life stages.

Considerations about school-based and university-based routes are of importance to debates about ITE. In a deliberate effort to make teacher training more school centred, the UK government in 2010 implemented a Schools’ White Paper to raise the academic requirements for teacher training programmes. School centred provisions resulted in more employment based ITE and schools taking the lead in teacher training. The main policy thrust of N-Power programme is large scale skills development; and fixing inadequacies in the education sector is a stated desirable outcome of the process. Recruitment and training of non-graduates and
non-teacher trained graduates for employment in schools may be a step toward employment based ITE

with potentials for educational improvements through targeted recruitment of high calibre participants. Employment based teacher training in Nigeria bear the potential: for schools involvement in the training of teachers; making the profession accessible and attractive to high quality graduates and professionals, as well as career changers; for allowing enthusiasts to enter at different points in their careers. An important consideration when recruiting non-teacher trained persons as teachers however is that due cognisance must be given to how they develop necessary pedagogic knowledge through formal university and/or school based education studies.

There are different schools of thoughts on whether teachers need theoretical knowledge in addition to subject knowledge and technical know-how (c.f. Darling Hammond, 2000; Macdonald et al., 2015) and whether universities or schools are better suited to provide this knowledge (c.f. Matsko and Hammerness, 2014). Lawlor’s (1990) attack is based on the idea that the skills of teaching are essentially practical ones projecting schools as the best environment for teachers to experience teaching skills through trial and error and careful individual supervision. Radical as this seemed then, the suggestion by commentators viewing teachers as craftsmen in the claim that teaching is best learnt through watching experts and being rigorously observed during training (c.f. Coldron and Smith, 1999; Gove, 2010) seems to buttress Lawlor’s ideas about teacher education programmes rooted in schools being more beneficial to pre-service teachers learning.

The subject of employment-based routes into teaching is of interest to this research for two reasons. Firstly, N-Teach as a potential employment based teacher training scheme offers the opportunity for government to establish a norm for systematically managing the demand and supply of teachers in Nigeria. Unterhalter et al. (2018) commented on the wide gaps in provision of basic resources which has made deployment of teachers to rural areas difficult. In
England, a statistical tool is used by the Department for Education (DfE) to estimate in advance the number of teacher trainees required annually in each subject and phase; and to manage the number of teachers trained by ITE providers each year (Forster, 2018). The absence of a centrally driven planning process for teacher placement that assures equal distribution between LGEAs in Nigeria was mentioned by Thomas (2011). Owing in part to a lack of data, teacher appointment and deployment tends not to be based on supply and demand because the process is prone to political interference (Humphreys and Crawfurd, 2015). Unterhalter et al. (2018) showed that small proportions of students on education courses actually take up work as teachers. Beyond the challenge of matching teacher demand to supply, there is no indication in extant literature that a system of gathering information about number of trainees that must be recruited and trained annually exists in Nigeria.

Another reason why considerations about employment based teacher training is relevant to this research is because possession of qualifications is a recognised way teaching proficiency is judged in Nigeria. Universities, colleges of education and NTI award teacher training qualifications in Nigeria and the PSFNT document clarifies TRCN’s regulatory role in ensuring that:

all persons who perform jobs that rightly and legally constitute teaching as well as those who administer teaching and learning in the Nigerian education system must be trained teachers, registered and regulated (p.4).

These stipulations as well as declarations within the implementation guidelines for the National Teacher Education Policy (FME, 2014) make no provisions for employment of non-teacher trained graduates. Neither does it stipulate schools and school staff as having formal responsibilities for training and assessing proficiency in this regard. Literature confirms universities, and school’s unique contributions to the process of teacher training, but the ultimate purpose of initial teacher education is for classroom instruction. In my considered opinion, schools provide the structure and space for teacher training and PD to take place in
The assumption cannot be made however that the agenda for schools as sites of teacher learning be pursued to the point of exclusion of university’s input into teacher preparation. If employment based school centred teacher preparation is what teacher educators have interpreted Lawlor’s (1990) attack to be leading teacher education practices to, then Orchard and Winch’s (2015) concern for the threat of underutilisation and redundancy of university based infrastructure and resources for teacher training cannot be ignored. Perhaps more worrying is the capacity of schools to take full responsibility for the training of teachers especially in low resource teaching contexts like Nigeria where the quality of the teaching stock and the education they provide remains under scrutiny.

3.2.2 New Teacher Support

The experiences of new teachers have attracted research interest; the first years of teaching practice are considered a critical period that can determine a new teacher’s effectiveness and development (Day et al., 2005; McNally et al., 2008). For Bubb (2007), the first year of teaching is the most formative period that can determine teachers’ happiness and success. It is important for this research to understand new teachers’ expectations of support, how it benefits them, and its effects on their development.

Capel (1998) showed that new teachers value informal support during the transition from ITE to the end of their first term. Capel’s (1998) research drew attention to the subjectivity of effective support and coping mechanisms, and showed the importance of professional relationships and interactions with peers as part of a learning community. One such relationship, considered an important aspect of new teacher EPD, is the teacher-mentor relationship. Good quality mentoring initiates teachers into the profession and helps them develop confidence (Hascher et al., 2004; Hayes, 2000). It can be inferred that mentoring helps new teachers to develop their practice.
McNally et al. (1994) described the nature of teachers’ work as a dynamic equilibrium shifting between, on one side, solitary reflection and practice and, on the other, a strongly felt need for support. The existence of prevailing cultures that inhibit new teachers’ socialisation (de Lima (2003), cited in Ashby et al., 2008) can reinforce the concept of teaching as an individualistic process wherein new teachers are isolated from permanent members of their department. For Ashby et al. (2008), the changing dynamics of relationships between teachers impact teacher effectiveness during EPD. Teachers teach individually, but the nature of teaching involves day-to-day interactions with other teachers and professionals, children and parents, who become key aspects of their lived experiences. As new practitioners, it can be expected that the balance of their equilibrium would tilt towards the need for the support of others. Oberski et al., (1999, cited in Ashby et al., 2008) promoted the development of interpersonal skills as instrumental for developing supportive relationships. Ultimately, a new teacher’s ability to seek support and ask for help is inherently linked to their effectiveness.

Professional learning communities (PLCs) (Lave and Wenger, 1991) have been advanced as a way to develop the quality of teachers’ work relationships (Wang and Haertel, 2012). PLCs are described as groups of people who share a concern or passion and learn how to improve through regular interaction – either intentional or incidental (Wenger, 2009).

Another important way of helping teachers transition between teacher education and classroom practice is through induction programmes. Induction programmes help support teachers and improve their effectiveness (OECD, 2005; Totterdell et al., 2002), often using a competency-based model involving a support scheme and probationary period during which teachers’ knowledge, skills and values are assessed against a set of standards. Critics of induction (Tickle, 2000) say it lacks uniformity in the provision and quality of mentoring, the development of inductor roles, and its overall practices in support of NQTs (Ashby et al., 2008;
Bubb et al., 2005). Nonetheless, there is consensus that induction programmes have been shown to improve teacher effectiveness and retention in many educational contexts (Fuller, 2003; Holloway, 2001; Totterdell et al., 2002, 2008). Conversely, in some educational settings, the absence of formalised induction (Kenya) or compulsory induction (USA) have been reported as detrimental to teacher development (Indoshi, 2003; Stanulis, Fallona and Pearson, 2002). Evidence from Williams et al. (2010) indicates that induction arrangements are likely to have the greatest impact in schools that promote a collaborative culture, characteristic of PLCs.

In exploring the induction experiences of NQTs, Findlay (2006) presented the paradox of the individual nature of competence assessment and the collegiality that supports teachers’ development in PLCs. She argued that:

> the programme itself may work against the development of such a culture as it is premised on an individualistic mode of competency. It positions the teacher as an individual professional. (p.527)

Despite the promises that induction as a formal period of additional support holds, its competence-based nature ignores the input of relevant others in new teachers’ relationships and the emotional labour symptomatic of teachers’ experiences of school.

Competence-based models are viewed by some as individualistic, ignoring the context where learning takes place, and they assume a common understanding of what teaching entails, the attributes of which can be codified. Commentators (Bubb, Early and Totterdell, 2005; Bubb et al., 2005; Keay, 2007) have reported the variability of success and the difficulties experienced by new teachers during induction. The ‘tick-list’ nature of proficiency assessment during induction presents new teachers as experts who need no further training and can be signed off at the end of their induction period. This assumption may be responsible for the limited (or absence of) support reported by NQTs during induction in some contexts. In a study that examined induction experiences of NQTs in Kenya, Indoshi (2003) described NQT isolation, the informal and ad hoc nature of induction, and a general lack of support for NQTs.
In the face of evidence establishing links between socialisation and school cultures which affect new teachers’ interactions with peers (Jones, 2003), the interest of this research is not so much whether teachers should undergo induction but rather how the context could promote collaborative learning for any formal support arrangement to be effective in Lagos State.

It is possible that new teacher learning in Lagos State schools offers the benefits of PLCs as defined by Wenger (2009). It is also possible that the recruitment and placement of new teachers and the PGDE requirement may have led to the incidental or intentional creation of PLCs. The nature of new teacher interactions, the relationships developed, and the learning that takes place and its value to EPD are all focal points for this research. There is a dearth of research about teachers’ experiences of this type of teacher preparation, and no evidence in available literature of the impact of the PGDE on teacher learning in this context.

3.3 Teacher professional development

Professional development (PD) is described as knowledge expansion as a result of learning from practice whereby new attitudes and beliefs are shaped through self-renewal and collaboration with and contribution to the growth of others (Guskey, 1995). Commentators suggest that the teacher development can be viewed as a continuum comprising initial training, induction and EPD (Achinstein and Barrett, 2003; Heggarty et al., 2009). Teacher development can thus be described as efforts targeted at enhancing skills, knowledge and experiences that help purposeful engagement with learners and other professionals. Evans (2002) lists workshops, study groups, fireside chats, district-wide colloquium, action research projects and conversations with the professor-in-residence as situations and circumstances considered vehicles for teacher development (p.125). Indeed, any activity undertaken to improve knowledge and skills with a view to reflecting on practice and improving teaching quality can be described as CPD.
An important question is whether CPD is accomplishable or unachievable. Jones (2002) provides some clarity:

I do not imply that teacher development in its entirety may ever be considered to have been completed in a finite way: rather, that teachers may be considered to have developed in some way, which does not, by any means, preclude their developing repeatedly, in different ways, or resuming their development in a way in which they have already developed. (p.131)

This conception of teacher development as transient suggests a process of lifelong learning. In essence, when teachers undergo ITE, a discrete aspect of teacher education is deemed completed; this does not preclude such qualified teachers from the process of on-going education.

A commitment towards career-long self-improvement is highlighted by Bubb and Earley (2007) as a measure of professional identity; as members of an arguably professional occupation, teachers are expected to seek opportunities for self-development. The expectation for lifelong learning conforms to most professional codes of conduct, and the PSFNT provides similar requirements for teachers to keep abreast of developments in the field of education. In Cunningham’s (2008) view, learning professionals seek out opportunities to extend their professional understanding and skill set beyond those they already possess. The expectation is therefore that opportunities for CPD should be self-sought. Campbell (2003) posits that ethical teachers are ethical persons in whom central moral virtues such as trustworthiness and honesty have become settled dispositions, and ‘who can experience moral tensions and dilemmas which can cause an erosion of ethical knowledge that informs their practice as autonomous moral agents and defines them as ethical professionals’ (p.100). Nigerian teachers’ ambivalence to the call for mandatory registration with TRCN, the low professional status of teaching and continued reform attention on teacher quality may result in a possible erosion of ethical knowledge as teachers conform to government policies, thereby curtailing their autonomy as ethical professionals who are intrinsically motivated to learn.
Ememe et al. (2013) concluded that teachers working in public and private schools in Lagos State undergo regular CPD programmes in the form of workshops and seminars. Literature suggests that these lack continuity and are isolated from classrooms and school contexts (Lewis et al., 1999). This corroborates Bennell and Akyeapong’s (2007) submission which describes CPD in SSA and South Asian contexts as ‘usually scarce, one-shot, top-down, unrelated to a broad strategy and not targeted at teachers who need it most’ (p.16). Indeed, it is a commonly held opinion that SSA countries follow a CPD agenda as a remedy for structural weaknesses in the low quality of teaching and learning (Bennell, 2004; Bennell and Akyeapong, 2007; Junaid and Maka, 2015). There is, therefore, the possibility that CPD in Lagos State, though regular, may not necessarily improve teachers’ pedagogic or subject knowledge and may not transform the quality of teaching. Uncovering knowledge about new teachers’ EPD in this study should make this clearer.

A national framework for the CPD of Nigerian teachers was introduced in 2007, particularly at primary and secondary school levels (Junaid, 2009). One of the objectives of this framework was to update teachers’ knowledge of subject matter and pedagogic skills, using methods such as cluster-based teacher networks (subject, school district, phase) and in-service training programmes. This top-down delivery and modelling of best practice is what Pickering (2007) described as a limiting model of teacher CPD. This limitation is what Adama (2012) referred to as a challenge of the cascade model of annual MDG teacher PD in Nigeria. Kelly (2006) contends that such models that measure skills and knowledge are cognitive approaches to teacher learning that emphasise a common individualistic view of learning.

Individuals acquire skills, knowledge and understanding in one setting, often specifically designed for that purpose, and are subsequently able to use these skills, knowledge and understanding elsewhere. (Kelly, 2006, p.506)
For new teachers, this model may present limited opportunities for professional development as it only assesses individual skills and knowledge and the extent to which this knowledge has been deployed. The nature of teaching as an individual or collective process and the importance of context in teacher development are pertinent themes for exploring new teachers’ EPD. The implication of this is now explored in a discussion about cognitivism below.

3.3.1 The prevalence of cognitivism

An important way of understanding the foundations of prevailing teacher learning approaches within the context of new teachers’ work is to consider the work of Kelly (2006) on the climate of cognitivism – which, he argues, underpins considerations of teacher learning in many contexts. Kelly uses the term ‘CPD’ when referring to planned opportunities for teacher learning because the term ‘teacher development’ does not provide a distinction between teacher knowing and teacher identity (Kelly, 2006). He contends that the form CPD takes in many countries is largely cognitive in its approaches to teacher learning. Cognitivists believe that learning is something that individuals do in a particular context, which they are able to replicate in another context (Wenger, 1998). Sociocultural perspectives on teacher learning emphasise the importance of context and teacher relationships, the distributed nature of teachers’ knowledge of practice, progression from novice to expert practice, and teacher identities.

In 2010, Yusuf, Ajidagba and Olumorin assessed teachers’ perceptions of the effectiveness of a 2009 MDG teacher education intervention, which involved checks on the ways teachers implemented strategies in their schools. This was clearly an example of a government-instigated professional development agenda which, as Evans (2007) indicates, can ultimately improve services. However, checking attainment of policy outcomes through assessment of the extent to which teachers can transfer and apply learning between contexts is individualistic and presents a limited view of teacher learning and development beyond government policy tick
lists. A respondent in Pickering’s (2007) research said ‘so much of CPD is not about learning, which is why we all work in schools in the first place’. Irrespective of government agenda, teacher learning merits its own attention because, unless teachers ‘learn constantly, they will be unable to perform their role in a rapidly changing society’ (Barber, 1996, p.218). In conforming to government policy, mandatory registration with TRCN may not in itself contribute to teacher development unless this requirement ensures teachers take advantage of the learning opportunities presented.

In the expectation that individuals transfer and apply knowledge across contexts, competence-based models assume that the knowledge transfer process is straightforward and teachers possess the skills to do it. Contrary to this, Eraut (1994) warned that knowledge transfer across contexts is complex and happens in stages, and that awareness and understanding of this cannot be assumed. This complexity was demonstrated by Hegarty et al. (2009), who showed that, in order to ‘fit in’, new teachers tended to align with dominant views within the school, ignoring ideas from past learning experiences. This research is concerned not just with the problem of lack of recognition of past learning, but the danger that prior knowledge may be forgotten. In highlighting the problem of noticeable discontinuities in learning during transition from ITE to induction, commentators have emphasised the need for induction tutors and mentors to become more familiar with new teachers’ prior learning from ITE (Hegarty et al., 2009; Hobson et al., 2007; McNally, 1994). There is danger in the assumption that teachers, tutors and mentors are aware of the process of knowledge transfer between contexts, or that they possess the skills to effect it and/or support new teachers engaged in it. A CPD model lacking cognisance of knowledge transfer can have limited effectiveness.

Adeyanju (2004 & 2012) commended the merits of school-based CPD involving mentors and experienced teachers who provide on-going face-to-face support. Nonetheless, the human and financial burden for training large number of teachers in Nigeria means school-based CPD may
be unaffordable. It can be inferred from Ememe et al. (2013) and Junaid and Maka (2015) that 
CPD for new teachers in Lagos State requires them to extract relevant knowledge from the 
context of CPD to their school, and from their placement school to their school. The notion of 
knowledge transfer is relevant for this study as it has a bearing on how new teachers utilise 
learning from teacher training and CPD opportunities in schools.

The focus on the individual is also evident in the way that teachers express perceptions about 
learning based on cognitivist models. For example, in the State of the Nation, a study of schools 
and the CPD of teachers in England, Pedder Storey and Opfer (2008) reported that:

Overall, teachers tend to view the benefits of participating in CPD more in terms of individual fulfilment 
than for collective or collaborative reasons. (p.6)

It would seem that cognitivist approaches curtail learners’ experiences and expressions of the 
broader benefits of CPD, which involve the learning of others and wider school priorities such as 
impact on pupil learning and peer relationships. This research focuses on an environment 
where it is anticipated that new teachers interact with other teachers and indeed experience 
other situations that promote learning within schools. Learning through peer reflections and 
theorisation from socialisations would therefore be ignored in an environment promoting a 
competency-based approach to teacher development. This is certainly one of the fronts on 
which Kelly (2006) challenges cognitivism:

Cognitivism advocates a view of teacher expertise residing entirely in individuals' minds and adopts a 
simplistic notion of teacher knowledge. (p.506)

Kelly explains that individualistic models do not account for the knowledge required for 
teaching, as this happens as a result of interaction with the implicit and explicit resources that 
teachers and learners bring, tacit understanding gained from similar teaching experiences 
(knowledge-in-practice), and pedagogic knowledge of subject (knowledge of practice) which 
results in knowledgeable activity known as ‘knowing in practice’. Knowing in practice, Kelly 
says, is socially shared and distributed across participants and resources:
Much current CPD provides opportunities for the development of individuals’ knowledge-of-practice alone. Whilst knowledge-of-practice is important, this dominant CPD model makes the cognitivist assumption that such knowledge-of-practice can simply be put into practice in classrooms, or the like, to improve student learning. (p.510)

Teachers do not work in a vacuum. The pedagogic knowledge of practice obtained through ITE is operationalised within new teachers’ school settings. These have a bearing on how ‘knowing in practice’ is developed, which ultimately affects EPD. For example, a Biochemistry graduate with no prior classroom teaching or facilitation experience would need to cultivate relationships that provide opportunities for, amongst other things, concerns to be raised, shadowing to be arranged, and team teaching and peer reflections to take place. The prevailing culture and nature of socialisations within that setting would determine the extent to which such a graduate engaged in knowledgeable activities that could develop his/her knowing in practice.

Kelly describes the varying dynamics of teachers’ engagement with the practices of school as the affordances of school:

Affordances are participants' (often shared) expectations of the kind of things which can be said, thought or done during their engagement in particular social practices. These expectations privilege particular ways of knowing and acting. (p.510)

Kelly (2006) further submits that the most significant influence on teacher learning is the impact of the ways teachers’ engagement in the working practices of schools encourage them to think. What Kelly (2006) is describing in essence is how prevailing affordances in schools affect teachers’ conceptions of their learning and of themselves as practitioners. In a study that explored how to improve the professional learning of new teachers, McNally et al. (2008) made the admission that, beyond the statutory system of competencies, other less formal processes such as identity formation and affective engagement were crucial to teacher learning. The value they sought to add by integrating outcome-oriented competencies with non-formal learning, context and identity are unsurprising attempts at sociocultural influences into teacher learning
approaches. It can be anticipated that such influences be understood and encouraged in the context of new teachers’ work. Section 3.4 will now use Eraut’s framework to examine the realities of sociocultural influences in the context of Lagos State schools.

3.4 Eraut et al.’s context and learning factors: a sociocultural framework for understanding new teachers’ development

Examination of factors that shape new teachers’ experiences of teacher preparation and support, transition to work, and CPD reveal the overriding importance of socialisation and participation for teacher learning. It also enables consideration of how learning contexts affect teachers’ growth. An understanding of teachers’ EPD is being formed. To extend this, the theoretical framework developed by Eraut et al. (2004), which is based on research into the early professional learning of nurses, accountants and engineers is now examined. This section overviews and justifies the use of Eraut et al.’s framework to understand N-PTGTs EPD. First, it makes vivid the sociocultural underpinnings of Eraut et al.’s (2004) framework before expanding on its suitability as the substantive theoretical lens for this research.

A product of Vygotsky (1978), sociocultural theories highlight the contextual and situated nature of learning which happens as a result of learner’s participation, socialisation and cultural influences (Kelly, 2009; Wenger, 1998). In their review of literature on teacher professional development, Al-Mahdi and Al-Wadi (2015) discussed the extensive use of sociocultural theories in developing various educational, psychological and sociological frameworks including Lave and Wenger’s (1991) concept of ‘situated learning’ and ‘community of practice’. As potential sociocultural frameworks for exploring the EPD of new teachers, Baxter Magolda’s Self-authorship and Eraut et al.’s Two Triangle (2004) emphasis on learners as knowers and situation of learning in learner’s experience (Baxter Magolda and King, 2007; Eraut, 2007 made them compelling. In their literature review of research on workplace learning, Tynjala (2012) used a 3-P model (presage, process and product) to identify six lines of research that highlight
important aspects of workplace learning. Eraut was cited as a contributor of high impact within research that examine the nature of workplace learning which fall under the process component. The observation was made that some studies within the presage component have a tendency to treat agency or identity development as a product factor. With its focus on critical reflection and sense of self, I considered the strength of self-authorship to be its capacity to reveal N-TTGTs ability and judgement about: their EPD, how self-authored they had become and how this may have helped their transition from being taught to teaching in the specific social, cultural, political and economic context of schooling in Lagos State. The core phenomenon I sought to uncover is N-TTGTs narratives about the factors that enhanced or inhibited the process of their EPD. In order to avoid the danger of how self-authored N-TTGTs had become to dominate the research -EPD becoming a product – ‘an end in itself’; Eraut et al’s (2004) framework provided a broader lens more suitable to conduct an inductive research about the meaning N-TTGTs made of their experience of EPD.

Despite a conceptual claim about the comparability of fundamental factors that influence professional learning (Eraut, 2004; Findlay, 2008), there has been little empirical evidence of the application of Eraut et. al’s (2004) Two Triangle outside of the researches conducted by Eraut himself – either alone or collaboratively. On the one hand, the idea that informal workplace learning takes place without explicit teaching (Tynjala, 2012); as well as the limited understanding of the nature, extent and role of informal incidental opportunities in teachers’ professional learning (Fraser et al., 2007) may account for this limited use of Eraut’s framework to understand the professional learning of teachers. McNamara et al. (2014) on the other hand conceded that the core business of the education system especially schools is pupil learning, but Eraut et al.(2004) argued that formal education settings can also be viewed as workplaces, and a great deal of informal learning has been observed to take place in or near such environments. In their exploration of the idea of teachers as learners McKinney et al., (2005) through the lens of Reid’s quadrants of teacher learning (formal/informal; incidental / planned)
noted that informal teaching opportunities include networking while incidental opportunities are spontaneous and unpredictable, for example, teacher exchanges over coffee.

There appears to be a conceptual vagueness and limited empirical understanding of informal learning when the learners are teachers. The fact that education settings are structured for formal planned work to educate children does not make it less conducive for teachers to learn informally. For me, education settings and teachers are authentic environments and subjects for undertaking studies about workplace learning with rich potential to increase understanding about the nature and extent of informal learning at work; and of teachers’ workplace learning. Understanding the nature of informal learning of teachers bears the potential to bring new perspectives into the field of workplace learning, an area Eraut (2004) says is under-researched. To date there is no known research that has examined early professional learning of teachers from the theoretical perspective of Eraut et al.(2004), even more so in a SSA context. In using the broad lens of Erauts et al’s (2004) factors to explore N-TTGTs EPD, this research can contribute to understanding about informal learning of teachers and its influences on N-TTGTs EPD in this regard.

**3.4.1 Early career learning at work**

In a longitudinal study, Eraut et al. (2004) observed the workplace learning of 92 professional nurses, accountants, and engineers during the first three years of full-time employment. The sample comprised 16 trainee accountants, 34 graduate trainee engineers and 40 newly qualified nurses. The main focus of this research on early career learners (ECL) was on informal and short semi–formal episodes of learning, shown by previous research to be the major sources of mid-career learning. The study resulted in a two-triangle model of learning factors which they identified as challenge and value of the work, confidence and commitment, and personal agency as well as feedback and support; and context factors which they identified as allocation and structuring of work, individual participation and expectations of performance and progress, and encounters and relationships with people at work.
Eraut and Hirsh (2007) list formal and informal learning and context as two factors most relevant to workplace learning:

> Individuals are in a dynamic relationship with their work setting, being both influenced by it and being part of it themselves and through their relationship with others. (p.3)

Eraut and Hirsh (2007) clarified that, for newcomers, formal learning or formal supported learning would be more significant, and that a binary distinction between formal and informal learning was integral to understanding early career learning. They presented a typology of opportunities for work-based learning by identifying learning processes based on whether the central purpose was working or where learning is a by-product. Table 3 on the next page is this study’s adaptation of Eraut et al.’s typology of early career learning activities for new teachers’ work.

Table 3 An Adaptation of Eraut et al.’s Topology of Early Career Learning for New Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work processes with learning as a by-product</th>
<th>Learning activities located within work or learning processes</th>
<th>Learning processes at or near the workplace</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tasks – Scheme of work writing, lesson planning</td>
<td>Asking questions – from peers, internet research about school context, enquiring about students</td>
<td>Being supervised – lesson observations, team teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working alongside others in a department – observation of teaching topics / teaching group consultation – peers, mentors and tutors</td>
<td>Getting information – teaching group data, class register, timetable, school policies</td>
<td>Being coached – peer, mentor, tutor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tackling challenging tasks</td>
<td>Locating resource people – technicians, ICT, SENCO,</td>
<td>Being mentored – subject development, professional practice, wider school knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tackling new roles e.g. form tutor, head of year/key stage</td>
<td>Reflecting – individual, peer, group</td>
<td>Shadowing – pupil, teaching group, colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trying things out – e.g. new experiments, teaching methodologies</td>
<td>Learning from mistakes – keeping reflection logs of teaching episodes, setting targets</td>
<td>Visiting other sites – experience of other teaching phases, visiting other departments in own school and own department in other schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolidating, extending and refining skills – log of progress on target set, coaching, mentoring</td>
<td>Giving and receiving feedback – lesson observations, subject study, school placement</td>
<td>Conferences – networking, updating skills, reflections about practice, gathering resources and information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with clients – parents, carers, education professionals</td>
<td>Observing – outstanding teachers, peers, subject topic</td>
<td>Working for a qualification – PGDE, Master’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning walks –</td>
<td>Independent study – course assignment, theories of children’s learning, phonics, behaviour management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of mediating artefacts – student statement of support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A teacher’s ability to create and sustain relationships has implications for how much learning takes place in the context of their practice. This attention to relationships emphasise the social aspect of teacher learning; this fits with Darling-Hammond and Sykes (1999) conceptualisation of teacher learning as a social process that:

promotes sustained interaction; emphasizes substantive school-related issues; relies on internal expertise; expects teachers to be active participants; emphasizes the why as well as the how of teaching.

(p.134)

Learning as a social process underlines the importance of the collaborative social context of work and its influence on individual learning – a key message of sociocultural perspectives on learning in the workplace. Good quality relationships promote collaborations between novice and expert teachers thereby enhancing novice’s chances of seeing, talking and learning at work. Key findings from Eraut et al.’s study are summarised below:

- Support and feedback are critically important for confidence, learning, retention and commitment, especially during new trainees’ first few months. These are best provided on the spot.
- Normative feedback on progress and meeting organisation goals are important in the long run.
- The right level of challenge after the first few months helps to build learners’ confidence.
- Quality of support and feedback, appreciation of work and personal agency are factors which affect learners’ commitment.
Figure 1 below presents a summary of their conclusions as two similar triangles:

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1.** Factors affecting learning at work: Eraut’s Two-Triangle Model.

Eraut et al. (2004) explained that the top triangle depicts the work context for individual learners and the factors that influence this process; the bottom triangle mirrors the first triangle but focuses on the culture that shapes learning in a workplace. Each element in a triangle has a reciprocal relationship, and within each triangle, the left apex relates to the work itself, the right apex to relationships at work and the lowest apex to the individual worker. For example, a learner’s confidence and commitment is dependent on the challenge of the work as well as feedback which make the learner more confident to take on more challenge. Similarly, the feedback that a teacher gets is dependent on the types of encounters and relationships, whether open and trusting.

Unfortunately Eraut et al. (2004) do not provide the reasoning behind the ordering of the triangles and positioning of factors at each apex in much detail. For example, the positioning of learning factors at the top could be interpreted as hierarchy. Thinking of work based learning in spatial terms aided understanding and application of the model to this study. This involved
taking cognisance of where the learner works as well as wider professional and practice context where the learning experiences take place. Low (2009) presents a multidimensional model of space and place in suggesting that social relationships are the basis of social space, yet these relationships necessitate materiality, in the form of embodied space and language (p.34). The contexts depicted in the triangles are therefore conceptualised in physical and social terms viz: location, people, culture and interactions. The upside down shape of each triangle does present a non-hierarchical, and balanced weighting of the influences on workplace learning. Also, the contents of each upside down triangle (relationship, and work factors) can be viewed as flowing downward, hence the positioning of the individual worker at the lowest apex as the target of these influences.

In summary, a conceptualisation of each triangle as a funnel or a chalice can help to focus attention on the multiplicity of factors, and the intersections of the factors that affect individual workers learning in a particular context. The next section is a consideration of what this might look like when the learners are teachers.

3.4.2 Teacher learning at work

Eraut et al.’s (2004) discovery of the triangular relationship between challenge, support and confidence emphasises the contextual significance of confidence for particular people at particular points in their career. For ECLs, they argued that confidence relates more to relationships than to the work itself – whether novice learners’ significant working relationships were supportive, critical, faction-ridden or overtly hostile. Eraut (2004) argues that employees need to be sufficiently confident to seek appropriate challenge, support and feedback. Confidence in this regard relates to learners belief in their capacity to successfully complete challenging work in the expectation that feedback helps them to reflect and improve. Novice learners belief in the superiority of helpful other’s knowledge is an important consideration especially if new teachers are assigned mentors. Relationships new teachers have with mentors have been found to shape their experiences and, ultimately, their learning in the first
year (Ashby et al., 2008). In the typology of modes of teacher learning presented in Table 3, a significant number (being mentored/coached; feedback; shadowing; observing) are dependent on interactions with other people. In the first instance, it may not be possible to question the quality of mentors support and secondly, learning opportunities are not automatically provided to everybody in workplaces and thirdly, new teachers may still need the help of experienced staff for successful utilisation of training opportunities. Eraut et al. (2004) listed personal agency along with confidence and commitment at the bottom apex of the learning triangle, but not much is said about this, neither is any definition provided. It is possible that confidence and commitment make learners able to exercise agency; confidence, commitment and personal agency can also act independently such that the inability to exercise agentic influence may reduce novice learners confidence to ask for help, their commitment to the work and ultimately their relationship.

Eraut et al. (2004) described the importance of the allocation and structuring of work, which determines the difficulty or challenge of the work, its individual or collaborative nature, plus the opportunities provided for participation with others with more or different expertise, and for forming relationships for feedback and support. Effectively the work has to be sufficiently challenging without being too hard and intimidating. This study seeks to understand how new teachers transition from ITE to the classroom, progress in this regard would be seen as involving the right level of challenge to instil confidence, and the support to try more challenging work. This translates to challenge that does not diminish teachers confidence in their ability but can cause change in teachers’ knowledge. Conversely, if the environment is not challenging enough, new teachers don’t learn.

Team teaching and leading during team teaching are typical challenging work new teachers could encounter. Frequent opportunities to observe and work closely with more experienced teachers can aid new teachers learning. Support from peers and mentors as they try new tasks,
feedback about current knowledge and performance, help new teachers to develop. This can increase their confidence to take on more challenging work. Confidence, Eraut et al. (2004) said is the most important singular factor that affects professional learning.

Their workload needed to be at a level that allowed them to respond to new challenges reflectively, rather than develop coping mechanisms that might later prove ineffective. (Eraut et al., 2004, p.3)

In allocating and structuring work for ECLs, key factors for a change in knowledge include:

- Effective challenge
- Proximity to and relationships with other professionals with usable experience
- Quality feedback and support

It is instructive to list these factors but Philpott (2014) advocates that an established culture of collaborative working, mutual support and professional learning amongst all staff must prevail in order for new teachers to learn. In the context of teaching which is accepted to be a solitary profession, dedicated efforts must be in place to encourage and sustain this culture of collaboration.

Eraut et al. (2004) described a combination of factors which determine how decisions on work allocations are made. These factors are outlined in Figure 2.
Philpott (2014) opined that appropriate level of challenge can be provided by the ways that progress in the work required of novices is structured. This kind of structure cannot be assumed to be available in all contexts and where available the effectiveness will vary and affect learners professional learning in different ways. For example, when induction is implemented and structured, work allocated to a new teacher is determined by the induction tutor in conversation with the new teacher, and is based on identified development goals and targets. The absence of induction and mentoring was discussed in section 2.4, given the low income, resource constrained context of public schooling in Lagos State, careful organisation of tasks allocated to new teachers, experience of feedback and support from experienced colleagues may: be difficult to achieve, not achieved completely or consistently. The exercise of school principal's discretion to alter a new teacher’s workload and provide the right level of challenge would depend on availability of staff in the school/department, the urgency and needs of children being taught. Considerations of the learning needs of the teacher may be secondary.
Eraut et al. (2004) coined the term ‘helpful others’ in describing the formal and informal roles of other professionals who provide support of varying quality and quantity. Eraut et al. (2004) concluded that support was more difficult for novice nurses to find because those able to provide it were busy attending to the needs of their own patients. This resonates with the likely experiences of new teachers, who are alone within the confines of their classrooms and may not be in close proximity to helpful others. Findlay (2006) reported the isolation experienced by new teachers within schools and sometimes within their subject departments. This isolated nature of teachers’ work has contributed to literature on how new teachers could be better supported (Ashby et al., 2008; Rogers and Babinski, 2002). The notion of real-time support as a limited prospect is integral to this study’s understanding of new teachers’ learning during their EPD.

Eraut et al. (2004) also highlighted challenges related to the process of ‘fast-tracking’ professionals on a wrongly held belief either that they possessed required skills or could learn them quickly, albeit often with the help of a mentor:

Some ward managers understood that the best way to improve their skill mix and the quality of their collective care was for novices and E grade nurses to develop their capabilities as rapidly as possible.

(p.42)

Again, this resonates with new teachers, who require ample support to establish themselves and cope with the realities of school and teaching. Eraut (2007) argues that a large share of workplace learning happens because individual are proactively seeking out learning opportunities by asking questions, getting information, locating resources. The expectation here is that new teachers seek help but it is important to consider here the power imbalance which can make it difficult for new teachers to negotiate agency. Also, learning opportunities where available may not be equitably accessible to all. MacBeath (2013) said:

Teachers learn most from other teachers. This is because they can identify with others who share the realities of classroom life and who do not embody any authority threat (p.9)
The reality of school, in addition to balancing the demands of teacher training, has been described as a reality shock by commentators (Chong, Low and Goh, 2011; Smagorinsky, 2004; Stanulis and Thornton, 2000; Totterdell et al. (2002), cited in Ashby et al., 2005;). Emphasis on the difficulties they encounter serves both to highlight the ‘reality shock’ of entering teaching and to prompt calls for more psychological support and specific workshops on those aspects for which they appear least well-prepared. (Hagger et al., 2011, p.388)

The recognition of new teachers’ psychological needs is of relevance to this research. It is hoped that it will generate usable information about the nature of social and emotional support available to teachers in this context, and whether psychological needs are recognised as an area of support.

Eraut et al. (2004) reported that nurses received varying amounts of short-term but little medium-term feedback. They highlighted the distinction between quick feedback on performance or carrying out tasks quickly, and deliberate feedback on general progress. Short-term feedback is best given by people present at the time, and is considered crucial for the development of confidence and learning (Eraut et al., 2004). An environment of challenging work will enhance new teachers learning if feedback is constructive and regular. Inadequate feedback can cause new teachers to worry about their effectiveness and if their performance meets the schools expectations. Figure 3 summarises the factors that shape novice learners’ feedback and support.
Using the factors presented by Eraut et al.’s (2004) study, the following considerations are deemed crucial for learners to progress:

- Learners must be exposed to new work that challenge them.
- Learners respond reflectively to new work and the challenge of new work increases their confidence.
- When work becomes too daunting, learners develop coping strategies.
- Daunting work makes challenge ineffective.
- Ineffective challenge reduces learners confidence.

Following on from this study’s interpretation as a funnel, Figure 4 below is a conceptualisation of Eraut et al.’s (2004) two-triangle model, adapted for new teachers’ learning at work. It shows the context factors placed at the top indicating the overarching contextual influence which has a downward effect on individual teachers experience of the learning factors within a particular workplace. The individual teachers and their workplaces are influenced individually,
organisationally and professionally. This emphasizes possible micro and macro influences on N-TTGTs lived experiences.

**Figure 4.** A conceptualisation of Eraut’s (2004) Two-Triangle Model for Teachers.

Given the notions and constructs that this review has shown are relevant to teachers’ EPD, a usable deduction is the overwhelming dependence of teacher learning on confidence. The relationships teachers form will have a bearing on the support and feedback they get, and this can ultimately help them to respond reflectively to challenge – which underpins the progress
they make. Figure 5 shows a conceptualisation of the relationship between new teachers’ work allocation and confidence showing the interconnectedness of the different factors. Confidence grows as a result of reflective response to new work. Challenge presented by new work remains effective and builds confidence while positive relationships provide support and feedback. Challenge becomes ineffective when support and feedback is lacking; new teachers’ confidence decreases. At this point, new teachers develop coping strategies towards work which they now find daunting.

![Figure 5. A conceptualisation of the relationship between new teachers’ work allocation and confidence.](image)

It will be insightful to see what this research reveals about these factors in the context of schooling in Lagos State and to examine whether the relationship between challenge and
confidence follows the pattern shown in Figure 5. Literature shows limited research to date using Eraut et al.’s (2004) framework to explore the EPD of new teachers. Furthermore, there is scope for using Eraut’s framework to understand mid-career learning in teaching and to compare the lived experiences of new and experienced teachers in a particular context. Because of the diverse routes of entry into teaching, it is possible that Eraut’s framework could be used to compare the effectiveness of teacher learning through undergraduate, postgraduate and employment-based routes.

Different constructs and pertinent notions have been highlighted as relevant for exploring new teachers’ EPD. Figure 6 is a representation of the various layers of this research.

![Figure 6. A conceptual model for exploring new teachers’ EPD.](image)

The outer layer represents the wider social, cultural, political and economic situation prevailing in the context of teacher education and development that impacts new teachers’ EPD. The second layer represents the importance of the immediate professional knowledge context and shows PLCs, relationships and knowledge transformation processes crucial for teacher learning. In the inner layer, the classroom level of new teacher EPD is represented, using Eraut et al.’s (2004) factors that influence learning. Here, new teacher learning at work is theorised. The interactions across and within the different levels are evident in the linkages between these
constructs; relationships draw on individual factors in the classroom level, and confidence draws on PLC participation and socialisations within the wider context of teaching. Figure 6 therefore brings together previously-discussed constructs: relationships, confidence and the social nature of teaching. Rather than being considered separate entities, these constructs synergise.
Chapter Four: Methodology and Research Design

4.1 Introduction
The idea that all research is based on underlying philosophical assumptions about research validity and appropriate methods cannot be overstated. This chapter presents these assumptions and the design strategy that guided my study. The design of this study is interpretive phenomenology, using interviews as data collection methods to gather respondents’ views about new teacher EPD, key features are then analysed thematically.

4.2 Theoretical and methodological framework

Methodology
Methodology can be viewed as the process by which a research problem is approached through gaining understanding of the topic of research, the methods used to collect information, and the theoretical framework underpinning the research. As an overarching way of thinking about and studying social reality, it is concerned with the assembly (Strauss and Corby, 1998) and application of appropriate research tools (Newby, 2005), and is described by Agbaje and Alarape (2006) as the science or study of methods of research, with its own unique language and key words. Research methodology is therefore about the overall structure and processes employed in carrying out research, and the path taken to finding answers to research questions.

Research design is the total plan of a given study. Its function and application is often compared to that of a building plan in construction (Agbaje and Alarape, 2006; Hakim, 2000). Research design can be likened to a blueprint, through which the aims and objectives of the research will be met. Social research utilises different types of research designs, including case studies, field
studies, survey studies, action research, explanatory, descriptive, exploratory, experimental, longitudinal and comparative design (Cuthill, 2002; Robson, 2002).

This study is concerned with gaining an understanding of new teachers’ early career learning and development resulting from teacher preparation and in-school training. The new teachers studied in this research are non-teacher trained graduates (referred to as N-TTGTs). The research design involves an exploration of the research questions to gain insights about N-TTGTs’ EPD in Lagos State schools. When the research focus is on gaining insights into and familiarity with an idea, an exploratory design is used. As there have been limited studies about N-TTGTs’ EPD in Lagos State schools, the exploratory design was deemed suitable for obtaining basic details about the setting, and uncovering possible concerns of new teachers in this context. My interest in the support arrangement for N-TTGTs is what gave rise to this research; I was not interested in gathering numerical data on N-TTGTs’ experiences of EPD, interacting with new teachers was integral to my research questions. I decided that the authentic way to answer my research questions was through understanding respondents’ experiences from their perspectives. The fact that data generated were influenced by the personal knowledge and subjective perceptions of N-TTGTs and education leaders (ELs) meant that an interpretive paradigm was adopted – and this provided justification for using qualitative methods.

Paradigms
Research paradigms refer to belief systems or sets of common agreements shared between scientists about how problems should be understood and addressed (Kuhn, 1962). Paradigms are important because they provide the philosophical framework from which the methodology of a research study/project stems (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006). Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (2001) suggest that paradigms function at a higher level than methodology and present positivism, constructivism, interpretivism and pragmatism as major paradigms in social science (Descombe, 2002). Myers (2009) says understanding of methodology moves the strategy of
research enquiry from underlying philosophical assumptions to considerations of design and data collection. Methodology shapes and is shaped by research objectives, questions and study design (Carter and Little, 2007). As an umbrella framework, knowledge of paradigms helps a researcher articulate his or her methodology (systems and processes). In approaching this study, considerations about paradigms involved articulating my conviction about the knowledge I sought. Methodological considerations revolved around the strategy I would put in place to identify appropriate research tools and how these tools would be used to generate the knowledge I was seeking.

The premise of interpretive research is to access reality through social constructions in the form of language, consciousness and meaning (Myers, 2009). Interpretivists believe in a subjective reality underpinned by the idea that there is no single truth, and that knowledge is dependent on the meanings that people take from their subjective experience of the world. Table 3 below is an adaptation of Roth and Mehta’s (2002) ‘Summary Features of the Interpretative Paradigm’, as it is understood and applied in this study. I have categorised it into five features: the nature of reality (ontology), how reality is understood (epistemology), trustworthiness, methodology used, and researcher positioning.

Table 4
An Adaptation of Roth and Mehta’s (2002) Summary Features of the Interpretative Paradigm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ontology</td>
<td>There are multiple realities about a phenomenon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>These realities can be explored and constructed through interaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Understanding of how people interpret a phenomenon is sought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemology</td>
<td>Phenomena are understood by interpretation, which takes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cognisance of interaction with others.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge created is a product of social construction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data collection is interactive and personal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trustworthiness</th>
<th>Authenticity is by self-validation. Analyses can only be self-validating through the consistency and coherence of ‘thick description’.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Data generated is influenced by interpretation of experience. Data collection is through interviews, conversations and interactions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher positioning</td>
<td>The researcher is an active participant in interview situations. He/She makes meaning of opinions and views expressed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The interpretative approach adopted is phenomenology favouring a Heideggerian approach. Phenomenology describes the lived experience of a phenomenon (EPD) for a people (N-TTGTs). The interpretative approach is sometimes presented in literature as a collection of different paradigms (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In this regard, the qualitative, subjective and humanistic nature of phenomenology can be viewed in direct antithesis to the quantitative, objectivist and scientific nature of positivism. Boland (1985) presents phenomenology and hermeneutics as the philosophical roots of interpretive paradigm. Heideggerian phenomenology places emphasis on the analysis and explanation of what is happening in the phenomenon examined (Sloan and Bowe, 2014), and the interpretation of a person’s ‘meaning-making’ from that phenomenon is central (Smith, Flowers and Larkin, 2009). In Lindsay’s (2006) opinion, the emphasis on meaning-making makes ontology a fundamental concern of phenomenology. These design considerations drew immediate attention to my epistemological stance, early inclinations of which I found aligned with Smith, Flowers and Larkin’s (2009) definition of phenomenology:

> A philosophical approach to the study of experience . . . shares a particular interest in thinking about what the experience of being human is †like, in all of its various aspects, but especially in terms of the things that matter to us, and which constitute our lived world. (p. 11)
Ontology is concerned with the nature of what exists and what constitutes reality. Ontology seeks understanding of ‘what is’, while epistemology is concerned with what it means to know. My ontological position is that views, interpretations and understandings of individuals are valuable and relevant knowledge for this study. Epistemologically, phenomenology is underpinned by personal knowledge and a subjectivity that lays strong emphasis on personal perspectives and interpretation. This aligns with my epistemological position that a valid way to generate knowledge is by interacting with individuals (N-TTGTs).

Ordinarily, the idea that two people will have different experiences of the same situation limits the usefulness of experience in generating knowledge. However, the world of educational research is different from the world of natural science research (Bryman, 2008; Coleman and Briggs, 2002). Indeed, Bryman (2008) believes all educational research should be grounded in people’s experiences. My view is that a phenomenological study makes it possible to explore respondents’ views about N-TTGTs’ EPD, which are likely to have common and divergent themes that will provide answers to my research questions.

4.3 Methods
Research methods are commonly categorised as qualitative or quantitative. In one sense, these categories are used to refer to distinctions between the nature of knowledge and how the world is understood; in another sense, they refer to the way research data are collected, analysed and used. This study used in-depth interviews, which are widely used in qualitative research.

The case can be made that the use of qualitative methods is predicated upon social constructionism (Darlaston-Jones, 2007), which locates the person as not only the perceiver of his or her world, but also a conceiver or constructor of the same (Ashworth, 2003). In this understanding of knowledge, it is clear that N-TTGTs may conceive and construct meaning in
different ways, even in relation to the same experiences of teacher education and in-school support. Interviews are a rich source of data for two interconnected reasons: the idea that knowledge is often generated between humans through conversation (Kvale, 1996), and the philosophical idea that qualitative studies view the individual as non-existent without his/her world (Ary et al., 2014). Interviews allowed me to gain usable knowledge that strengthened the study’s capacity to produce original information.

Kumar (2005) describes the theoretical roots of in-depth, unstructured interviews as an interpretive tradition which is concerned with how people think and construct meaning (Downing and Brown, 2010). May (2001) stated that interviews offer insights into people’s experiences, opinions, aspirations, attitudes and feelings. In this research, interviews provided an interactive platform for learning about N-TTGTs’ perceptions and interpretations. The why and how questions that underpin qualitative studies allowed N-TTGTs to discuss freely the shifts in their learning and development as they navigated the transition from teacher preparation to being teachers. Furthermore, the interviewing process involved discussion and interaction with N-TTGTs in their own settings. They appeared comfortable in discussing their roles as teachers.

The opinions of ELs were also sought because it was felt that N-TTGTs’ views about professional development might be limited to their current context and that they could lack the awareness and experience to make comparisons with other contexts. In addition, N-TTGTs’ recent employment success in an environment of high graduate unemployment might cast a shadow on their willingness to criticise their employers. Another consideration was the fact that this was the first time these teachers were talking about their experiences formally to a professional colleague with international experience; there was a possibility that they might provide answers they felt were appropriate rather than those which were a true reflection of their perceptions. Interviewing ELs therefore served the purpose of collecting data from an additional source to reflect differences and similarities in opinions held about N-TTGTs’ EPD.
This contributed to the overall picture and added a measure of depth and breadth to N-TTGTs accounts of their EPD. Arksey and Knight (1999) describe this as approach as a completeness function of triangulation. Although not overtly triangulating data, interview data from N-TTGTs and ELs enhanced the trustworthiness of the research.

Airing the views of ELs raises two concerns worth highlighting here. Firstly, it presents the danger of inconsistencies in my ontological, epistemological and methodological stances. To counter this, the analysis, interpretation and reporting of the study data will stem primarily from what N-TTGTs said, and ELs’ voices will be discussed to shed more light on the issues they considered important and relevant when talking about their EPD. Secondly, the additional time required to transcribe and analyse data from a phenomenological study that ordinarily generates large quantities of interview notes, tape recordings and diary notes cannot be ignored. Acknowledging the problem presented by large volumes of data, Lester (1999) suggested a possible ease of looking across themes between participants when working with physical documents arising from small-scale phenomenological studies. Interview transcripts and texts were read several times for comprehension and to identify data that could form codes. Data was then organised into themes.

Crotty (1988) describes theoretical perspectives, methodology, epistemology and methods as elements of social research that inform one another. Commentators allude to the benefits of having an epistemological perspective and making connections between philosophy and methodology: this clarifies the design process and the foundation upon which design choices are predicated (Darlaston-Jones, 2007; Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Early conviction about my philosophical stance helped me to apply Crotty’s (1998) elements to my design. Clarifying my ontological and epistemological position helped me understand the relationship between the underlying beliefs about the knowledge I wanted to generate and my methodological alignment. This, in turn, made considerations about the kind of evidence I sought to gather (opinions and interpretations about N-TTGTs’ EPD) and how I gathered it (interviews) easier.
Carter and Little (2007) posit that a research piece should show consistency in the way the knowledge is produced, justify its knowledge production methods, and make visible its research actions. Figure 7 below is a conceptual framework of this study’s adaptation of Carter and Little’s (2007) representation of the relationship between epistemology, methodology and method. In presenting paradigms as the overarching theoretical framework that informs the way epistemology guides and adds value to methodological choices, Figure 7 shows how my philosophical position and thoughts evolved during the research design process.

*Figure 7. The relationship between paradigm, epistemology, methodology and method, adapted from Carter and Little (2007, p.1317).*
4.4 Ethical considerations

In approaching my research, I considered the University College London (UCL) guidelines on conducting empirical research, the subjects of my investigation and methodological rigour. These included issues of consent, data handling, confidentiality, researcher positioning, credibility, dependability and objectivity. Ethics is a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others (Cavan, 1977), and consideration of ethical issues must be embedded in the whole process of research and reflected in the moral stance taken by the researcher (Newby, 2010). All measures and methods went through the IOE ethics procedures, and ethical approval was received. I was also conscious of the need to consider the implications of my study for my respondents. Slamanca (2012) argued that social researchers must accord due cognisance to the likely effects of research on participants and there is a responsibility on researchers to act in ways that preserve their dignity as human beings. In this study, all respondents’ names have been changed. My standpoint was from the position of a duty of care to my respondents.

Consent

I adhered strictly to the ethical guidelines of the British Educational Research Association (BERA). BERA (2011) emphasises the importance of gaining participants’ voluntary and informed consent. Bryman (2008) presented the case for respondents to understand what they are being asked to do and why they have been chosen in order for them to make an informed decision. To this end, participants were given a detailed summary of the study, what it entails, its intended outcomes, and an assurance of confidentiality (Appendix C). This information was included in the research literature sent to the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB\(^{12}\)) and education districts, and was also shared with school principals. The language and tone were simple and clear to avoid ambiguity. Before commencing interviews, I outlined respondents’

\(^{12}\) SUBEB is responsible for the administration and management of free and compulsory education for school-age children.
roles and informed them of their right to withdraw from the research at any time. After this, the consent forms were signed (Appendix D).

Another important ethical consideration is the way interview findings are used in the exploration of interviewees’ experiences. Pring (2000) lays emphasis on respect for the dignity and privacy of research subjects. My research literature stated that the data would be used solely for the purpose of my research, and this was also reiterated to each respondent before interview commenced.

**Data handling and confidentiality**

Cavan (1977) said ‘the search for truth is good but human dignity is better’ (p.810). The value of research lies in its capacity to present truth, but research ethics place human dignity above the search for truth. I was conscious of the need to balance my search for truth with the need to ensure the dignity of respondents.

An important consideration in interviewing N-TTGTs at the start of their careers in an environment of high graduate unemployment is the issue of privacy and confidentiality. The research instruments did not ask any questions about the names of N-TTGTs’ schools, and participants were assured that this information would not be identified in the study. Most interviews took place in schools for respondents’ convenience, and the implication of this on anonymity was considered (the respondent-driven nature of the study meant that a teacher would know another teacher if they were working in the same school). Nonetheless, N-TTGTs and ELs were assured that the opinions expressed were confidential. There was no requirement to share interview details with other respondents, and care was taken that this did not happen during interviews.
Storage of data relating to the study complied with the Data Protection Act 1998 (UK). Documents, tapes, files and letters relating to the study were secured in a locked filing cabinet in my home, to which no one else had access. Each respondent and type was assigned a pseudonym prior to the start of data collection. This pseudonym was used in coding hard and soft versions of the study data.

**Researcher positioning**

My background and experiences make me familiar with the profession as a user and provider. My education in Nigeria and the UK means my experiences have been shaped by the cultures and values that underpin education in these two countries. I can relate to the challenges new teachers face when transitioning from trainee to teacher, I am acutely aware of how support (or lack of support) can determine the success or failure of a new teacher, and I advocate for teacher CPD both for delivering educational improvements in schools and as a necessity for teacher effectiveness. Considering the similarities of my education, postgraduate teacher training and classroom teaching experience with those of N-TTGTs in this study, I would describe myself as an insider, professionally.

Insights from this position might shape my understanding and interpretation of N-TTGTs’ experiences. This presents the dilemma of researcher bias in the inclination towards having nuanced expectations about N-TTGT support. That said, these inclinations explain, in part, why I pursued a doctoral study; it is therefore inevitable that I would approach the research with some assumptions – personal and professional. Possession of a PGDE and practice experience conferred the advantage of shared understanding of the importance of teacher preparation and postgraduate professional training. Sikes and Potts (2008) suggest that:

> insider researchers readily know the language of those being studied along with its particular jargon and meanings, are more likely to empathise with those they study because of in-depth understanding of them.
... are often more willing to discuss private knowledge with those who are personally part of their world, are often more likely to understand the events under investigation. (p. 177)

Shared understanding provided a robustness that did not undermine the reliability of the research but, as my teacher training and classroom teaching experience were in a different education context with its own culture and value system, there was constant need to clarify context-specific issues about schooling, teacher preparation and learning – in particular, use of context-related jargon. These necessary clarifications and the contextual difference between my experiences and those of N-TTGTs illuminated my distance from the research. This outsider role placed the onus on me to constantly clarify what respondents were saying to avoid ambiguity.

Nonetheless, the danger was real that my insider knowledge could cause loss of objectivity and result in me making wrong assumptions about the research process (Unluer, 2012). In declaring and acknowledging my preconceptions above, my insider knowledge was kept at bay by maintaining an open mind throughout the research. Constant scrutiny of how my classroom teaching experience and views might be interacting with respondents’ narratives helped me maintain distance. This added a measure of impartiality to the research.

**Trustworthiness**

Lincoln and Guba (1985) posit that a study’s procedures and findings must have overall trustworthiness in order to gain the confidence of the research community. Credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability are constructed and used in parallel to the quantitative criteria of internal and external validity, reliability and neutrality (Morrow, 2005). Cogniscance was taken of Morrow’s (2005) position, and credibility, dependability and transferability are now discussed in relation to the methods employed in this study.

Issues of credibility and authenticity (Flick, 2002) were recognised as areas of concern in this study. Kumar (2005) describes the challenge of getting data from the right source (defined as
one that is authoritative and stable over time) and ensuring quality. The data for this study was obtained from the direct experiences of N-TTGTs and opinions held by ELs (two school principals and a ministry official). The study data is deemed authoritative because N-TTGTs’ knowledge of their EPD is authentic. The accounts of ELs relating to N-TTGTs’ EPD is deemed authoritative, in that their position and experience bestows upon them knowledge of N-TTGTs’ experiences that other stakeholders would not have. N-TTGTs and ELs accounts can be considered the ‘right sources’ and they are believable thereby adding to the credibility and authenticity of the study.

In discussing the problems associated with reliability in qualitative work, Silverman (2001) cautions that researchers must record events as accurately as possible whilst avoiding more general reconstructions. In this study, interviews were recorded and a professional transcriber was employed to transcribe recordings immediately afterwards. Member checking (McLeod, 2001), wherein transcribed interviews are shared with respondents, was used to check for accuracy. Field notes taken during interviews, as well as verbatim responses from participants, were used to confirm the authenticity of the data collected. As evident in Chapter Five, extracts of interview data formed the basis of the analysis. Incorporating ELs views in a phenomenological study acted to check consistency of research results with the data collected. ELs knowledge and accounts about N-TTGTs EPD provided broader insights which contributed to an overall picture of the influences on N-TTGTs EPD. These strategies maximised the richness and accuracy of the data, and thus, increasing dependability.

Although my sample was chosen to be sufficiently representative of the population that something can be said about N-TTGTs at a point in time, I did not set out to make broad generalisations about all new teachers. Thick, rich description of the research context, methods, study data and interpretation was provided, this Searle (1999) advocates provides the reader with sufficient information to make a judgement about the applicability of the study’s
findings to other settings. The idiographic in-depth examination of N-TTGTs experiences served to enrich contextual understanding of N-TTGTs EPD, which heightened the probability that readers could make links between the research findings, their personal and professional experiences, and claims in extant literature. Bold (2012) contends that sample selection is based on context-specific criteria in small-scale qualitative research. Factors that shaped the selection of participants were influenced by the sensitivity of the issues relating to N-TTGTs’ account of their EPD in schools of their current employment vis-à-vis the balance of perceptions of potential harm against the benefits of research outcomes.

4.5 Sampling

Discussions on sampling in qualitative research revolve around the notion of purposive sampling (Bryman, 2008). Respondent-driven sampling (RDS), a type of purposive sampling, was used to select the participants for this study through snowballing techniques. RDS presented the advantage that participants were referred for the study within a short time. Snowballing involves the sampling of a small group who then propose other participants with relevant experience or characteristics (Bryman, 2008). Snowballing takes advantage of the social networks of identified respondents on the assumption that a ‘bond’ or ‘link’ exists between the initial sample and others in the same target population (Berg, 1988; Spreen, 1992). This link is considered an advantage; it simultaneously capitalises on and reveals the connectedness of individuals in networks (Bryman, 2008). While snowballing may generate a homogenous sample that may be considered unrepresentative, in this study, the proportion of N-TTGTs in the sample who had no more than three years’ experience and had undertaken a PGDE is believed to be larger than the proportion of the same in the overall population of N-TTGTs and new teachers. It is important to note here that, as a non-probabilistic purposive sampling technique, the aim of snowballing is not to generalise the population of new teachers in Nigeria but to strategically select individuals for whom the research questions are pertinent.
4.5.1 Sample selection

In any research, the target population is influenced by the research questions and resources available (Robson, 2002). The target population for this study is graduate teachers working in Lagos State schools who fit the study criteria. Eighteen respondents, made up of fifteen N-TTGTs, two school principals and one Ministry of Education official (MOE), were included in the overall sample.

The study set out to explore the experiences of N-TTGTs with no more than three years’ experience, who obtained their teaching qualifications through the PGDE route. To ensure the recruitment of appropriate N-TTGTs for whom the research questions were significant, a letter was written to the PGDE programme coordinator at UNILAG, who became the research gatekeeper. As UNILAG’s PGDE programme is generic for new and experienced professionals of different disciplines, identifying participants who fit the research criteria was not straightforward as there was no natural sampling frame which would identify them. The gatekeeper used informal techniques to find one prospective participant; further participants were then identified through snowballing.

Contacts made through two initial participants resulted in four positive responses. One N-TTGT was reluctant to share contact details which made it impossible to arrange a convenient interview time. Overall, a total of fifteen N-TTGTs were recruited from one initial sample obtained from the gatekeeper.

I visited SUBEB officers to recruit ELs as interview respondents and to overcome difficulties in recruiting school principals (N-TTGTs were reluctant for their principals to be interviewed). Follow-up visits to SUBEB resulted in contact being established with a director in charge of school inspections and two principals, all of whom were happy to be interviewed. An important
criteria for the selection of principals was that they either had a new teacher that fit the research criteria working in their school at that time, or had supported the training and development of graduate teachers in their schools in the last three years.

Given the generalist nature of the PGDE offered by providers in Nigeria (Section 2.3.1), I wanted to represent the different possible phases and subjects in which N-TTGTs work. Of the N-TTGTs, thirteen of them were aged between 30 and 38, two were 29 years old and one person was aged 43. Five were female and ten were male. Nine taught in JSS, four in SSS and three taught across both phases. Although reflecting the presence of gender imbalance reported in most countries (Jensen et al., 2012; OECD, 2009) this is in contrast to stereotyped patterns of greater proportion of female teachers (in relation to male teachers) in the south in both the private and public sectors at JSS level in Nigeria (Humphreys and Crawfur, 2015), and indeed Jensen et al.’s (2012) sample of predominantly (69%) female teachers in the TALIS 2008 survey of new lower-secondary teachers. Subjects taught include ICT (5), Maths (3), English (3), Science (3) and Music (1). One N-TTGT taught Maths in addition to ICT. Three N-TTGTs teaching different subjects worked in a particular school; while in another school two N-TTGTs taught English, and Maths. Another two N-TTGTs taught different subjects in the same JSS; while another two N-TTGTs taught different subjects in different schools on the same premises. In all, the N-TTGTs taught across 10 different schools and five of the N-TTGTs taught in schools on their own. Of the ELs (two females and one male), two headed junior secondary schools while one headed a senior secondary school and all taught English as classroom teachers. Table 5 below shows the profile of research interviewees:
4.5.2 Data collection

The research focused on two education districts in the urban area of Lagos State. Details of these districts were obtained from the link teacher who worked in a school in one of the districts. I sent letters of introduction about the research and research literature to SUBEB ahead of teacher interviews to raise awareness about the research, generate support and obtain necessary authorisation prior to visiting schools in the district. More importantly, this ensured proper procedures were followed regarding research conducted in government schools.

Table 5

Profile of Interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent Name</th>
<th>Respondent Type</th>
<th>Gender (M/F)</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Phase and Subject</th>
<th>Year Employed / Years of Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dare</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>JSS - Computer Studies</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deji</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>SSS - English</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dele</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>JSS / SSS - Computer Studies</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demola</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>SSS - Maths</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dotun</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>JSS - Maths</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fadeke</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>JSS - Computer Studies</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fola</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>JSS - Maths</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>JSS - English</td>
<td>17 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvwon</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>JSS/SSS - Computer Studies Maths</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lara</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>JSS - English</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martha</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>JSS - English</td>
<td>15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>EL</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>SUBEB - English</td>
<td>21 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sade</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>SSS - Chemistry</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saun</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>JSS/SSS - Music</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayi</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>SSS - English</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sola</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>JSS - English</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tinu</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>JSS - Computer Studies</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yinka</td>
<td>N-TTGT</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>JSS/SSS - Chemistry</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interviews

Interviews were held during work hours in schools and ELs’ workplaces, but stakeholder support was obtained prior to this so that respondents felt confident they were authorised to take part in the research. It is probable that interviewees would have felt more comfortable outside of work, but considerations about the time and place most convenient for participants took priority. N-TTGTs and ELs alike preferred to be interviewed during work hours. They felt at ease sharing the fact that childcare, transport and family commitments placed a huge limit on their availability outside work hours. Being interviewed at work did not seem to affect respondents’ candour, as teachers were interviewed during free periods or before school hours, away from classrooms or in meeting rooms to reduce distractions and interruptions. ELs had their own private offices, free from distractions. On arrival in respondents’ workplaces, letters of introduction from UCL, research information sheets and consent forms were distributed. Participants confirmed their perusal and understanding of these documents and signed consent forms before interviews commenced.

The interview schedule was piloted in advance. Pre-testing is crucial in order to ascertain the clarity and successful wording of interview questions (Cohen, Manion and Morrisson, 2011), and to increase their reliability, validity and practicability (Cohen, Manion and Morrisson, 2011; Oppenheim, 1992). Piloting also helped ensure that the research instruments operated and functioned well (Bryman, 2008). Piloting confirmed that the interview schedule contained adequate open-ended questions and made me aware of the range of views that could be expressed. It validated its reliability to provide answers to the research questions.

The final interview questions were organised into three broad sections comprising the theoretical perspectives grounding the study: teacher training, professional development and
the sociocultural context of schools. The interview schedule used for N-TTGTs was different from that used for ELs (see Appendices B and C).

Participants were asked open-ended questions, followed by prompting and probing questions as needed, to explore particular issues or seek elucidation. The interviews lasted between 45 and 90 minutes, and were recorded on an electronic digital recorder. Notes were taken to aid memory and record salient points. Recordings were transcribed afterwards; each transcription took at least 6 hours and generated between fifteen to twenty pages of text.

Interviews began with biographical questions including age bracket, state of origin, education and years of teaching experience, followed by questions about teacher training, qualifications and experience. These constituted facts likely to have a bearing on why respondents were working as teachers, and may have shaped their experiences – information that could become valuable during analysis if a hypothesis evolved from the themes identified.

The first phase of data gathering consisted of interviews conducted in February 2014 with twelve teachers and one school principal. The second phase was in June 2016, at which time three teachers were interviewed, as well as one director at the Ministry of Education. Data gathering was phased in this way due to availability of participants and time constraints. The two phases provided rich and usable data.

### 4.6 Data analysis

Researchers suggest that no single approach to qualitative data analysis covers all situations, and it tends to be regarded as iterative, inductive and researcher-centred. This position is held by Punch (2009), while Bold (2012) contends that the researcher usually has a particular position, which is carried into the research. Clandinin and Connely (2000) posit that interpretation is an essential process in narrative research. A recurring theme in literature is the
idea that whatever approach is used must be fit for purpose (Bold, 2012; Creswell, 1994; Descombe, 2010). Thematic analysis was used because it allowed for a systematic organisation of data by identifying themes, then coding, classifying and interpreting the themes obtained. Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) describe thematic analysis as a form of pattern recognition within the data, where emerging themes become the categories for analysis.

The overarching framework used for analysis draws on Miles and Huberman (1994), who suggest that qualitative data analysis consists of three concurrent procedures: data reduction, data display and drawing conclusion / verification. Data reduction involves the reduction and organisation of qualitative data through coding, writing summaries and discarding redundant data. In this study, data reduction happened continuously from the start of data collection up to the point of writing the study’s conclusion. I wrote down interview summaries to enable me to tease out important themes. For ease of recollection and to connect important themes as necessary, I also kept a diary of events and issues that came up during the stages of data collection. Interview recordings were transcribed and read immediately afterwards to identify and organise relevant data systematically. Redundant data was not discarded but kept for potential later use.

In order to draw meaningful conclusions from large volumes of qualitative data, Miles and Huberman (1994) advise the use of tables, charts, graphs and other graphical formats to display data. I used tables and figures, not just to summarise data and concisely present information, but to facilitate data reduction. For example, during data reduction, data sets were presented in tables along with the table of superordinate themes. A template was also used to populate N-TTGTs’ ranked responses about aspects of their teacher preparation. This aided the extrapolation of useful information as data collection and processing progressed. Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that data reduction and data display should enable analysts to begin to develop conclusions which can then be verified through reference to existing field notes or
further data collection. Data reduction and display were integral to every aspect of the analysis leading up to the writing of the conclusion. Literature was constantly referenced, as well as interview and post-interview notes, diary entries and other documents to ensure conclusions were in line with the research aim and objectives.

In addition to Miles and Huberman’s (1994) overarching framework, Braun and Clarke’s (2006) step-by-step approach was used to depict what was happening to data during each phase of the procedure. This approach involved six stages: familiarising myself with codes, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing and refining themes, defining and naming themes and, finally, producing the report. The tables used in the analysis process are presented in appendix G while section 4.6.1 below presents further discussion of data analysis – the process of code generation and transition into theme development and naming.

4.6.1 Data description, organisation and coding

I read and re-read the transcripts, annotating interesting and significant points to aid familiarisation with the data. Initial codes were generated before an analytical or theoretical ordering step to search for themes. The data sources are referred to as the Non-Teacher Trained Graduate Teacher Data Set (N-TTGTDS) and the Education Leader Data Set (ELDS), containing extracts from N-TTGTs’ interviews and extracts of views expressed by ELs, respectively. Tables 5 and 6 (see appendix G) show the initial codes from N-TTGTDS and ELDS, with an explanation of what each code represents.

In this study, data reduction was a process of familiarisation with codes, generation of initial codes and searching for themes. Data grouping was underpinned by constant reflection about what key issues were unfolding as I read and organised the data, whether these issues answered my research questions, and how best to summarise them to reduce volume and extrapolate key findings. Understandably, codes generated from each data set overlapped
because the questions asked were grouped by the theoretical framework foregrounding the study. The coherence and divergence in N-TTGTs’ and ELs’ accounts became apparent through this procedure. Careful attention teased out statements that linked succinctly to the research questions, and appropriate labels were assigned with this in mind.

Data display began with the review and refinement of themes generated. A diary was used to track my thoughts from day to day and record factors that informed my rationale for adopting or dropping a particular theme and/or the descriptions that a particular theme assumed. A further reduction of the codes made the data more complicated and gave rise to more than thirty codes. Indeed, some of the themes naturally clustered together while some appeared as superordinate concepts (Smith and Osborn, 2003), as shown in Table 7 (appendix G).

The final stage of data display involved the definition, naming and tabulation of themes. This was done systematically to extrapolate the points most salient to the literature reviewed and the main ideas evolving from the data. The resulting Table of Final Data Set (TFD) (table 9 in appendix G) shows how the research questions map to the codes and corresponding themes. In the same way that data reduction involved data display in the form of tabulation, so too did the data display phase involve data reduction. In drawing conclusions and verifying, I attempted to recognise ways in which participants’ accounts were similar but also different.

Figure 8 below presents Miles and Huberman’s (1994) interactive model that was used in this study.
Using the research questions (Section 1.2), school readiness for teachers, teacher readiness for schools, impact, and motivational factors evolved as four broad themes. Though discrete, these themes are interrelated in terms of overlaps in the codes that they comprise. Narrowing down to four broad themes provided structure and coherence to the process of analysis.

4.7 Methodological limitations
In a study such as this, limitations must be acknowledged. This section addresses those related to the data collection and analysis process.

The first limitation relates to the scope and size of the sample compared to the overall sample of N-TTGTs in Lagos State. The point was made in Chapter Two that unqualified teachers are often found working in schools in this context and, on occasions that teachers undertake a PGDE, it is not necessarily for ITE. The sample is therefore not typical of new teachers newly recruited to work in schools in this context. The challenge of generalisations and representativeness of findings is implicated here. It is worth mentioning first that the
idiographic nature of this study means it is concerned with in-depth examination of a particular sample and, in such cases, sizes are usually small (Carpenter, 2009). It is also worth mentioning here that the large volume of data generated by an interpretive phenomenological study involves detailed analysis of individual transcripts and takes a long time (Smith, 2004). The study’s size and focus on postgraduate teacher preparation limits the potential for generalisations either about teacher preparation or about postgraduate professional training for educators working in non-school settings. It is hoped indeed that knowledge about factors that shape N-TTGTs’ EPD is transferable for use by readers in different contexts who might be responsible for new teacher orientation, or support and training at the Ministry of Education level, education district level or in schools.

Researcher bias has implications for this work. One area of bias involved the time and money spent to travel to Nigeria to make my research a reality. It was important to build rapport and establish relationships quickly with teachers, ministry officials and school staff. The danger was that newly formed acquaintances might compel respondents to want to tell me what they felt I wanted to hear. Furthermore, biases and deficiencies exist during any process of interpretation by human analysts (Robson, 2002). Care was taken to minimise such tendencies by eliminating any preconceived opinions and impressions about teaching and learning in Nigeria which could influence the interpretation of my data.

Another undeniable limitation is the prevailing contextual and cultural issues that affect access to data and availability of information. The accepted protocol for gaining official access and authorisation to interview participants and interact with ministry officials is by writing to the director at the Ministry of Education. Despite establishing contact with two Directors of Education who were willing to take part in the research, administrative bottlenecks and bureaucracies prevented me from interviewing them.
Accessibility of data was another major limitation. An education records management system with readily available information for public consumption is yet to be developed in Nigeria. It was impossible to obtain from SUBEB or the Ministry of Education basic information and reports pertaining to teacher education, the number of teachers produced in Nigeria and relevant information about teacher turnover, demand and supply, and workforce planning. In addition, school principals were unable to share official documents with me.

A further important limitation had to do with the overall context of schooling in Lagos State with regards to the climate of schools and the education system. In approaching the research, there was a real concern that realities of teachers' lived experiences of general deprivation and poor infrastructural conditions might cast a shadow on their capacity to be reflective about their practice as professionals and what seemed within their locus of control and influence. However, I found that teachers appeared at ease and seemed authentic in their accounts of their subjective experiences. They were not overtly critical of management; their angst seemed directed at the system itself. This also explained their ability to carry on without taking steps to challenge unacceptable practices or remedy unacceptable situations.
Chapter Five: Data Presentation and Interpretation

5.1 Introduction
This chapter provides an overview of the main findings of the study. Structured around the four themes arising from the process of analysis, it largely represents the opinions of N-TTGTs. Insights of an education leader and two principals are also represented to reflect differences and similarities that contribute to an overall picture of N-TTGTs’ EPD.

5.2 Defining and naming themes
The Table of Final Data Set (table 9) was discussed under Section 4.6.1. It shows the final eighteen codes representing responses mapped to the research questions they address. Eighteen codes were still considered too many; further data reduction was inevitable. What I found useful at this point was to use the headings from the interview schedule to organise the codes. Four broad headings were used to analyse the codes further: biography, teacher learning, professional development and sociocultural factors. I then organised the data into two groups: intrinsic and extrinsic influences. The aim of this was to identify patterns driven by individual interest and enjoyment (love of subject, choice of teaching as a career, attitude towards teaching, own schooling experience) and external factors based on outward benefit or external influence (relationships, support, challenges, enjoyment of school, training). This helped to focus my analysis to key themes relevant for answering the research questions and revealed further overlaps. What followed was a narrowing down of the final codes into potential themes which, after further analysis, became four broad themes (see Appendix H for concept maps that aided this process).
Table 10 (appendix G) summarises the process of data coding showing the stages of Miles and Huberman’s (1994) interactive model and a description of corresponding activities that took place within each stage of Braun and Clarke’s (2006) step-by-step approach. The final themes represent both stand-alone autonomous categorisations of aspects of data captured, and snapshots of discrete sets of codes. The themes were named to capture the essence of data contained as described below.

**School readiness for teachers**

Codes on school readiness for N-TTGTs concern different aspects of school environments that support teachers’ transition into their roles and their development from novices to proficient teachers. The codes indicate respondents’ views on what the conditions in schools are such that N-TTGTs are able to teach on arrival in schools. Facets of school readiness indicated by the codes include infrastructures and resources, perceived impact of staffing levels, in-school support, as well as relationships among teachers.

**Teacher readiness for school**

Teachers’ readiness for school embodies the skills and knowledge N-TTGTs possess that make them able to function as teachers. This centred on two key areas: self-readiness, (N-TTGTs’ perceptions of their adequacy to engage and educate children), and task readiness (N-TTGTs’ pedagogical knowledge for instruction).

**Impact**

It was apparent from respondents’ answers that N-TTGTs viewed their progress and effectiveness in terms of students learning outcomes. This theme was echoed in the passion with which N-TTGTs described their role and the strategies they used to influence students. For most N-TTGTs, these strategies were underpinned by nurturing and altruistic perceptions.
Motivational factors

Some N-TTGTs described expectations for them to carry out wider responsibilities for which they got no recognition or remuneration. These extra duties impacted N-TTGTs positively and negatively – for example, despite feeling inundated with work, extra duties enhanced N-TTGTs’ impact and self-readiness. Other codes within this theme indicated N-TTGTs’ struggles with heavy timetables, poor infrastructure, limited teaching resources, large numbers of students, proximity to schools and delayed salary payments. Motivational factors made the process of acculturation into schools anxious and unsettling for some N-TTGTs, who felt powerless in these matters.

5.3 Thematic analysis

The following sections focus on the four main themes identified: school readiness for teachers; teacher readiness for schools; impact, and motivational factors to focus analysis and discussions about N-TTGTs’ EPD. This thematic analysis focuses on the data and my interpretations. To this end, extracts typical of the views of majority of N-TTGTs were selected, and where necessary atypical views were selected to reflect differing perspectives which contributed to an overall picture of N-TTGTs EPD.

5.3.1 School readiness for teachers

The codes on school readiness for teachers describe aspects of school environments that support N-TTGTs’ transition to their roles as employees, taking into account their knowledge upon arrival and how the school environment supported their continued development. The codes that make up school readiness for teachers include induction, orientation, professional advice and integration. These codes can be viewed as reflecting the mind-set of individuals working in schools that N-TTGTs found themselves in.
For new teachers, in-school acculturation is pertinent because it may be their first introduction to teaching and working with children in schools. N-TTGTs in this study have full-time responsibilities as teachers and it can be assumed that school principals’ roles would influence their in-school acculturation. The ways in which a sense of culture is fostered in N-TTGTs’ EPD will now be analysed.

Most of them – the majority of them welcomed me very well, they gave me a warm reception (you understand) because for a long time they did not have a computer studies teacher. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

Thank God, at last, somebody is coming, a young person, seeing someone that is very young coming to teach maths and the principal really appreciates you coming. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

The idea that schools had anticipated the arrival of new staff is indicated in N-TTGTs accounts of ‘warm’, ‘friendly’, ‘happy’ reception especially those schools that had experienced staff shortages in particular subjects. An indication of a state of school readiness in Tinu and Dotun’s accounts is that there is least likelihood that there will be shortage of work for N-TTGTs to do especially with regards to teaching of Maths and Computer Studies. It is no surprise that schools were glad to welcome new staff.

The colleagues we met on ground, some of them were friendly, some of them want to see us. . . they (the staff) feel we are a threat them - how can they employ pure science and the salary scale we were paid was different from theirs. (Dele, N-TTGT)

Dele and Tinu qualified staff members’ friendliness with ‘some’ and ‘most’ respectively, indicating the possibility that some staff may not have been friendly towards N-TTGTs.

Like anyone starting a new job, teachers can feel apprehensive, and being accepted can help them overcome apprehensions. Access to help can significantly ease this burden, providing them with someone to confide in on a daily basis.

Meeting the principal, I was nervous. . . . Even my first day in the class to teach government to students I was nervous. (Tinu, N-TTGT)
One of the best support I got was from my former HOD here. . . with her help, I was able to be properly
guided in handling the students and teaching them. . . she really helped out. (Yinka, N-TTGT)

Yinka’s account implies that she obtained support from different people, with one standing out
as the ‘best’. Like Yinka, Tinu also received support from a senior colleague:

(I asked) how do I assess the students, how do I mark their notes. . . . He advised me, he talked me
through on how to do some things instructional material-wise, how to write lesson notes. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

This shows a relationship between colleagues that was conducive for seeking help. Tinu felt
able to own up to not knowing how to assess students’ work. N-TTGTs mentioned feeling
supported in other aspects of practice:

how to mark registers, how to do some calculations on the registers, the reports to make, why they have
things, why they sent out those things. . . when to set questions, how to set questions. (Dele, N-TTGT)

They teach the same subject, so they expect to take you and show you some things, how to teach, show
you the topics we are teaching, they will give you the scheme of work. (Sade, N-TTGT)

N-TTGTs’ accounts indicate schools’ recognition that new staff need support. The expectation
expressed by Sade that new teachers ‘take you’ implies a system of showing and telling.

(They) directed me to the VP, who taught me how to write lesson notes for maths and what it is meant to
be structured and everything. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

The first person who actually gave me encouragement was the principal. (Sola, N-TTGT)

HODs were the go-to persons who were axed to put us through. . . they were in charge. . . request for
instructional materials, teaching aids. . . . They help to break down topics. (Deji, N-TTGT)

N-TTGTs’ accounts show that principals and HODs play significant roles in helping new teachers
settle in. There are indications that, beyond welcoming new teachers to schools, principals and
other senior staff also provide hands-on support to them on arrival. In Deji’s school, the HODs
were the first point of contact and integral to how N-TTGTs were integrated into their
department and school. From the way Deji described being ‘put through’, requesting resources
and being shown how to break down his subject into teachable units, you get the sense that
new teacher support is a duty that HODs are assigned in this school. Deji’s HOD being tasked with the responsibility of putting N-TTGTs through indicates school readiness.

For the first year, we have to put them through, because they are new and they are introduced to their heads of department. . . if a new teacher has any challenges, she should always see the head of department first. (John, EL)

As the overall persons in charge, school principals play a crucial role in setting the tone of schools and they will be integral when considering school readiness for N-TTGTs. John’s account highlights the importance his school attaches to the support of new teachers especially at the department level. Charged with leadership and management of the department, HODs must ensure high standards of teaching and learning practice. They are therefore in closer proximity to respond to N-TTGTs needs and provide immediate day to day support that forms part of new teacher acculturation into schools in order to develop necessary skills for instruction. John’s assertion about HODs being N-TTGTs first line of support is instructive and indicative of a protocol existing for the support of new teachers. The existence of this protocol can be viewed as indicative of schools readiness for N-TTGTs.

They explained what we learned again. . . what we experienced in schools, the things we are expected to see, the purpose of these rules, what they are not meant to do, things they are meant to do, what is expected of you. (Dele, N-TTGT)

We attended an induction for all the young teachers employed in 2013; they took it in batches based on different districts, so we had one week of intensive training and that also helped us to know about the whole educational system. (Yinka, N-TTGT)

In addition to in-school support, N-TTGTs spoke of an induction, indicating that there is recognition that N-TTGTs are novices at the education district level. The possibility that this employment may be N-TTGTs’ first experience of formal employment is also indicated. Evident in Yinka and Dele’s accounts is a sense of the presence of a distinct culture of teaching as a profession; the induction they received indicates a process of clarification of expectations.
The training we have had, I think it was still fresh, so the way we took the job, the relationship we had with the students, the relationship we had with everybody... they felt how can they be behaving like this, this is not the culture, this is not what is on ground. (Dele, N-TTGT)

Dele’s account shows that N-TTGTs training had a noticeable effect on their overall approach to work, the ways he and other N-TTGTs behaved and the relationships they formed. He alluded to what seemed like a departure from existing norms as a result of the recent training they had. Being N-TTGTs who had recently undergone some form of acculturation into teaching, Dele’s comments about this not being the culture suggests that other teachers noticed a difference in their behaviour. These differences in approach and attitudes could be alluded to what they had been shown during training.

Each school has its own culture as distinct from the general culture of the districts of the Ministry of Education so that when you come into a school you are told welcome. (Mary, EL)

School readiness is indicated in N-TTGTs and ELs accounts which showed awareness of the existence of culture which affects the way education works at school and district level. The prevailing culture will inevitably inform the way N-TTGTs are welcomed, plus the norms and behaviours expected of them.

what is really expected from us as a teacher, how to be a role model and the civil service rule. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

A requirement of PSFNT is that teachers be role models, and there is evidence that N-TTGTs are guided on how to meet this standard. Telling N-TTGTs what to expect demystifies the unknown aspects of their role.

Before they are posted, the government does their own bit, they are trained, they are inducted – they receive some educational training from the government because it’s not all of them that studied education. (John, EL)

The prevailing professional culture of teaching and learning alluded to here is indicative of schools readiness for N-TTGTs. John acknowledges N-TTGTs‘ need for professional training
prior to their school postings, and the shared responsibility of government and school for nurturing N-TTGTs’ professional learning.

This interest in teacher education is an indication of readiness for teachers. The mention of graduate induction through the provision of educational training draws attention to the need for pedagogic knowledge development for N-TTGTs (whose starting point and baseline knowledge would vary in comparison to TTGTs who would have a background in education disciplines). The notion of induction described by N-TTGTs and ELs appear as a way of assisting teachers in the early stages of their career; what this means and how it is accomplished could differ in different schools.

N-TTGTs and ELs’ accounts show that induction happens collectively inside or outside of schools and takes the form of workplace orientation, socialisation, mentoring and guidance to support N-TTGTs’ familiarisation with civil service rules, codes of conduct and what their jobs entail. This avoids ambiguity and allows for smooth integration into schools.

Sometimes, if I am really busy, another teacher might go. . . because I’m ICT. . . it’s a software training. . . because we are always going to upgrade our system. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

Fadeke’s account indicates that, beyond initial induction, she also attended training. It seems, however, that this attendance is dependent on how busy she is in school.

Because of the subject I am teaching, I need constant training. . . apart from the one I had before getting the job the school had sent me on another training. . . on computers for teachers. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

Like Fadeke, Tinu teaches computer studies and is the only teacher of this subject in her school. Tinu also attended subject-related training, but gives the impression that training opportunities were not as frequent as she expected.
We do have it once or twice in a session... it's always 2 days... (they) pick a few topics that teachers generally find difficult... help break it down in terms of the methodology, instructional materials, how to go about it. (Yinka, N-TTGT)

There was lack of adequate support as a beginner... other than district mentor who handled difficult departments. (Seun, N-TTGT)

While some N-TTGTs were supported to develop their subject knowledge, others believed there was an absence of training, and mentioned experiencing inadequate support as new teachers:

In-house training... once in a while, not regular. New methods of teaching in Lagos State, strategies and methods used... First year was challenging because of not mastering the art of education... no teacher training, lack of knowledge of education. (Deji, N-TTGT)

Inconsistencies in N-TTGTs support show weaknesses in these school’s readiness. N-TTGTs resorted to different strategies such as:

..personal training... they say practice makes perfect so going through the scheme of work since I now have a guide to put me through and checking... I trained myself before going to class. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

I trained myself as well because I have access to the internet and I trained myself, I google. (Fola, N-TTGT)

Many N-TTGTs (Sola, Seun, Tinu and Yinka) answered ‘no’ when asked whether they attended training in their first year. Fola attended training on instructional materials after induction, while Dele attended training that

had something to do with ICT and the curriculum... and it's for all teachers... not only for new teachers. ... E-learning... anybody could be selected any time.

Fola and Yinka attended training for ICT teachers and science teachers respectively but these were not for new teachers. Dare attended an ‘annual music teachers’ workshop over three days’.

I don't know, depending on the school. I'm just privileged to be sent... I went to that training... and I am doing a line training which I am almost through with. (Demola, N-TTGT)

In feeling ‘privileged’ to have been selected, it is not apparent that being a new teacher was a criterion for Demola’s attendance at training. He seems to be suggesting that the happenstance
of working in his school enhanced his chances of accessing training opportunities. This does not appear to be the experiences of Tinu, Dele, Fadeke, Fola or Yinka.

Depending on subject and school, N-TTGTs’ experiences of training varied from personal development participation through random selection. Some alluded to needing to turn down training opportunities due to school obligations. Other N-TTGTs resorted to various self-sought strategies for their professional development, such as using the internet and learning on the job. With regards to access to formal training opportunities, N-TTGTs’ accounts did not indicate school readiness for teachers.

**5.3.2 Teacher readiness for schools**

Teacher readiness for school relates to N-TTGTs’ preparedness to succeed cognitively, professionally and socially as educators on arrival in schools. The data that makes up the code for teacher readiness for school is analysed under two headings: self- and task readiness. It utilises a number of codes drawn from N-TTGTDS and ELDS, namely ‘hidden things’, professional advice, confidence, reflection, inadequacy, behaviour policy, improvisation, progress, timetable, shadowing, quality assurance (QA), intervention, core subject. Although these codes uniquely contribute to teacher readiness for school as a theme, it is important to note that a number of them are closely aligned with school readiness for teachers. The cultural mind-set of a school can influence how novice teachers are supported in overcoming feelings of inadequacy at the start of their careers. If the fit of the school and a teacher is good, it can be expected that N-TTGTs’ proficiency grows over time as they imbibe the cultural nuances of their schools. In the same way, poor support on arrival can limit N-TTGTs’ professional growth.

Analysing the data on teacher readiness is interesting because it is about the knowledge that N-TTGTs have that makes them able to work as teachers. Beyond subject and pedagogic knowledge, the codes revealed N-TTGTs enthusiasm for their subjects, commitment, and
resilience that showed their preparedness to teach. These insights contributed to an overall picture of their readiness. At the time of interview, N-TTGTs had completed their PGDEs – but this had come after a considerable period of employment without formal teacher training. Pedagogic knowledge is seen as what allows the understanding of a subject so that it can be taught. Aside from formal study of education, pedagogic knowledge can be acquired through practical experience and it was anticipated that N-TTGT’s pedagogic knowledge would have developed by being in schools. The interest of this study is in how N-TTGTs readiness for schools transitioned from when they started teaching without formal teacher training to when they commenced formal teacher training, and upon completion of formal teacher training. Important insights provided by the codes on readiness is how N-TTGTs functioned as teachers before starting their PGDE, factors that shaped N-TTGT’s self and task readiness, and what difference N-TTGTs felt formal teacher training made to their overall readiness. The codes revealed other examples of N-TTGTs’ readiness for school, with regards to the nature of in-school support and how this shaped their overall readiness to engage in the business of educating children. These codes will now be analysed by exploring the two areas identified above: self-readiness and task readiness.

5.3.2.1 Self-readiness

Later I discovered that I think I love this subject, so I went for it at university level. . . . I studied pure and applied mathematics. . . I do tell my students, mathematics is very simple. . . we need to be friendly and that is the truth. . . we must make it more simpler. . . I love imparting students. . . I want to impart this to others. . . that people would be convinced. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

Whenever I take exams I tend to spend more time on mathematics than chemistry, yet I still have that passion for chemistry, so I couldn't help studying chemistry. . . . I do it from the bottom of my heart; it is not as if I was compelled as a result of perhaps not getting a job, but I've always found myself in schools. (Yinka, N-TTGT)

N-TTGTs found employment because they possessed the right qualifications in particular subjects (mathematics, English, physics, biology and chemistry). There was a strong indication
that N-TTGTs came with a passion and enthusiasm for their subjects, which informed the course they studied at university. N-TTGTs’ assertions above indicate a desire to impart knowledge of their subject to others, and to do it well; it is no wonder they found themselves in classrooms.

I think I love this job. I never thought I could teach but when I came here... you are seeing different students from different backgrounds with different ideas. When you bring this and this together, sometimes I would just be in the class... when some children would say something or they would just do something... Sometimes I can't sleep... because what I do... I have to come to school, go to class see my students – without seeing much children now I don't know, now I'm even thinking of joining the children department at church because I've really learnt from them. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

I love imparting (knowledge to) students and I love it, I love teaching. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

Fadeke’s reflection shows another enthusiastic teacher, who seems consumed with teaching – and this appears to have had a positive effect on her life. She appears to enjoy working with children so much so that she wants to be in the presence of children in and out of school.

Initially, I never even thought I was going to teach because I've never even done that before in my life. I don't know how to bring people together... it was when I got into this job that I really started to have a flair for it: oh, this is how this thing works, let me pass on what I have learnt to these children. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

Fadeke was introduced to insurance - marketing job, but you know, when you venture into an industry that you don't really understand, it's very difficult for you to move ahead. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

While one could establish a link between Yinka and Dotun’s passion for their subjects and their choice of careers, Fadeke’s love of teaching resulted from actually being in the classroom and interacting with children; the actual experience of teaching gave her a passion for the job. You also get the sense that Fadeke wants to continue teaching because she understands how things work – unlike insurance, where she found it difficult to move ahead.
Of the N-TTGTs interviewed, ten had prior experience of teaching either by providing tuition to students or during their NYSC years. Six of them wanted to be teachers, while more than six were driven to apply because of high unemployment and the targeted recruitment of graduates of particular disciplines. Some N-TTGTs explicitly affirmed their love for teaching as a career while others simply implied this. None indicated a dislike for teaching. N-TTGTs can be described as self-ready in that they enjoy their work.

To the best of my knowledge, I was able to make them love chemistry because like most people are always scared of it that the subject is abstract. . . we have to think from the imagination. (Yinka, N-TTGT)

If you don’t do your assignments you are in trouble. . . and students are always scared and run away from his class. He was a disciplined man to the core so therefore I didn't have any interest in maths. I was scared of maths. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

Teachers play an important role in children’s access to learning. These accounts demonstrate how teachers can make difficult subjects accessible – or discourage children entirely. Both Yinka and Dotun refer to their subjects being difficult to grasp, and allude to the need to adapt their teaching to make the subject accessible to everyone.

She sat me down and explained in my own language to me and that is what I do now to my students. . . . In my office you see many students, they would come to me because that’s how my teacher taught me so they explained to me in my own language and I would understand mathematics. . . . I don’t know why they called me, they would call me and explain, and explain and explain. . . . I teach computer but I studied mathematics/computer. So I say OK, if this is not clear to me in mathematics maybe it will be clear in computing. . . and they come to me. . . maybe during break and I make sure I explain. (Fola, N-TTGT)

In their keenness to expose students to the possibilities of their subjects, N-TTGTs show empathy and explore different strategies. This is shown in the way Fola creates time to help his students outside the classroom in his own time modelling what his teachers did that helped him to learn. His commitment to children’s learning and his willingness to go above and beyond his call of duty is evident. These accounts show N-TTGTs self-readiness on the strength of their subject knowledge.
Making them feel free. . . I could get their minds, I could get their attention. . . I found out that the next class I went for, I had more attention and the topic was going well, they were listening, they were asking questions, when I asked them a question they got whatever I was teaching. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

I said, how am I actually going to interact with these students? What am I going to do? How am I going to do it? That was when, I now remembered Mrs A with her methodology. . . and I started getting a response from them and I said, oh, I think I’ve gotten my methodology. (Sola, N-TTGT)

Another indication of self-readiness in N-TTGTs’ accounts was the importance they attached to student-teacher relationships for positive student engagement. The questions asked by Sola are pertinent and show that she was assessing her practice; she noticed the improvement in students’ engagement once she perfected her methodology. Both Tinu and Sola’s narratives draw attention to the importance of teaching methodology when interacting with students, and reveal the challenges N-TTGTs can face in this regard. They also evidence N-TTGTs deliberate effort in making their classrooms more conducive to engage students’ minds.

Some of them don’t know how to handle students’ youthful exuberance. . . they want to use a sledgehammer to kill a fly in some cases. (Martha, EL)

Application of appropriate sanctions in line with schools’ behaviour policies can also influence student-teacher relationships. Martha draws attention to how N-TTGTs may struggle to apply appropriate sanctions. It is noteworthy that N-TTGTs’ narratives focus on what is within their locus of control; Tinu and Yinka’s responses were more about what they could do and not what students should do. In essence, N-TTGTs did not discuss the application of sanctions.

You have to understand the nature of the student. If I’m going to teach maths, the first thing to ask you is: do you like maths? . . . if you tell me ‘no’, then I have a big job to do – no, why? What’s the problem, now we need to sort that out. . . if I found out that it’s attitude or behaviour - there are some students who they can’t just sit down and learn. . . I would need to understand all those students before I administer the dosage of mathematics to that student. Educational psychology. . . then I have to come with some philosophical concept that student may use to connect. . . talk about something you don’t know, have you seen a spaceman before? What does he look like? (Demola, N-TTGT)
In the scenario above, an attempt is being made to understand what is going on with students so that the root cause of disengagement can be addressed instead of applying sanctions for disengaged behaviour. Demola shows awareness that dislike of a subject may be a barrier to engagement. Rather than seeing this as a case for sanctions, he sees this as a task to unravel. There is recognition here that teachers need to understand students before trying to engage their interests. In the same way that Yinka was reflective about the appropriate methodology to engage her students’ interests, Dotun is reflective about what strategies to use to remove the barriers to learning before attempting to teach; he refers to asking open questions, creating an atmosphere where students feel at ease, and redirecting students’ attention to other interests – never losing sight of the ‘dosage of mathematics’ he needed to administer in that lesson.

N-TTGTs’ commitment is evident and indicative of self-readiness. An important outcome of their commitment is the positive relationships they have with their students. The passion, commitment and dedication to duty shown by N-TTGTs is an indication of positive attitudes to teaching, and demonstrates not just a secure sense of self-readiness for schools but a secure sense of self-efficacy. ELs’ accounts also reflect this idea:

There are still a manageable number who love teaching; as bad as we seem, there are people who would say. . . I want to be a teacher. . . I will do my Master’s and go for my. . . higher degree so that I can teach.
(Mary, EL)

Mary’s comment acknowledges the low status of teaching (‘as bad as we seem’) and also implies that the classroom is not necessarily a dream destination for graduates. Nonetheless, N-TTGTs assertions above are noteworthy indications that teaching holds its attraction for some N-TTGTs who will be counted amongst Mary’s ‘manageable number’ – ‘self-ready’ graduates, for whom the classroom may have been inevitable.
5.3.2.2 Task readiness

The narratives on self-readiness above indicate that N-TTGTs are secure in their subject knowledge and feel school ready on account of this. They also show a high sense of self-efficacy in delivering positive outcomes for their students. The analysis of codes that make up task readiness will describe N-TTGTs’ perspectives on their pedagogic knowledge development prior to and after undertaking formal teacher education (PGDE).

Sufficient subject knowledge is expected, and is a requirement of PSFNT.

For instance, a teacher of Mathematics at Senior Secondary Education level is expected to know all the themes and topics stipulated in the curriculum of Senior Secondary School Mathematics issued by NERDC, JAMB, NECO, WAEC, and other relevant authorities at that level. (PSFNT, p.25)

Going by responses so far, N-TTGTs in this study appear to demonstrate superior subject mastery, and seem confident in their capacity to teach. Ordinarily, this subject mastery and sense of self-efficacy could demonstrate task readiness but the fact that some N-TTGTs found the requirement to undertake formal teacher training objectionable is noteworthy:

A few without educational background who love to teach. . . and not subject them to go and do a PGDE. It is naturally believed that people who read maths without education are very good. . . because that's their area of specialisation. . . they write pure maths. . . . If I had not done Master's before PGD, I would not have had too much expectation; but because I have done the Master's and I have done research and I have now done PGD, I was expecting more. (Demola, N-TTGT)

Demola’s contention here is two-fold. Firstly, he highlights the issue of (superior) subject mastery for core subject graduates in comparison to education degree holders. Secondly, he had high expectations of formal teacher education which, it appears, were not met.

One of the education leaders drew attention to the importance of knowledge of how to instruct.
(They) are sufficiently knowledgeable - passing information is what teaching is all about. You may know a subject, but you may not know how to teach it. . . saying 2x2 is 4 is a common thing. . . communicating the process of 2x2 becoming 4 is what teaching is about. (John, EL)

John does not dispute core graduates’ subject mastery, but presents a case for pedagogic knowledge development. This brings into focus the idea that formal teacher preparation is relevant for teacher effectiveness.

There was no correlation between the demand of my work in school and the classes I attended at UNILAG. I fulfilled the promise to get PGDE within two years. I got a certificate and got to learn some tricks and techniques in teaching, but I did not get enough from UNILAG. . . . (There was a) difference between learning at UNILAG and what I learnt in school in the first year. (Seyi, N-TTGT)

Like Demola, Seyi’s expectations of formal teacher preparation course were not met. She felt a lack of synergy between the course and her work as a teacher. The effect of formal teacher preparation on N-TTGTs’ EPD is of keen interest to this study. The idea that seems to emerge is that Seyi gained more from in-school learning than formal training. It is interesting to point out that Demola attended the National Teachers’ Institute (NTI), a different teacher training course provider in Lagos State. The indications here are that, irrespective of provider and subject discipline, formal teacher preparation did not add to Seyi and Demola’s task readiness. These discoveries draw attention to considerations of what training teachers need and where they may best acquire this training in the context of Lagos State schools.

I did not see any reason why I had to do it. . . I know what others know apart from. . . but it was when I went in to it. . . . Now, I know that pure science is nothing compared to education. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

At least, with her help, I was able to be properly guided in handling the topics and students and teaching them. . . trying to come down was a little bit of a challenge - she really helped. (Yinka, N-TTGT)

From the data so far, it seems conceivable that N-TTGTs are highly self-ready but, lacking pedagogic knowledge makes them less task-ready. Yinka showed a passion for teaching chemistry, but the pedagogic knowledge gap was evident in his struggles to make his subject accessible to JSS students. Fadeke’s high subject knowledge initially misled her into thinking that she was prepared to teach – until she discovered that further skills were required.
So this PGD has really 'opened me up' to teaching line, how you teach, how you prepare your students, how you prepare your lesson notes. . . . I didn't know there is something that is called curriculum; you have to break it down to the scheme of work so the topics would be learning objectives. Now I know that, yes, I'm not just here to teach, but my learning objectives must be achieved. . . I must be able to cover it in that small frame of time that I'm given. . . now I know more about education. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

The data provided evidence of a consensus that PGDE was a way to fill N-TTGTs knowledge gap. It may not be far-fetched to say that realisation of incompetency helped some N-TTGTs engage positively with the experience of PGDE and made them more receptive of its value to their development. This appears to have been Fadeke’s experience above. Other N-TTGTs reinforced this idea: ‘I was able to learn some things I missed in not doing education as a course’ (Juwon, N-TTGT); ‘(I) was just a graduate teacher then, now (I am) a professional teacher’ (Sola, N-TTGT). These admissions indicate that N-TTGTs value formal teacher training and show that knowledge gained on the course may have benefitted N-TTGTs.

You learn to actually study the psychology of each student, you look at the students: why some act irrational and maybe some are just laid back. You get the opportunity to actually be able to align with a particular child to know, OK, this is this child. How can I help this child to be better? . . . if it gets to the stage that maybe you actually have to call the parents of the child at home, that oh, this is what we noticed about your child. . . this is what I have noticed. As I've said, I've been able to learn psychology of the students. (Sola, N-TTGT)

To a reasonable extent e.g. understanding the power of instructional material. . . . How to set questions and as a teacher. . . I developed the ability to ask questions to check students understanding. . . measuring and evaluating. I had a different mind-set before going but I was not disappointed. (Sade, N-TTGT)

The accounts above show that teacher preparation truly enlightened some N-TTGTs about what teaching entailed. It is apparent that knowledge gained during PGDE empowered N-TTGTs to do their jobs well, gave them a sense of confidence in their capacity to function, and contributed to their pedagogic knowledge development. It is also evident that they began to apply learnt principles in their classrooms. This is apparent in 1) the holistic way Sola engaged with her students to understand what might be going on beyond what she saw in the classroom; 2)
Fadeke’s curriculum-informed approach to planning; 3) Sade’s new knowledge about the power of instructional materials and use of questioning to promote students’ learning.

It was actually easy for me, due to the fact I’m practising it and I’m also learning it at the same time. I find I would practise it in school. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

Essentially, PGDE appears to have encouraged N-TTGTs to reflect on connections between theory and practice. This is a further indication of task readiness.

They said I should try this particular method which personally, to me, it’s not working in all lessons... and maybe due to the fact that it’s ICT, I don’t know, it’s not working, but in some lessons it would work... so I just dropped it. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

Juwon’s account shows that his confidence grew, enabling him to start the process of purposefully questioning practices he was being shown. This process of criticality is an important aspect of the data that made up task readiness. It revealed N-TTGTs’ capacity to take ownership of their learning, and a level of confidence in their ability to tease out and apply the most suitable knowledge to their teaching contexts.

This was what you didn't get right the last time, but now you have been able to put it into use, you got it right, the next class you have to improve... then the mentor too grades you. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

Afterwards, she called me and said that I should not have sent the student out; at least I am depriving him of that knowledge. (Yinka, N-TTGT)

Tinu and Yinka described mentor visits as part of QA processes to monitor their progress. These involved classroom observations by year mentors assigned by the education district. Tinu’s account shows that she was given feedback after observation, and was set development targets on which she was assessed during follow-up observations. Yinka was also told what he did wrong and why.

Yes, I have my copy of it... and I think it's in my file... That feedback form is just for them to know how far you have gone and the recommendation they are giving you. (Juwon, N-TTGT)
Obviously they write things down. . . no, they don’t give it to us; they tell us what they have to tell us, sometimes when it is something that needs not to be exposed, they need to talk to the principal. (Lara, N-TTGT)

Inconsistencies between the different accounts of observation and feedback suggest lack of uniformity. Although N-TTGTs discussed the nature of feedback resulting from classroom observations as part of how they knew they were making progress, it is not clear whether such progress was monitored in a structured way. For example, N-TTGTs indicated that they were not set formal targets but some were aware of areas they needed to improve on. Yinka (N-TTGT) indicated that ‘if there are lapses, they would call your attention. . . it’s up to you to be able to upgrade yourself’. What this means in real times is not clear and how widespread the idea of N-TTGTs being left to address identified development needs is not clear.

It was just like we should try these recommendations and when next they come they want to see you use that method. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

Juwon’s comment corroborates the possibility that N-TTGTs are to a large extent, responsible for their own learning and forge their own ways for tracking their development and improving their practice.

Shadowing is where old teachers are given shadowing books, whereby we go to watch them by the window, and observe them. . . the teacher you shadowed reads your comment, so you sign, he signs. You discuss your observation and it helps the teacher to progress. (John, EL)

John’s account indicates the attention given to feedback as a tool for supporting new teachers’ progress. The assertion that N-TTGTs read and sign observation comments indicates their input into the feedback process; they are not passive recipients in the matter of their development.

It’s an appraisal form that’s the only instrument we use in measuring. . . like when I first got the job - they wrote ‘relationship with colleagues, it was very poor’. . . I do my job, once it’s closing time I go home; so I was called in by my VP and was told ‘no, you don’t do things like that’ – that you have to interact with them, ask questions. (Dele, N-TTGT)

Appraisal systems are used to formally assess teacher effectiveness periodically and to address capability issues when they arise. The quotation above shows how Dele is supported to develop
and manage his relationships at this crucial stage of his career. There is a sense that he is being acculturated into the proper way to behave within the wider context of work as a team player and being showed how to relate professionally.

We ask them to write things they know about you, about your teaching, about your relationship with them, how it is... write about you... no, it's my personal thing. (Dele, N-TTGT)

Dele’s account of evaluating his practice and devising a strategy to react to these evaluations is a formative way of tracking his learning and growth on an on-going basis instead of waiting for end-of-year formal assessment that happens during appraisals. It may be assumed (from what Dele did not say, and from the fact that appraisal was hardly mentioned by other N-TTGTs) that appraisals are more often used for annual assessment.

5.3.3 Impact

Impact is taken to mean the effect that N-TTGTs have on students’ access to education and learning outcomes, and how their schools and experience of PGDE enhance or constrain this. It is expected that codes alluding to the idea of impact be strongly evidenced in the data, and this research is keen to understand how N-TTGTs’ contexts and learning facilitated this impact-making process. Typical aspects of education intervention outcomes are quality of education, learning enhancement and access to education. A common theme in N-TTGTs’ recruitment was the expectation that provision of better quality education would be accompanied by improved student learning outcomes. The codes that make up the theme of impact also strongly indicated the impact that access to education can have on children’s educational experiences and the enhancements that can happen as a result. Quality of education has been discussed under teachers’ readiness. Educational access and enhancements as intervention ideas will be used in analysing this theme, along with examples of data that illustrate the nature and form of resulting impacts.
5.3.3.1 Access to education

A student in my class came and said ‘Auntie... I want to buy a book’. Do I have change? When they feel they need something that you can actually do, they come and it brings you closer to them, not just coming to class and teaching and teaching. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

Fadeke views her role as extending beyond the classroom. There is a strong sense of wanting to foster good relationships that make it conducive for students to approach her inside and outside the classroom on matters of their academic, social and emotional well-being. An important way of ensuring equitable access to education for all is through positive relationships that make it possible for children to approach teachers on issues that may present as barriers to their learning.

I always tell my students, in this school I’m your mother because if anything happens to them, before they would even say go and call the mother, they would say go and call your class teacher. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

Fadeke’s account reveals a nurturing approach. Fadeke being addressed as ‘Auntie’ and seeing herself in the role of a mother shows a sense of connectedness. This makes the relationship less formal and more like a respectful relationship between children and older adults at home or in the community. Being called ‘Auntie’ could also connote proximity in age; it makes Fadeke approachable while still maintaining respect.

It all takes time, say, for example... you ask the student 9x9, and the student tells you 99... students telling you x plus x is extra. I have to go down, teach them and, at the same time, meet up with the present curriculum for the week - so it is really very challenging. (Demola, N-TTGT)

The students we are getting now, their work is terrible. They have been to secondary school and they cannot write, they cannot read, they can’t even speak good English. When you speak to them, all you get is their language, so it was highly, highly challenging. (Lara, N-TTGT)

Differences in ability or apparent weak academic ability, coupled with prevailing socio-economic conditions in children’s homes necessitates that teaching be adapted for the inclusion of students with gaps in their knowledge. The challenge is that of raising awareness
about the value of education, cushioning the effects of gaps in literacy and numeracy skills, while raising the academic attainment of children with socio-economic barriers to learning.

Challenging... students’ attitude... stubborn, a lot of violence, sometimes students fighting teachers and sometimes the students injure themselves. (Dare, N-TTGT)

We found that the students we are getting from this part of society do menial jobs while they come to school. So most times their minds are not on what you are passing on... some do mechanics, some hawk different items, some sell fish. (Lara, N-TTGT)

The educational problems faced by children from poor homes are multifaceted. The issues mentioned above (low numeracy, weak literacy, lack of funds for books, physical violence and lack of interest) symptomise the realities of some of the children taught by N-TTGTs in this study. Sola (N-TTGT) describes the environment of schooling as very poor and highlighted the fact that children are forced to come to school.

There are direct and indirect costs that pervade how children of poor homes access education. Direct costs such as school fees and the cost of books, uniforms, equipment and food are a problem for families in N-TTGTs’ context.

Those who did the mechanics get Friday money... so the child would be just like... I’m making money, we have to work, at least my old guy is not educated but he's making money. (Sola, N-TTGT)

Lack of interest in education and absence of role models is implicated in Sola’s description above. This could result from generations of children’s families who may have either failed at education for different reasons, or who may have made a living without formal education. Children of such families may see schooling as futile.

They are getting highly distracted to the extent that, when the principal calls a meeting now, they are telling the parents that they should choose; the children go to work or they come to school; they need to focus on one. (Sola, N-TTGT)

The distraction manifested in Sola’s classroom indicates disengagement in education. The reality for Sola is possible irregular attendance by children from such homes, for whom special teaching provisions must be made nonetheless.
I call their parents... let me know why this is happening. So by calling the parents, you get to know or listen to the parent to know what is causing the problems. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

Actually we are trying to advise the parents to stop them from doing those trades for now, to allow them to concentrate in school. (Sola, N-TTGT)

Beyond making provisions for the inclusion of absent students, the codes on impact revealed the enormity of the problem that children’s distraction causes for schools, and how resolution often involves collaborating with parents. Engaging with parents aided N-TTGTs’ understanding of the full extent of socio-economic problems facing families. Parents in low-income families see their children as income earners, and potential loss of income in the time children attend school presents real dilemmas for their economic survival.

There was a time even the principal was engaged; we go to class... there is nothing we can do because sometimes the parents come and tell you they have to eat. (Lara, N-TTGT)

You can imagine somebody bringing their workload to school instead of books... they tell you that their boss where they are learning... they tell them not to bring books... give that child an assignment, the child would not do it. (Sola, N-TTGT)

Children being compelled to obey their bosses at work instead of their teachers, attending school without books, not doing their homework and going to work after school all have obvious implications for their learning outcomes, development and general well-being. These accounts show that students are torn between obeying their parents and employers, and meeting the demands of schooling.

They just need to be imparted... I even use myself as an example when I was in school... if not for my extraordinary efforts... the reason that their parents must be involved. Even my parents... they paid the price then of me doing extra classes, it was not free... the importance of an education and working towards that. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

to impart knowledge – not just in their lesson alone, outside of that, to be there, let them see you, to be their mentor in terms of everything, up to cleanliness, up to honesty, and be there as an adviser in the school. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)
The way Dotun uses himself as an example exemplifies the way he sees his role as a teacher. Not only are children able to trust him, he is also inviting them to see him as a role model. Indeed he is saying he has practised what he is preaching. In this way, N-TTGTs are able to impress positive values upon their young minds; provide practical support in the form of advice, talking, listening and empathy, as alluded to by Fadeke. Yinka (N-TTGT) reasoned that, no matter how busy he was, he found time to engage with students even in his own time.

I said, why did you not tell me; she said, because she was scared. I said, I will call your mum. . . I said, you have to tell your mother. Even though you are not trained to work as counsellors. . . if you have a good relationship with the students they tell you more things than the counsellor. (Dele, N-TTGT)

A positive student-teacher relationship is apparent between Dele and his student. You get the sense that Dele does not just want to be seen in his capacity as a classroom teacher but as a trusted go-to person who children can discuss their problems with. In the scenario above, Dele supported a pregnant student who came to report herself to him. While still following proper procedures by informing the parents, the care and empathy shown would have helped the student feel at ease. You also get the sense that a good line of communication already existed; Dele expected to have been told earlier.

A good teacher should be a role model. . . a positive influence on the children. . . you should be a good counsellor, you should be able to listen to them. . . you practise what you preach. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

The teachers are always on his case because he is on bright side so we are always like. . . in fact, I was his class teacher then so I got the parents involved. . . is John in school, is he here. . . ‘he’s not here’ - ‘how many days now?’ – ‘2 days’ - ‘oh God, hello, what happened? We have not seen him’ . . . so we are doing a big follow-up. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

These accounts show the importance of good student-teacher relationships, which enable teachers to act as counsellors and care for the welfare of their students. N-TTGTs see themselves as role models who children want to emulate. The positive effect of N-TTGTs investment of time and interest is evident in Fola’s (N-TTGT) assertion that children want to be
like him despite being strict, they come to him, they trust him. These accounts further evidence the ways N-TTGTs seek out dialogue with parents. An understanding of the importance of parental engagement as a crucial aspect of N-TTGTs socialisation in schools is demonstrated.

Dotun’s account, in particular, shows the success of a whole-school approach in influencing children’s access to school. N-TTGTs in these contexts understand the environmental challenges, and plan for inclusion, of children from difficult backgrounds, in and outside the classroom. N-TTGTs mentioned dialogues with parents; Yinka referred to getting ‘their parents involved, because there is little as to what I can do within the school’, while Dotun tries ‘to let them know the reality of life. . . let them know the importance of education and the disadvantages of hawking. . . what damages they are causing to their future.’ These accounts show N-TTGTs going above and beyond to engage students by getting parents involved in navigating a solution.

The data forming the codes on access to education is underpinned by N-TTGTs’ conceptions of their roles and responsibilities. An overriding consensus coming through is the idea of teachers as role models and counsellors. With this conception comes the need for teachers to act in ways which children will want to emulate. Some of the data alluding to this has been analysed above, and more will be elicited as data on teachers as education’s panacea is analysed under 5.3.4.2 below. The impact of access to education is now discussed under learning enhancement.

5.3.3.2 Learning enhancement
The school system is one which places emphasis on results. The requirements for examination success, effort channelled towards exam preparation, and parents’ expectations from schools and teachers are what inform education delivery in this environment.
I feel happy that I did not have to waste my time when I give them the test, after the examination, checking the exam scores, seeing the way they have passed (results) it makes me feel happy that whenever they come out of college... it makes me feel that I did not waste my time going through the topics with them. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

Being products of this seemingly results-driven summative assessment system themselves, N-TTGTs’ natural inclination is to assess their impact using students’ results. Tinu mentions twice that she did not waste her time because students passed examinations. There are different reasons why students may not excel in examinations, and interpreting progress in terms of summative assessment grades alone places a limit on the learning opportunities that are fostered and promoted. It is worrying as well that the progress of students who don’t do well – or at least don’t do well in a particular examination – may not be effectively captured.

You have to hear music, and when students add more to what you have given them, it shows their zeal for music. I have been able to produce some students with good understanding of good sound. (Seun, N-TTGT)

Unlike Tinu, Seun makes mention of improvements made by students in terms of how they stretch themselves as learners. The benefit of students challenging themselves is evident from its success; students in Seun’s account developed a capacity for understanding good music.

The role played by QA inspectors featured in the codes that made up task readiness. A common theme in N-TTGTs’ narratives was that of making impact, and they saw the role of QA inspectors as integral to their progress, providing a basis for them to develop a practice that encouraged teaching to pass examinations. The purpose this serves is that they can evidence their impact to schools, inspectors and parents.

The terminal examination, annual examination and external examination results in the school are floated on graphs... and that’s an avenue of knowing whether a teacher, along with the subjects, are on the rise, on the upwards scale. (Martha, EL)

It is no surprise that teachers refer to examination results as a measure of their impact. Schools as a whole are held to account on student results, and it appears to be the universal currency
used to denominate school improvements. Martha’s account suggests that summative assessment is the tool used by schools to gauge teachers’ and the school’s effectiveness.

Usually, even when Quality Assurance Officers come, that’s where they look at first: are we making progress, where are the graphs internal and external exams. (John, EL)

Students wrote junior WAEC in my first year. . . their performance records were used to check if I was actually teaching them. These results are compiled year by year and made available for the district inspectors to check school performance. . . I was happy with students WAEC results in that year. . . a lot of them passed. (Dare, N-TTGT)

John’s comment refers to student results summaries which are displayed conspicuously. What comes through strongly is the shared understanding and importance of summative assessment in the delivery and assessment of teaching and learning in this context.

From going through result analysis. . . improvements were seen and the students were called to check balance, if the teachers are really teaching or not - how much do they understand. We go for competition with other students. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

Results of students’ external examinations are used as a benchmark. . . for individual teachers and to compare with other teachers. . . Students also take part in choral competitions which they really look forward to. (Seun, N-TTGT)

As far as N-TTGTs were concerned, positive student attainment in external examinations indicated that they were effective and, in a sense, that they were doing their jobs well. In addition, Dotun alluded to students being asked about their learning experiences, while Seun described students’ involvement in choral competitions. This shows that there is an expectation that N-TTGTs enhance students’ learning, and that they in turn hold themselves accountable to the standards set by their teaching contexts.

The most rewarding parts of it; my joy is when I teach and my students write exams, and they are able to write, they are able to pass it, to give me feedback on what I give them. I am so happy. (Lara, N-TTGT)

We are having better results in Lagos State in the external examinations. That’s the only yardstick that you can use. . . that’s what we are looking out for with teachers. (Mary, EL)
To N-TTGTs, students’ positive results are indicators of their impact. It is also noteworthy that
cognisance is taken of what students feel about their learning experience (see Dare’s account).
It is not evident, however, whether the motive for seeking students’ opinions is for Dare’s
professional development or to gather evidence about his and the school’s performance.

5.3.4 Motivational factors
Motivational factors concern N-TTGTs’ well-being in relation to their work as teachers. The
theme is underpinned by codes including wider responsibilities, recognition, appreciation,
relationships, lack of other jobs, ability to manage and ‘what is going on here’. It is worth
mentioning here that motivational factors as a theme is not just closely aligned with aspects of
the impact and readiness (school and teacher) themes; it can be conceived as an overarching
theme that underpins the relationship between N-TTGTs’ work and life, and normal
functioning. Teaching is a noble profession, and experiencing the transformations in children is
what makes teachers’ work in and out of schools both rewarding and demanding. The pressure
of meeting targets and the demands of teaching for examination results can make the daily
exercise of emotional labour a burden instead of a worthwhile sacrifice. Teachers are on the
front line, they are at the receiving end of frequent education reforms and moment-by-
moment pressures of the classroom. Teachers must be fit to cope or risk failing to provide
quality teaching. Commentators rank teaching amongst the five occupations affected by work-
related stress; this study takes the view that teachers being under stress is not a contested idea.

The ill-effects of teacher stress are recognisable; unlike most other professions, teachers are
often exposed to emotionally demanding situations that place additional demands on their
options for self-regulation. The prevailing culture within the context of N-TTGTs’ work, the
nature of relationships formed, and the support they are able to negotiate will determine how
effective they become, how well they cope and, crucially, how long they stay in the profession.
Data analysed so far has touched on various aspects of N-TTGTs’ EPD. The analysis of
motivational factors will explore this further by looking at the data under two headings: teachers doing their best, and teachers as education’s panacea.

5.3.4.1 Teachers doing their best

The codes on teachers doing their best are underpinned by N-TTGTs’ responses to their teaching environment and other factors they had to cope with on arrival in schools. There were indications that teachers felt a sense of bewilderment on first contact with some realities of schooling in Lagos State:

Initially when I came considering the environment I felt somehow bad. The environment and some of the interior and from what I have observed. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

The facilities are not there . . . almost nothing to work with, no textbooks, no teaching aids, just nothing. You have to hear music . . . no instruments, audio machines, no laptops, no speakers. (Seun N-TTGT)

N-TTGTs refer to environmental features that left them bewildered. Absence of resources and necessary materials are indications of the seriousness of the challenge.

no mentor visit in my first year . . . Lack of adequate support in my first year. (Seun, N-TTGT)

When they first come, at times they complain of the staffroom; because of their generation, they may be thinking: what is this? . . . We just tell them, you have to manage . . . the government cannot do it all, so whatever you can do to make yourself comfortable. (Martha, EL)

Martha’s comment reflects ELs’ views on what might account for N-TTGTs’ sense of bewilderment. In most education institutions, the staffroom is a communal space for teacher socialisation that often has desks, chairs and ICT facilities; making it a hub for lesson planning and engagement with other teachers. In Seun’s account, these provisions appear to be lacking. The state of the staffroom may have contributed to the bad feeling Dotun experienced in relation to the internal environment of his school.

The salary was very low; in fact, some left during the long wait before we were placed in schools. (Deji, N-TTGT)
They are not paid immediately, I think they are paid after their three months of being in service. . . immediate financial challenge because the first month, the second month, the third month they are paid a lump salary. (John, EL)

The picture presented is one of N-TTGTs having to work with very little, in an environment that may not have been conducive for them to function well. Beyond the possibility of differences in perceptions due to generation, John’s assertion indicates his awareness of new teachers’ realities; he sees the immediate financial challenge new teachers face when they start work. On its own, financial challenge can cause a sense of bewilderment; coping with this in addition to the environment described may have been too much for some N-TTGTs to cope with.

They complain about the salary. . . the younger generation, they want rosy package. . . so we advise them that they have to manage and live within their means. (Martha, EL)

Lagos State promised to make sure you don’t get posted to a place more than 5 km. . . but it’s usually not the case. . . and they have to leave very early to make sure they make the first lesson. (John, EL)

For N-TTGTs posted to distant schools, travelling long distance to work can compound the financial challenges faced as a new teacher.

Challenging, dealing with number and attitude of children. . . the classroom behaviour. (Deji, N-TTGT)

The size of the class is too big; you can imagine going to a class with 185 students and you have to teach, now I have 157 students which is too much. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

Another contributory factor to a sense of bewilderment is the sheer number of students N-TTGTs were expected to teach. For Fadeke and Deji, who had no educational background, managing classroom behaviour and lesson delivery presented understandable difficulties.

These indicators of bewilderment are some of the realities N-TTGTs experienced. It is also possible that the nature of the job itself may have contributed to these feelings; teaching delivery does not afford teachers any room for self-regulation. Should a child present challenging behaviour in the first lesson, the expectation is that, despite the possibility of a difficult journey to work, N-TTGTs will be expected to show empathy, give the child space to
cool off, deliver quality teaching to the rest of the class, and teach other classes in that day. The emotional demand on N-TTGTs in such a context cannot be overemphasised, and it is understandable that N-TTGTs begin to wonder ‘what is happening here?’.

Not everyone can do that. . . those are the things that I want to see happen. So I’m doing my best to carry my children along. (Fola, N-TTGT)

I have been here since 2011 and I’m still here. . . whatever I find myself doing, I try to put in my best. . . I think I’m trying to do well. (Lara, N-TTGT)

Despite a sense of bewilderment at the realities they met, N-TTGTs show a determination to do their best. Demola’s assertion about doing all he can is an indication of N-TTGTs resolution to stay the course. This determination was common in N-TTGTs responses. It does seem apparent that the challenges they face are not subject- or phase-specific; Fola and Demola teach maths at different phases, while Lara teaches English. They all work in different schools.

Even the classes I missed, I would make up for it. . . . That's one thing my boss, the principal, would always say: the class you missed, please make sure you make up for it. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

Further evidence of teachers’ resolution to do their best is the way they combine the demands of teacher training with their responsibilities as teachers. The fact that N-TTGTs are undertaking PGDE is welcomed and supported by schools; however, the expectation that they teach all their classes and make up for any classes missed seemed reasonable to N-TTGTs as Juwon indicated above.

Providing you are in the system you must work to the rules. . . being new does not mean you should not be treated as others. (Dotun, N-TTGT)

you have more work to do (as a new teacher). . . they don't expect those that are holding the job to take more responsibility than you have. . . . It has always been like that. (Dele, N-TTGT)

On the issue of timetabling, the overriding consideration in this context is subject taught and teacher availability. The point was made by Martha (EL) that N-TTGTs have heavy timetables because of teacher shortages. Being non-teacher trained new teachers, one might have
expected N-TTGTs will be given adequate time to develop their practice. The expectation that they do more than their experienced colleagues seemed reasonable to N-TTGTs; the fact they were new did not matter.

5.3.4.2 Teachers as education’s panacea

The codes on teachers as education’s panacea are underpinned by schools’ expectations of N-TTGTs and how these outplayed.

They noticed that the students were not doing very well. . . so that was why they brought up that idea. . . we were addressed by. . . the co-ordinator of the programme. . . the Dean of College of Education. (Sola, N-TTGT)

Sola is alluding to the idea of recruiting non-education degree holders as a remedy for improving students’ attainment. His explanation leaves no confusion about the thinking behind graduate recruitment and what outcomes they are expected to deliver for Lagos State schools.

The number was reduced to 8,000 from 18,000. . . we were told we would be taking another exam that morning. . . ‘the test has no time limit’. . . I started around 10:30 and I finished around 5 p.m. I did my best. . . Said was telling me. . . connection, but let us use God's connection. That we should believe in God. . . so we were like 600 plus. . . they called it 2013 Project 355 Intervention Teachers Programme. . . they want to employ 355. . . so who wants to drop. . . they trained us on education as we don't have educational background. . . they trained us for a month. . . that July, they gave us another exam. During the training they withdrew some people, their credentials are not up-to-date. . . I had 7 friends that they employed together. (Fola, N-TTGT)

The above quote shows that Fola’s recruitment which began in 2011, culminated in his employment in 2013. The high number of applicants alluded to indicates the level of graduate unemployment and, like an ominous but recognised criterion, the notion of ‘connection’ appears to operate over and above the rigorous recruitment process. Beyond the determination of N-TTGTs like Fola, Demola and Lara ‘doing their best’, the only guarantee of the recruitment process being fair was what Fola referred to as the ‘God connection’.
There are some of these politicians who have wards, relations who did not study education and they know that it’s not easy for them to get other types of jobs, so they let them come here. (Mary, EL)

Two things are indicated in the assertion above: firstly, due to high unemployment, powerful individuals have no other professions to ‘dump their relations on’ except in education. Secondly, the enduring shortage of teachers makes the classroom the employment ‘waiting room’ until graduates get their preferred employment. Teaching appears to be the only job available, and schools cannot refuse.

For a long time, they did not have a computer studies teacher. . . that year, the Lagos Government introduced it to the curriculum. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

I think their former maths teacher had just retired and, for a long time, they did not have a maths teacher, so when I came they were so happy, they welcomed me. (Demola, N-TTGT)

With such prevailing staff shortages, it is understandable that the arrival of new staff would be a cause of jubilation for principals, schools, departmental staff and students. The data thus far has shown staff shortages are particularly critical in subjects such as maths and computer studies; It is understandable that graduate recruitment would target graduates that can teach these subjects.

I’m teaching computer studies, though along the line they gave me data processing to also teach; meanwhile, I have done data processing in my Diploma days. (Fadeke, N-TTGT)

I’m the only computer studies teacher. . . I have close to 30 periods and that’s so taxing. . . Sometimes, when there is anything to be typed, any documents I have to type again. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

These accounts show that N-TTGTs are often saddled with additional responsibilities. Fadeke has a heavier timetable, without the time that would have eased her into the school routines, while Tinu is burdened with typing, an administrative task which presumably would have been carried out one way or another prior to her arrival.

Then I was teaching 32 periods due to the fact that its computer and maths. . . so mathematics is not going to lag behind and computer is not going to lag behind. (Juwon, N-TTGT)
Once I came in he just gave me the classes to teach and of course the junior staff is expected to have more classes and more periods. . . periods we have in a week is 40 for the whole school, so I’m taking 32 a week. (Dele, N-TTGT)

Teaching 32 lessons out of a possible maximum of 40, Dele described above the expectation that new teachers teach more classes a week. Juwon seemed to find a work-around to balancing his workload: teaching 14 periods of maths and 18 periods of computer studies instead of 18 periods of computer science to two year groups. He prioritised continuity in children’s learning and ended up teaching slightly fewer classes.

A pattern that emerges from the codes on motivational factors is that N-TTGTs who teach computer studies have not just heavy timetables, but also extended responsibilities beyond their core teaching roles.

Sometimes I feel like. . . I can't kill myself, I can't do 11 jobs. . . but later I get the feeling it’s not meant for anybody else. . . the present timetable I designed it for the whole school, the analysis. . . school has got data analysis, there are so many things. . . JSS3 I’m the one in charge. . . I would charge them 50k. . . and I’m doing it for free. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

Number one, the workload; how I wish I had an assistant. . . being called to come and type a document. . . aside from being a class teacher. . . curriculum and CBT, sports committee to come and train the students how to do one or two things, social representative for teachers. . . so apart from teaching. . . I don’t really have time for myself. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

One is left in no doubt of the enormity of the task before these N-TTGTs, their feelings of inundation and the impact it may be having on them. As it seems that schools could either contract this extra work out or avoid doing it altogether, it is not unlikely that principals are exploiting the versatility, inexperience and willingness of these N-TTGTs. The negative impact this can have on N-TTGTs’ wellbeing is counterproductive for the purpose for which they were recruited.

The challenging part is receiving work. . . having more responsibility in this school more than teaching. I do most of the administrative work – no reward, nothing. (Fola, N-TTGT)
Most times people see one’s flaws [sic]... it might not be really monetary aspect; you know when you are appreciated - thank you for what you did last week, you can do better... to be appreciated and if there is letter of recommendation. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

It is not just that these N-TTGTs feel overworked; their efforts are not recognised or rewarded. It is apparent from Tinu and Fola’s submissions that they are not motivated to do this extra work, and the reaction of other staff members when things go wrong make the expectation of appreciation more unrealistic – it seems Tinu is just doing her job. When asked about seeking ways to address the problem, N-TTGTs alluded to the idea that in the civil services, arrangements cannot be superseded, and rules and regulations must be followed. This was understood to mean that N-TTGTs could not address the problem without being seen as breaking rules. N-TTGTs adherence to protocols in this regard show that negotiating recognition of additional efforts beyond the call of duty is not understood; their responses suggest that this would be viewed as contravening civil service rules. The irony is that, beyond the unwritten rule N-TTGTs alluded to, there was no mention of the existence of any rule that allow the additional duties principals required of them.

When your principal acknowledges or recognises... and she puts it in writing to the district – you get the letter of recommendation, but the principal has to acknowledge, you don't request for it, even requesting for it can cause other problems. (Tinu, N-TTGT)

The view presented is that principals cannot be questioned. The reality for N-TTGTs is not only the absence of any scheme that recognises their additional efforts with the aim of rewarding them, but also an understanding that any attempt to draw attention to the fact that they are being made to work in this way could be counterproductive.

No money, just a letter to back it up. I got a recommendation letter... that's the third one, just outstanding teacher... but later I get the feeling it's not meant for anybody else. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

I have complained about it - if you cannot appreciate my work, you should be able to appreciate who I am otherwise. (Fola, N-TTGT)

It does seem that the additional work has a negative effect on N-TTGTs’ feelings towards work. Negative feelings can affect N-TTGTs’ work-life balance and, ultimately, their well-being. The
lack of recognition and the prevailing rules and norms limiting the capacity to seek recognition raises concerns about N-TTGTs’ overall well-being and longevity in the profession.

I have so many things I’ve done for the school as a whole. It has been recognised and that is actually what has given me a close relationship between me and my principal. (Juwon, N-TTGT)

What appears to be causing N-TTGTs’ angst is the understanding that expectations of monetary reward are futile – yet there is no other appreciation shown for their efforts. Tinu and Fadeke refer to a desire that any acknowledgement would indicate that the work was valued and would motivate them. Indeed, this is evidenced by Juwon; he has received commendation letters, which appear to make a difference to his outlook and coping ability. Juwon understands that teaching is not for everyone, but feels valued as a member of the team. Fola is willing to explore the possibly of getting recognition, and obviously feels that he is not accorded any respect. It would seem that simply getting a ‘thank you’, as alluded to by Tinu, would make them feel their efforts are recognised and appreciated.

5.4 Summary
This study found that N-TTGTs’ EPD in Lagos State was affected by a variety of factors. In regard to the readiness of schools for teachers, the process of acculturation seemed to lack structure and consistency in delivery, but prevailing practices in schools indicated that the environment seemed conducive for initiating and motivating N-TTGTs positively into established school cultures – the schools showed signs of readiness for N-TTGTs.

It was clear that self-readiness on the basis of subject specialism was integral to how N-TTGTs initially constructed their school readiness. The experience of school and formal teacher training later conferred on them a renewed definition of their sense of readiness which appeared to have been enhanced. The codes also showed that N-TTGTs’ responses on their task readiness were underpinned by their attitude towards their work as teachers, and it was possible for them to relate learning on PGDE with what was outplaying in their classrooms and
reflect on appropriate methods to use for particular situations. This reflection allowed for scrutiny of prevailing pedagogic practices and exercise of measured agency with regards to their development. There is a feeling that N-TTGTs’ sense of criticality started to grow, in line with one of the stated aims of the PGDE course: ‘producing educators who can propel social change intellectually in attitudes, skills, values and worldviews’. N-TTGTs display the mind-set to undertake the academic and emotional labour that this might entail, to the extent that their environment allows. The codes that make up the theme of teacher readiness also showed that most N-TTGTs have a secure sense of self-efficacy, resulting from prior mastery experiences and positive feedback from observations.

It is also noteworthy that a small number (two) of N-TTGTs, felt sufficiently school ready on the basis of subject knowledge alone, according little or no value to formal teacher training. It is also apparent from N-TTGTs and ELs accounts that students assessment grades is an important measure of teacher effectiveness in the context of schooling experienced by N-TTGTs. The dichotomy presented is the possibility that the view is held that on acquisition and application of pedagogic knowledge, N-TTGTs can be effective teachers. This contention falls within the what (academic and/or practical) and where debates of teacher preparation which was highlighted under section 3.2.1 in the literature review. The overriding importance attached to qualifications as a measure of teacher effectiveness, the low quality of graduates as well as high graduate unemployment are noteworthy factors which have implications for teacher preparation practices which may promote a type of disregard to pedagogic knowledge development. The relevance of subject and pedagogic knowledge to N-TTGTs EPD in the context of schooling experienced by N-TTGTs is discussed further under section 7.3.

The data on impact revealed constraining factors that inhibit how children from poor socioeconomic backgrounds access schools. It further revealed N-TTGTs’ success in balancing the challenge of improving children’s learning outcomes and raising their aspirations.
The data on motivational factors revealed the complexities of challenges within schools, plus N-TTGTs’ apparent resolve to do their best nonetheless. The prevailing culture within N-TTGTs’ school contexts is one that continues to thrive on the altruistic nature of the profession – which makes N-TTGTs’ roles conceivable as a panacea to Lagos State educational challenges. One could envisage that the N-TTGTs interviewed will remain in the profession, despite prevailing factors that limit their capacity to function effectively.
Part Four: Research Implications, Reflections and Conclusions

Chapter Six: Discussion of Findings

6.1 Introduction
Chapter Five used data derived from respondents to analyse N-TTGTs’ EPD. School readiness, teacher readiness, impact and motivational factors were themes developed from the coding process which provided a framework for this analysis. The framing assisted with presentation of data, and enabled initial discussion. This chapter develops the discussion further to identify significant factors in N-TTGTs’ EPD using the framework provided by Eraut et al. (2004). The discussion explores deeper meanings behind N-TTGTs’ responses, by critically evaluating the study’s findings using literature and practice debates about teacher education. First presented is a summary of answers to the research questions.

6.2 Summary of research findings in relation to the research questions
With regards to the main research question (What are the context and learning factors that influence the professional development of new teachers in Nigeria?), a number of factors were found to enable N-TTGTs’ EPD, while the absence of some factors and/or the peculiarities of education in Lagos State inhibited it. Specifically, the findings show subject mastery, confidence in their ability to use the love of their subjects as a vehicle to transform students’ lives, resilience, and commitment to doing challenging work in challenging circumstances as enabling N-TTGTs’ EPD. Heavy workload, lack of agency and isolation stood out as constraining influences. Over and above these factors, however, the data describes the interaction of socio-economic factors, work expectations, and unwritten civil service rules, which highlights the significance of a sense of self-efficacy as an undeniable influence on N-TTGTs’ EPD in the context of Lagos State schools.
One of the sub-questions related to how new teachers understand and negotiate their professional development as they move from being trainees to working in schools. Orientation helped N-TTGTs clarify expectations of their roles as civil servants and what it means to work as teachers in Lagos State. Most schools indicated readiness for teachers in terms of in-school ‘induction’. There were also indications of established protocols for welcoming new teachers, with principals and HODs playing significant roles. Beyond this, however, there was no evidence of structured in-school support, or of any local education district programme aimed at helping N-TTGTs settle into their first jobs in schools. Induction is not recognised as a period of support for new teachers, and teachers are not allocated mentors on arrival in schools. Relationships forged with peers, departmental staff and school staff enabled N-TTGTs’ EPD. The absence of mentor relationships, structured feedback, reduced workload, frequent observations, reduced timetables and the other elements of support that come with induction inevitably reduced opportunities for N-TTGTs to engage in varied learning opportunities and invariably created gaps in their learning. The majority of N-TTGTs viewed teaching as something that needed to be learnt, and associated teacher professionalism with the possession of a PGDE. The link between PSFNT and the PGDE and/or its use in tracking N-TTGTs’ development during their EPD was not explicit. Beyond tendering PGDE certificates in fulfilment of employment conditions, there appeared to be no synergy between PGDE and in-school learning. N-TTGTs’ professional development in Lagos State schools is self-sought, and they are not held to account in terms of progress made during PGDE – and how in–school learning and CPD may or may not be contributing to this progress.

The second sub-question was: ‘In what ways do new teachers consider their roles and responsibilities as professionals within the context of their schools?’ The theme of impact (5.3.3) elicited that N-TTGTs conceive their role as a nurturing and altruistic one. They see themselves as role models, uniquely positioned to raise children’s aspirations and academic attainment. Despite challenging circumstances, schools have high expectations of N-TTGTs in
terms of students’ progress. Over and above this (and irrespective of the extended work their roles sometimes entailed), N-TTGTs have high expectations of their students and also hold themselves to the same high standards. Daily encounters with the educational challenges faced by children from poor socio-economic backgrounds compel N-TTGTs to see their responsibilities as stretching beyond the classroom and students’ academic attainment. The challenge of stretched resources in the face of increasing demand for schooling makes Lagos State schools a fertile ground for N-TTGTs to actualise their ideals for transforming children’s lives to the extent that their sense of self-efficacy allows.

Figure 9 below shows a summary of key themes emerging from the research questions. It illustrates how key aspects of N-TTGTs’ EPD are connected and influence each other. The research questions are linked by support, knowledge development and sense of self-efficacy as pertinent issues during N-TTGTs’ EPD.
6.3 New teachers’ EPD in Lagos State schools

This section offers a discussion and reflection on the enabling and/or constraining influences on N-TTGTs’ EPD in the context of Lagos State schools, using Eraut et al.’s (2004) framework. To structure the discussion, I use context factors and learning factors as broad headings. Beyond Eraut et al.’s (2004) factors, an additional influence on new teachers’ EPD in Lagos State is also presented. An adaptation of Eraut et al’s (2004) triangle is presented to reflect significant factors in N-TTGTs EPD. First presented is a highlight of what this study revealed about N-TTGTs as early career professionals working within schools in Lagos State.

The analysis highlighted readiness, impact and motivational factors as broad and related influences. Establishment of these themes as common threads running through the research questions point to the relevance of the context and learning factors identified by Eraut et al. (2004): the work itself, relationships at work, and the worker as an individual. The conformity of factors that shape N-TTGT’s EPD with Eraut et al.’s (2004) factors corroborate Findlay’s (2006) point about the comparability and significance of factors that influence professional learning. The undeniable significance of a sense of self-efficacy in N-TTGTs’ EPD resonates with Day and Gu’s (2007) emphasis that the contexts for teachers’ EPD are distinct from other human service organisations, because teachers are essentially engaged in work which has fundamental moral and ethical, as well as instrumental, purposes. In this study, values-based purposes often compelled N-TTGTs to meet unreasonable demands. An overriding theme that came through is N-TTGTs’ sense of their professional selves.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the idea of teacher professionalism as a tool for school improvements continues to gather support in most education contexts, and Nigeria is no exception. The employment condition requiring N-TTGTs to acquire teacher training qualifications, plus new teachers’ accounts of their conduct and confidence in possessing
specialist knowledge and PGDE, gave strong indications of their understanding of themselves as professionals. This aligns with Gewirtz et al.’s (2009) conceptions of ‘profession’ and ‘professional virtues’. Although high levels of graduate unemployment may have contributed to their career destination, N-TTGTs’ love for their subject and their desire to make it accessible to children was a theme that emerged. A desire to improve students’ life chances was evident in the way they viewed their recruitment, which was largely motivated by subject mastery. These demonstrations of professional virtues are indications of N-TTGTs’ attempts to work to their professional ideals as far as the affordances of their schools contexts allowed.

Restricted professionalism involves skilled classroom practice, while extended professionalism connotes a broad range of knowledge and skills which, when contextualised are said to improve classroom practice. Hoyle (1995) argues that extended professionalism is bigger and better than the older, more restricted notions of professionalism. Ordinarily, the need to undergo PGDE training and the extended responsibilities undertaken by some N-TTGTs would make their role conceivable as that of extended professionals. Keywords used to describe new or extended professionals include collaboration, peer coaching, teamwork, partnership, mentoring, professional development, relationships, and a focus on outcomes. The views of N-TTGTs and ELs about N-TTGTs’ roles and responsibilities typify some of the descriptors used for extended professionals. This idea was strongly implied in Demola’s attempt at making a distinction between ‘being’ a teacher – a notion he described as ‘prescriptive and monopolised by the context’ – and the ‘act’ of teaching – which, he contends, allows for ‘expanded expressions of skills beyond the confines of the classroom to engage and enthuse student’. This association of teaching to student outcomes, in and outside the classroom, attests not just to N-TTGTs’ professional ideals; it lends a voice to the central message of Hattie’s (2012) book which says to teachers, ‘know thy impact’. David-Lang (2013) puts this as the need to think of teaching with learning in the forefront – the primary purpose of teaching being its impact on student learning.
The responsibility placed on N-TTGTs to collaborate for effective engagement with assigned teaching groups supports the idea that these teachers are working to the professional standards of their contexts. Hattie’s (2012) description of ‘visible’ teaching and learning mentions teamwork as key to delivering desired student learning outcomes.

Despite problems presented by students, N-TTGTs seemed aware of their impact and spoke almost too confidently about their ability to help students improve. This discovery of seeming ‘over-confidence’ reinforces Knobloch’s (2006) assertion that ‘student teachers may have an inflated efficacy that they can teach’ (p.45). Indications of over-confidence or an inflated sense of self-efficacy include N-TTGTs’ qualifications, a reputation for helping learners succeed in external examinations, and past mastery accomplishments. This discovery corroborates Day and Gu’s (2007) findings that novice teachers have high levels of vocation, and confirms Tschannen-Moran and Hoy’s (2006) discovery of high levels of self-efficacy in new teachers in their first year of teaching.

6.3.1 Context factors
Allocation and structuring of work
N-TTGTs’ experiences were varied in that timetables were dependent on subject and teacher availability. As discussed under motivational factors theme, the fact that they were N-TTGTs in their first year of teaching did not have any bearing on the number of lessons allocated to them per week. N-TTGTs of computer studies, in particular, had heavy timetables, plus additional responsibilities for which they had no remuneration except for, in one case, a commendation letter. What was also striking from N-TTGTs’ narratives was that, with the exception of computer studies teachers (who regarded workload as a difficult aspect of the job), most N-TTGTs took their workload as the norm, accepting that they had to do more than their seniors.
An overriding influence in decisions about work allocated to N-TTGTs is exerted by school principals, at whose discretion letters of recommendation can be sent to local education district offices. Rather than contracting additional duties to external providers and stretching limited resources, school principals took advantage of N-TTGTs’ ICT skills, energy and versatility. The prevailing culture esteems respect to superiors either on account of age or rank at work. A subordinate would not refuse duties or question an unreasonable demand from a boss, even if it impacted negatively on their core duties, and personal well-being. In an environment of graduate unemployment, the likelihood of N-TTGTs refusing additional work from principals is very slim, even if they felt overworked and on the verge of burnout. This kind of power imbalance equates to what Bennell (2004) described as unrealistic social contract. In this study, expectations of N-TTGTs in Lagos State were indeed at a level that was not only unrealistic but also posed real concerns for their well-being and capacity to function effectively.

N-TTGTs’ experiences in this study reflect Indoshi’s (2003) point about NQTs being seen not as a training responsibility but as relief for experienced teachers. Like the teachers in Findlay’s (2006) study, N-TTGTs of core subjects are a valuable resource in Lagos State schools, and the ‘grab’ mentality seeks to deploy every possible skill that these teachers possess. Unlike the schools in Findlay’s (2006) study which used various promises and incentives to retain teachers, Lagos State schools lack the autonomy and financial capacity to influence teachers’ pay and conditions. What is within the power of principals is personal appreciation of N-TTGTs’ efforts and/or recommendation to SUBEB for formal acknowledgement. N-TTGTs in this study did not appear to be planning to leave their jobs; however, given the schools’ sense of entitlement to N-TTGTs as relief and the fact that some N-TTGTs felt they were not respected as human beings, one begins to wonder how long this will remain the case.

N-TTGTs reported the overwhelming response to graduate recruitment in Lagos State. This may be an indication that teaching is starting to attract the least likely candidates: highly qualified
Master’s and PhD degree holders, and career changers who may have had lucrative jobs in other sectors. The question of teachers of better quality can become a reality in Lagos State through selective recruitment of high-calibre graduates. The point must be made that studies have indicated that workload significantly impacts teacher attrition and wastage (Bobbitt et al., 1994; Macdonald, 1999; Smithers and Robinson, 2003). In my considered opinion, attrition is unavoidable, due to age, health and migration, and it can inject new energy and ideas into classrooms. It is also not undesirable, so long as the number of applicants entering teaching each year is greater than the numbers leaving (Fenwick and Weir, 2010). However, as described in Chapter Two, the quantity and quality of applicants entering teaching in Nigeria is neither higher nor better than the number leaving. Despite the attractiveness of teaching as employment of last resort, the danger of N-TTGT attrition becomes real in the face of heavy workload and the happenstance that they find employment in their preferred professions.

Opinions differ on the association of stress and teaching for beginning teachers, but the undue emphasis (Cameron, 2006) serves to highlight the challenges faced by new teachers and prompts calls for collaborative communities and physiological support for sustaining early early-career teachers’ commitment and energy (Cameron, 2006; Fenwick, 2011). Although the data indicated no evidence of decline in commitment, the heavy workload and lack of appreciation experienced by N-TTGTs are noteworthy. Of the work-related factors listed as high sources of teacher stress (workload, workplace conditions and climate, and expectations), workload has been singled out as being particularly significant (Hussein, 2007; Wilson, 2002). Research shows that stress has a huge impact on teachers’ health, well-being and performance (Blasé, 1968; Larchick and Chance, 2002), and Blasé (1968) emphasised that stress made satisfactory goal achievement with students difficult or impossible to achieve. Indications of N-TTGTs’ stress include assertions by Tinu that the workload was too much and left her no time for herself, and Juwon’s confession that he could not kill himself and do eleven jobs. A clear remit of N-TTGTs’ recruitment is for improvements in children’s learning outcomes; it may be for this reason that
N-TTGTs like Tinu and Juwon continue to cope with high workloads. What is inevitable in this regard is increased levels of N-TTGT stress, making the goal of educational improvements more difficult to achieve.

*Encounters and relationships at work*

N-TTGTs commented on the positive supportive relationships forged with departmental staff and principals, and the data showed that they valued informal relationships with peers. It was also apparent that N-TTGTs’ positive relationships with pupils contributed to student success and enabled effective teaching. This was demonstrated by Fenwick (2011), who concluded that relationships were integral to new teachers’ professional learning in the first three years. Despite the absence of close mentor-trainee relationships, the accounts of positive relationships maintained with principals and other school staff make it clear that forging positive relationships helped N-TTGTs address common challenges such as classroom management, lesson planning and workload pressures.

This study discovered that the absence of allocated mentors meant that, by happenstance, there were instances where N-TTGTs exercised a measure of autonomy. One example of this is Juwon’s account of replacing a teaching methodology that did not work for him (5.3.2.2). N-TTGTs’ disappointment in their teacher training course was a further indication of metacognitive engagement with knowledge gained and in-school learning. This evolving criticality and reflexivity allowed N-TTGTs to challenge ideas gained from PGDE courses and prioritise students’ needs in developing their repertoire of teaching methodologies.

This indication of N-TTGTs' autonomy is significant for two reasons. The first reason concerns the poor quality of teachers produced in Nigeria and its impact on student learning outcomes. Unlike NQTs in Hagarty et al.’s (2009) study, N-TTGTs in this study did not automatically imbibe dominant cultures and practices in their schools; instead, they sought to develop a more
effective practice by asking questions and reflecting on student outcomes resulting from trial of strategies in the classroom. They also devised methods of using students’ feedback to assess impact. This focus on student learning outcomes and the practice of seeking external perspectives mirrors Buitink’s (2009) findings that new teachers develop a practical theory in which they respond to student learning rather than imbibe what he called the ‘mediocre everyday pedagogy’ of showing and telling, which overlooks the underlying principles of education and teaching. The absence of structured support in the context of schooling in this study presented opportunities for N-TTGTs to use learning from past performance accomplishments and subject mastery, thereby limiting the chances of ‘progressive filtering of prior knowledge’ – a concern expressed in Chapter Three.

The second significance of N-TTGTs’ autonomy relates to Eraut’s (2004) notion of the complexity of knowledge transfer across contexts. Crucial aspects of N-TTGTs’ learning, namely induction prior to posting, PGDE studies, and training opportunities, took place outside of schools. The ideas N-TTGTs brought from past accomplishments and insights gained from PGDE studies were integral to their reflection. There was no evidence that N-TTGTs had been shown skills to effect knowledge transfer across contexts (Eraut, 1994); however, what seemed apparent was a reflective capacity that helped them sift through and apply knowledge they deemed relevant for their development. N-TTGTs’ thinking did not automatically become aligned with dominant views within schools, and they did not face discontinuities in their learning in the way anticipated in Chapter Three.

*Individual participation and expectations of performance and progress*

There was a strong sense that N-TTGTs felt supported in the way they were acculturated into schools. There were indications, however, of signs of bewilderment that later gave way to feelings of despondency, often due to additional subject-related responsibilities. Feelings of isolation resulting from this and from lack of structure for support were also apparent. As a
cohort that evolved as a group during a recruitment journey that existed for up to two years, being split into different schools meant the loss of the immediate help and protection to which N-TTGTs had become accustomed to. The initial elation felt on being shortlisted for interview and receiving letters of employment appears to have been tempered – first by feelings of isolation when posted to schools where they were not assigned mentors, then by feelings of bewilderment upon encounters with schools, and then, later, by despondency, as the realities and the expectations of teaching dawned on them. N-TTGTs’ realities in this study bear semblance to elements of teaching reality or ‘praxis’ that have been reported about new teachers’ encounters with the classroom (Capel, 2006; McConey et al., 2012; Muijs et al., 2010; Stokking et al., 2003). Particularly relevant is Ashby et al.’s (2008) findings on the compounding effect that individual school experience can have on the realities of teaching.

What is expected from teachers (the ‘social contract’) is not pitched at a realistic level in many countries given material rewards, workloads, and work and living environments. (Bennell, 2004)

N-TTGTs accounts showed that expectations of performance was apparent and understood in the way they referred to improvements in students’ learning outcomes as a measure of their progress. A significant inhibiting influence on N-TTGTs’ EPD that emerged in this regard was isolation occasioned by additional work expectations. This was particularly potent for Tinu and Juwon, whose accounts indicated feelings of exhaustion and emotional drain, as sole teachers of their subject who also undertook additional duties. It is also key that their additional efforts went unrecognised, save for occasions when things did not go as expected – at which times other staff members were quick to complain. These experiences show the relevance of de Lima’s (2003) conclusion that prevailing school cultures can inhibit new teachers’ socialisation into teaching. Ashby et al. (2008) describe the compounding effect of isolation on the physical exhaustion and emotional drain felt by teachers in their first year, while studies have identified isolation as a source of teacher stress inhibiting self-efficacy (Friedman, 2000).
6.3.2 Learning factors

Confidence and commitment and personal agency

The concept of teaching as an individual process and the limitation placed on teachers’ confidence plus the simplicity assumed in the context-free individualistic nature of competency-based model of teacher support was discussed in Chapter Three. Out-of-school PGDE programmes and CPD, use of checklists for assessing teachers’ professional standing and evaluating CPD course effectiveness, the requirement to pass examinations for acceptance onto PGDE programmes and registration with TRCN are indications of cognitivist-informed approaches to teacher learning and development in the schooling context of N-TTGTs in Lagos State.

Much current CPD provides opportunities for the development of individuals’ knowledge-of-practice alone. Whilst knowledge-of-practice is important, this dominant CPD model makes the cognitivist assumption that such knowledge-of-practice can simply be put into practice in classrooms, or the like, to improve student learning. (Kelly, 2006, p.510)

Cameron et al. (2007) cautioned that pre-service teacher education is the very tip of what teachers need to be contributing over the course of their careers. In this study, the inhibiting influence of individuality on N-TTGTs’ EPD is that it curtailed the experiences and expressions of wider benefits of CPD that involves the learning of others, and wider school priorities such as impact on pupil learning, and relationship with peers. For example, some N-TTGTs in this study had no prior classroom teaching or facilitation experience, and they needed to cultivate relationships that could provide opportunities for, among other things, concerns to be raised, shadowing and observations to be arranged, and peer reflections to take place. The prevailing culture and practice within the setting of some N-TTGTs’ work made it possible for them to develop these competencies, while other N-TTGTs approached this circuitously. N-TTGTs did not mention peer reflections and observations as part of learning opportunities. There was no indication that these opportunities were promoted in schools, nor was it apparent whether N-TTGTs were encouraged to seek out opportunities to collaborate and network with other teachers.
This research focused on an environment where it was anticipated that N-TTGTs would interact with other teachers and experience situations that promote learning within communities of practice (Wenger, 2009). Day and Gu (2007) allude to Wenger’s (1998) idea of teacher learning being complexly interconnected and happening on an individual, community and organisational level (p.9). Although N-TTGTs’ accounts of the benefits of CPD alluded to student progress, gaps were apparent in the learning opportunities the environment presented; they did not view their development in terms of the benefits of CPD on the school as a whole, what other teachers learnt and the benefits of relationships with peers. This study’s discovery of the limiting influence of the competence-based approach to teacher learning on N-TTGTs’ EPD in Lagos State corroborates Pedder, Storey and Opfer’s (2008) findings about teachers’ attitudes to CPD: that, overall they viewed it in terms of individual fulfilment rather than for collective or collaborative reasons.

**Feedback and support**

Considering the idea of novice teachers and support, it emerged that most N-TTGTs were helped informally by ‘helpful others’ at the point of need, thus echoing Eraut et al.’s (2004) finding on the importance of informal support from people on the spot rather than formal support. Some N-TTGTs described the role of ‘cooperating’ teachers, while others approached their HODs and other teachers with whom they had formed relationships. The narratives show that N-TTGTs valued cooperation and relationships with colleagues in their department, as well as work-related conversations with peers. Understandably, N-TTGTs spent a lot of their time within subject departments, where they received immediate support.

The study also revealed some observable variations in relation to individual schools and subject departments. Quick and immediate feedback helped to affirm and increase N-TTGTs’ confidence. In a context where induction is recognised and functional, an assigned induction
tutor would take responsibility for formal assessments and regular observations of new teachers to track their progress and prepare them for assessments. The quality of pedagogical support N-TTGTs experienced in this regard was poor; observations were not planned, and there appeared to be no guidance on their frequency and format. N-TTGTs obtained feedback, but it appeared superficial in that no development targets were set, and there was no structure for following up on highlighted areas of development. Finally, for N-TTGTs who were progressing well, feedback did not appear to challenge them in any way; they seemed unlikely to give it any attention beyond when it was first discussed.

Fenwick and Weir (2011) describe the importance of mentoring relationships and informal partnerships in teachers’ EPD. These emotional and relational aspects were evident in N-TTGTs narratives. There was little sense of the existence of formal mechanisms for N-TTGT learning beyond motivations to inspire children to succeed. In what appears to be a fulfilment of Evans’ (2008) functional and attitudinal development and Geiwitz’s (2009) ideals, a sense of purpose and a desire to be better was evident in the ways N-TTGTs sought to improve themselves and cooperate with established rules and norms. This corroborates the idea of new teachers’ sense of their professionalism, as discussed in Section 6.3.

*Challenge and value of work*

N-TTGTs were indeed exposed to new work that appeared to challenge them. Students’ impoverished home circumstances placed additional demands on some N-TTGTs, with regards to low entry levels, absenteeism and a lack of engagement associated with child labour and limited parental engagement. The environment of many schools in Lagos State was one of general deprivation, with shortages of equipment and facilities. Despite this, N-TTGTs did not appear to view the work as challenging – although the extended duties required of some N-TTGTs presented peculiar challenges for their well-being. That said, successes encountered in these additional tasks increased N-TTGTs’ confidence to try more challenging work.
With reference to the relationship described between work allocation and confidence (Figure 5), it is important to note here that the pattern of allocation of N-TTGTs’ work was not on an incremental basis. From day one, N-TTGTs in this study encountered challenging work (full timetables, full teaching responsibilities, extended duties) in challenging environments (unusable staffroom furniture, dilapidated buildings, insufficient classrooms, chairs and tables, lack of teaching resources and materials). The apprehensions, especially of those with no teaching experience, showed as initial lack of confidence. However, beyond indicating awareness of incompetence, the data indicated no evidence of N-TTGTs’ confidence waning as a result of challenging work. The relationship between work challenge and confidence did not become curvilinear in the way anticipated in Figure 5. What this study has made apparent is the fact that ITE designs, nature of support and CPD shape how different elements of Eraut et al.’s (2004) factors interact to affect N-TTGTs’ work in different contexts. In this study, it was normal practice for N-TTGTs to have the same responsibilities as experienced teachers from day one. For some N-TTGTs, their heavy workload resulted from extended work beyond the core remit of teaching. They did not appear less confident, but there were indications of strained relationships and isolation.

### 6.3.3 Eraut et al.’s Two Triangle and new teachers’ EPD

Eraut (1994) drew attention to the influence of the first two or three years in determining the particular personalised pattern of practice every professional acquires (p.11). Boshuizen (2003) described the possibility that workplaces may not present as safe environments for graduates to learn in the expectation that they function as full-fledged professionals (p.21). External whole-school mentoring and in-school acculturation is the extent of N-TTGTs’ experience of mentoring and induction revealed in this study. N-TTGTs in this study were not seen as trainees. Contrary to the curvilinear relationship between challenge and confidence anticipated under section 3.4.2 (see figure 5), unrealistic work expectations did not demotivate N-TTGTs,
neither did their confidence and commitment wane. Despite the absence of induction support, poor feedback and the reality shock of teaching in Lagos State, many N-TTGTs emerged as confident teachers, committed to making a difference to the lives of their students. This discovery conforms to Moor et al.’s (2005) discovery of links between negative experiences of first year teaching and retention in the profession. The early experiences of teaching in Lagos State schools compelled N-TTGTs to work within their personal beliefs about the role of teachers and they showed a sense of moral purpose in so doing. The professional commitment shown by N-TTGTs and the attributes of personhood shown by N-TTGTs came through strongly as a sense of their self-efficacy.

The significance of Eraut et. al's (2004) context and learning factors in N-TTGT’s EPD have been discussed. This study has shown an undeniable influence of sense of self-efficacy on N-TTGTs EPD in the context of schooling in Lagos State. N-TTGTs sense of self-efficacy is now discussed in light of Eraut’s Two Triangle model.

**New teachers’ sense of self-efficacy**

Efficacy is described as a teacher’s confidence in their ability to improve student learning (Hoy, 2000). Prothereo (2008) said teachers who believe they can teach all children in ways that enable them to meet high standards are more likely to exhibit teaching behaviours that support this goal. N-TTGTs’ narratives about their roles and responsibilities revealed a strong sense of their perceptions of their competencies, and this showed in their behaviour. The importance of why teachers adopt particular practices and the purposes they aim to achieve has been shown by Coe et al. (2014), who listed ‘teacher beliefs’ as the fifth of six common components worth considering when thinking about effective pedagogy. The link established between teacher beliefs and student outcomes makes sense of self–efficacy a noteworthy construct for this study. For example, the idea that teachers with a strong sense of self-efficacy are more persistent and resilient when things do not go smoothly (Jerrad, 2007) was strongly
demonstrated by N-TTGTs. Phrases used by N-TTGTs include ‘doing my best’; ‘they just need to be imparted’; ‘it’s not for everybody’; ‘let them see you to be their mentor in terms of everything’. Another important factor in the determination of a teacher’s sense of efficacy is described by Bandura (1977) as performance accomplishments. N-TTGTs spoke confidently about differences they had made to students’ learning prior to becoming teachers; they also described progress made by students during their time of interaction with them.

The codes indicating teachers’ sense of self- and task readiness (Section 4.4) elicited the challenges N-TTGTs faced as new teachers and how they overcame them. Phrases used included ‘highly, highly challenging’; ‘environment here... is very very poor’; ‘the size of the class... too big’; ‘you have more work to do’. A significant aspect of N-TTGTs’ context was the challenging circumstances of Lagos State schools which meant N-TTGTs encountered person- and/or school-centred dimensions of challenge. Despite this, what was revealed was a sense of N-TTGTs’ resilience, the desire to impact and inspire, growing confidence in their instructional abilities and pedagogic knowledge. The focus was on student outcomes, over and above the day-to-day confidence required to teach or do challenging work.

Day and Gu (2007) contended that investment of emotional energy in the workplace is not an optional extra for teachers, and managing the emotional arenas of classroom life is fundamental to effective teaching:

> The more such teachers’ emotional energy is depleted-through adverse effects of personal, workplace or policy experiences-the less will be their capacities for sustaining effectiveness. (p.428)

N-TTGTs’ accounts indicated stretched emotional energy resulting from adverse workplace experiences, and the challenge of raising children’s aspirations. Rather than negatively impacting their confidence, N-TTGTs persisted and wanted to do their best.
Following on from the experiences of N-TTGTs uncovered in this study, a further adaptation of Eraut et. al.’s (2004) two triangle model for new teachers is presented as a funnel that shows the two triangles embedded inside a bigger triangle with the context factors placed at the top. Also, sense of self-efficacy now replaces confidence as a learning factor. (see figure 10 below).

A further adaptation of Eraut et al’s (2004) framework is deemed necessary for two reasons, firstly Eraut et al. (2004) singled out confidence as the most important factor in effective professional learning, and showed how other factors related to the individual worker (commitment, personal agency, individual participation, expectation of performance and progress) emerge relationally from each other and from other factors. Unfortunately, Eraut et al. (2004) did not provide clarifications for some aspects of these person centred factors. For example, the contribution of confidence to learner effectiveness was described in terms of the way confident individuals act proactively to seek out challenging work, support and feedback. Applied this way, confidence assumes an environment of equal access to learning opportunities and feedback where expectations of performance are made clear and individuals are encouraged to be proactive and ask questions. The presupposition here is that commitment and confidence underpin the exercise of personal agency at work. This study showed N-TTGTs as intrinsically motivated and committed professionals who despite unrealistic work expectations remained confident in their capacity to improve children’s learning outcomes in challenging situations. Being confident in an under-challenging (poor feedback) work environment did not afford N-TTGTs room for agency in the way Eraut et al. (2004) implied. This study has shown that confidence does not adequately capture the nuanced experiences of N-TTGTs in the context of schooling in Lagos State. Sense of self-efficacy is seen as a further aspect of the individual worker that exerted an undeniable influence on N-TTGTs EPD and has been used to replace confidence in the learning factors triangle.

Secondly, the containment of the two triangles within a larger triangle depicts the idea of space and relevant socio-political factors that workplaces are a part of. The experiences of N-TTGTs in this study have shown that factors within each triangles do not only intersect with each other
and across the two triangles but the legal frameworks, societal values and norms that shape these spaces are influenced by culture. Embedding the two triangles within a larger triangle is an attempt to indicate the boundaries within which these intersecting influences happen.

**Figure 10.** A further adaptation of Eraut’s (2004) Two-Triangle Model for Teachers.

The issues uncovered in this study show that the application of Eraut et al’s (2004) framework bears great potential for uncovering different aspects of the professional learning of teachers in different contexts. Indeed a new study, with research questions focusing on the professional learning
opportunities for teachers in Nigerian schools is already being considered as a result of insights gained in this study. It is this study’s view that the definition of personal agency, its intersecting influences on confidence and commitment, the possibility of unrealistic work expectations, and under-challenging workplaces are dimensions of professional learning contexts that were not clarified or explained in great detail by Eraut et al. (2004). To aid further applications of Eraut et al.’s (2004) framework for understanding the professional learning of teachers, especially in a SSA schooling context such as Nigeria, explicit definitions must be given to ‘personal agency’ and ‘expectations of work’ in such a study.

6.4 Personal and professional reflections

This section presents the significance and implications of the study’s findings on professional practice, as well as the future professional development needs of N-TTGTs. A model of support that meets the EPD needs of N-TTGTs is conceptualised, with a view to institutionalising the idea of bespoke support for new teachers (graduates and non-graduates) without formal teaching qualifications in Nigerian public schools.

As explained in Chapter One, my pursuit of doctoral studies was born out of a desire to help teachers, particularly those struggling as a result of poor quality support. Bourner and Simpson (2014) describe three ways to develop the capacity to make a significant original contribution to the advancement of professional practice:

- advancing knowledge relevant to enhanced professional practice, personal and professional development of the doctoral candidates as practitioners and bringing about change that directly enhances professional practice. (p.133)

Beyond fulfilling a desire to make the entry into teaching a more positive experience for other teachers, the doctoral journey exposed me to Bourner and Simpson’s (2014) dimensions of learning, and advanced my knowledge of teaching and learning in significant ways. This advancement of knowledge echoes Eraut’s (1994) submission that CPD brings practising
professionals into contact with new knowledge and ideas. The first of these was a process of reflection on my professionalism, resulting from engagement with conceptions of teachers as semi-professionals in the writings of Etzioni (1969), Hoyle (1995) and Goodson and Hargreaves (1996).

I considered myself professional after attaining QTS on successful completion of a difficult induction year as a science teacher in a UK-maintained school. The institutional constraint of social inclusion created by government policy added to my workload, and stress. In retrospect, what I experienced then as summarised by Day and Gu (2007) was:

(A) threatened sense of agency and resilience; and challenge to teachers’ capacities to maintain motivation, efficacy and commitment. . . coupled with the continuing monitoring of the efficiency with which teachers are expected to implement externally generated initiatives. (p.425)

In exploring N-TTGTs’ experiences of EPD in an entirely different socio-cultural context, it was insightful to observe that N-TTGTs experienced challenges to their commitment and resilience as well. For me, signs of burnout were evident, and resignation from a permanent position to work on a supply basis helped me step back and reframe. Working in an environment of high graduate unemployment, stepping back is not an option for N-TTGTs. Any benefits to be gained from reframing would have to be achieved in the face of daily demands on their emotional labour. Day and Gu (2007) suggested that, to be effective, professional learning opportunities must take account of the personal, workplace and external scenarios which challenge teachers’ commitment to these core purposes. Unlike me, N-TTGTs continued to strive to do their best, despite the challenges presented by these relational and emotional scenarios.

A second and significant reflection concerned a shift in my motivation for improving practice in relation to new teacher support, as a result of new knowledge gained about how societal changes have affected educational practices and teacher professionalism in different contexts. An important aspect of this is the deterioration of Nigeria’s education system and what I
perceived to be weaknesses in the structure for training and developing new teachers in Nigeria. I became concerned about how teachers are supported in this context. Scott et al. (2002) stated that

rationales for undertaking study of this type change at different points in the process and effects on practice cannot easily be read off from either student intentions or post-hoc rationalizations of impact on practice. (p.3)

The socioeconomic challenges of education has remained onerous in Nigeria since I commenced this study, and supporting teachers has remained my raison d’être. Low quality continues to compound the problem of teacher quantity – a problem which remains huge in Nigeria. Graduate unemployment remains high, making classrooms the dumping ground for non-teacher trained and ill-equipped individuals who are not supported to change the educational outcomes of children. In 2017, the dismissal of two-thirds of primary school teachers in Kaduna State who failed a teacher assessment test was made public. Aside from the socio-economic and ethical dilemmas of making teachers unemployed, the implication of this nationwide pattern of poor teacher performance is that, from an early age, children are at risk of leaving school with an achievement gap which becomes difficult to fix in secondary schools. Beyond these weaknesses in Nigeria’s education system, these occurrences continue to embarrass teachers and teaching as a profession.

It is possible that a way of addressing this is the 2016 launch of N-Power Teacher Corps which started the deployment of graduates into schools as teaching assistants. It was my considered opinion that, given the onerous teacher shortages, the likelihood was high that these graduates would not just assist with teaching – they would teach. In describing the challenges faced, N-Power Teacher Corps participants describe their roles as teachers. As a social mobilisation scheme, creating employment opportunities for unemployed graduates comes with a price. The use of non-teacher trained graduates as teachers raises questions about the status of teaching as a profession in Nigeria; it negates the claim that teaching is a profession in Nigeria and makes equitable access to quality education for all to remain elusive. The implication of this is that
secondary school teachers are powerless to cushion the gap in children’s learning outcomes and ensure they leave school with good qualifications. The government’s social mobility agenda must not be an obstacle to achieving educational potential for all. More importantly, it must not weaken an occupation’s attempt at professionalisation.

A potential constraint presented by using a theoretical framework in a phenomenological study that generated a lot of data worth mentioning here is the danger of mapping data to predetermined themes and/or the research questions. This danger was minimised by using thick descriptions to summarise what new teachers said before categorising them under likely headings. Answers to the research questions started becoming apparent immediately the themes were identified. This inductive thematic analysis approach is reflected in the structuring of the report whereby the data is presented in chapter five while the discussions and reflections on findings is discussed in chapter six.

This study’s findings show that my perceptions about weakness in new teacher support were not unfounded; in fact, the study is timely in that there is an expectation that recommendations made could inform improvements in teacher training, N-TTGT support, and the subject of teachers’ work-life balance. Equally illuminating is the fundamental problem of children’s achievement gap, which the system continues to perpetrate through the low cut-off scores needed for admission into colleges of education (in 2017, this stood at 100 out of a possible maximum of 400, making it the lowest requirement for any course); the corresponding low quality of entrants onto education courses; and government social mobility reforms. This multidimensional nature of educational problems makes the chances of Nigeria achieving inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting lifelong learning opportunities for all (Sustainable Development Goal, (SDG) 4) difficult, if not impossible.

Before undertaking this research, I was unaware of the popularity and implications of the PGDE as a professional training route. Reid and Weir (2008) suggest that graduates prefer the PGDE
because they want to finish academic study and enter practice quickly. As a career changer, an important consideration in my choice was its relatively short duration and the certainty of earning a salary in a context with a dire shortage of science teachers. A significance of the PGDE in Nigerian universities is that it does not prepare school teachers alone, and it is not phase- or subject-specific. This has particular implications for secondary school teachers, who may not be adequately prepared by a generalist integrated programme for educators at different levels from different work contexts and disciplines.

Targeted recruitment of graduates with the request that they undergo professional teacher training is an innovative practice in Lagos State. This may signal preference for a professionally trained graduate, employment-based route to secondary teaching in Lagos State. Although criticised for ignoring how contextual issues mediate teacher effectiveness (Parker and Gale, 2016), employment-based schemes such as Teach First (TF) in the UK and Teach for America in the US have won plaudits for recruiting high-flying graduates into teaching. A fundamental contributor to the success of graduate recruitment in these contexts is the support that teachers get in bridging the transition between teacher education and classroom practice. The experiences shared by N-TTGTs bear no semblance to the structured support and joined up school centred university backed training reported of teachers on employment-based routes in other countries such as the Netherlands, UK and America. The TF organisation is reported to have made claims (which are contested) suggesting that its teachers improve student outcomes by about 30% (Parker and Gale, 2016). The thinking behind this innovation and its impact on entry routes into the teaching profession in Nigeria is not apparent. The belief that one of the strongest predictors of improved pupil performance is the number of excellent teachers, especially in challenging schools is fundamental to TF’s innovative teacher training (Hutchings et al. (2006). If an employment-based route is desirable in Lagos State, the case presented for preferring the PGDE route over the BEd route must be understood so that the infrastructure, and resources that support undergraduate teacher training are not jeopardized. More
important is the subject of funding and support for graduate teachers undergoing teacher training while employed as teachers in the context of Lagos State schools.

Soon after becoming a teacher, the realisation dawned on me that it is a stressful occupation. My reflection at that point was that the daily exercise of emotional labour involved in teaching means the classroom is not a destination for everyone. This point was also made by one of the N-TTGTs in this study. While on a scholarship at WASEDA University in Japan, it was insightful to draw parallels between what I coined the ‘hidden workload’ of science teachers and the experiences of teachers of similar disciplines. In this study, respondents’ accounts of full timetables and expressions of contextual challenges of teaching were not surprising. What was surprising, however, is school principals’ autonomy in allocating additional work to N-TTGTs and N-TTGTs’ fear of broaching the subject. Coming from a system with established procedures for ensuring new teachers’ access to statutory support and basic employee rights, these insights have helped me to stand back to examine new teacher support more broadly, taking cognisance of the social, political and cultural aspects of teaching and learning. The discovery of N-TTGTs’ commitment to raising children’s attainment humbled me personally, and made me question my resilience on a professional level. N-TTGTs’ powerlessness to address issues impacting their well-being and human rights makes my notion of science teachers’ ‘hidden workload’ seem indulgent.

Prior to interviewing teachers in this research, the literature perused on the low quality of teachers produced in Nigeria had started to make me think that Nigeria teachers were ambivalent about their professional development. The interviews however, presented a picture of intrinsically satisfied professionals, who enjoyed teaching their subjects and took pride in the value that different training opportunities added to their knowledge and skills. Despite finding aspects of the job unsatisfactory and the environment challenging, they: showed no ambivalence, saw themselves as role models, and cared about their effectiveness and their
students. Discovering N-TTGTs’ sense of self-efficacy and commitment was significant for me personally and professionally; these teachers model a new type of professionalism, as practitioners who embody a different definition of teachers and teaching in the context of Lagos State and, indeed, Nigeria. Viewing N-TTGTs as new professionals makes them conceivable as agents of authentic system change, whose images do not align to traditional notions of teaching and learning but conform more to an emerging new definition: teachers of hope, capable of educational renaissance in Lagos State. This study has significantly influenced my way of thinking as a professional.

An important contribution to my professional learning is the opportunity I now have to visit classrooms in low-income schools where I mentor and coach teachers across different teaching phases and subjects in Nigeria. I see first-hand what I have read and written about, and I now have a glimpse of the extent of Nigeria’s educational challenges. The rationale for focusing intervention attention on the early years and primary school level can be understood, if not excused. Nonetheless, I continue to advocate for new teacher support and for a focus on professionalism as a tool for championing system change at the classroom level.

Looking ahead
The rationale for examining the EPD of new teachers in Nigerian public schools was to increase understanding of the influences on N-TTGTs’ development and effectiveness, thereby contributing to knowledge about teaching and learning in this context, and raising awareness about the determinants of pedagogic knowledge development. Analysis of the interviews, combined with a review of literature showed support for professional knowledge development and meeting social and emotional needs as fundamental in helping N-TTGTs make sense of their everyday teaching, enhancing their effectiveness and success in the first few years of their careers. It is clear that a focus on the relational and emotional aspects of EPD will help N-TTGTs meet diverse interrelated personal and professional needs. The Two Ps Model of Support for N-
TTGTs’ EPD is presented as a model for understanding and implementing the said support. The model contributes to knowledge by illustrating the relational and emotional aspects of EPD as key priority areas for N-TTGT support (see Figure 11 below).

Figure 11. A conceptual model of support for new teacher EPD in Lagos State.

As a framework for N-TTGT support in schools, the Two Ps Model can be used as a tool to establish new teachers’ baseline knowledge, devise a bespoke support plan and track progression towards attainment of PGDE and professionally qualified teacher status (see
Section 7.4 below). Each element of support functions on its own, but can function more effectively when provided as an interconnected plan of support with other elements. For example, being part of a peer network can promote joint reflection amongst teachers, thereby enhancing their content and pedagogic knowledge. This professional knowledge development can be reinforced with the input of an ITE tutor and coaching support in a collaborative environment typical of professional learning communities. This is in line with McNally et al.’s (2008) perception of the significance of the emotional and relational dimensions of new teachers’ EPD, and it can be argued that the effectiveness of the Two Ps Model is enhanced by the interrelationship between elements.
Chapter Seven: Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction
Chapter Six discussed this study’s findings on the context and learning factors that shape N-TTGTs’ EPD. This chapter presents a summary of the study’s significance, its contribution, and conclusions.

7.2 ‘The time is right’
The constraining and enabling effects of Eraut et al.’s (2004) factors on N-TTGTs’ EPD in Lagos State has been revealed. Notions of support, professional development, and sense of self-efficacy link the research questions together and make the research both topical and timely for a number of reasons. Firstly, as indicated in Chapter Three, the participants interviewed were amongst the first set of non-teacher trained graduates recruited to work as teachers by Lagos State. They were all unemployed prior to recruitment and were experiencing EPD at what can be described as the early experimentation stage of a new intervention. Secondly, starting from the 2010/2011 academic session, TRCN introduced a national PGDE benchmark for universities and teacher education providers. This study’s participants were among the first to be trained using the renewed PGDE curriculum. Thirdly, the idea that teacher quality is the key to improving schools has fuelled the attraction of high-calibre graduates into classrooms in many countries. A fourth reason is the growing argument in favour of classrooms’ authenticity as the ideal place to learn how to teach. This has resulted in a trend towards school-based paid student-teacher models in many education contexts.

In the large scale ‘microwaving’ of graduates into classrooms under N-Power Teacher Corps scheme, the Government can be viewed as interfering with teacher training processes in Nigeria, risking further wear and tear to the fragile status of the profession. This concern was raised in Section 2.3. Despite this, signs of imposition of changes in teacher recruitment
practices, plus the requirement for new recruits to obtain a PGDE, are indications of the
renovation or redesign (Evans, 2008) of teaching professionalism. If this is so, N-TTGTs, this
study’s ‘teachers of hope’, may just be the panacea that Nigeria’s education system needs.

These factors are not just relevant in contextualising Nigeria’s response to the challenges of
teacher recruitment and retention; they also locate the study and its findings at a time of
undeniable flux in the debates and practices surrounding the what, who and where of teacher
education pedagogy in Nigeria. Indeed, the questions of what teachers learn, who delivers
teacher learning and where teacher learning takes place are most salient.

7.3 Understanding new teachers’ EPD in Lagos State

This study focused on the first three years of new teacher EPD (i.e. the first two years during
which N-TTGTs were to obtain formal teaching qualifications, and their third year of work as
teachers). Broad and interrelated themes that affect N-TTGTs’ EPD were established.

Although disappointments were expressed by three N-TTGTs, there was consensus among most
that knowledge gained from PGDE studies supported them in teaching their specialist subjects
and within their phases. They reasoned that the PGDE made them knowledgeable about
education disciplines and empowered them to plan for and achieve student progression. These
views align with findings of studies that indicate that teachers prepared for teaching are more
confident and successful than teachers with limited training (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Orchard
and Winch, 2015). It is noteworthy, however, that three N-TTGTs commented that PGDE did
not adequately add value to their capacities to teach. The views expressed by these N-TTGTs
are important and significant for two reasons. Firstly, because it has to do with the quality of
the benchmarked PGDE course which did not meet N-TTGTs expectations. This view highlights
how a generic PGDE, while enabling professionals of non-education disciplines to access the
course and providing qualifications in a short time frame, means participants emerge only with
broad knowledge, more in tune with the nature of primary teaching. In-school learning and prior teaching accomplishments of these dissenting N-TTGTs possibly cushioned the gap in what they could have learnt on the course. The belief, which I do agree with, is that secondary teaching requires detailed subject pedagogy and specific training to support development. These N-TTGTs experiences confirmed that a generalist teacher-training curriculum leaves secondary school teachers inadequately prepared.

A second significance of dissenting N-TTGTs comments about PGDE is that it opens up the debates about the requirement for teachers to be trained and where this training should take place in the context of teaching and learning in Lagos State. One arguments against the PGDE route in this regard is the limited opportunities presented for practical learning in school, and the theory content. Ordinarily, these suggestions do not invalidate the need for pedagogic knowledge development but they do lend teachers’ voices to Lawlor’s (1990) argument that teaching skills are essentially practical ones. Indeed, a number of N-TTGTs’ indicated appreciation of practical aspects of PGDE training (such as classroom management, lesson planning), which they felt were more relevant to their immediate needs than training on broad education theoretical disciplines. This seeming aversion to theoretical components of teacher preparation was demonstrated by student teachers in Hobson’s (2003) evaluation of the one-year postgraduate initial teacher training in England. In Barber and Moursheed’s (2007) evaluation of world school systems, the case was presented that ‘very little teacher training takes place in the teachers’ own classrooms, the place where it would be precise and relevant enough to be the most effective’ (p.27). The arguments in favour of practical aspects of teacher preparation (Hobson et al. 2006, 2009) raises two questions for initial teacher preparation in this context: one concerns the need to understand the relevance of educational theory in teacher preparation and how this informs the practice of teaching; the other concerns the capacity of schools in Lagos State to handle a large proportion of the training of N-TTGTs.
Indeed, whether the nature of schooling experienced by N-TTGTs can accommodate the professional learning of N-TTGTs.

In the context of Lagos State and Nigeria as a whole, there is a paucity of studies on the place of theory in the training of teachers and indeed on the wider subject of comparability and perceived quality of different routes of teacher preparation. More research is needed to answer these questions, but proponents (Day, 2012; Winch et al., 2015) contend that teachers need a conceptual framework within which to develop their thinking about educational issues. On the question of capacity, Junaid and Maka (2015) referred to shortages of mentors for trainee teachers in Nigerian schools. The time and resource limits placed on Nigerian schools and N-TTGTs experiences showcased in this study compels me to argue that a shift towards school-based ITE provision cannot be the answer in this context. If theory is deemed relevant and classrooms are considered the most ideal space for teachers to learn, making a distinction between what teachers learn and who delivers such learning can help focus attention on the need for strong practical and contextual emphasis as enabling pedagogy for N-TTGTs’ EPD in Lagos State. The question of how this enabling pedagogy can best support the EPD of N-TTGTs in Lagos State schools becomes a more purposeful endeavour.

Nigeria’s National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) (FME, 2009) makes provisions for ‘a process of supporting graduates in their first year of service’. If actions were taken to develop this process, they were not implemented in the schools N-TTGTs worked in. In addition, N-TTGTs did not show awareness of induction as a structured process of new teacher support. The welcome (orientation/acculturation) presented by schools and understood by N-TTGTs as induction can best be described as informal and unstructured support. Unlike developing countries such as Ghana, Trinidad and Tobago, Lesotho and Malawi, where Lewin and Stuart (2003) observed the lack of a formal policy on induction, Nigeria does have such a policy; however, this study has shown that it is not functional. If induction is predominantly to address gaps in new teachers’
knowledge or inadequacy in their development (Hagger et al., 2011), absence of such indicates that these issues are not addressed in the context of Lagos State schools. Closely related to this is the fact that despite the deadline set for teachers to register with TRCN, N-TTGTs did not indicate they had registered as either qualified or unqualified teachers. The schooling environment experienced by N-TTGTs is still grappling with basic issues of definition of who a teacher is, the professional status of such a person, and challenges with regards to policy implementation at the school level.

This study confirms findings of other studies that concluded that novice teachers are not mentored in Nigerian schools. Research studies and stakeholders views positively describe the impact of school-based mentors as key elements of the ITE experience (Ashby et al., 2008; Hobson, 2002; Hobson et al., 2009b). It is arguable that not having one-to-one mentoring meant crucial learning opportunities, structured feedback and other mentor-related advantages were not part of N-TTGTs’ EPD in Lagos State. I feel however that, had N-TTGTs been assigned mentors, the time- and resource-constrained work environments would have meant limited availability. It is also noteworthy that evidence has shown that mentoring does not necessarily deliver its full educational potential (Fletcher, 2012a). Hobson and Malderez (2013) provided evidence that conditions necessary for mentoring to flourish do not exist, even in resource-rich contexts. Crucially, in this instance, lack of mentors meant that the danger of exposing N-TTGTs to mediocre mentoring was eliminated.

This study’s findings evidenced that the quality of teacher support in Lagos State schools is abysmal and not effective for their EPD. The disproportionate power exert by principals over teachers is a reflection of workplace practices that allow manager excesses, and what amounts to staff exploitation to go unchecked. The influence of culture that perpetrates respect and deference to school principals makes N-TTGTs conceive their status as inferior, and this renders them powerless to question what constitutes an infringement of their basic human rights. Such
an environment represents a threat to N-TTGTs’ confidence and, ultimately, their effectiveness. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2006) concluded that contextual factors such as teaching resources and interpersonal support were salient in the self-efficacy beliefs of novice teachers. Hoy (2000) recommended the need for more studies to pinpoint characteristics of schools that might affect the development of beginning teachers' beliefs and to map relationships between specific school characteristics and teachers’ sense of efficacy. In Section 3.4.1, I expressed a desire to gain insights about the nature of social and emotional support available to teachers; it has become apparent that such support is not recognised in this context. There is an urgent need for studies into the dimension of social and emotional support N-TTGTs need in this context and how this can be provided.

Accounts of CPD in this study showed no serious commitment to N-TTGTs’ continued training and development. They did not start teaching with career entry profiles that indicated baseline competencies and areas of development. Undertaking training was an end in itself; there were no indications of formal links established between CPD and N-TTGTs’ career entry and development profile – or generally for staff development purposes, such as annual appraisals. N-TTGTs’ experiences of a competence-based model of CPD in Lagos State bears close semblance to Bennell and Akyeapong’s (2007) observations about CPD in African contexts: ‘usually scarce, one-shot, top-down, unrelated to a broad strategy and not targeted at teachers who need it most’ (p.16).

McNamara et al. (2014) advise that a strong focus on developing pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), as well as research-based practice and teachers trained to masters level are success factors of the teacher education programs in Finland - a high performing education system (McKinsey, 2007). Commentators believe that the Finnish model accounted for the move by many European schools towards a teaching profession educated up to Masters level; in England this was designed, studied and supported in the workplace. Philpott (2014) advises
that the interaction between experience and formal study of education is what develops appropriate PCK. N-TTGTs cited improvements in children’s learning outcomes as indicators of their effectiveness, but high quality education, research informed practice and practical experience are what would inform the enabling pedagogy for N-TTGT effectiveness consistently. This will be delivered in a knowledge-intensive environment conducive for N-TTGTs EPD. McCormack and Thomas (2003) said novice teachers can struggle during the first few years of teaching in the absence of adequate professional support, effective induction and mentoring. Not only did N-TTGTs in this study struggle, their environment was one that paid limited attention to their work-life balance and predisposed them to stress and burnout.

In framing teacher learning in the workplace, McNamara et al. (2014) advocate for systematic planned opportunities and attendant experiential learning resulting from an activity whose goal is not primarily learning. Under section 3.4, the suitability of education settings as authentic sites for exploring new teachers professional learning was considered. Going by the experiences of N-TTGTs uncovered, the schooling environment does not align with what could be considered ideal for workplace learning to thrive in Lagos State schools. Reflecting on Schultze and Boland’s (2000) reference to Harvey’s (1989) distinction between ‘being’ in a place and the process of ‘becoming’ through traversing a space, McNamara et al. (2014) conceived workplace learning of teachers as inside and outside the physical environment of schools as well as across professional boundaries. This conception of place and space in workplace learning of teachers makes the prospect of an enabling pedagogy conceivable whereby teachers explore virtual spaces to engage in professional learning and development activities. Indeed, N-TTGTs alluded to using the internet to train themselves and carry out research. In order for this to translate to any semblance of workplace professional learning for N-TTGTs EPD, more deliberate effort and planning will be required.
It is important to note as well that N-TTGTs did not indicate they had registered with TRCN either as qualified or unqualified teachers, despite the deadline set for teachers to do so. Flouting the rules of the professional body of teachers and weakening the remit of TRCN makes the government culpable in the continued struggle for the professionalization of teaching and the low status accorded the profession in Nigeria.

7.4 Implications and recommendations

This study has demonstrated the comparability of factors that affect learning, as well as the significance of moral and ethical purposes when the learners are new teachers. This research could be of interest to schools, university faculties of education, providers of teacher education and training, professional bodies and other stakeholders interested in ITE, teacher support and CPD as a broad discipline, and as it relates to teaching and learning in SSA and/or specifically in Nigeria.

What is significant in this study is the indications that some N-TTGTs come from deprived backgrounds and experienced similar standards of education in Nigerian schools.

Teachers who have little experience of disadvantage and deprivation often do not view their students as capable or bringing anything of value to the classroom. (Parker and Gale, 2016)

Shared experience of disadvantage meant N-TTGTs could relate to their students’ experiences, are better able to support them, and do not hold negative views about them. Nonetheless, continued experience of failings in Nigeria’s education system in terms of the quality of initial teacher training and the inhibiting context and learning influences on their EPD has implications. Despite this, N-TTGTs appear not to be overly concerned about their challenging work, either because they are unaware of induction and mentoring provisions or simply because they are powerless to challenge the fact that these provisions are not implemented. An
implication of this is possible reduced interest in classrooms as career destinations for unemployed graduates and potential high teacher turnover resulting from stress and burnout.

A cultural commitment to education as a social ladder means N-TTGTs persevered to educate themselves and become employable. In contexts where the education provided is perceived as of good quality, the PGDE route is considered adequate to develop teachers’ knowledge sufficiently to teach in secondary schools. This study has contributed to knowledge about issues surrounding graduate recruitment for educational improvement in Nigeria and raised awareness about the experiences of graduate teachers in secondary schools in Lagos State. Despite this, there remains a knowledge gulf regarding early career experiences of new teachers generally in Nigeria. The poor quality of teachers produced by the weak education system in Nigeria is known, but there is no evidence of empirical studies about views of educational bodies and stakeholders on the preferred balance between BEd- and PGDE-trained teachers in Nigeria. Furthermore, perceptions about the relative importance of teachers’ subject knowledge versus professional knowledge and skills in teacher training in Nigeria remains unexplored. Perhaps the lack of clarity in the way universities have responded to waning public distrust of teachers’ capacity is of more interest.

This knowledge gulf raises an undeniable need for scrutiny of the teacher training curriculum and delivery. It is therefore important that required knowledge and skills considered necessary to award BEd and PGDE qualifications are understood. Key questions to clarify could include: i) whether such knowledge and skills are an integral part of current BEd and PGDE curricula in faculties of education; ii) whether faculties of education provide the right resources and environment to deliver such curricula; iii) how the process of recruitment can ensure that students with the passion to teach and/or the ability to develop the skills, competencies and attitudes to teach are the ones that complete teacher training, especially as BEd graduates.

186
Given the shortage of sufficiently experienced teachers to act as mentors, the dangers of perpetrating mediocre pedagogy, and evidence of negative experiences of induction by new teachers in relatively less challenging circumstances, this study strongly doubts that operational and enforced induction would enhance new teachers’ EPD. Menter et al. (2006) emphasised the importance of making courses responsive to local contexts and needs; it would be pragmatic to explore creative ways of cushioning the gap in current teacher support provisions, using a bespoke curriculum that addresses dissatisfactions with teacher quality without placing extra burdens on already-stretched resources.

Beyond quick-fix recruitment strategies through postgraduate training, due cognisance must be accorded teacher education practice and policy. Answers must be sought regarding the core practices of the ‘better teachers’ envisaged for educational improvements in Nigeria. What qualifications and training must these better teachers possess to attain this status? How can teacher training pedagogies be planned to capture the core practices of the teachers envisaged? Ingvarson (2013) warns that, instead of shortcuts to building a high-quality school system, relevant policies which operate through different stages from recruitment to retention must be in place. Barber and Mourshed (2007) contend that, even in education systems where teaching commands traditionally high professional status, policy still plays a crucial role in determining quality. It cannot be gainsaid, therefore, that teachers’ status and the quality of education envisaged for Nigeria will be underpinned by appropriate teacher education policies that transcend political agendas and/or government regimes. In presenting the case for policy emphasis on supporting teacher learning, Cameron et al. (2007) describe the need

 pigeated expectations that teachers will develop their expertise throughout their careers, provide tangible rewards for demonstration of this expertise, and strengthen schools so that they become the sorts of environments where teachers are able to grow and thrive. (p.2)

It is this challenge that besets Lagos State schools and, indeed, Nigeria. Parker and Gale (2016) described TF’s alignment with a type of politics associated with privatisation, deregulation and
marketisation. In 2016, N500 billion was budgeted for the Buhari government SIP; however, by May, only N41 billion had been expended on the four programmes, with N-Power gulping down the largest sum of N26 billion. Reflecting on Johnson’s (2009) concern, it is inevitable that the issue of education funding must become a top agenda item in order for teaching to motivate and pay the right calibre of teachers, capable of delivering quality education as a right to every Nigerian. It would seem fair to conclude that existing systems for training secondary teachers is not working and there is need for reform. Government and private sector collaborations will be integral for this reform to work. Due clarity must be sought to establish the nature of professional development capable of increasing teachers’ skill as well as their pedagogic, and content knowledge. The benefits of the Two Ps Model of Support (Section 6.4) must be carefully considered in light of the inhibiting influences on N-TTGTs’ EPD this study has shown. Graduate teachers can be the ‘teachers of hope’ that Lagos State and indeed Nigeria needs for educational renaissance. The right policy will underscore appropriate teacher preparation and CPD that will be delivered by teacher educators and private sector collaborators who share the same vision for Nigeria’s education.

The following recommendations are made from the study’s findings, harnessing its significance as a useful contribution for developing a curriculum for N-TTGT’s education and development.

**Extended PGDE with a bespoke curriculum for two years**

The curriculum for the postgraduate professional training of teachers must be reviewed to fit the purpose of secondary teaching in Lagos State; it must be subject- and phase-specific. A link needs to be established between the standards in PSFNT and the aims and purposes of teacher education as stated in Nigeria’s NTEP (FME, 2009). These professional standards and policy directions can be defined in terms of personal qualities and professional and practical knowledge and skills, presented in the form of competences which students must be deemed to have achieved by the end of their PGDE course and prior to provisional registration with
TRCN. Aside from being accredited for meeting the requirements for undertaking academic studies at postgraduate level at the end of the first year, PSFNT should be made an essential part of the PGDE course, for which students should be accredited at the end of year two. Being able to demonstrate teaching proficiency will help N-TTGTs demonstrate the professional standards stipulated by TRCN and attain professionally qualified teacher status (PQTS) at the end of year three. A N-TTGT in possession of PGCE who has met the professional standards is deemed to have PQTS status.

**Coaching support for N-TTGTs**

I strongly advocate for the adoption of the Two Ps Model as a framework for supporting new teachers (Section 6.4). This model would complement the bespoke extended PGDE course, which would involve schools and teacher training providers (universities and NTI) working collaboratively using coaching strategies. From this study and my experience of teaching and supporting trainee teachers, N-TTGTs need coaching to become the authentic ‘teachers of hope’ they could be in the context of schooling in Lagos State. This could minimise the risk of mediocre pedagogy that has contributed to deteriorations in the state of Nigeria’s education. The benefit of the Two Ps Model is that it incorporates the key areas this study has shown N-TTGTs need support in, and it is underpinned by coaching strategies.

**Higher education’s voice and action for quality improvements in teacher education**

There is a need for a systematic review of the guidelines for secondary teacher preparation and the fitness of the benchmarked PGDE for this. From the perspective of this analysis, the concern expressed in Chapter One over the lack of intervention attention to secondary teacher preparation was not imagined. In the pressure to reduce unemployment burdens and provide better teachers, it would seem the microwaving of graduates into classrooms will go on for the foreseeable future. The government, in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, should fund universities to carry out research comparing undergraduate and postgraduate
experiences; as well as the potentials and possibilities of employment-based teacher training. Universities are uniquely positioned to commission or support a longitudinal study to track the career experiences of teachers trained through these different routes in their EPD years.

Furthermore, universities must encourage and champion innovative approaches for training secondary teachers. Efforts must be made to recruit suitable classroom practitioners to work as teacher educators after being trained themselves on educational theories. Strong partnerships must also be sought with schools whose staff will be trained appropriately to provide targeted support to trainee teachers using coaching strategies. N-TTGTs’ learning experiences in the university and in-school will be integral components of the bespoke PGDE programme, through which they will be supported to tick off the competencies to attain PQTS.

A case for the autonomy and empowerment of TRCN as a professional body
The government must pay cognisance to the rules and regulations that govern the regulatory role of TRCN. Attainment of professional standards for registration should be a condition for accreditation of postgraduate professional teacher training courses offered by ITE institutions. This requirement makes the registration of new entrants into the profession manageable and makes teachers aware of their professional responsibilities and expectations.

TRCN should also work hard with stakeholders to establish a code of conduct that recognises emotional and social support for N-TTGTs, holding schools, teachers and ELs to account.

7.5 Study limitations
One limitation of this research as a small-scale study is that the findings may not typify the responses of all N-TTGTs in Lagos State and, indeed, Nigeria. It may not have uncovered all the factors that shape N-TTGTs’ EPD, or the extent to which identified factors enhance or inhibit it.
The main source of data is what N-TTGTs, school principals and ELs said in interviews; these responses may present a limited, partial or subjective view of the factors involved.

Another important consideration is the limitations of interviews. Many factors can influence interactions between the researcher and interview participants. One example is how interviewees interpret the terms used in questions. Both Creswell (1998) and Moustakas (1994) suggest that the researcher defines the terms for the study to illustrate to the reader what the researcher means by their use. This has implication for the interpretation of questions, the analysis process and application of the study’s findings. Although in-depth interview allowed for probing to ensure coverage of the ideas I was exploring, I simplified questions after the pilot interviews to ensure correct interpretation and to limit the potential for misinterpretation. Significant findings emerged that draw attention to the paucity of literature about the experiences of N-TTGTs in this context. The implication of this is the scope for improvements in pedagogies for teacher education and practices in Lagos State and in Nigeria. Further research is needed in these areas and in other areas which form natural extensions of this work, such as:

- the help N-TTGTs need to support their EPD on arrival in schools
- the effectiveness of TRCN and ways to enhance its autonomy as a professional body
- the effect of issues of support and agency on N-TTGTs’ teaching and learning
- a holistic approach to the EPD of N-TTGTs in Lagos State and in Nigeria.

7.6 Summary

Beyond Eraut et al’s (2004) context and learning factors, this study’s findings revealed another dimension of N-TTGTs’ experiences that was not previously considered. Of particular sociological concern is the autonomy that principals in Lagos State schools have in determining N-TTGTs’ work schedules, and the implications of this on N-TTGTs’ professional and personal lives. The issue of work-life balance is quite emotive and salient, given the constraint on N-
TTGTs’ agency. It is compelling that the parallels between early career experiences of N-TTGTs and other professionals such as nurses, engineers and accountants is explored in this context.

The Two Ps Model has been presented in this study as a framework for capturing the areas in which N-TTGTs need help and support, and as a framework for ensuring targeted support to match N-TTGTs’ progression in the first three years of their career. This study contributes to understanding about the problems faced by all types of new teachers and teachers in general. If the recommendations herein are adopted, Lagos State and Nigeria can anticipate better outcomes and the start of an educational renaissance.
References


Retrieved online from
https://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents/46709695/Research-
Methodology.pdf?AWSAccessKeyId=AKIAIWOWYYGZ2Y53UL3A&Expires=1527770548&Sign
ature=4dn%2BJ1Wlug%2Fgxf9HxW0yjmndzDo%3D&response-content-disposition=inline%3B%20filename%3DINTRODUCTORY_LECTURES_ON_RESEARCH_METHOD.pdf


Lai, C., Chan, W., & Li, C. (2002). BEd versus PGDE programmes as routes for initial teacher program. Hong Kong: Office of Planning and Academic Implementation, The Hong Kong Institute of Education.


McLeod, J. (2001). *Qualitative Research in Counselling and Psychotherapy*.


Appendices

Appendix A   Ethics Approval

Ethics Application Form:
Research Degree Students

All student research that use research methods to collect data from human participants is required to gain ethical approval before starting. Please answer all relevant questions. Your form may be returned if incomplete. Please write your responses in terms that can be understood by a lay person.

For further support and guidance please see Ethics Review Procedures for Student Research http://www.ioe.ac.uk/about/policies/Procedures/42253.html, contact your supervisor or researchethics@ioe.ac.uk.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section 1 Project details</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Project title</td>
<td>Developing as a teacher: a study of Newly Qualified Teachers in Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Student name</td>
<td>Olufunke Fasoyiro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Supervisor</td>
<td>Dr. Victoria Showunmi Dr. Christine Callender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Advisory committee members</td>
<td>Professor Andrew Brown, Dr Paul Temple, Dr Ian Wilkie, Dr Germ Janmaat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Department</td>
<td>Lifelong and Comparative Education (LCE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Faculty</td>
<td>Policy and Society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Intended research start date</td>
<td>November 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Intended research end date</td>
<td>December 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Funder (if applicable)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Funding confirmed?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Country fieldwork will be conducted in</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. All research projects at the Institute of Education are required to specify a professional code of ethics according to which the research will be conducted.</td>
<td>BERA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. Which organisation’s research code will be used?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n. If your research is based in another institution then you may be required to submit your research to that institution’s ethics review process. If your research involves patients recruited through the NHS then you will need to apply for ethics approval through an NHS Local Research Ethics Committee. In either of these cases, you don’t need ethics approval from the Institute of Education.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o. Has this project been considered by another (external) Research Ethics Committee?</td>
<td>Yes ☐ No ☑ go to Section 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p. If so, please insert the name of the committee, the date on which the project was considered, and attach the approval letter in either hard or electronic format with this form.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ethics Form: Doctoral Student Research 3.0 2012

Page 1 of 9
Section 8 Attachments Please attach the following items to this form, or explain if not attached

a. Further information about the work
   Yes X       No ☐

b. Approval letter from external Research Ethics Committee, if applicable
   Yes ☐       No X

c. Information sheets and other materials to be used to inform potential participants about the research.
   Yes

Section 9 Declaration

I confirm that to the best of my knowledge this is a full description of the ethics issues that may arise in the course of this project.

Name

Date 19/10/14

Please submit your completed ethics forms to your supervisor/course administrator.

Ethics Form: Doctoral Student Research 3.0 2012
Departmental use

If a project raises particularly challenging ethics issues, or a more detailed review would be appropriate, you may refer the application to the Research Ethics Coordinator (via researchethics@ioe.ac.uk) so that it can be submitted to the Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC) for consideration. FREC Chairs, FREC representatives in your department and the research ethics coordinator can advise you, either to support your review process, or help decide whether an application should be referred to the FREC.

Also see 'when to pass a student ethics review up to Faculty level committee':
http://intranet.ioe.ac.uk/ioe/cms/get.asp?cid=13449

Reviewer 1

Supervisor name

Dr Victoria Showunmi

Supervisor comments

good ethics application that demonstrates clear understanding of ethical implications for the study

Supervisor signature

Reviewer 2

Advisory committee member name

Gerard Janmaat

Advisory committee member comments

all ethical issues are given good consideration

Advisory committee member signature

Decision

Date decision was made

Decision

Approved and reported to FREC

Referred back to applicant and supervisor

Referred to FREC for review

Recorded in the student information system

Recording

Once completed and approved, please send this form and associated documents to the faculty research administrator to record on the student information system and to securely store.

Further guidance on ethical issues can be found on the IOE website at http://www.ioe.ac.uk/about/policiesProcedures/41899.html and www.ethicsguidebook.ac.uk

Further guidance on recording ethics applications in the student information system can be found on the intranet http://intranet.ioe.ac.uk/ioe/cms/get.asp?cid=13449

Ethics Form: Doctoral Student Research 3.0 2012
Appendix B   Letter of Introduction

Faculty of Policy and Society
Department of Lifelong and Comparative Education
20 Bedford Way
London WC1H 0AL
Website: www.ioe.ac.uk/
HOD: Professor David Guile
1st November, 2014

Developing as a teacher: a study of new teachers in Nigeria
Outline of an on-going 15-month research project by Olufunke Fasoyiro

This research study is being conducted under the supervisions of Dr Victoria Showunmi and Dr Christine Callender. The key aim of the study is to develop an understanding of the context and learning factors that enable and/or constrain new teachers’ professional development.

Objectives

The aim of this study is to develop an understanding of the context and learning factors that enable and/or constrain the development of new teachers. By focusing attention on the early learning experiences of teachers who have undertaken a graduate teacher training route, it is possible that usable information about teachers’ perception of their roles and responsibilities is gained. It may be possible to examine closely the baseline skills and competencies that pre-service training equips new teachers with as they make the transition from being taught to starting to teach.

The main question being researched is:
What are the context and learning factors that influence the professional development of new teachers in Nigeria?

Sub-questions are:

   How do new teachers understand and negotiate their professional development as they move from being trainees to working in schools?

   In what ways do new teachers consider their roles and responsibilities as professionals within the context of their schools?

After careful examination of approaches used to explore other issues related to new teachers and teachers in general, a qualitative approach was considered to be best suited for this research. The methodological tools are summarised below:

In-depth interviews: in-depth interviews will be conducted with new teachers, officials from Lagos State Ministry of Education and school principals.

In addition to interview data, the National Policy on Teacher Education, Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers and the PGDE programme of study in Nigeria are secondary data sources that this study will examine. These secondary data will be used to triangulate and support or invalidate interview evidence.

The Research Team

Supervisors: Dr Victoria Showunmi
           Dr Christine Callender
Researcher/Student: Olufunke Fasoyiro

Contact
Dr Victoria Showunmi Dr Christine Callender

Olufunke Fasoyiro
Appendix C  Research Information Leaflet

Developing as a Teacher: a Study of New Teachers in Nigeria
A research study

Information for research participants who are education professionals and stakeholders in Lagos State, Nigeria

Please will you help with my research?
My name is Olufunke Fasoyiro and I am a research student at the University College London Institute of Education.

This leaflet provides information about why the study is being carried out. I hope it will provide useful answers to any questions that you might like to ask. I would be pleased to provide further information that you may need.

What is the purpose of the study?
Many concerns and questions have been raised about the learning outcomes of Nigerian children, which focus attention directly on the quality of teachers that work in Nigerian schools. Where there are concerns about the quality of teachers being produced, it does seem logical to examine the nature of initial teacher education within that context. Johnson’s (2009) research highlights the direct relationship between poor quality of teaching and poor learning outcomes in the Nigerian education system. Fundamental to this problem is the question of the adequacy of qualifications that pre-service trainees possess.

The aim of this study is to develop an understanding of the context and learning factors that enable and/or constrain new teachers’ professional development. By focusing attention on the early learning experiences of new teachers who have undertaken a graduate teacher training route, it is possible that usable information about teachers’ perception of their roles and responsibilities is gained. It may be possible to examine closely the baseline skills and competencies that pre-service training equips teachers with as they make the transition from being taught to starting to teach.

Why am I being asked to consider the study?
The study seeks to interview male and female graduates who secured employment in Lagos State schools between 2013 and 2015, who also fit this study’s definition of new teachers by the completion of a PGDE teacher training course. Other education professionals that this research seeks to interview
include senior officers at the Ministry of Education (MoE) and school principals. It is possible that your experience may contribute useful insights to the issues that I am exploring.

What would being in the study involve?
The study participants will be interviewed for no more than one and a half hours. The venue will be arranged to suit you. The interview notes will be analysed and will form the primary evidence for the report, which is a requirement of my doctoral studies at UCL. My supervisor and an external examiner will read the report.

What questions will be asked?
I will be asking participants questions on the following themes: motivation for becoming a teacher; motivation for undertaking a graduate teacher training route; qualifications; work experience / skills; experience of own and relevant others' education; context of pre-service training; context of in-service professional development and sociocultural context of employment school.

What will happen to me if I take part?
It is not anticipated that participation in the study could cause you any harm. However, some people may feel upset when talking about some topics. If this happens and you want to stop talking, we will stop. Also, if after the interview, you have any concerns about the project, please tell me. If you agree to take part, I will tape-record the sessions and type them up later. I am not looking for right or wrong answers, only for what everyone really thinks.

Where can I find the results of the study?
The findings of the study will be reported and submitted as a thesis to UCL IOE as part of the requirement for doctoral studies. As this study is a scholarly research, it will be available for dissemination through UCL IOE Library catalogue.

Who is organising and funding the research?
I am organising the research with the support of my supervisors. I am self-funded.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?
The study will mainly collect information to help raise awareness of the factors that affect how new teachers develop professionally in Lagos State Schools. It is possible that a theme may emerge which may form the basis for a larger study. This also has the potential to contribute to better learning outcomes for school children. It is possible that this one-year study can provide usable knowledge about the issues that concern new teachers’ integration into Lagos State schools.

Will my participation in the study be kept confidential?
My supervisors are aware that I am interviewing teachers and other education professionals in Lagos State, but they are not aware of participants’ names. Anything you tell me will be strictly confidential, and I will not tell anyone else what you tell me unless I think someone might be hurt. If so, I will talk to you first about the best thing to do.

I will keep tapes and notes in a safe place, and will change all the names in my report, including the names of the schools that research participants are associated with.
Who has approved the study?
The study has been approved by a panel of the UCL IOE EdD Programme team for adherence to BERA ethics protocols.

Are there any risks?
It is possible that participant identity is linked to schools that they are talking about. The study data will be kept confidential by separating them from identifiable individuals. Also, the codes linking data to individuals will be securely stored. Confidentiality will be maintained at all times and care will be taken when discussing with others the issues arising from an individual interview, to ensure that no individual is identified. No disclosure will be made on what an individual has said in an interview. Individuals and places will also be anonymised in the dissemination of the study to protect participants’ identities.

What if there is a problem?
It is not anticipated that the study could cause you any problems. If there are any issues arising from participation, you will be supported and signposted to where help can be obtained.

Do I have to take part?
You decide if you want to take part. Even if you say ‘yes’, you can drop out at any time or say that you do not want to answer some questions.

You can tell me that you will take part by signing the consent form.

Thank you for reading this leaflet.

Olufunke Fasoyiro
Email: 
T: 

232
Dear Colleague,

Re: Developing as a Teacher: A Study of New Teachers in Nigeria

My name is Olufunke Fasoyiro and I am undertaking a research study at the University College London Institute of Education. Due to my interest in teacher education, I am carrying out a study about the initial teacher education (ITE) and early professional development experiences of new teachers. I am interested in new teachers working in Lagos State schools based on the following criteria:

- Completion of the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) from providers in Lagos State
- New teachers who have been employed for up to but not more than three years.

In addition, school principals and Lagos State Ministry of Education officials will be interviewed.

I would really appreciate your help with this study by allowing me to interview you about the pre-service teacher training experience of the PGDE programme and subsequent experience of working within a school in Lagos State.

I have planned to talk to participants who will take part for no more than one hour. I will tape-record the discussion to help me remember what you have said and to help me write a report. However, the discussion will be confidential and the only people who will listen to the discussion will be I and the person who transcribes the digital tape. Nobody will be named in the report.

If you are happy to take part, I would be very grateful if you could sign the attached form and return it to me. If you would like to know more about the study, please use the details below to contact me.

Many thanks for taking the time to read this letter and for your help.

Yours sincerely

Olufunke Fasoyiro
Email: M:
I am happy to take part in the study – Developing as a Teacher: A Study of New Teachers in Nigeria

- I agree that the interview can be recorded.
- I understand that the interview will be confidential.
- I understand that I can stop the interview at any time.
- I understand that even if I say ‘YES’, I can drop out at any time or say that I do not want to answer some questions.

Signed..................................................................

Participant

Please print your name.................................

Please return this form to me as soon as possible
Appendix E    Interview Schedule for New Teachers

Age
School education and experience of schools and teachers—positive and negative role models
Education since school
Previous employment experiences outside teaching
How, why and when did you decide to become a teacher?
Previous teaching experience
Influence of college/university teachers
Further prompts:

• Was teaching a part of your original plan?
• Did family and friends influence your career choice?
• Did your personality influence your choice of job? How?

Context of teacher training
Experience of teacher training
How training supported understating of the curriculum
How training supported teaching specialist subject
How training supported teaching within your phase
How training prepared for managing behaviour in the classroom
How training equipped to use a range of teaching methods that promote pupil learning
How training supported planning to achieve student progression
How training prepared for inclusion of all pupils e.g. pupils with special educational needs
Training preparation to teach across a range of abilities
Training preparation to work with colleagues and managers as part of a team
Training preparation to communicate and engage with stakeholders e.g. parents and carers

Context of professional development
Reasons for being in current post—motivations for applying and accepting the job
The post and what it entails—timetable, phase of teaching
Experience of induction period
Nature of work in relation to isolation/collaboration
What is most and least rewarding aspect of the job?
Perceptions of support received during the period of employment
Perception of training received during period of employment
Formal and informal support—mentors in school
Nature of feedback
Relationship with colleagues and line manager
Which aspects of work are most rewarding, examples?
What has presented most difficulties, examples?
What are current concerns?
What has been achieved over the year?

Sociocultural context of the school
Transition from student teacher to classroom practice—any tensions?
What do you consider to be the role of a teacher?
Are your current responsibilities consistent with what you believe the role of a teacher should be? What has changed? Give examples of what is good, what could be better and why
Do you fit into the school comfortably?
Does the school accommodate your ideas about teaching and the way you prefer to work?

Extra prompt questions

- How would you describe yourself as a teacher?
- How do you see teaching as a profession?
- What are your expectations from this job?
- What are the characteristics and abilities that make you think you are a good teacher?
- What are your goals as a teacher?
- In what ways do you see yourself as a professional?
- What has been your greatest challenge in teaching so far?
- What has motivated you to stay in teaching?
- What in-service training or CPD have you done?
- Do you have autonomy in your classroom as a teacher?
- How much autonomy does a teacher have? Give examples
- How have constant changes in educational policies affected you professionally? and personally?
- What roles do you think teachers can play in policy formulations?
- Has the teaching council impacted in your life as a teacher?
- What do you think is the role of the teaching council?
- Tell me as much as possible about your identity as a teacher versus your identity as a person.
- Anything else you want to add?
Appendix F  

Interview Schedule for Education Leaders

How many years teaching / in current school?
How are new teachers supported on arrival in your school?
Do new teachers have formal/informal support in their first year of teaching?
In what ways are new teachers supported beyond their first year?
Do new teachers have an induction period? For how long?
Is this induction period recognised and compulsory? Explain
How do new teachers manage the transition from ITE to teaching in your school?
Is the transition easy or difficult? Are there any tensions or differences in emphasis?
Do new teachers have an assigned teacher (mentor) that supports them?
What training do mentors get to prepare them for the role of supporting new teachers?
In what ways are mentors supported in order to fulfil their roles?
What does the role of mentors involve in your school?
Are mentors shared with any colleagues such as Heads of Department?
What is the principal’s role when new teachers start work in your school?
Is there a Career Entry Profile? Are appropriate/manageable targets set for new teachers?
In what ways have new teachers developed over the year?
Are new teachers current development needs significant/few?
What issues cause new teachers most concern?
Does in-school support adequately reflect the needs of new teachers?
Is there anything missing? Ways you want new teachers to develop not identified or monitored by the LEA.
Any other issues you want to comment on?
### Appendix G – Tables

**Table 6**  
*Non-Teacher Trained Graduate Teacher Data Set (N-TTGTDS)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>What teachers said in relation to norms and behaviours on arrival in schools – welcome, reception, put them through, we train them in writing of lesson notes, cooperating teacher, integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Induction</td>
<td>Where participants referred to the training they received</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice</td>
<td>Teachers making connections between PGDE and practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>To face children the first time, where teachers questioned strategies shown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progress</td>
<td>Where respondents spoke about how they were developing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criticality</td>
<td>Participants questioned the way things were done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>In the way respondents viewed the role of teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depends on subject</td>
<td>How participants talked about N-TTGTs’ timetables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>N-TTGTs’ perceptions of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom readiness</td>
<td>What participants said about their preparedness to teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commendation</td>
<td>Wider responsibilities carried out in schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Linking education theory to practice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Extended role beyond teaching responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students’ progress</td>
<td>How participants described what they enjoy about teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence</td>
<td>When participants discussed the altruistic nature of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hidden things about education</td>
<td>How PGDE extended N-TTGTs’ knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Assurance (QA)</td>
<td>N-TTGTs described tracking of their progress, ELs described training evaluation, check compliance, school inspection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequacy</td>
<td>N-TTGTs feeling inadequate on arrival in schools – step it down so they could understand, how do you get their attention, writing my lesson plan was a little bit of a challenge,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Making impact | What N-TTGTs enjoy about teaching – students’ marks in exams, students asking where teachers have been when absent, teachers’ desire to impart knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Label</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Readiness</td>
<td>ELs describing teachers preparedness to teach on arrival in schools – literacy, inability to express themselves (BEd), subject knowledge, problems in schools of education, knowledge of education methodology (BSc/BA), handling children, intimidated on seeing many children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shadowing</td>
<td>ELs talking about new teacher support, observation of teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Assurance</td>
<td>Monitoring N-TTGTs’ progress, follow-up, constant shadowing for quality assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvise</td>
<td>Instances where teachers’ needs were discussed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manage</td>
<td>When discussing school environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is going on here?</td>
<td>School principals’ perceptions of N-TTGTs’ reactions to lack of resources, classrooms and infrastructure in schools, large number of students, staffroom conditions, poor salary, teaching environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional advice</td>
<td>ELs describing how N-TTGTs are supported by telling them what to do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion</td>
<td>ELs describing their motivation for teaching, new teachers reaction to the realities of school – something inside, interest in young people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core subjects</td>
<td>Training around subject disciplines as part of teachers’ CPD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>ELs’ descriptions of training given to N-TTGTs when they are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-house seminar</td>
<td>Ways ELs described training for N-TTGTs – absorbed into culture of school, integrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>When ELs described challenges faced by teachers in schools and how these are communicated back to the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>School principals’ feedback to ELs about N-TTGTs / rationale for training N-TTGTs – don’t know anything, not interested in the job, not teaching well, not handling students well, stepping stone, not understanding what it means to be a teacher, lack of other jobs, problems with teachers who studied education, problems in schools of education, discovery that teaching is not so bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling children</td>
<td>ELs descriptions of N-TTGTs – never knew how to handle children, not understanding what it means to be a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of other jobs</td>
<td>Influx of people into teaching, PGD study a condition of graduate employment, desire to be confirmed after two years result in retention, make education attractive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of N-TTGTs</td>
<td>In making the distinction between training that N-TTGTs get – education degree holders not interested in teaching, communication problems, problems with schools of education, teachers’ expectations of education students, teacher educators’ devotion to teaching, knowledge of teaching methodology amongst graduates, teachers who did not have teaching qualifications teach well, professional, intimidated, how to teach a subject, subject knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards teaching</td>
<td>Status of teaching in society, poor salary, education of teachers, conception of teaching as a profession, education students at odds with course, interest of students, make education attractive, teaching is a lovely profession</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Interventions                 | Continuity of government policies, stakeholder input, channels of
Table 8

Table of Superordinate Themes (TST)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task Readiness</td>
<td>N-TTGTs and ELs describing teacher preparedness to teach on arrival in schools&lt;br&gt;BEd V PGDE; subject knowledge, knowledge of education methodology (BSc/BA), handling children, teaching pedagogy&lt;br&gt;How PGDE extended N-TTGTs’ knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Readiness</td>
<td>N-TTGTs talking about prior experience, past accomplishments, experience of helping students pass exams, love of their subject&lt;br&gt;ELs talking about some new teachers wanting to teach, going for their Master’s and staying on in the profession despite the challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Network</td>
<td>N-TTGTs talking about teachers recruited in the same cohort being placed in their schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isolation</td>
<td>N-TTGTs talking about being placed in a special education school; music teacher being only teacher of music and lone member of department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generation Gap</td>
<td>When ELs talked about N-TTGTs’ first reactions to staffroom and general school environment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Induction                      | N-TTGTs talking about the training they received prior to or immediately after being posted to schools  
|                              | ELs talking about how new teachers are inducted into teaching |
| Shadowing                    | EL talking about new teacher support, observation of teachers |
| Quality Assurance            | When N-TTGTs talked about the progress they were making  
|                              | Monitoring N-TTGTs’ progress, follow-up, constant shadowing for quality assurance  
|                              | ELs describing training evaluation, check compliance, school inspection |
| Improvise                    | Instances where teachers’ needs and the expectation on teachers to be creative were discussed |
| Manage                       | ELs discussing school environment and the expectation on teachers to manage with limited staffroom furniture, large student numbers, insufficient chairs and tables – general lack of infrastructures and resources  
|                              | When N-TTGTs talked about the abject lack of teaching resources and aids |
| What is going on here?       | N-TTGTs’ sense of bewilderment on seeing the environment, state of classrooms, large number of students, insufficient chairs and tables, children sitting on the floor. School principals’ perceptions of N-TTGTs’ reactions to lack of resources, classrooms and infrastructure in schools, large number of students, staffroom conditions, poor salary, teaching environment |
| Professional advise         | N-TTGTs are supported by being told what to do, how to behave professionally as teachers and civil servants, what civil service rules mean |
| Passion                      | When N-TTGTs talked about love of their subject and making it accessible for children to learn  
|                              | ELs describing their motivation for teaching, new teachers’ reactions to the realities of school – something inside, interest in young people |
| Core Subject                 | ELs talking about graduates’ subject knowledge and the need for learning how to teach the subject  
<p>|                              | N-TTGTs feeling confident about their ability to provide quality education based on their knowledge of content |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Superiority of N-TTGT subject knowledge versus TGT subject knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>N-TTGTs’ and ELs’ descriptions of new teacher acculturation into schools – workshops, seminars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What teachers said in relation to norms and behaviours on arrival in schools: welcome, reception, shown how to plan, assess, communicate with the district offices, cooperating teacher, integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence</td>
<td>Facing children for the first time, N-TTGTs’ questioning strategies being shown, born out of past accomplishments; N-TTGTs needing constant training, breaking down subject into accessible units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>N-TTGTs describing the nature of feedback provided after lesson observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>When ELs described challenges faced by teachers in schools and how these are communicated back to the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest</td>
<td>N-TTGTs talking about their motivation for becoming teachers and enjoyment of their work with children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELs talking about the attitude of education graduates and lack of enthusiasm and knowledge displayed during recruitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling children</td>
<td>N-TTGTs’ discussion of large classroom sizes, lack of classroom management and teaching methodologies, engaging students that are distracted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELs’ descriptions of N-TTGTs not applying appropriate behaviour management strategies, knowledge about student engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timetable</td>
<td>How ELs described N-TTGTs’ teaching timetables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N-TTGTs describing the factors that affect the number of lessons they teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>N-TTGTs measuring their progress and effectiveness through students’ attainment in external examinations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson planning</td>
<td>N-TTGTs and ELs describing support provided by experienced teachers, VPs and HODs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>N-TTGTs - different salary structure, some teachers feeling threatened, some teachers left before being placed in schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate unemployment</td>
<td>Targeted recruitment of graduates into teaching, large number of respondents, rigorous recruitment to recruit 325 out of more than 18,000, fairness of recruitment process – ‘God connection’ versus ‘long leg’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Quality of N-TTGTs        | Purpose of N-TTGTs’ recruitment to improve children’s educational attainment in Lagos State  
ELs talking about insufficient teachers of certain disciplines, quality of graduates produced by faculties of education                                                                                             |
| Attitude towards teaching | N-TTGTs describing teaching as not for everyone, the altruistic nature of teaching  
ELs describing status of teaching in society                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
| Relationship              | What N-TTGTs said about their interactions with students, parents and other teachers in their schools  
How ELs described teacher and student interactions                                                                                                                                                                                                                        |
| Counsellor/Role Model     | Ways N-TTGTs viewed the role of teachers – what they enjoy about teaching: students’ marks in exams, students asking where teachers have been when absent, teachers’ desire to impart knowledge                                                                                                                                 |
| Appreciation              | N-TTGTs not being recognised for extended responsibilities carried out in schools  
Not feeling valued or appreciated  
Feeling overworked  
Needing an assistant                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
| Reflection                | N-TTGTs linking education theory gained on teacher training to practice                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  |
### Table 9

**Table of Final Data Set (TFD)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Questions</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Overarching Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What are the context and learning factors that influence the professional development of new teachers in Nigeria?</td>
<td>culture, readiness, unemployment, professionalism, orientation, induction, management, improvisation</td>
<td>Teacher Readiness for School, School Readiness for Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do new teachers understand and negotiate their professional development as they move from being trainees to working in schools?</td>
<td>inadequacy, feedback, impact, QA, shadowing, progress</td>
<td>Impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In what ways do new teachers consider their roles and responsibilities as professionals within the context of their schools?</td>
<td>relationship, attitude, commendation, salary</td>
<td>Motivational Factors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 10

**Summary of the Process of Data Coding and Transition into Themes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles and Huberman’s Procedure</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Braun and Clarke’s Stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Data Reduction                 | Read interview transcripts  
|                                | Jot down important notes (post-interview notes)  
|                                | Identify statements that link to research question  
|                                | Assign categories to similar statements  
|                                | Present categories and descriptions as a table  
|                                | Compare post-interview notes with notes taken during interviews  
|                                | Read interview transcripts  
|                                | Identify statements that may fit into existing | Familiarisation with codes, Generation of initial codes |
| Data Display | Analytical ordering of code  
Identify patterns  
Identify codes that can be grouped together  
Present evolving themes in a table | Ordering of codes to search for themes |
| --- | --- |
| | Read through transcripts again  
Note down coherence and divergence in respondents’ accounts  
Assign labels that link codes to research questions  
Present refined themes in a table | Review and refinement of themes |
| | Use diary to track and explain changes  
Extrapolate salient points that link to literature review  
Assign labels that link themes to research questions  
Present themes in a table | Definition and naming of themes |
| Conclusion/Verification | Organise data using themes from research questions: biography teacher learning, professional development, and sociocultural factors  
Organise data under intrinsic and extrinsic influences  
Recognise similarities and differences in participants account  
Identify core themes relating to research questions  
Describe each theme and codes that make up the theme | Produce report |
Appendix H  Concept Maps and Diagrams used in Analysis

Appendix H1a

Appendix H1b
Appendix H4

Appendix H5

Appendix H6
Appendix H7