



Gordon, Saph (2018) *The experience within: an exploration of the conditions that promote feelings of confidence and competence amongst volunteer ESOL teachers*. [MSc].

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Deposited: 19 November 2020



University
of Glasgow

The Experience Within

An exploration of the conditions that promote feelings of confidence
and competence amongst volunteer ESOL teachers

[16,005 words]

23rd August, 2018

A huge thanks to all the participants who agreed to be interviewed as part of this study, and to the various organisations around Glasgow that assisted me in recruiting participants.

A special thanks to all the staff at the Glasgow ESOL Forum – your knowledge, expertise and support has allowed this study to happen!

Last but not least, a massive thanks to my supervisor, Lisa Bradley, for being so patient and attentive in answering my barrage of emails.

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1. Introduction

The world is currently facing what has been deemed as “the greatest refugee crisis since the Second World War” (All Party Parliamentary Group, 2017, p.9). Between 2012 and 2017, around 60,000 people were granted refugee status in the UK (Ibid, p.10), and according to the UNHRC, in late 2016 there were 46,784 pending asylum cases and 64 stateless persons (UNHRC, 2018). While much parliamentary debate has centred around the numbers of refugees that the UK should accept, far less time has been given to how best to support people once they have arrived in the country (All Party parliamentary Group, 2017).

Government research, alongside research from third sector organisations, has repeatedly demonstrated a link between English skills and successful integration into UK society (Refugee Action, 2016, p.1). The Casey Review into opportunity and integration in the UK (2016), for example, found a strong correlation between low English levels and poor labour prospects, while evidence given to the All Party Parliamentary Group for Refugees (2017) frequently cited the need for English in accessing support and services, and in taking part in social and community activities (p.28). However, despite recognition of the importance of language skills, there is a clear lack of state funded English as a Second or Other Language (ESOL) provision across the country (Refugee Action, 2016; All Party Parliamentary Group, 2017).

ESOL in the UK is a devolved issue. While England currently has no nationwide strategy, Scotland refreshed its outline in 2015, publishing *Scotland’s ESOL Strategy 2015-2020*. It should be noted that the strategy does not solely focus on refugees and asylum seekers, but aims to support all migrants arriving in Scotland (Education Scotland, 2015). Within the document, voluntary organisations are listed as but one type of ESOL provider, and the existence of volunteer projects “to support ESOL learners who cannot access provision for a variety of reasons” is acknowledged (Ibid., p.16). However, it does not address the source of this need. In addition, volunteers themselves are given little explicit attention. The sole reference to the group can be found within the section on “Strategic Objectives and Outcomes”, where the document states that “volunteers are supported to be competent and confident in their role to learners” (p.22). Again, reasoning for the inclusion of this statement is absent and, despite the supposed emphasis on “strategy”, the document provides no

guidelines for how to best foster “confidence and competence” amongst volunteer teachers (Ibid.).

Glasgow is currently the only city in Scotland where destitute asylum seekers are housed, following the 1999 Asylum Act passed by central government, and 10% of the UK’s dispersed asylum population is accommodated in the city (Scottish Government, 2018, p.28). In 2015 it was reported that 2.7% of the city’s population had little or no English language skills, which is far above the Scottish average of 1.4% (MacKinnon, 2015). As a result, there is a high level of demand for ESOL classes in the area. In 2015, three colleges and 34 community classes were available in the city (Ibid., p.4). However, this has been inadequate in terms of capacity and unmet demand for formal ESOL classes has been consistently high in the area (Education Scotland, 2016, p.14). Education Scotland’s 2015-2016 Impact Report indicated that there is often a higher demand for lower level classes on state funded programmes (p.10), which can result in students being placed in the wrong level, leading to frustration and demotivation in the learner (Refugee Action, 2016). Moreover, refugees and asylum seekers can face additional barriers to accessing formal classes, such as being unable to pay for transport, or having no access to childcare (Scottish Government, 2018, p.530) – an issue that leaves woman disproportionately affected (Refugee Action, 2016). The combination of these factors have put increasing pressure on third sector groups to meet this demand, which has led to a growth in the number of volunteer ESOL projects in the area.

When the Glasgow ESOL Forum - the leading volunteer ESOL project in the city - were asked about the requirement for volunteer teachers to hold a Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) or equivalent, the organisation stated:

“In the past, the project offered a fast-track program which worked with unqualified teachers and gave them the foundations in English language teaching. Since then, the project has grown exponentially and we don’t have the staff capacity to provide that kind of training for the number of volunteers we work with. Working with qualified teachers...allows us to run more classes, reach more learners, and provide better support to our (currently) 37 active tutors.”

(Glasgow ESOL Forum, personal correspondence; See Appendix 1)

This statement is revealing in its confirmation of the increase in pressure felt by the organisation in meeting demand in the area, and in highlighting a shortage of staff and resources, which is symptomatic of a lack of funding in the third sector. In addition, it indicates that the Scottish government's call for every practitioner to have a teaching qualification (Education Scotland, 2015, p.22), is not taken by volunteer projects as applicable to the voluntary workforce. Thus, with no guidelines available to assist organisations utilising volunteer teachers, and differing levels of resources and funding, there is inevitably a great deal of variation between the recruitment process of, and ongoing support for, volunteer ESOL teachers. Considering Education Scotland's (2015) appeal for volunteers to be supported to feel "confident and competent" (p.22), it seems of crucial importance that the conditions that can realistically facilitate and support these states, be explored.

There exists a small body of academic research into volunteer teachers, which looks at educators' feelings of preparedness (Perry, 2013; Perry & Hart, 2012), their interpretation of competency (Spitzer, 2009; Suda, 2002), and a lack of incongruity between training and feelings of self-efficacy (Ceprano, 2004). While several of these studies do focus on the perceptions of educators themselves (Perry, 2013; Perry & Hart, 2012; Spitzer, 2009), the emotional state of the educator and the impact this may have on well-being is largely overlooked. For example, Perry (2013) frames a lack of training as a cause for "poor quality instruction and poor student outcomes" (p.23) and does not investigate the negative emotional state that can be induced by feeling underprepared. Moreover, research has demonstrated that working in a support role with refugees and asylum seekers can adversely affect the psychological state of practitioners acting in a variety of capacities (Akinsulure-Smith *et. al*, 2018; Century *et. al.*, 2007; Guban and Liebling-Kalifani, 2011; Kindermann *et. al.*, 2017). However, as of yet, no attention has been given to the potential for secondary traumatisation amongst volunteer ESOL teachers, who inevitably work closely with their students and may, therefore, be at risk.

Thus, the aim of this study is to explore the conditions that foster a sense of confidence and competence amongst volunteer ESOL teachers - a group that has been largely ignored by both government research bodies and in academic circles. Drawing on the work of Bandura (1977), and Deci and Ryan (2008), perceived self-efficacy, and perceived competence, are linked to emotional well-being and, as such, the study focuses on the experience of the volunteer

teacher, rather than student outcomes. This is of particular significance, given the departure from trends in existing academic research. While the scope of the study means that results cannot be generalised, I hope to begin to establish questions for future research which, in turn, could be used to form a guide for best practice to assist host organisations in effectively recruiting and supporting volunteer teachers. This will, ultimately, enable third sector organisations to enhance the welfare of their volunteer teaching staff.

2. Literature Review

In this chapter, existing literature regarding perceived competence and self-efficacy is examined in relation to English Language teaching. Training and professional development strategies for English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers are explored and, as many volunteer ESOL projects require volunteers to have undergone prior training, the debates surrounding the effectiveness of one-month teacher training programmes are outlined. In addition, the few studies that are currently available relating to volunteer ESOL teacher competencies are reviewed, highlighting a substantial need for further research in the field. Lastly, literature exposing the potential risk of psychological harm resulting from close work with vulnerable people is analysed, as many refugees and asylum seekers are victims of trauma.

2.1 Confidence and Competence

Within Scotland's ESOL Strategy 2015-2020, the single reference to volunteer teachers themselves is listed in the "Strategic Objectives and Outcomes" section of the document, where it is stated that "volunteers are supported to be competent and confident in their role to learners" (p.22). While the reasoning behind this recommendation is not explicitly

elaborated on, in a separate section, under the heading “Achievements of the 2007 Strategy”, it is written that “learning and teaching has improved with...having confident and competent practitioners” (Education Scotland, 2015, p.19). Although this statement does not refer specifically to volunteers, it points towards a focus on student outcomes, failing to acknowledge the potential psychological benefits of perceived competence. Moreover, how an organisation might promote these feelings amongst their voluntary work-force is ignored.

Bandura (1997) observes the difference between having skills and being able to execute those skills, particularly under difficult circumstances (p.37). The transferal of knowledge and abilities into effective action is controlled by self-referent thought, which stimulates motivational, cognitive and affective processes (Ibid.). Thus, “perceived self-efficacy is concerned not with the number of skills you have, but with what you believe you can do with them” (Ibid.). Bandura (1997) highlights the difference between “confidence” and “the construct of self-efficacy” (Ibid., p.382). While both refer to a belief system, the former can be applied to certainties beyond the realm of the self, and in a negative context (Ibid.) – for example, one could say, ‘I am confident that it will rain tomorrow’. Perceived self-efficacy, on the other hand, is concerned with beliefs about the self, and what a person deems to be achievable (Ibid.). It is conceivable that Education Scotland might avoid psychological jargon within publicised documents, in order to ensure accessibility – Bandura (1997) himself refers to the word “confidence” as a “colloquial term” (p.382). Thus, the concept of perceived self-efficacy is of theoretical importance to this study, which focuses on the self-perception of confidence and competence.

Studies have shown that high levels of perceived self-efficacy correlate with improved outcomes (Bandura, 1997, p.37). As of yet, there seems to be no research relating the concept to volunteer ESOL teachers. However, research on school teachers has demonstrated a correlation between low perceptions of self-efficacy and high levels of stress (Verešová & Malá, 2012), and burnout in newly qualified teachers for whom actual and perceived levels of efficacy are disparate (Friedman, 2000). At the same time, Schwerdtfeger et. al. (2008) indicate possible health benefits to higher levels of perceived self-efficacy in school teachers. This suggests that supporting volunteer ESOL teachers to be confident and competent in carrying out their work will have positive psychological benefits.

Perceived self-efficacy is often equated with perceived competence, despite coming from different psychological schools of thought, with the latter stemming from Self-Determination Theory (Rodgers *et. al.*, 2014). Self-Determination Theory, developed by Deci and Ryan (2008), highlights the link between perceived competence and motivational factors. Again, psychological well-being, in addition to improved outcomes, is of central importance to the authors' research into motivation, which is concerned with "the conditions and processes that facilitate persistence, performance, healthy development and vitality" (Ibid., p.14). The theory suggests that humans have an innate need to feel "competent", "autonomous" and "related to others", and that the perceived prevalence of each is essential if a person is to feel motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.243). Moreover, the authors posit that feelings of incompetence can result in amotivation – whereby a person is unable to link a behaviour with an intended outcome (Deci & Ryan, 2008). While research applying Self-Determination Theory in the context of ESL education has given substantial attention to student experience (Muñoz & Ramirez, 2015; Tanaka, 2017), there has been little focus on teacher experience.

Bandura (1997) outlines four sources of perceived self-efficacy. The first is "enactive mastery experiences" which he deems to have the most powerful influence - when a person successfully achieves something, their perceived self-efficacy is heightened (p.80). The second is "vicarious experience", whereby a "model" with whom the person identifies is successful, vicariously boosting the observer's perception of their own capabilities (p.86). The third is "verbal persuasion", or praise and encouragement, although Bandura (1997) stipulates that some people are more susceptible to this influence than others (p.104). The last is "physiological and affective states", whereby stress and other states of arousal tend to diminish performance, thus, there is an expectation to perform well when arousal levels are low (p.106).

2.2 One-month Initial Teacher Training Programmes

The Scottish National Strategy for ESOL states that "every practitioner involved in ESOL delivery in Scotland should have a relevant specialist qualification in the teaching of ESOL"

(p.22). Although it is unclear whether this makes reference to volunteer teachers, the emphasis on “every” seems to imply that volunteer teachers should be equally well qualified as those who are paid. Indeed, Glasgow ESOL Forum’s Volunteer ESOL Project, which works in collaboration with charitable and community organisations across Glasgow to provide free, informal language classes, require volunteers to hold a Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) or equivalent (Glasgow ESOL Forum, 2018). Moreover, the organisation stated that “from January of 2018, 9 out of 22 volunteers were recently qualified” (Glasgow ESOL Forum, personal correspondence; See Appendix 1), indicating that the volunteer ESOL role may be particularly attractive to those who are newly qualified.

While there are a great number of teacher training courses varying in length and credibility, the one-month CELTA and Trinity Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (CertTESOL) are a popular route into English Language Teaching (ELT) for many prospective teachers (Hobbs, 2013). Both the CELTA and CertTESOL have largely similar course objectives and structure, with a predominant focus on practical skills and teacher behaviour (Ibid.). Hobbs (2013) maps the CertTESOL course objectives to Freeman’s (1989) *Model of Language Teaching*, which asserts that language teacher education should enhance the decision-making capabilities of the prospective teacher, “through the constituents of knowledge, skills, attitude, and awareness” (p.37). In doing so, Hobbs (2013) demonstrates the clear preference to skills training present in the curriculum of the CELTA and CertTESOL programmes. While the CertTESOL website makes no reference to self-efficacy, the CELTA website claims to provide “practical English language teaching qualification that gives you the...classroom confidence to qualify as a teacher of English as a Second Language” (Cambridge Assessment English, 2018). As such, discussion of its adequacy in promoting feelings of confidence and competence in novice ESOL teachers is central to this study.

There appear to be differing views on the effectiveness of these two leading one-month certificate programmes. Ferguson and Donno (2003) argue that, while these courses do “equip... trainees with a repertoire of practical techniques that allow them to behave competently in the classroom” (p.30), there is deficit when it comes to providing participants with an awareness of language itself, of language learning, and of differing teaching contexts. These arguments are echoed by Hobbs (2013), whose qualitative study of CertTESOL graduates supports Ferguson and Donno’s (2003) call for the certificate programme to be

extended in length. However, Macpherson (2003) emphasises that certificate courses are an “initial qualification” (p.229), and that the support from workplaces post-completion plays an important role in teacher development.

2.3 Teacher Development through Observations

There is ample literature on professional development in ESOL. For example, Ferguson and Donno (2003) point to the need for a period of post course supervised practice. Practicums are a long-established form of English language teacher development (Canh, 2014; Farrell, 2007). This will generally involve a novice teacher taking control of a class, under the supervision of a more experienced peer. Two perspectives have dominated academic discourse on the benefits for newly qualified teachers in undertaking a practicum (Canh, 2014, p.201). The first emphasises the training aspects, whereby teachers have the opportunity to master teaching techniques and behaviours (Ibid.). The second perspective is developmental, as novice teachers learn the art of critical reflection, promoting growth and development over the course of their career (Ibid.). However, Bailey (2006) argues that the value of observations can be compromised by the quality of the supervisor, and through a phenomenon referred to as the “observer paradox”, whereby the teacher struggles excessively as a result of there being an observer present (Ibid.).

Ihara (2017) advocates for the merits of *observational practicum*, where, rather than be observed and receive feedback, novice practitioners have the opportunity to learn through observing a more experienced teacher. This provides the opportunity to connect theory to practice through *seeing* rather than *doing* (p.185). In addition, the lightened workload helps to “reduce anxiety and develop confidence” (p.193) and to develop critical thinking skills, as they have the opportunity to analyse teaching objectively (Ibid.). Thus, the author takes a developmental perspective, arguing that “praxis” – or reflection followed by a moderation in behaviour – is at the heart of teacher development. While Crookes (2003) agrees with this proposition, he asserts that social engagement, or support from peers, is equally as important as the individual pursuit of reflective teaching.

2.4 Other Factors Relating to Teacher Competencies

Other studies have looked at non-training related factors that can add to the competences of an ESOL practitioner. For example, Dailey (2009) stipulates that “to compassionately understand English language learners, educators must fully experience language learning for themselves” (p.127). That being said, Edwards (2013) highlights the effects that previous language learning experiences can have on teachers’ theories and beliefs about language teaching and learning, which will modify the extent to which training and development initiatives will be internalised and turned into practice, particularly amongst teachers who are non-native speakers themselves.

Furthermore, some studies point to the importance of time and experience. Crookes (2003), for example, emphasises how teacher-learning is a life-long endeavour. However, Andrews (2006) conducted a longitudinal study of teachers’ language awareness and knowledge of grammar over a ten-year period. The study, surprisingly, found that the participants’ subject-matter knowledge of grammar changed very little over time. While the very small scope means the findings cannot necessarily be generalised, qualitative data collected through classroom observation and interviews with the three participants indicates that their development mainly consisted of increased self-confidence and belief in their own teaching abilities.

2.5 Volunteer Teachers

With much emphasis placed on learners, outcomes and techniques, the “voices” of volunteer ESOL teachers themselves have been largely ignored in educational literature (Hayes, 1996, p.174). However, anecdotal evidence of feeling underprepared is evident in several studies. Long (2015), for example, gives a personal account of becoming a volunteer ESOL teacher in Peru. He confesses that, despite undergoing a two week ESL teacher-training course, he had “absolutely no understanding of how people learn languages and minimal understanding of how to teach them” (Ibid.,p.561).

Perry and Hart (2012) conducted a study of ESL and adult literacy teachers in the USA, to gauge their own perceptions of their preparation to teach refugees. They take a broad notion

of “preparation”, including formal and informal training, prior teaching experience and self-study (Ibid., p.110). The research found that, despite the fact that organisations for which they were working had provided some training, the majority of participants did not feel prepared to teach. Areas in which they felt lacking were “teaching tools and techniques” and “people resources such as mentoring”, although many participants had trouble articulating exactly what they felt they needed to know (Ibid., p.115). Moreover, even certified teachers felt underprepared to teach refugees who had little or no prior schooling (Ibid.).

Perry (2013) expands on this research, taking an in-depth look at the case study of Carolyn, a volunteer ESL and literacy instructor of adult African refugees in the USA. The researcher explores both the meaning of being qualified, and asks how non-certified educators might become qualified (Ibid.). The author concludes that Carolyn displayed many traits that indicate she is *qualified* to teach, even though she was not *certified* (Ibid., p.28). Cross-cultural awareness and sensitivity, being a reflective practitioner, and the development of a coherent teaching philosophy are cited as the three components that made Carolyn an effective teacher (Ibid., p.28).

Comparable findings are reflected in additional studies. Spitzer (2009) looked at volunteer American ESL teachers working in Asia, and their perceptions of a “successful” ESL educator (p.81). Participants cited personal characteristics as more important than pedagogical training, specifically “patience, creativity and flexibility.” Similarly, Suda (2002) in part looks at practitioner discourse amongst adult literacy and ESL educators, in which the author examined perceptions of competence as well as self-identification with the role. Participants repeatedly cited “knowledge of the world” and depth of experience over qualifications when emphasising their skill-base (Ibid., p.19).

Further work into the training of volunteer adult literacy educators, as opposed to ESOL teachers, includes Ceprano’s (1995) study into the techniques employed by tutors in the USA, who had little or no prior teaching experience, but had attended a short training session with the host organisation. The author found that the participants tended to draw on strategies that they themselves had been exposed to as learners, rather than those learnt in the training session provided. Similarly, Bell et. al (2004) found that American adult reading educators’ perceived knowledge of teaching did not correlate with their actual level of knowledge.

Moreover, this discordance was increased when participants believed themselves to be more knowledgeable.

However, despite this small body of research, there are key differences which leave a deficit when trying to apply the findings to the context of volunteer ESOL teachers in Glasgow. Firstly, Ceprano (1995) and Bell (2004) focus on adult literacy educators, while Perry and Hart (2012; 2013) and Suda (2002) take ESOL to be a strand of adult literacy. While there is often a need to teach literacy within ESOL education, all of the host organisations discussed in this work have a primary focus on ESOL, with literacy as a secondary component. In addition, the participants in Kerry and Hart's (2012) study, which is perhaps the closest in to this work, were both paid and voluntary despite the "focus on volunteers" (p.111). This study takes volunteer teachers to be a unique demographic, given the diversity in the group, resulting from the extreme differentiation in recruitment procedures prevalent between host organisations, and the varying motivational factors for taking on the role of volunteer teacher. Furthermore, there appears to be very little research conducted in the UK.

2.6 Risks Involved with Working with Refugees and Asylum Seekers

I have been unable to locate literature relating to the welfare of volunteer ESOL teachers, given their involvement with a potentially vulnerable demographic. As the majority of refugees and asylum seekers will have experienced trauma, people working with this group are in a position where they may be "vicariously exposed" to these traumatic experiences (Guban & Liebling-Kalifani, 2011, p.206). This can result in the "transference" of symptoms of trauma from the primary subject to a person who did not experience the traumatic event (Kindermann *et. al.*, 2017, p.263), a phenomenon referred to as "vicarious traumatisation" or "secondary traumatic stress" (Guban & Liebling-Kalifani, 2011, p.207). Figley (1995b) notes that a large component of secondary traumatic stress is "stress resulting from helping or wanting to help a traumatized or suffering person" (cited in Figley, 2002, p.1435). This negative emotional response can result in "burnout" (Kindermann, 2017) or "compassion fatigue" (Figley, 2002), associated with a long-term excessive empathic response (Decety, 2014).

While much attention has been given to vicarious traumatisation amongst mental health professionals working in a therapeutic capacity with refugees and asylum seekers, it is only recently that studies have begun to examine the psychological well-being of other groups that are potentially at risk (Ibid.). Within further research, Guban and Liebling-Kalifani (2011) looked at the emotional impact on staff working in a variety of support capacities at one refugee centre; Akinsulure-Smith et. al (2018) on refugee resettlement workers; Kindermann et. al. (2017) on interpreters for refugees; and Century et. al. (2007) on counsellors working with refugees. All four studies found that a significant number of participants were experiencing secondary traumatic stress, and were at risk of compassion fatigue and burn out. In addition, staff reported other challenges such as feeling “ill-equipped” to adequately assist clients (Guban and Liebling-Kalifani, 2011), and a sense of “helplessness” and being “overwhelmed” (Century et. al., 2007).

It should be noted that Guban and Liebling-Kalifani (2011) found that a sense of personal growth and development was also present amongst many of the participants, indicating that the challenges of providing emotional and practical support to refugees can also have a positive impact. This has also been reported in relation to mental health workers, who developed a more positive sense of identity (Steed & Downing, 1998, cited in Guban and Liebling-Kalifani, 2011, p.207).

2.7 Purpose of this study

The primary focus of this study is to explore the conditions that promote feelings of confidence and competence amongst volunteer ESOL teachers, in order to establish topics for further research in the field. Through analysis of the existing literature, several sub-themes have been developed, expressed here in the form of questions:

- How effective is the CELTA in preparing volunteer ESOL teachers for their work?
- To what extent can English language teaching experience, in a setting other than ESOL, prepare people to work as a volunteer ESOL teacher?
- What are the principle benefits of observations, and in what form are observations perceived to be most useful?

- What influence can prior language learning experiences have on perceived competence?
- What support from host organisations has heightened a sense of preparedness amongst participants?
- Is there any evidence of negative emotional responses that have developed as a result of working closely with refugees and asylum seekers?
- What do participants believe are the skills, qualities or attributes, that makes them able to carry out their voluntary teaching work effectively?

3. Methodology

In this chapter the rationale behind the qualitative nature of this study is laid out, and the procedures involved in recruiting participants, selecting interview themes, conducting the research, and analysing the data generated from the investigation are outlined. Moreover, ethical considerations and the limitations of the study are explored.

3.1 A Qualitative Study

The aim of this study is to explore the conditions that make volunteer ESOL teachers feel confident and competent in carrying out their work. The study takes feelings of confidence and competence to be akin to *self-efficacy*, as defined by Bandura (1997). Multiple psychometric tools have been developed in order to measure levels of self-efficacy (Scherbaum *et. al.*, 2006), which largely base analysis on a Likert-type Scale, where participants select one of several predetermined responses to indicate their level of agreement to a statement. However, while this approach may enable a researcher to rank participants' levels of self-confidence, it appears to be insufficient in determining the conditions that led to this self-belief, which is central to this study. In addition, the implication that statements can be considered and assessed in the same manner by two separate

individuals is reductionist, failing to appreciate the complexity of human experience which can lead to a particular judgement, or to potential nuances in the interpretation of the statement itself. This is, somewhat, ironic given the emphasis on self-perception and the lived experience of the participant. Thus, a qualitative approach was selected as most appropriate for this study, particularly as the aim is to explore the conditions that can cause a sense of self-efficacy, rather than measure the extent to which it is present.

Taking a constructivist view, a person's knowledge, and meaningful reality, is fundamentally shaped by interaction with the world (Crotty, 1998). Thus, it is understood that both the conditions that promote feelings of confidence and competence, and these feelings themselves, will differ depending on the participants' subjective reality. As such, the research takes a qualitative approach, focusing on the participant's *life-world* – both concrete experiences and the meanings and emotions that shape an individual's perception of an event (Berg, 2007, p.14). In addition, where considerations of education and training are taken into account, it is acknowledged that research is increasingly finding that learning has “no real beginning and no real end” (Rose, 1993, cited in Falk & Dierking, p.31). Instead, learning is a continuous transformation of mental structures, whereby the individual plays an active part in making sense of the world, based on prior conceptual understanding (Falk & Dierking, 2000). Therefore, analysis of both past and present experiences should be considered in order to gain insight into the subjective processes that have led to an individual's perceived skill-set.

With this in mind, semi-structured interviews were selected as the best means of inquiry, providing a platform for complex and subjective experiences to be conveyed. In addition, room is left for participants to express their own perceptions of what is, or is not, important in shaping their experiences. It should be noted that focus groups could have also provided a platform for data-collection, potentially enhancing the richness of narrative as the group dynamic creates a “synergistic factor in bringing information out” (Morse, 1994, p.224). However, the possible need for participants to speak negatively of their host organisation was considered to be a potential barrier for participation in a group setting.

3.2 Participants and Recruitment

Participants were recruited from three different non-profit organisations in Glasgow, offering free ESOL classes. The participants were self-selecting, responding to a recruitment email sent out by the host organisation which put them in direct contact with the researcher. In this way, the study utilised a basic form of criterion sampling, whereby the sole criterion was that the person be currently undertaking non-paid work as teacher, or teaching assistant, in free ESOL classes. With no other specifications present, the sample of eight participants who came forward to take part in the study were of varying ages, with the youngest in her twenties and the oldest in her sixties. In addition, there were a mix of nationalities represented – Libyan, Polish and Spanish – with the rest from the UK, however, all were fluent in English which is requisite for teaching ESOL. Seven of the participants were female, and one male.

3.3 Ethical Considerations

Participants are essentially providing their own perspective on the organisation that they work for, which has the potential to cause anxiety, as they could perceive their position within the organisation to be in jeopardy. To account for this, host organisations are not named within this document, and participants are referred to by a pseudonym, selected randomly by the researcher. However, given the small sample size, participants were made aware of the fact that anonymity cannot be guaranteed.

In addition, topics relating to potential re-traumatisation of the teacher, as a result of working with refugees and asylum seekers, could be distressing for the participants. In order to minimise stress, the interviewer looked to recommendations developed by Elmir *et. al.* (2011): asking open-ended questions to ensure that participants could disclose as much or as little as they felt comfortable in doing; enabling the participant to dictate the pace of the interview; and allowing the participant to choose the location of the interview to ensure it was felt to be a safe space (p.14).

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3.4 Method of Inquiry

The study consisted of semi-structured interviews of between 30 and 45 minutes in length. Interviews took place in either a café or library, and consisted of an informal conversation, whereby open-ended questions were asked. In addition, participants were aware that the researcher was a volunteer ESOL teacher herself, which helped to develop a rapport between interviewer and interviewee, reducing inhibition in the participants (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). All interviews were recorded audibly, with consent obtained. However, it should be noted that the audio recording of Ruby's interview was lost, and notes written directly after the interview were used for analysis in substitution.

Interview topics were developed through consideration of pre-existing literature relating to self-efficacy, teacher training and development, and working with vulnerable people. Taking a constructivist view, that knowledge is shaped by experiences over the course of time (Crotty, 1998), participants were asked about both past and present work and life experiences, in order to establish how these may have shaped self-perception. As some of the participants had worked as a volunteer ESOL teacher for more than one host organisation, their experiences in each were discussed, adding breadth to the study. In addition, participants were encouraged to reflect on times when they felt prepared or underprepared while teaching, and to recall challenges they experienced when they were newly qualified (See Appendix 2 for interview topics). As such, confidence and competence were not taken to be enduring states, but fluid and context dependent sensations.

3.5 Data Analysis

Audio recordings of the interviews were analysed via the means of repetitive listening and selective transcription of key sections. This allowed for tone of voice and emotional responses to be taken into consideration, and for narrative to be heard in context. The sections pulled out from the interviews and transcribed were then subjected to a thematic analysis, whereby six central themes, and four sub-themes were coded. These were, in part, determined by the interview topics and, in part, emerged through recurring accounts from participants. The central themes that emerged consisted of the effectiveness of the CELTA qualification, the

role of language learning and living abroad, specific difficulties with teaching ESOL classes, the support from the host organisation and ongoing professional development that has been beneficial, incidents relating to work with refugees and asylum seekers, and belief in a personal disposition to teach.

3.6 Limitations

While the study aims to develop potential recommendations for third-sector ESOL providers, due to the small sample size, the specific findings relating to participant experiences cannot be generalised to the wider population of volunteer teachers. In addition, it should be taken into account that the self-selecting recruitment process meant that a large proportion of the participants had a keen interest in education and professional development, hence the appeal of the research. This is not necessarily representative of the demographic in general and could potentially signify higher levels of perceived competence amongst participants than would be the case using random or stratified sampling methods.

In addition, the participants were only met once and for a relatively short time period. Thus, the scope of the interview could be said to lack depth. With this in mind, it should be noted that the participants' perspectives, and their mind-frame, could have been shaped by events on the day of the interview – a phenomenon which could potentially be eradicated through “in-depth interviewing” techniques, that require repeated contact (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). Moreover, without observing the teachers in practice, the context of their experiences in the workplace can be misinterpreted by the interviewer.

4. Analysis

In this chapter, data generated from the interviews is analysed, having been coded into six prominent themes. Firstly, evidence emerging from the participants' commentary to support the notion of a lacking within the CELTA course and, secondly, the seemingly positive role that living abroad and learning a second language can have on language awareness and factors relating to empathy, is detailed. Thirdly, pointers as to the specific differences that set community ESOL classes aside from ESL, which is typically associated with private language schools, are investigated. Next, the support provided by host organisations themselves, which has had an apparent effect on perceived competence, is explored, after which, participants' commentary is analysed for evidence of trauma relating to volunteers' work with refugees and asylum seekers. Lastly, a discourse relating to an inherent ability to teach, which repeatedly emerged during the interviews, is discussed.

4.1 Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (Celta)

As discussed previously (See p.8), the need for a teaching qualification in the delivery of English as a Second Language (ESL) is often a requirement for volunteer teachers, regardless of their educational and work background. This was exemplified by Sarah, when discussing the interview she underwent to begin as a volunteer ESOL tutor:

“When I told them that I was a graduate from the English department, and that I had just finished my PhD in education which was about English language teaching, they said, ‘but do you have a teaching qualification?’” (Sarah)

Of the eight participants, four held a CELTA qualification, and two, including Sarah, were planning on taking a CELTA course. This points to the programme's popularity as initial teacher training, although whether or not the course is selected for its professional

development potential, or because of it is often a requisite for securing work in the industry, is beyond the scope of this study. However, an analysis of the extent to which the course prepared participants for volunteer ESOL, and promoted feelings of confidence, is of pertinence.

Amongst the four participants who had taken the CELTA there was general consensus that the course was, at least in part, effective in promoting self-efficacy in teaching. Andrea, for example, who had limited experience when she began the course, was enthusiastic about the content in its entirety:

“I loved it! I really recommend it if anyone is interested in teaching English as a Second Language. It’s very intense but you get actual experience practising in the classroom and you get to be observed while you’re in the classroom. And then you get all the theory on what methods are better for people to learn from...I think it’s quite a complete course and really prepares you to teach.” (Andrea)

Here, Andrea makes reference to the six-hours of assessed teaching practice that CELTA candidates must undergo as part of the formal assessment of the programme, to demonstrate that they are able to “plan, prepare and teach a range of lessons” (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2018, p.15). The usefulness of these observations was echoed by Zuzanna, who indicated that the way in which feedback was given played a part in enabling her to take on criticisms while preserving her self-confidence:

“CELTA was great when it came to being observed and being told what’s going well and what needs to be worked on. And they were very sensitive about it. Noone actually said, oh, you’ve done this wrong. They would say, how could we do this, and not even necessarily say that it was you who did something wrong.” (Zuzanna)

However, it is important to note that both Andrea and Zuzanna had some language teaching experience before taking the course, which potentially enabled them to gain more from the programme, given its brevity. Julia, who had no English teaching experience prior to enrolling on the CELTA, indicated that the six-hours of observed teaching practice, particularly as there is an emphasis on teaching “a range of lessons” (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2018, p.15), was insufficient in consolidating her knowledge of teaching:

“Obviously it’s all about being observed on the CELTA. Every teaching practice, you get feedback from it. But, I’m not sure that I really improved that much because there wasn’t a lot of repetition. Every part was a different something.” (Julia)

The emphasis on observations, and theory that relates specifically to learning in practice, as the key components of the CELTA seem to support Hobbs’ (2013) claim that there is a preference for skills training in the course curriculum. However, the participants do not appear to share his dismay at this fact. Instead, the value of the self-reflective practice developed through undergoing practical assessment was highlighted:

“...you didn’t get points deducted for doing a bad class as much as you got points added for being reflective – like what had gone wrong and how you could improve it. So it really made you think about how you were teaching and how you were presenting to the classroom.” (Andrea)

However, that being said, the above commentary from Julia seems to support both Hobbs’ (2013) and Furguson and Donno’s (2003) call for the length of the programme to be increased. In addition, Zuzanna, who was working as a volunteer ESOL assistant teacher while studying for the CELTA, points to the course’s potential inadequacy in preparing people to teach ESOL, which is an entirely different learning environment from the private language schools where the CELTA’s practical assessments predominantly take place:

“Having the experience of volunteering and having taught a little bit I could see, oh, this wouldn’t work in ESOL, but you could do it that way. This would work well with these kinds of students but wouldn’t work with ours. I could try this activity with these students but just change it completely. It was very useful in that way.” (Zuzanna)

Despite this incongruence, Zuzanna appeared to feel competent in adapting techniques presented in the CELTA, by reflecting on the learning and teaching she observed during her volunteer work in an ESOL setting. However, it should be noted that she demonstrated a very keen interest in education and teaching, having trained as a secondary school teacher, having already taken a short weekend course in TEFL prior to the CELTA, and having frequently engaged with self-study of language education. It is possible that this aided her ability to adapt what was being taught to a new context. In contrast, Julia, during her interview for her volunteer ESOL role, was told by the centre director to “forget CELTA – [ESOL] is nothing like CELTA” (Julia, 2018). She does not appear to exemplify the same level of confidence in utilising what had been learnt on the course:

“I think I went through a stage of not knowing how to apply CELTA and relying on my experience and, sort of, talents skills that I had developed in other areas. I’m not sure I was really using the principles of CELTA” (Julia)

The experiences of both Julia and Zuzanna appear to support Ferguson and Donne’s (2003) assertion that the CELTA is inadequate in providing teachers with an awareness of differing teaching contexts. The subsequent section (See, p.26) explores the conditions that make voluntary ESOL tuition – teaching free English classes to migrants - different from ESL tuition - largely referring to teaching in private language institutes or colleges – and the additional challenges that ESOL presents.

It should be noted that Robert’s input on the CELTA course is analysed in the section on ‘Belief in One’s Personal Disposition’ (See p.44) as he is sceptical of the need for training in the pedagogy of languages.

4.2 Language Learning & Living Abroad

While the participants discussed a range of prior experiences and how they have impacted on their teaching practice – such as working in state education for children and other non-teaching related work experience – it is factors relating to language awareness and cultural understanding that were explored in most detail. Ferguson and Donno (2003) claim that both the CELTA and CertTESOL one-month teacher training courses are deficient in equipping candidates with an understanding of language awareness. While this may be true in many cases, the participants in this study did not express feelings of incompetence with regard to this skill. However, of important note is the fact that all of the participants in this study spoke at least one additional language to English, and four of these spoke at least two additional languages. Moreover, six of the eight participants had lived in countries other than the UK for a substantial period of time.

When asked about the ways in which language learning and living abroad had helped them to develop as language teachers, many of the participants noted how it enabled them to empathise with learners:

“It just reminds you how difficult it is learning another language.” (Frances)

“I had studied German a bit at school, but when I got to Germany, they couldn’t understand anything I was saying, I couldn’t understand anything they were saying... and that’s how I really identify with these people who are coming to Glasgow and have to cope with the Glasgow accent – tricky!” (Shirley)

“It does help you to understand. Especially learning a language in a different country, like when I was in India, how dumb you can feel sometimes, when everyone is talking around you and you don’t understand what’s going on and you’re trying to learn.” (Andrea)

This seems to substantiate Dailey's (2009) view that language learning helps language educators to foster a deep understanding their students. However, as all of the participants demonstrated a very keen interest in language study, there is no means of comparison by which to support Dailey's (2009) claim that compassionate understanding in a language educator "must" come from learning language themselves (p.127).

In addition, some described the way in which experiences of formal language learning had shaped their own teaching practice. As with Edward's (2013) participants, Andrea, indicated that she tended to make decisions regarding the structure and content of classes based on what she herself would find useful, and motivating, as a learner:

"A lot of traditional teaching methods in languages revolve around teaching lists of vocabulary or lists of grammar rules and I don't believe that's how you learn a language. You learn a language through using it and making mistakes and making up words. But just through using it – that's how it sticks. So, I think it has influenced the way I see a language class because when I'm given a list of vocabulary to learn, I don't go back to that class." (Andrea)

Similarly, Sarah, who does not have a formal teaching experience but had taught English for many years in Libya, indicated that this experience did not equip her to teach confidently in the UK, due to cultural variation in teaching ideals. However, the experience of studying in the UK context provided a platform for learning student-centred teaching methodology that is widely accepted as optimum in the UK:

"I don't think it was the skills that I had from teaching in Libya. I think it was the skills that I gained teaching AND studying. I think that if I had started volunteering immediately after I came here, I would have had a lot of challenges! Because it was completely different the way we teach back home and the way we teach here."

But now, after being a student myself, after being part of this new learning and teaching approach, it was more helpful and meaningful.” (Sarah)

Here, both Andrea and Sarah suggest that they developed confidence in their own decision-making abilities when teaching, by reflecting on, and analysing, their experiences as a language learner. This, perhaps, indicates that Edwards (2013) does not give participants enough credit for their capacity to assess their own teaching practice in relation to their learning experiences. However, as noted previously, the participants in this study are not necessarily representative of the wider group, so the reflective aptitude of Andrea and Sarah cannot be generalised.

Thus, it is possible that learning a second language can help to foster both language awareness competencies, and confidence in the way in which languages are best taught, as well as to enhance empathy towards learners.

4.3 Specific Difficulties with Teaching ESOL Classes

Participants were asked what the biggest challenges have been in their work as a volunteer ESOL teacher. Without prompts from the interviewer, finding materials suitable to use with the learners’ needs, the drop-in nature of classes, and a lack of experience teaching students with very low literary skills, were repeatedly cited as the central issues that cause stress and anxiety whilst teaching. These seem to be interlinked and indivisible from one another. Moreover, the anxiety experienced appears to be caused by feelings of incompetence, and this was often accentuated by the fact that participants felt responsible for the learners, knowing that they were, potentially, unable to access any other ESOL provision.

Julia, who prior to beginning her voluntary teaching work had completed a CELTA and had worked for two months in a private language school teaching intermediate and advanced students, felt very under-confident in her ability to provide adequate classes for learners when she first began her voluntary work:

“I think I was completely unskilled for teaching low levels...[there was] no readily available content and it was really, really hard...I felt anxious. I felt anxious because I thought, OK, they might only be coming once a week, which is not a lot, but I’d really like them to learn something.” (Julia, 2018)

When asked to specify in what way she was struggling with the content, she replied:

“the subject matter...I find that a real struggle. Finding stuff that I think is going to be interesting for them but not contentious. Not potentially distressing. Not irrelevant.” (Julia, 2018)

This perception of being ill-equipped to teach as a result of not having appropriate resources echoes findings from Perry and Hart’s (2012) study, where ESL and adult literacy tutors repeatedly cited a lack “teaching tools” as influential in feeling underprepared. Moreover, within both of the above comments, Julia seems to indicate that the vulnerable nature of the learners, and the knowledge that they had very limited options in terms of accessing English language tuition, added to the stress of feeling incompetent. This, in turn, seemed to lower her levels of motivation:

“There was a time when I thought I should give this up. Because I thought, I am miserable and who’s going to look forward to having a lesson with me.” (Julia)

It would seem that Julia’s diminished belief in her own capabilities, reduced her motivation to teach to the point where she was considering leaving the organisation. This appears to support Self-Determination Theory, which highlights the link between perceived competence and motivational factors (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The theory suggests that a lack of motivation

can result from a person being unable to link a behaviour with an intended outcome (Ibid., p.243), which is evident in Julia's response.

Frances, who underwent 16-hours of training to work as a volunteer IELTS tutor some years before, but has no formal teaching qualification, expressed similar levels of anguish to Julia in terms of lesson planning and preparation. Whilst technically she is volunteering as a teaching assistant in a conversation class, the vast disparity in the language levels of students has meant that it is often her responsibility to teach learners with very low-levels of English, to enable the lead teacher to focus their attention on the rest of the group. In addition to a lack of resources, she indicated that the inconsistency in the learner group further decreased her ability to prepare for the class:

"Well, it's just not having the resources. It's difficult because it's a drop-in class, so you never know who's going to come. So I could do lots of preparation to work with the woman who has no English. And then never see her again..." (Frances, 2018)

Like Julia, Frances signalled that she felt a deeply responsible for the learners' educational progress:

"You feel as though you're letting them down. Of course, if you can't help them then they won't come back, and then you've lost them!" (Frances)

Self-Determination Theory draws a distinction between *autonomous* and *controlled* motivation, with the former as optimum (Deci & Ryan, 2008b). Despite the fact that volunteers often indicate that there are intrinsic rewards to volunteering, which is categorised as autonomous motivation, it possible that pressure felt as a result of feeling responsible for students' English progression and welfare acts as a controlled motivational factor. Deci and Ryan (2008b) link controlled motivation to negative psychological health – perhaps evident in

the stress felt by both Julia and Frances –to reduced persistence, and to poorer outcomes. Thus, when this is considered in parallel with the work of Bandura (1977), who posits that stress – or high emotional arousal, can diminish a sense of self-efficacy (p.106), it is evident that this sense of responsibility may, for some volunteers, reduce perceptions of competence.

Indeed, the complex nature of ESOL learner groups, and the fact that classes do not require continuous attendance, was listed by all but one of the participants as a central challenge to their work, despite the fact that they had considerably more experience in teaching English than either Julia or Frances:

“The drop-in factor is very difficult. When, maybe, you have two or three students who come regularly, but different students come and go... it’s difficult to plan your lesson. Difficult for continuity.” (Zuzanna)

“Every week I had a new person who never actually stayed very long because my class, and what I was doing, was too advanced for them or too easy...We did our best but it was just a bit exhausting.” (Shirley)

“It’s a very different group, and very different levels. Everyone there wants to learn English for a different reason... you get a conflict of interests in the classroom of some people wanting to go faster and getting frustrated with the people who are being more relaxed about it. So keeping everyone engaged in that way is quite hard I think.” (Andrea)

“People can turn up - you don’t know what level they’re going to be, you don’t know what country they’re going to come from, you don’t know when they’re going to turn up during the lesson even! They may turn up towards the end and you have to be so flexible!” (Robert)

I have been unable to locate academic sources that discuss the difficulties in accommodating drop-in style classes, but commentary from the participants seems to indicate that the unpredictability induces stress. In addition, it would seem that the challenge is accentuated by the combination of not knowing who will attend the class, as well as having to potentially accommodate learners with very different, and often very low, levels of English. Again, it seems appropriate to draw on the work of Bandura (1997), who emphasises the strong influence that “physiological and affective states” can have on perceived self-efficacy (p.106). This indicates that drop-in style classes have the potential to reduce feelings of competence amongst teachers. In addition, Perry and Hart’s (2012) study found that even certified teachers felt underprepared to teach students with little or no prior schooling, which was echoed by additional comments from Zuzanna and Robert:

“It’s a completely different setting [than a private language school] because often you have people who have no educational background so you need to adjust to that.” (Zuzanna)

“There were, let’s say, literacy students who had no writing skills in any language. And trying to combine them with the more elementary, approximately, in level, with just one teacher there was a challenge.” (Robert)

It would, therefore, appear that having experienced English language teaching in other settings, such as private language institutes, and or having completed initial teacher training such as the CELTA, does not necessarily equip volunteers with the skills, tools, and techniques needed for the often unpredictable and, somewhat, chaotic nature of ESOL provision. In addition, the negative physiological state induced by feeling ill-equipped to cater to the learner’s needs can, potentially, lower perceptions of self-efficacy. The subsequent section (See, p.31) explores aspects of professional development and support from the voluntary host organisation, that helped participants to overcome these specific challenges, aiding a sense of self-efficacy.

4.4 Support from the Host Organisation and Ongoing Professional Development

4.4.1 Training

There seemed to be great variation in the level of training provided by host organisations - while Robert, Julia and Sarah had received initial training from their current host organisations, others had not been given the option of any training prior to beginning work. However, interestingly, both Robert and Julia did not seem to find the initial training useful to their professional development. Robert expressed a strong preference to experiential learning and, throughout the interview, held strong the opinion that training is of little use for people wishing to teach their mother tongue:

"I don't think I really needed [the initial training]. As I say, I think learning on the job is really the important thing." (Robert)

For Julia, the initial training – which comprised of a short section on teaching techniques and another on dealing with difficult situations in the classroom – indicated that the CELTA course, and her limited previous work experience, had not provided a sufficient base for the training to be internalised:

"I don't think I was able to assimilate things and put them into a structure. I just don't think I had a very good structure. The foundations I think were not quite there." (Julia)

Prominent theorists in the field of adult education such as Rogers (1993) and Knowles (2006) have long emphasised the effect that prior experiences have on learning. Rogers (1993)

highlights the absurdity of the notion that “what is taught is what is learnt; what is presented is what is assimilated” (p.229). Instead, research has shown that learning is a continuous transformation of mental structures, whereby the individual plays an active part in understanding new information, based on prior conceptual understanding (Falk & Dierking, 2000). This indicates that, as many volunteers are newly qualified and have limited theoretical and practical experience in teaching, it may be beneficial to begin training events by first establishing the group’s prior level of knowledge, to ensure that new information can build on pre-existing understanding.

Sarah, who took the same training as Julia, two-months after beginning her volunteer work, seemed to gain confidence through the process of analysing classroom scenarios and possible responses:

“What I liked is that they gave out situations where something was wrong, so you had to detect what you would have done differently... that was the best part because you could never really list all the things that you, as a teacher, can do in the classroom. But just to find out all the things that you should not do, or things that are not appropriate, or correct [was useful]....I started to think about what I would do before that training, and what I would do differently now.” (Sarah)

Zuzanna, highlighted the benefits of a similar type of training that she had undergone to work as a volunteer teacher for a charity previously:

“They were talking about cases. How that makes you feel. How you could react to it. How you would react to it. So that was really good. I think that kind of training where you can really say, well, I wouldn’t know what to do. What do you do?” (Zuzanna)

When comparing the very different experiences of Sarah and Julia, it is important to take note of the fact that Sarah had been assisting another volunteer teacher for two months prior to taking the training. Thus, she was familiar with the style of class referred to by the trainers, and it is possible that this existing schema enabled her to make sense of, and apply, the techniques and practices that were being discussed. Moreover, this facilitated her ability to engage with reflective practice, supporting Ihara's (2017) assertion that an observational practicum gives novice teachers an opportunity to connect theory with practice. This, potentially, points to a need for new volunteers to have observed at least one lesson provided by the host organisation, prior to undergoing initial training.

As with initial training, there appeared to be much disparity between the ongoing professional development opportunities offered by host organisations. Moreover, as training events were optional, participants working for the same organisation had not necessarily undergone the same training. Robert, who had attended several professional development events, found it difficult to recall their content and was sceptical of the extent to which they had helped him to develop:

"I have been to a few things, because it's good to keep in touch with other people but... once you're an experienced teacher I'm not sure how much you're really going to learn from these workshops, honestly." (Robert)

Within this statement Robert indicates that time and experience are the most significant factors in fostering a sense of competency amongst teachers, a phenomenon that supports Andres' (2006) findings. Similarly, Shirley and Julia, who worked for the same organisation and had attended several events, struggled to remember the themes and content of the majority of the sessions they had taken part in. However, Julia described one training event with great enthusiasm, in which many of the techniques taught on the CELTA programme were revised:

“It was this guy who came over from [a local] College and I cannot remember what the overarching thing was. But it was a complete review of CELTA. It wasn’t framed in those terms but it was about Teacher Talk Time, eliciting, CCQs – it was really a lot of those core principles. And he was great! I mean, he was absolutely fantastic! And I thought it was on point.” (Julia)

It is important to consider this anecdote alongside Julia’s earlier comments regarding the initial training she received from the host organisation, which also included a revision of techniques learnt on the CELTA, where she stated that she had not fully grasped many of the concepts as “the foundations were not quite there”. The fact that, as a new teacher, she gained more from revisiting the CELTA once she had already begun work, again, indicates that a period of experiential learning is fundamental to understanding pedagogical theory. This also points to deficit within the CELTA, despite the six hours of practical assessment that is included, supporting Ferguson and Donno’s (2003) supposition that the course should be expanded.

When asked why she felt that the experience had been so much more beneficial once she had been teaching for several months, she highlighted the extent to which anxiety can create an inability to apply theoretical principles in a practical setting:

“It was like muscle-memory in a way. It was kind of like – I remember this! And now I feel at a stage where I can really use it because I feel more solid... the trouble with lacking confidence and feeling anxious is that you become self-preoccupied, so that you’re less available for you students... whereas, when you start to feel more confident, you take more risks...” (Julia)

This exemplifies a down-wards spiral of negative thought patterns, that can result from lacking confidence, and can diminish actual capabilities. Bandura (1997) states that “by conjuring up aversive thoughts about their ineptitude and stress reactions, people can rouse themselves to elevated levels of distress that produce the very dysfunctions they fear”

(p.106). This implies that it is essential that organisations do not delay in helping newly qualified teachers to develop a sense of self-efficacy.

Thus, it appears that training sessions provided by host organisations are extremely varied in their capacity to heighten a sense of preparedness amongst volunteer teachers and may, potentially, be more effective once volunteers are familiar with the style of class they will be teaching.

4.4.2 Materials

As exemplified by comments from both Frances and Julia in the section on ‘specific difficulties with teaching ESOL’ (See p.26), finding suitable course materials can be a challenge, reducing the confidence of the teacher, and this is amplified by the unpredictable nature of ESOL classes, where students do not have to enrol on a complete course. This is particularly true for novice teachers, of which many ESOL volunteers are as they seek means of gaining teaching experience through volunteering. Comments from several of the participants, when talking about their very first teaching experiences in private language institutes, highlighted the usefulness of having course materials provided by the workplace. For example, Andrea stated:

“I was quite lucky in that my mum was an English teacher, so she was quite good at helping me...even when I had no experience, and the school I was with at the start, they also had quite a strict curriculum and a lot of materials, so it was OK to prepare the lessons...” (Andrea)

Similarly, many of the more experienced participants signalled that building up a bank of materials over time has had a significant impact on their sense of self-efficacy, especially when dealing with the inherent issues of drop-in style classes where a teacher often has to accommodate new students of varying levels:

"I feel usually, fairly well prepared and fairly well-equipped nowadays when I go to a class. And that is more challenging, as well, in the voluntary sector...when you don't know always the students but, you know, you end up having a bunch of different options in your bag." (Robert)

Bandura (1977) emphasises the enormous impact that "enactive mastery" can have on one's sense of perceived self-efficacy (p.80). In effectively utilising specific course materials, and knowing that those same materials are available for use in future lessons, it is possible that a sense of competency could be dramatically increased.

Julia, for whom a lack of resources was causing great anxiety and a lack of self-confidence when she first began her volunteer teaching work, spoke of her experiences when she approached the organisation for help:

"I did ask for help and I got help, but I couldn't make use of it...I was given a list of what people ought to be learning, or revising, at that level...But I really wanted to be able to embed that in a lesson...and I just couldn't find the material."(Julia)

This indicates that providing a scheme of work may not be sufficient support for newly qualified teachers who are not familiar with locating resources. When asked where she was looking for materials to use at that time, Julia spoke of what can be a tedious, lengthy and difficult process of searching for resources online:

"It would take me a day to prepare - forever!... Scouring, scouring, scouring, scouring, printing, printing, printing, printing." (Julia)

Frances, whose host organisation has no resource bank, and who demonstrated a strong sense of feeling underprepared due to the lack of materials, highlighted the additional problem of the nature of ESL teaching websites, which often require people to sign-up:

“I’ve done some quite basic searching and of course you have to log in, or you have to be a member to download the resources and all this kind of stuff.” (Frances)

The inaccessibility of many online resources, in addition to the difficulties teachers can face in finding suitable online resources, indicates a need for organisations to provide materials for teachers to use in lessons, in order to adequately prepare volunteers and enhance feelings of confidence. Julia was, in fact, presented with a course book, although found it difficult to put it to use in a lesson:

“[My host organisation] did provide me with a course book which they thought was fantastic but I just didn’t feel it. I didn’t feel it at all.” (Julia)

Here, Julia implies that she could not get a sense of how the course book would work in practice. This points to the benefits of organisations not only providing materials to unexperienced teachers, but also providing the opportunity for volunteers to undergo an observational practicum, to enable them to visualise how materials might be used. This both supports and adds to the work of Ihara (2017), who strongly emphasises the merits of observing a more experienced practitioner, but does not include gaining understanding of how best to utilise course materials in her reasoning.

Thus, it would appear that feelings of competence may be enhanced by provision of course materials, particularly for newly qualified teachers. Moreover, it is possible that an observational practicum, enabling teachers to visualise how these materials are effectively used, may accentuate self-belief in one’s ability to use those materials in future lessons.

4.4.3 Observations

Observations can come in different forms. Often the developing teacher is observed by a more experienced practitioner, receiving constructive feedback on their practice. At other times the developing teacher is, them self, the observer and learns through the act of watching a more experienced teacher. Amongst commentary from the participants, there was a far greater emphasis put on the benefits of observing a highly skilled peer than on being observed themselves. Four of the participants had worked, or are currently working, as an assistant to a lead teacher, and spoke of the confidence developed through assisting a more experienced practitioner. Andrea, for example, referring to her current voluntary role as a teaching assistant, stated that observation has been pivotal to her development:

“I think I’ve learnt more through observation than actual practice” (Andrea)

In addition, she spoke of the usefulness of peer observations in the first school she worked at after completing the CELTA course, and the way in which an observation enabled her to analyse and consolidate theory she had studied:

“When you talk about leading a class or leading a specific game, or teaching grammar in a specific way, talking about it is one thing. But when you actually see it in action, you can see what’s going right and what’s going wrong, you can see how the teacher deals with these issues too...” (Andrea)

It is possible that Andrea developed a sense of competence through the “vicarious experience” of the lead teacher (Bandura, 1997, p.86). Andrea frequently mentioned the positive working relationship that had developed between them, which Bandura (1997) suggests can increase the extent to which a “model’s” experiences are internalised (p.86).

Similarly, Sarah, described the benefits of assisting another teacher for two months prior to taking on her own class:

“I’d been out of teaching for a long time so...for me it was nice. I got to observe the teacher and how she was dealing with learners and how she was interacting with them, how she was delivering her lessons. And it was very helpful. I would relate that to my own teaching experience. See if there were things that I would do differently, or that I would do the same. Things that I didn’t do, that she was doing. It was good! It helped me.” (Sarah)

Within the commentary from both Sarah and Andrea, significant levels of critical thinking are exemplified. In addition, Sarah demonstrates a high level of self-reflexivity, contrasting what is observed to her own past practice, which may be due to her longstanding interest in language education and her high academic status – having recently completed a doctorate. Thus, it is possible that observation of a more experienced practitioner may not, in itself, bolster feelings of competence. However, if critical thinking skills and self-reflection are taught and developed by organisations working with volunteer teachers, along-side observations, it is possible that host organisations can dramatically increase feelings of confidence and competence amongst their voluntary workforce.

Thus, it would seem that observations, whereby the novice teacher observes a more experienced practitioner, were cited as the most beneficial in developing a sense of competence. Undergoing a period of observational practicum appears to provide both developmental and training opportunities, as outlined by Canh (2014), for both newly qualified and experienced teachers working in a new context. Moreover, engagement with reflective practice may enhance the extent to which people can learn from observations.

4.4.4 Class continuity

Due to the drop-in nature of free EOL classes, as discussed in the section on ‘specific difficulties with teaching ESOL classes’ (See, p.26), continuity - in terms of which students regularly participate in a class - is difficult for organisations to facilitate and control. However, it should be noted that comments made by participants signalled the extent to which

familiarity with a class group, developed when many of the same students attend classes regularly, greatly aided a sense of competence:

“If there’s a group of people and you know who they are, and you’ve met them all before, and you’ve got a rapport with them, then of course that’s easier.” (Robert)

“It progressively got easier to teach and, obviously, with the same class it gets easier as well because you know how your students will react to different things.” (Zuzanna)

“Students, once they’ve been in the class for a bit, they understand how it works.” (Andrea)

Julia, who struggled greatly with underconfidence when she first began her volunteer teaching work, also suggested that group continuity had played a significant part in fostering a new sense of confidence. When asked when she had begun to feel as though she was a competent teacher she replied:

“Probably this term. I don’t really know why. I think it was maybe – although you don’t know what the chicken and the egg is – but I think my group really established itself. People would come over and over and I liked them, I really liked them.” (Julia)

However, as Julia herself points out, it is difficult to determine whether additional factors previously discussed, such as easy access to appropriate course materials and additional training such as the CELTA refresher, aided her in teaching more effectively. This could have encouraged students to return to her class on a regular basis, appearing to have a greater

impact on her sense of self-efficacy than was really the case. That being said, the above commentary from Andrea, Zuzanna and Robert support the notion that teaching the same students on a regular basis reduces the level of uncertainty involved in lesson planning and group mediation, as both the teacher and student are familiar with the teaching and learning style of the class environment. This has the potential to enhance a sense of self-efficacy, as lower levels of stress and arousal are associated with improved outcomes (Bandura, 1997).

4.5 Working with Refugees and Asylum Seekers

While it is not known what proportion of students attending volunteer-led ESOL classes are refugees and asylum seekers, it is inevitable that volunteer teachers will come into contact with people who are suffering, or have experienced trauma, and are, therefore, at risk of secondary traumatisation (See, p.13). Participants were asked if they had experienced any incidents, or had felt concerned about student welfare, and emotions surrounding the event were explored.

Of the eight participants, four reported that they had not experienced any incidents that had raised concerns regarding student welfare, two of which indicated that there were more qualified staff on hand that deal with potential issues. Frances commented on the nature of the conversation class she was assisting, highlighting that the class was coordinated in such a way that potentially difficult themes were avoided:

“We don’t really talk about where they’re from and things like that. We talk about what’s in Glasgow and what they’re doing here.” (Frances)

However, others appeared to have experienced emotional stress as a result of specific incidents. Ruby, whose interview audio recording was sadly lost, recalled a time when a student was deported following the rejection of their asylum application by the Home Office. She described feelings of stress and anguish, not solely in relation to her own empathy for the student, but also the difficulty in managing the other students in the class who were traumatised by the loss of their classmate. While this cannot be taken as evidence of secondary traumatisation, this first-hand experience was clearly traumatic in itself. As with the participants in Guban and Liebling-Kalifani (2011) and Century et. al.'s (2007) research, Ruby recalled feeling ill-equipped to deal with the situation, stating that she felt nothing could have prepared her for the incident.

Julia talked of a student for whom she had felt a great deal of concern, which had resulted in her own feelings of anguish:

“There was a woman that I taught that I really, really liked, and she was from Albania, and she’s not there anymore and I don’t know what happened...I don’t know exactly what was the problem but I do know that money was a problem. She really missed her family...the poverty was distressing.” (Julia)

Moreover, she became very emotional during the interview, recalling a recent event where she had discovered that one of her students was an asylum seeker. In relation to both of these events, she too expressed feelings of powerlessness:

“What is a helpful response? Don’t know.” (Julia)

Here, Julia is clearly experiencing an extreme empathic response to her students, resulting in her own distress. It could be argued that she may be abnormal in her capacity to empathise, thus increasing the potential for vicarious traumatisation. Akinsulure-Smith et. al. (2018) assert that high levels of emotional intelligence (EI), as measured by the Trait EI scale, lower

the risk of a person experiencing secondary traumatisation. However, measuring the emotional intelligence of prospect volunteer teachers during recruitment would most likely be considered highly inappropriate, and would certainly be impossible to mediate. What is more, when asked about their motivation for taking on a volunteer teaching role, the majority of participants emphasised a strong desire to help others, indicating that volunteer ESOL teachers in general are, perhaps, likely to have high empathic responses.

One could argue that, as volunteer ESOL teachers commonly teach just one class per week, this low-level of exposure to students would reduce the probability of burn-out and compassion fatigue, as these develop through repeated incidents over time (Figley, 2002). However, the negative impact experienced by both Ruby and Janet, and the probability that volunteer teachers will have high levels of empathy, indicate that there is a need for training and support to ensure volunteers do not experience adverse emotional responses. Zuzanna talked of a free online training course from FutureLearn that she had undertaken, entitled *Volunteering with Refugees* (FutureLearn, 2018):

“There was a little bit about how to deal with trauma and I thought, wow, what would I do? And there were a few techniques about how to deal with a situation where someone’s telling you really sensitive things. Because I’m a really sensitive person I was really worried. I thought, I’ll cry, if someone tells me a really bad story I’m just going to start crying... It told you how to focus on your physical body and, maybe, count your fingers or do certain things. I thought, I need to memorise that because I could just see myself sitting there crying.” (Zuzanna)

On one hand, this demonstrates how training can promote feelings of confidence by equipping volunteers with tools and techniques that can assist them in dealing with potentially traumatic incidents. On the other hand, Zuzanna indicates that the training itself induced feelings of anxiety, as she began to pre-empt having to cope with potentially difficult situations. Both Guban and Liebling-Kalifani (2011) and Kindermann et. al. (2017) highlight

the benefits of supervision in managing secondary traumatisation and compassion fatigue. It is possible that Zuzanna's anxiety surrounding possible future issues could have been lowered during this initial training, had she known she would be receiving ongoing support. However, as Century et. al. (2007) point out, there is a need for supervisors to be equipped with specialist knowledge. It is highly conceivable that this level of support cannot viably be provided by third sector organisations, struggling with funding and resources.

Thus, it would appear that, despite the minimal contact time between volunteers and their students, there is some evidence of negative emotional responses that have developed as a result of working closely with refugees and asylum seekers, albeit primary or secondary trauma. Moreover, as the nature of being a volunteer may indicate a strong capacity to empathise, the group could be at an increased risk of vicarious traumatisation. Lastly, it seems as though training can, to some extent, reduce feelings of distress resulting from feeling ill-equipped to deal with potential incidents.

4.6 Belief in a Personal Disposition to Teach

Emerging from the participants on multiple occasions, was a discourse relating to a natural ability to teach English:

"Some people are just born to teach – they just have it!" (Sarah)

"I think I'm good at it sort of naturally" (Julia)

"You can see when you're observing other teachers, or observing other teacher trainers, that some people just didn't have it." (Zuzana)

“When I was a kid I always thought, how can you train to be a teacher, that’s just innate. I suppose I’ve always had that in the back of my mind.” (Robert)

This is in-line with findings of Spitzer (2009) who found that many ESL educators hold the belief that personal characteristics are of more importance than formal qualifications, in enabling a person to teach effectively. Dweck (2000), who looks closely at the role of self-theories in relation to motivation and development, stipulates that a belief in fixed intelligence can reduce the ability to cope with difficult tasks (p.37). Moreover, the notion of genuine innate talents has been expelled as a “myth” by many researchers (Howe *et. al.*, 1998; Mercer & Ryan, 2009). While an inability to cope was not evident amongst the participants, the work of Dweck (2000) points to a need for training programmes to be delivered in such a way as to expel the notion of innate ability, and to promote a belief in malleable intelligence.

Throughout the interview, Robert appeared to be dismissive of potential benefits of formal or ongoing training. When asked about whether any training events held by his host organisation had been memorable, he replied:

“Honestly, no. I mean, there are some which seem OK when you’re doing the workshop but as I say, I would be of the opinion that to some extent, teaching your native language is a relatively simple thing and you shouldn’t try to over complicate it.” (Robert)

Similarly, when asked about the CELTA Course, Robert included the commentary:

“As far as I’m concerned, there’s no magic secret to teaching.” (Robert)

This points to the potential for a long-held belief in the ease of teaching to act as a barrier to learning and professional development. Research into the way in which conceptions of inherent abilities affect motor learning has demonstrated that learning can be enhanced when people believe that what is being taught is a learnable skill (Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2009).

Although participants indicated that they felt the attributes of a good teacher came naturally, later comments revealed the impact that positive feedback may have had on this belief:

“As a young kid I was a good student and the teacher said, you’d be a good teacher.” (Robert)

“When I was in college I used to tutor my friends. And they would say ‘[Sarah], you’re really good! We really got it!’ (Sarah)

Here it appears that positive feedback has helped to shape participants’ self-theories. Bandura (1977) cites “verbal persuasion” as a source of perceived self-efficacy, and it is possible that host organisations could utilise this technique in order to develop a sense of competence amongst volunteers.

Thus, it would seem that a belief that teaching is a natural talent is not uncommon, and that the extent to which a person believes they possess this talent is, potentially, linked to the feedback they receive. Moreover, research in the wider field has demonstrated negative consequences of believing in fixed intelligence. This should, perhaps, be taken into consideration when training programmes are developed, if feelings of confidence and competence are to be fostered successfully.

5. Discussion

It is clear that the unmet demand for government funded ESOL provision, across the UK, has necessitated third sector organisations to step in and meet this demand – largely achievable only through the use of volunteer teachers. One could question the societal structures which have fostered such a reliance on an unpaid workforce, and whether discourses surrounding race and belonging have played a part in the funding cuts that have so dramatically affected the ability for new-arrivals to access ESOL provision. However, groups such as Refugee Action (2016) have highlighted other barriers, such as poor mental health, low income which affects the ability to commute, or a lack of childcare, that can also prevent people from accessing state funded programmes. This creates demand for volunteer-led projects which often strive to provide a creche, or set up groups in areas where no college is present. In addition, the benefits that volunteer led projects can have on communities, enabling people to build social connections (Scottish Government, 2018), should not be underestimated. Thus, in the words of the director of an ESOL project in Glasgow – “There will always be a need for volunteer-led ESOL”.

It would appear that volunteer-led ESOL provision is unique in many aspects, and a far cry from the environment of a private language school, for which much standardised training, and many text books and course materials, are designed. Thus, the third sector ESOL environment poses specific issues that need to be addressed, if host organisations are to successfully promote feelings of confidence and competence amongst volunteers. This study has focused on the link between perceptions of self-efficacy and psychological well-being. However, much research, including that of Bandura (1977) and Deci and Ryan (2008), has demonstrated the positive effect that perceptions of competence can have on the results of a given action. In the case of volunteer ESOL teachers, this indicates that the well-being of students, and the development of their English language skills, may be influenced by the self-perceptions of the volunteer teacher. In order to substantiate the need for future research in

the field, and given the Scottish government's focus on outcomes within *Scotland's ESOL Strategy 2015-2020*, a study of the correlation between perceptions of competence amongst ESOL teachers, and student outcomes, could help to increase interest in, and generate funding for, further research.

While I acknowledge that the very small scope of this study means that the findings cannot be generalised, or taken to be of a concrete nature, I hope to have highlighted the substantial gap in the field of educational research relating to the welfare of volunteer ESOL teachers. Here I present suggestions for future research into techniques and practices that have emerged from the study, that may help to foster feelings of confidence and competence amongst this demographic. I do so in the hope that findings could potentially be used to form a guide for best practice that can be utilised by third sector ESOL providers of the future.

What factors should be taken into account by host organisations when selecting volunteer ESOL teachers?

Recruitment procedures could potentially play a part in selecting people with experience, qualifications, and attributes that may help bolster a sense of self-efficacy. This study indicates that living abroad may increase a person's capacity to comprehend learners' lived experiences, supporting findings of Daily (2009). This might enable them to feel confident in the way in which they communicate with, and assist, learners. Travel and living abroad can, perhaps, foster adaptability, which may help to reduce the pressures presented by the unpredictable nature of drop-in style classes. In addition, learning a second language appears to help with language awareness, filling the gap left by CELTA, as highlighted by Ferguson and Donno (2003), which, in its brevity, does not include explicit content relating to language itself. In addition, the study also supports the possibility that high levels of emotional intelligence can help to reduce the risk of secondary traumatisation, as posed by Akinsulure-Smith et. al. (2018). However, given the growing demand for volunteer-led ESOL, and the fact that a significant proportion of volunteers tend to be newly qualified, it is clear that organisations cannot simply select competent candidates. Moreover, it is difficult to imagine how an organisation would go about incorporating the measure of emotional intelligence, or perceived self-efficacy, into a recruitment procedure, and the inclusion of any such step is

likely to be highly controversial. Thus, further research into the best means of recruiting volunteers would enable host organisations to develop key criteria for recruitment.

To what extent can provision of suitable resources increase a sense of self-efficacy amongst volunteer ESOL teachers?

Although some of the organisations referred to in the study do provide a scheme of work to enable teachers to plan lessons, it would seem that new teachers are not always aware of how to locate, or utilise, resources which can be used in class. Many text books and worksheets are not designed with refugees and asylum seekers in mind and, as such, they may be inappropriate in their themes and content. In addition, finding online resources can be challenging, particularly as many websites require a membership, and fee, in order to access content. Commentary from the participants in this study indicate that a lack of resources can, in some cases, lead to a severe sense of being underprepared and incompetent, causing anxiety and lowering motivation. This is, potentially, accentuated as volunteers can feel a deep sense of responsibility toward a student-group that may have no other means of accessing tuition. Bandura (1977) highlights the favourable effect that perceived positive outcomes, and low stress levels, can have on one's sense of self-efficacy. Moreover, Self-Determination Theory links a lack of perceived competence to amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). It is highly conceivable that providing a full set of suitable resources, for optional use by volunteers, could help to reduce anxiety and create a mental state that would be conducive to teacher development. Thus, with participants in this study citing, time and time again, the impact that resources, or a lack there of, can have on their self-perception, it would seem that this is an area that would greatly merit further research.

How, and to what extent, could a period of observational practicum help volunteer ESOL teachers to develop feelings of competence?

The potential benefits of undertaking an observational practicum have surfaced multiple times throughout this research, very much supporting the work of Ihara (2017). Time spent observing a more experienced teacher might enable a novice teacher to apply theory to

practice, whilst reducing anxiety induced by having to prepare and deliver classes (Ibid.). What is more, given the apparent shortcomings of the CELTA course in equipping teachers with knowledge and skills that are specifically relevant to ESOL, it could provide a context specific learning opportunity for both newly qualified teachers, and those who are not familiar with the conditions of volunteer-led ESOL classes. Looking to the work of Bandura (1977), the “vicarious experience” of observing a confident model (p.80), coupled with the calm physiological state that may result from a reduced workload, could increase the perception of self-efficacy.

While the work of Ihara (2017) has demonstrated many of the benefits of undergoing an observational practicum, there appear to be factors that are still unexplored. It is possible that a period of observation utilising course materials that are provided by the host organisation, could potentially foster competence in newly qualified teachers, who, without experience, may not feel confident in using those same materials effectively. Similarly, it would seem that training may be most effective when it builds on the prior knowledge of the developing teacher. Thus, observing a class in the context in which the volunteer will be teaching, before beginning any training, may facilitate the application and theoretical understanding of new information being taught. Further research into the complexities of the impact of undergoing an observed practicum, particularly in the context of volunteer-led ESOL, could help to develop training strategies that will maximise the potential of the volunteer tutor.

To what extent do volunteer ESOL teachers who work with refugees and asylum seekers experience secondary traumatisation, and what can be done to minimise the potential risk of this phenomenon?

Despite the relatively short contact time that volunteers typically have with students, their psychological well-being is potentially at risk. It is evident that many of those accessing free ESOL classes will be refugees and asylum seekers, who have experienced trauma and suffering. This is, perhaps, especially true in England, where asylum seekers are not entitled to state funded ESOL provision until they have been in the country for six months (Refugee Action, 2016). As a result, it could be assumed that a larger proportion of those accessing

volunteer-led ESOL will be asylum seekers, for whom the precarious nature of their status in the UK is likely to cause additional stress and anguish. Research has shown that negative emotional states induced by post-traumatic stress, or current hardship, can be transferred to, and internalised, by people working with refugees, in a process known as vicarious traumatisation (Akinsulure-Smith *et. al*, 2018; Century *et. al.*, 2007; Guban and Liebling-Kalifani, 2011; Kindermann *et. al.*, 2017). However, this phenomenon has, as yet, not been examined in relation to volunteer teachers. As commentary from participants in this study have pointed to potential evidence of secondary trauma, and primary trauma occurring as a result of a student being deported, the extent to which the psychological well-being of volunteer teachers is affected by interaction with students, warrants further investigation.

In addition, it seems as though it is necessary for volunteer ESOL teachers to be given training and support, to equip them with competences required to handle any incidents that may arise as a result of working with refugees and asylum seekers. What is more, commentary from the participants in this study indicates that the prospect of having to deal with difficult topics in class may, in itself, induce anxiety and lower confidence. This points to a potential need for ongoing teacher-focused supervision. Future Learn (2018) currently provide free online training for volunteers working with this group in any capacity, and host organisations themselves may have their own training programmes. However, research into the most effective means of preparing and supporting volunteer ESOL teachers in working with a vulnerable student-group, could shed light on the best means of promoting volunteer welfare in this regard.

6. Conclusion

With growing numbers of refugees and asylum seekers arriving in the UK, and the importance of developing language skills well documented (Casey, 2016; All Party Parliamentary Group, 2017; Refugee Action, 2016), provision of free ESOL classes is an unavoidable necessity. Despite the development of Scotland's 2015-2020 ESOL Strategy, there is still an enormous level of unmet demand for government funded courses, accentuated in areas with high

population of immigrants such as Glasgow (Education Scotland, 2016). When third sector organisations step in to fill the gap, volunteers will inevitably play a part in delivering classes. What is more, additional barriers to accessing state funded provision mean there will likely be an ongoing requirement for volunteer-led ESOL. Thus, with so little academic literature available for host organisations to draw on, there is a pressing need for research into how best to recruit, prepare and support volunteer teachers. While *Scotland's ESOL strategy 2015-2020* calls for support for volunteer teachers to foster confidence and competence (p.22), the complexities surrounding this endeavour remain largely unexplored. Bandura (1977) and Deci and Ryan (2008) indicate the psychological benefits of developing a sense of self-efficacy and perceived competence and, in turn, link this mental state to improved outcomes, substantiating the demand. However, the question remains as to whether this "objective" is truly "strategic" (Education Scotland, 2015, p.22), when no strategy for its facilitation is provided.

This study has highlighted the need for further research in the field of volunteer-led ESOL, and has explored potential avenues for further investigation. While components such as the drop-in nature of community ESOL, which affects class continuity, may not be remediable, there may be initiatives that host organisations can engage in to support a sense of self-efficacy amongst volunteers. It would seem that recruitment can, perhaps, play a small part in selecting suitable candidates, and host organisations themselves may also be able to support a sense of competence through ongoing training - providing it is relevant to the practitioner - and through provision of course materials. What is more, the benefits of undergoing an observational practicum prior to teaching and, potentially, prior to training, may be hugely beneficial in developing self-confidence. In addition, the possible risk to the emotional well-being of volunteer tutors, posed by working closely with refugees and asylum seekers, appears to merit further investigation.

Thus, the task of establishing how best to facilitate confidence and competence amongst volunteer ESOL teachers is complex, and the small scope of this study has, certainly, left many avenues un-touched. Much credit must be given to third sector host organisations who work diligently to support the integration of refugees and asylum seekers in the UK. I live in hope that research bodies now follow suit, to begin to form a guide for best practice which will support the well-being of volunteers and their students.

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8. Appendices

Appendix 1

Email correspondence between myself and the Glasgow ESOL Forum

25/07/2018 Print

Subject: Fw: Questions for GEF
From: Saph Gordon (2342196G@student.gla.ac.uk)
To: james.winwood@btinternet.com;
Date: Wednesday, 25 July 2018, 13:16

From: Kristen Fraley <kristen@glasgowesol.org>
Sent: 25 July 2018 10:26
To: Saph Gordon
Subject: RE: Questions for GEF

Hello Saph,

That's an interesting point of consideration! I can't say overall but from January of 2018, 9 out of 22 volunteers were recently qualified.

Thanks!
Kristen

From: Saph Gordon <2342196G@student.gla.ac.uk>
Sent: 25 July 2018 10:11
To: Kristen Fraley <kristen@glasgowesol.org>
Subject: RE: Questions for GEF

Morning Kristen,

Thank you, that's brilliant! It will be a huge help.

One last question that I forgot to put in is - roughly how many of your volunteers are newly qualified?

Hope you're still enjoying the sunshine up in Glasgow!
Saph

From: Kristen Fraley <kristen@glasgowesol.org>
Sent: 25 July 2018 08:57
To: Saph Gordon <2342196G@student.gla.ac.uk>; Jo <j@glasgowesol.org>; Helena <helena@glasgowesol.org>
Subject: RE: Questions for GEF

Good morning Saph,

Helena and Jo are away on annual leave so I will do my best to answer these for you:

1. The Volunteer Tutor Project began in 2004 and has taken different forms since then. In the past, the project offered a fast-track program which worked with unqualified teachers and gave them the foundations in English language teaching. Since then, the project has grown exponentially and we don't have the staff capacity to provide that kind of training for the number of volunteers we work with. Working with qualified teachers (with a CELTA, Cert TESOL, or TEFL which features a minimum of 6 hours of observed teaching practice or previous teaching experience) allows us to run more classes, reach more learners, and provide better support to our (currently) 37 active tutors (between 2

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25/07/2018

Print

Development Workers and 1 Development Manager). I can't say the exact date that we put those minimum requirements in place.

2. Certain times of the year are quieter than others but overall, no we don't struggle to find volunteers. We run 4 induction training sessions per year with a yearly recruitment of about 30 volunteers.
3. The classes we run are open to everyone and learners have different motivations for attending. Some go to the classes because they enjoy the community around it, others are attending college or working and attend when they can but the majority are waiting for a placement in college and our classes fill the gap. Our goal is to provide relevant and quality ESOL classes in areas of high demand (which is why they are in locations like Townhead, Whiteinch, Garnethill etc.) and support learner progression to further education and work.
4. A large part of the learner support that Development Workers provide is to book appointments for initial assessments so that learners receive a yellow certificate and then help them get on the ESOL register. We explain the process of waiting for college and that learners will get a text inviting them to college. If a learner has had any details changed (such as a phone number) we are happy to contact the register and have that updated. A challenge we have is tracking learner progression- if they get a text and start college but it doesn't get back to us, we don't know they've moved on!

I hope that helps! Let me know if you have any additional questions.

Thanks,
Kristen

From: Saph Gordon [mailto:2342196G@student.gla.ac.uk]

Sent: 24 July 2018 17:46

To: Jo <jo@glasgowesol.org>; Helena <helena@glasgowesol.org>; Kristen Fraley <kristen@glasgowesol.org>

Subject: Questions for GEF

Hi Jo, Helena and Kristen,

I am just in the final stages of my dissertation and I was wondering if I might be able to ask the Glasgow ESOL Forum a few questions to use as anecdotal evidence? Don't worry if that's not something you can do, I just thought it was worth an ask. The questions that would be useful are:

1. When did the GEF bring in the need for volunteers to have a CELTA or equivalent, and what was the thinking behind this?
2. Do you struggle to find volunteers?
3. Do you see GEF as providing supplementary ESOL, or does that depend on the student?
4. How has development of the Single Access Register affected your work?

Let me know if that's at all possible.

I hope the summer is going well!
Saph :)

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Appendix 2

Perceptions of competence and confidence amongst volunteer ESOL teachers working with refugees and asylum seekers

Saph Gordon – 2342196G

TOPICS FOR THE INTERVIEW

1. Previous work experience
2. Training
3. Previous experience living or working abroad
4. Feelings and experiences at the start of volunteering
5. Recent teaching experiences within this organisation
6. Incidents where you felt you were not prepared
7. Incidents where you felt prepared/like you knew what to do
8. Exploring what led you to feel prepared
9. Do you identify as a teacher?