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The preparation of English language teachers in Malaysia : a video-based approach.

Chakravarthy, Gitu

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THE PREPARATION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN MALAYSIA: A VIDEO-BASED APPROACH.

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THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF PH.D OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WALES.

SEPTEMBER 1993.

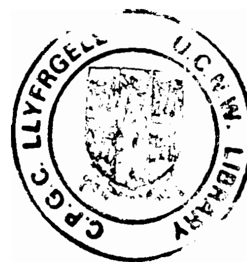

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Table of contents

	Page
Title Page	
Certification	
Acknowledgements	i
Table of Contents	ii
List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	ix
List of Appendices	x
Abstract	xi
General Introduction	1

CHAPTER ONE

Reflections on Classroom Practice: A Proposal for Research Into English Language Teacher Education in Malaysia

Introduction	2
Description of the Nature and Aims of the Project	2
Participants and Roles in the Project	3
A Rationale for the project in the context of Teacher Education	3
Review of Research Findings	16
Factors involved in the Design of the Materials	19
Factors of Usage	35
Research Proposal	38
Aims of Study	39
Methodology of Study	40
Conclusion	40

CHAPTER TWO
Reflective Teaching

Introduction	42
A Rationale for reviewing Reflective teaching	42
Reflection as conceived by Dewey	43
Reflection as conceived by Schon	49
Critiques of Schon	65
Conclusion	77

CHAPTER THREE
Approaches to Reflection

Introduction	78
Interpretations of Reflection	78
Strategies of Reflection in Teacher Education	98
A Review of Research	104
Discussion	118
Conclusion	124

CHAPTER FOUR
Methodology in English Language Teaching

Introduction	126
A Theoretical Framework for Language Teaching	127
Language Teaching methodology	133
Summary	144
A review of Language Teaching Methods	145
Grammar Translation	146
The Direct Method	148

The Reading Method 149
The Oral Method 150
The Audiolingual Method 151
Communicative Language Teaching 152
The Natural Approach 154
The Mainstream or Eclectic Approach 156
Other methods 158
Implications for Teacher Education in Malaysia 160
Conclusion 163

CHAPTER FIVE

English in Education in Malaysia

Introduction 165
The Background of Malaysia 165
A History of Education in Malaysia 169
- Before World War Two 169
- After World War Two 172
- From Independence to 1969 177
- After 1970 179
The Development of English 186
The Status of English 192
Aims of English Language Teaching 193
English Language Teacher Education 198
Recent Developments and a Look Ahead 200
Conclusion 203

CHAPTER SIX
The Methodology of the Research

Introduction	206
Aims of the Research	206
A survey of Research options	208
A Description of the Institution	215
Historical Development of Universiti Sains Malaysia	216
Academic set-up of USM	218
The School of Educational Studies	220
Reasons for the Choice of USM for Research	226
Description of the Students	227
Instruments of Research	231
Description of the Instruments of Research	231
Description of Individual Lesson Procedure	236
Method of data analysis	237
Conclusion	237

CHAPTER SEVEN
Analysis of the Results: Factors of Video-Design

Introduction	239
Discussion: relative importance of the factors	239
Analysis	242
Authenticity and Selection	243
Interest	250
Content	256
Relevance	260
Theme links, Editing Effects and Coherence	270
Focus	273
Picture Quality	274
Sound Quality	275
Length	276
General Comments	277
Conclusion	278

CHAPTER EIGHT
Analysis of the Results: Factors of Supplementary materials-Design, Usage and Reflective Outcomes

Introduction	279
Discussion	279
General	280
Simplicity / Comprehensiveness	281
Variety	286
Convenience	287
Self-sufficiency	289
Relevance	295
Strategies of Usage	299
Other points	305
Reflection	314
Conclusion	336

CHAPTER NINE
Conclusions

Introduction	338
Rationale for the project	338
Aims of the Research	340
Developments in the use of video prior to this research	341
Developments in teacher education prior to this research	343
Summary of the findings of this research	352
Reflection	353
Discussion: relevance of the findings	356
Suggestions for Further Research	360
Recommendations for Teacher Education in Malaysia	361

APPENDICES	364
BIBLIOGRAPHY	430

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1:Summary of Epistemological Commitments for Three Perspectives on Reflection in Teacher Education	84
Table 2: Authenticity of Lessons	244
Table 3: Authenticity of Teachers	245
Table 4: Identification with teachers	247
Table 5: Authenticity of Pupils	247
Table 6: Classrooms and Facilities	249
Table 7: Interest levels of the video lessons	251
Table 8: Comparison of courses	251
Table 9: Interest levels of the Units	254
Table 10: Perceived benefits of the units	255
Table 11: Clarity of teaching methods	256
Table 12: Familiarity of teaching methods	257
Table 13: Modernity of teaching methods	258
Table 14: Expectations about / reactions to the lessons	258
Table 15: Evaluation of the lessons	259
Table 16: Learning about Teaching methodology	260
Table 17: Student perceptions of what they learnt	261
Table 18: Student perceptions of benefit	263
Table 19: Value and usefulness of the videos	264
Table 20: Acceptability of non-inclusion of teacher errors	267
Table 21: Use of native speakers of English	270
Table 22: Coherence of Lessons	271
Table 23: Clarity of the aims of lessons	272
Table 24: Clarity of teaching methods in the lessons	273
Table 25: Clarity of contextual information about pupils	273
Table 26: Camera focus	274
Table 27: Quality of picture	274
Table 28: Quality of sound	275
Table 29: Length of video segments	276
Table 30: General Comments regarding the videos	277
Table 31: Difficulty level of the tasks	281
Table 32: Clarity of task instructions	281

Table 33: Familiarity of tasks 282
Table 34: Variation of tasks 286
Table 35: Time required to complete tasks 287
Table 36: Number of viewings required/provided for tasks 288
Table 37: Locating answers to tasks 288
Table 38: Purpose of the materials (suitability for self-study 289
Table 39: Purpose of the materials (suitability for taught lessons) 293
Table 40: Amount of specialised knowledge required for tasks 294
Table 41: Amount of significant points dealt with 295
Table 42: Suitability of titles 296
Table 43: Relevance of the Pre-Viewing tasks 296
Table 44: Relevance of Post-Viewing tasks 296
Table 45: Difficulty level of Post-viewing tasks 297
Table 46: Usefulness of Post-Viewing tasks 298
Table 47: Interest level of Post-Viewing tasks 298
Table 48: Specialised knowledge required for Post-Viewing tasks 299
Table 49: Perceptions about the nature and quality of feedback provided for tasks 303
Table 50: When materials should be used 304
Table 51: Personal need for similar materials 305
Table 52: Perceived general need for similar materials 305
Table 53: Evaluation of the materials package 306
Table 54: Aspects perceived not to have been dealt with (during individual lessons) 307
Table 55: Personal significance for students 309
Table 56: Additional comments 310
Table 57: Aspects perceived not to have been dealt with (during course as a whole) 311
Table 58: Aspects perceived unsatisfactory / disturbing / unacceptable (during course as a whole) 312
Table 59: Additional comments about course as a whole 313

LIST OF FIGURES

Page

Figure 1: An overview of British Council film and video materials 31
Figure 2: Campbell's model of the relationship between theory and practice 128
Figure 3: Spolsky's model of educational linguistics 128
Figure 4:Ingram's model for the development of Language Teaching Practice 129
Figure 5: Mackey's interaction model of language learning, teaching and policy 130
Figure 6: Strevens' model of language learning / language teaching process 131
Figure 7: Stern's general model for second language teaching 132
Figure 8: Richards and Rodgers' summary of elements and sub-elements that constitute a method 136
Figure 9: Ellis' outline of teacher preparation practices 162
Figure 10: Structure of the B.A. (Humanities with Education) programme 221
Figure 11: Overall degree structure 222
Figure 12:Unit allocation for B.A. with Education programme 223
Figure 13: Structure of the Diploma in Education Programme 224
Figure 14: Courses offered by the School of Educational Studies 225
Figure 15: Other courses required 226
Figure 16: Ethnic breakdown of the student sample group 228
Figure 17: Group ethnic breakdown 229
Figure 18: English language proficiency of the students 229
Figure 19: English language proficiency according to ethnicity 230
Figure 20: Titles of the Units 232

LIST OF APPENDICES

	Page
Appendix 1: Individual lesson questionnaire: Video materials	364
Appendix 2: Individual lesson questionnaire: Print materials	366
Appendix 3: Student Summative questionnaire	369
Appendix 4: Record of how the materials were used in each lesson	373
Appendix 5: Transcript of interview of one student	383
Appendix 6: Transcript of interview of one 'expert'	391
Appendix 7: One day's entries in researcher's diary	397
Appendix 8: Breakdown of Worksheet tasks	399
Appendix 9: One example of a student's essay	407
Appendix 10: One example of Worksheets and Leader's notes for a Unit	410
Appendix 11: Form requesting personal details	421
Appendix 12: One student's responses in Worksheet for Unit 9	423
Appendix 13: Transcript of one group discussion	424

ABSTRACT

This thesis is contextualised within the boundaries of language learning, language teaching and the preparation of teachers. It comprises an examination of the role of an innovation in materials design in the context of English language teacher education in Malaysia. Specifically, the thesis reports on a study of the use of a package of video-based materials with four groups of student teachers (graduates and undergraduates) during one semester in the Science University of Malaysia (Universiti Sains Malaysia). The package attempts to provide learners with experience of authentic English language lessons conducted by practising Malaysian teachers. Such experience provides opportunities for observation and reflection as a way of developing professional teaching skills, in part through focusing on classroom processes and realities. The materials provide opportunities for 'safe-experimentation' and developing experience within the rationale of a reflective approach to teacher education. In examining the assumptions about factors deemed to be important in the design and use of video materials, the research attempts to bridge the gap between theory and practice in teacher education.

In exploring ways of reconciling theory and practice, the study examines a significant approach to teacher education called reflection. The thesis focuses on a number of interpretations of reflection, especially Dewey's and Schon's. Strategies and programmes developed to produce reflective teachers are also examined in order to inform and provide a foundation for the conduct of the research.

The first chapter places the research in context and provides a rationale for the study. The next two chapters examine reflective orientations in teacher education, while chapter four reviews developments in English language teaching methodology. Chapter five focuses on the historical development of English to its present role and status in Malaysia. Chapters six, seven and eight describe the methodology and findings of the study. Chapter nine concludes the research by drawing together the various threads developed in the thesis.

INTRODUCTION

This introduction describes the contents of the various chapters in order that the overall direction and development of the study may be better understood.

Chapter 1 places the whole study in context by describing the origins and development of a project to develop video-based materials for English Language Teacher Education in the area of methodology. In so doing, theoretical aspects are discussed through the rationale behind the project and the materials, and the factors of design and use that have influenced both the development of the project and the materials. The chapter then describes the aims of the study.

Chapter 2 describes the meaning of the term reflection in Teacher Education in the context of various interpretations. The views of Dewey and Schon, in particular, are described and reviewed. This is followed by a discussion of responses to such an interpretation of reflection. Chapter 3 reviews various reflective approaches in the context of teacher education. The review includes discussion of various strategies underlying many of these approaches in order clarify and inform the theoretical issues underlying this study The findings of research (with regard to professional teacher education) relevant to this study are also reviewed in this chapter.

Chapter 4 reviews developments in the Teaching of English as a Second and Foreign Language, especially in the context of teacher education in Malaysia. Such a review is undertaken with a focus on methodology.

Chapter 5 provides a historical context for the way the national language policy in Malaysia has evolved to its current state in order to provide background information relevant to the study. The chapter discusses the aims, expectations and problems arising out of the 'melting pot' of multi-lingualism and multi-ethnicity in the country. It describes the variety of Malaysian spoken English, and examines the role and status of English in education in Malaysia. Strategies that have been employed for its development are described in the context of educational organisation in Malaysia, and particularly with regard to teacher education.

Chapter 6 describes the methodology of the study. A review of approaches to educational research is presented to inform on the design of the approach and methodology of the study. The institution, specific school and students are described in order to provide a context for the study. The instruments used to conduct the study are then described, and followed by a description of the teaching methodology. The conclusion raises a number of limitations pertaining to the methodology of the study. Chapters 7 and 8 analyse and discuss the findings of the study.

Chapter 9 concludes the study by discussing the implications of the study. In doing so, the chapter makes recommendations for teacher education generally, and Malaysia in particular. Recommendations are made for future research and for the design and development of EL teacher education materials.

CHAPTER 1

REFLECTIONS ON CLASSROOM PRACTICE: A RESEARCH PROPOSAL FOR EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF VIDEO MATERIALS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION IN MALAYSIA

Introduction

This chapter contextualises a study of the use of video materials in the education of pre-service English Language Teachers in Universiti Sains Malaysia (The Science University of Malaysia) in Penang, Malaysia. In the process, the chapter will describe the Reflections on Classroom Practice project which led to the production of a package of video-based materials for Malaysian teacher education in English Language Teaching methodology. Furthermore, the project is placed in the context of two broad conceptualisations of approaches to teacher education, thereby providing a rationale for this research. The chapter ends with a specification of the aims of the study.

The chapter will provide a:

-description of the nature and aims of Reflections on Classroom Practice project on English Language Teaching (ELT) methodology;
-description of the participants in the project;
-rationale behind the project in the context of teacher education;
-review of research findings;
-discussion of factors involved in the design of the video and print materials;
-discussion of factors of usage;
-proposal for research;
-statement of the aims of study;
-broad statement of methodology of study;
-concluding summary.

Description of the Nature and aims of the Project.

The three year project which began in 1987 in Penang, Malaysia, was originally called "A Video Library of English Language Teaching Methodology", but was re-named "Reflections on Classroom Practice" in 1990. The aims of the project may be summarised to include two aspects:

At one level, it has aimed at the production of a video-based package for a specific context (teacher education in Malaysia). The project concluded in 1991 with the production of a package

consisting of a set of video cassettes and accompanying print material. Three video cassettes make up the video component. They contain twelve units of videos on various aspects of ELT such as "Dealing with Errors" and "Moving onto Projects". Each video unit comprises edited segments of video lessons from recordings made of authentic English language lessons by practising teachers with secondary school children in the state of Penang in Malaysia. Support material comes in the form of a workbook, with worksheets for each unit of video, and a set of Leader's Notes (suggested answers). The package is intended to provide convenient non-didactic supplementary materials of good quality for use by teacher educators involved primarily in the training of English Language pre-service secondary school (pupils 11 years of age onwards) teachers in Malaysia, and to a lesser degree, by those involved in teacher education elsewhere.

At another level, the package aims to provide evidence in the form of video segments of authentic Malaysian classroom experiences in the context of English language teaching. In this context, the project represents an interest in the investigation of the effects of the assumptions underlying the production and use of video-based materials in teacher education in general. This study by the researcher represents such research, with the video tapes providing for a third year education course at Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Participants and Roles in the Project.

The participants in the project were the staff of the School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia, staff of the Scottish Centre for Education Overseas, Moray House in Edinburgh, and the British Council as an organisation, through the Committee for International Cooperation In Higher Education or CICHE. The major contributor (in terms of human resources and funding) was Universiti Sains Malaysia, while the staff of the Scottish Centre for Education Overseas took a consultative role. The British Council provided the link between the institutions and partial funding for staff visits between the two institutions as part of its ongoing commitment to the promotion of links between academics in Malaysia and the United Kingdom, and the promotion of English language teaching in Malaysia.

A Rationale for the Project in the Context of Teacher Education

The project is contextualised in the researcher's perception that despite years of research and advances in language teaching, little is known with certainty about what the characteristics of good or effective teachers are (Brown, 1975), what contributes to their expertise, what their knowledge bases are, how the expert teachers think in the contexts of their work, and whether such expertise can be developed through education. As Rosenshine (1971) points out, there are many different ways to successful teaching, but there is no clear evidence favouring any 'best' recipe.

The same applies to language teaching. Richards and Rodgers (1986) point out that there is an absence of substantial data on the effectiveness of various language programmes, and

> "...little has been published about the impact on learners of programs, approaches, methods, instructional strategies and materials" (p.159).

It has been argued that language teaching methodology has to be placed on a more secure empirical footing than at present (Nunan, 1990). Richards (1990) points out that

> "Research or theory that deals with the nature of second language teaching per se is scant in the professional literature. While there is a body of practice in second language teacher education-based almost exclusively on intuition and common sense- until recently there has been little systematic study of second language teaching processes that could provide a theoretical basis for deriving practices in second language teacher education" (p. 4).

As such, on one hand there is a need to continue to research on all of the areas mentioned above. On the other hand, there is a need to develop more effective methods and techniques for teaching English as a second and foreign language, and for the preparation of teachers of ESL and EFL. However, this will not be enough, for any such advances have to be placed within the context of an overall professional rationale. The project attempts therefore to do two things, namely research teacher education and explore new methods for the preparation of teachers, both as far as possible, within the context of a professional rationale. A key element in this attempt is the examination of the balance between theory and practice in teacher education which continues to be accused of being over-theoretical in contrast to the common-sense of practising teachers (Griffiths and Tann, 1992). Rowell et al. (1992) point out that one "of the foremost areas of debate continues to be the part played by psychological theories of learning. Can such theoretical knowledge result in better practical teaching? Should theory be taught, and if so, what theory, and when and how should it be taught?" (p.159). Similar questions could also be asked of the role of practice.

The rationale behind both the Reflections on Classroom Practice project and the present study developed from perceptions of two possible approaches to professional education (as applied to ESL / EFL teacher education) reviewed here. The two approaches or models, following Schon (1983, 1987), may be described as (1) the applied science model, and (2) the reflective models (Wallace, 1991). Schon (1983, 1987) uses the terms 'technical rationality' and 'reflection-in-action'. While the two approaches and Schon's (1983, 1987) terms and views will be dealt with in greater detail in Chapters two and three, this section reproduces briefly a framework for English language teacher education proposed elsewhere (Wallace and Chakravarthy, 1989; Wallace, 1991) as part of the underlying rationale of the thesis.

The Applied Science model

The applied science model may be considered to be the most common and traditional approach underlying professional education. In such an approach, empirical science provides the authority. The question of transmitting professional practical knowledge is a matter of relating the most suitable means to achieving professional objectives which have already been decided upon. What becomes important is the question of means. Decisions about the most appropriate means are guided by the belief that scientific experimentation provides a solid base of scientific knowledge. Thus, scientific experimentation will reveal findings relevant to the various professions. In the context of teacher education, such research findings are applied to problems of the teaching profession. The findings are perhaps further refined, and conveyed to the trainees by teacher educators. The trainees are expected to assimilate, and practise these until competence is achieved.

Implicit in the applied science model is the belief that there is a wide gap between those who know and those who do not. Thus, the experts who know, identify problems and seek solutions out of empirical, scientific experimentation. They then convey their findings to trainees who do not know and have to learn. Teacher education is led by 'experts'. Often, it is didactic and one-way in nature. Underlying the approach is the conviction that the problems of teaching can be solved through the application of knowledge in systematic fashion, based on a scientific approach. The "problem in many countries is that the terms of teacher education are laid down by the teacher trainers and applied linguists, in consultation with the Ministry. Teachers themselves are not usually consulted" (Bolitho, 1984, p.24-25).

It would be fair to conclude that in the main, it is this applied science model that predominates education in Malaysia. Most decisions tend to be made by "experts" who are mostly people who have left the classroom and become educational administrators, or become lecturers in teacher education colleges or universities. Major decisions usually arise out of policy meetings in the Ministry of Education and are handed down via established procedures to be implemented by teachers in schools. A case in point would be the implementation of the Kurikulum Baru Sekolah Rendah (or New Curriculum for Primary Schools) which many Malaysian educators recall as being rushed through to fulfil a political announcement of its implementation. The process involved a massive effort at in-service teacher education as well as the construction of buildings and classrooms to accommodate the requirements of the new proposals. Much of this took place after the new curriculum was officially implemented. Teacher education had to follow suit and make provisions to accommodate these changes. Where teacher education itself is concerned, this researcher's own experiences confirm that the basic attitude in most of the teacher training institutions reflects the applied science approach.

Unfortunately, there is little evidence to suggest that the applied science model has worked successfully. The way behaviourism and the audio-visual approach to language teaching have not led to successful language teaching-learning is an example of how things can go wrong. At the local level in Malaysia, constant reminders in letters to the press bemoaning falling standards in education, and in the English language in particular, are reminders of disenchantment and concern with the present expert-led, top-down approach to education.

The Reflective model

An alternative approach is the reflective model (Wallace and Chakravarthy,1989; Wallace, 1991). Schon (1983, 1987) suggests that there are two kinds of knowledge. The first kind he suggests are research based and, in the context of teacher education, could include the usual input into teacher education such as facts, data, theories, subject matter knowledge, concepts and terminology (such as morphemes, the langue / parole distinction, and ability grouping). There is a suggestion that it would not be quite correct to classify all of the above as being derived from research. Instead the term "received knowledge" (Wallace and Chakravarthy, 1989; Wallace, 1991) which deliberately echoes the idea of received wisdom (students receive the knowledge rather than experience them directly, and receive such knowledge without question) better represents much of the education that trainees usually receive. Schon (1983, 1987) suggests that the second kind of knowledge is based on reflection. Competent practitioners have developed capacities for "knowing-in-action" and "reflection-in-action" (these terms are dealt with in detail in chapter two) which allow for the building up of a store of professional knowledge. The basis of such knowledge is in action in the context of practice. Professional knowledge of this kind can quite often lend itself to expert professional actions that individuals themselves may not be able to explain in words.

Wallace (1991) suggests that the term "experiential knowledge" is an alternative that combines knowing-in-action and reflection. There are things that professionals do almost instinctively, and cannot easily explain why. There are also occasions when experts' procedures, decisions, actions and attempted solutions to problems may be examined or reflected upon. Such reflection could be during the event (reflection-in-action), or after the event (reflection-on-action), and lead to new understandings that expand the professionals' base of expertise. For Wallace (1991), professional expertise develops out of a reflective model, whereby the trainees' own experiences interact with the knowledge that they receive to inform and help them in their practice. As the trainees reflect on the successes and failures of their own experiences, they develop new understandings and greater professional competence. It is a reflective cycle in that reflection is constantly re-enacted in further contexts of practice, always informing on practice and developing expertise.

Sparks-Langer and Colton (1991) suggest that interest in reflection is a reaction to the technical and simplistic view of teaching that dominated the 1980s, leading to a realisation that "teaching is

a complex, situation-specific, and dilemma-ridden endeavour" (p.37). In view of two approaches presented above, it is suggested that teacher education needs to integrate received knowledge and experiential knowledge. Both these kinds of knowledge interact with the base of personal knowledge (core values, beliefs, attitudes, subject matter knowledge and knowledge of the teaching profession) that the student teachers bring to the learning situation, and when provided, opportunities for reflection lead to the development of teaching expertise (Wallace and Chakravarthy, 1989). Professional knowledge can then be seen as deriving from sources outside the teacher and from the teachers' interpretations of their everyday lives (Sparks-Langer and Colton, 1991). The problem for teacher education is whether teacher preparation is related to classroom practice (Rosenshine, 1971), and how student teachers can acquire the expertise of professionals.

Balancing theory and practice in teacher education

Teacher education courses comprise input from numerous disciplines. It is often true that each discipline will argue for priority in allocation of time, resources and weightage. Given such claims, one problem in teacher education is adjudicating between the various claims. In this regard, another problem is to decide how much theory and how much practice is required, when each is introduced, and striking a balance between the two in teacher preparation.

Griffith and Tann (1992) observe that there has recently been an increase in criticism that teacher education is too theoretical. They point out that support exists for the view that theory and practice are independent, as well as the view that they are too interdependent to be separated. Griffith and Tan (1992) further suggest that "...Carr (1986), Carr and Kemmis (1986), Schon (1983, 1987) and (Elliott (1987, 1989) argue that all action is an expression of theory (albeit, highly personal and implicit theory)" (p.70). For Solomon (1987) building a substantial base of craft knowledge (in actual classroom environment), and a repertoire of experiences and strategies to be reflected upon in context is primary. Learning theories help later, when these personal experiences and knowledge are matched against larger issues through interaction with peers and tutors. Stones (1986b, 1989) differs, and proposes "investigative pedagogy" (1986b, p.177), which involves exploration of the relationship between human learning and practical teaching, within which view, the teacher is "theorist and practitioner in one" (1986b, p.175). A key aspect of the teacher's personal theory is a grasp of central pedagogic principles such as empirically based knowledge about the learning of skills or problem solving. Teacher education is responsible for helping students acquire a grasp of key pedagogical principles of human learning as part of a dialectical process of testing theory with practice, thereby refining both. Stones (1989) suggests that learning theories will be responsible at this second stage. One strategy proposed by Stones for doing the above is to begin with video recordings of teaching to initiate analysis and extraction of pedagogical principles. Such extracted principles feature together with content and task analysis, discussion and trial teaching to move learners towards "...insightful,

theory-informed teaching" (1989, p.13). For McNamara (1990), on the other hand, pedagogy is central. Essentially, teachers have to pass on knowledge, and learn how best to do it as effectively as possible, and "...it cannot be assumed that an induction into the theories, concepts and languages of the academic view of education will necessarily lead to improvements in the quality of teachers' thoughts and their practices" (p. 149).

Bolitho (1984) observes that as long as teacher education works from 'top-down' and teachers are not consulted, 'theories' "will always be 'handed down' to teachers in training, for them to wrestle with and interpret..." (p. 24). As a result, the theories often appear to them as irrelevant at the time and are therefore rejected. Bolitho (1984) suggests that a "surfeit of theory, followed by a dose of hard classroom reality will often lead to a (perfectly justifiable?) rejection of theory" (1984, p.24-25).

One problem is that the

> "primary goal of teacher development programs is to link theory and practice...Often, however, we may fail to achieve this higher order goal. Perhaps the overall approach to the program is top-down, replete in the form of raw, unprocessed theory. Perhaps there is an overemphasis on teaching techniques at the expense of the broader issues of methodology. More often than not, the cause may lie in the lack of appeal to the participants apprehension of the relationship between theory and practice derived from their own experience" (Wright, 1990, p. 82).

Opportunities for experimenting safely

One important element needed for the development of such professional expertise is protection and security for student teachers, in order that they can practice in safety. Schon (1983) observes that the different professions tend to provide opportunities for safe experimentation. He points out, for example, the case of architectural students who are allowed the comparative safety of working with cheap models that do not involve much risk. It is suggested that teacher education also needs to provide such opportunities for safe experimentation. A number of possibilities for safe experimentation will be reviewed here.

The observation of language teachers at work is one obvious method whereby student teachers can develop understanding. Bolitho (1979) suggests that

> "These lessons, with all their inevitable imperfections in the context of a teacher's busy working week, are...valuable for the trainee to observe. They help him to place lessons in a broader context, to become aware of learners' problems and needs, and ultimately to be realistic about the career he is embarking on" (p.10).

Unfortunately, it would be highly impractical to have large numbers of student teachers sitting in on a normal classroom for observation purposes, least of all for reasons of space, and often there is great reluctance among teachers to be observed (Bamber, 1987). One alternative would be to transport the class of pupils and teacher into a university recording studio (where it should be possible to view proceedings from glass-fronted galleries), but this can involve organisational problems which may not be easy to overcome, especially in a country like Malaysia, as this researcher's own experiences from the project can confirm. Also, such contexts are artificial and uncharacteristic for pupils, teachers and observers.

Given such problems, in many teacher education institutions the solution seems to be the use of the trainees themselves to attempt to teach, or even provide model lessons, if in the opinion of the lecturers, these student teachers are good enough to set a kind of example. There is some worth to this kind of an exercise in that it allows the selected students to build confidence not only in teaching as a whole, but also in using specific techniques. Usually, this kind of an approach tends to take place in the college itself, and may involve peer or microteaching. The term peer teaching has been used to distinguish a situation in which an individual "teaches" something (in earnest or to simulate classroom teaching) to his or her peers from what is known as microteaching (which was originally developed at Stanford University to designate a specific procedure to analyse teacher behaviour). Microteaching, is a scaled down teaching encounter designed to develop new skills and refine old ones (McKnight, 1971). Microteaching can be used for a skills analysis, breaking teaching behaviour down into manageable component skills allowing the teacher opportunities to practice and perfect the individual skills (Geddes and Raz,1979). The scaling down might occur in terms of simplifying or specifying the teachers' tasks, or shortening the length of the lesson, or reducing the class size (Wallace, 1979). The problem that arises with this format is that the lack of authenticity, and the assumption that teaching can in fact be broken down into discrete skills, thereby giving the impression that training in specific skills equips the student for the problems of the real classrooms. Moreover, microteaching places importance on

> "how the *teacher* behaves, without necessarily taking into account how the *pupils* might respond. [It] can encourage a teacher to see his role as that of an actor rather than an interactor" (Geddes and Raz, 1979, p.59).

On the other hand, it is the artificiality of the procedure that provides its worth in that it allows for the useful focus on specifics. For teacher educators, microteaching can provide flexibility to the options available in the preparation of student teachers for classroom practice.

Peer teaching can be similarly problematic as it is unrealistic to expect peer student teachers to substitute real pupils. However, since the focus of attention is usually on the teacher, and not on the 'students', peer teaching is one valuable instrument for skills training. Where it is not

convenient to transport pupils from schools into the studio for microteaching, or student teachers into the classroom to observe teaching, peer teaching is a viable alternative. Most of the training in the Malaysian context tends to be of this type, given the difficulty of getting pupils to be brought in to the colleges.

Rarely is there any modelling by the lecturers. In supporting modelling (in the context of microteaching), Moore (1979) points out many training institutions tend to leave out the modelling stage altogether

> "on the grounds that, firstly, there is no fixed way of teaching, and secondly, no tapes exist as yet which set out the different techniques in any systematic way" (p.63).

The problem in such a situation is that it is quite possible that student teachers do not understand in depth what really happens. Their impressions of acceptable teacher behaviour probably remain those formed by their observations of their own teachers and others heard about or viewed in the occasional film or video, though not in any systematic way. Where the opportunities for observing experienced teachers is not sufficiently provided, false impressions can build up if the models are peers. Moore (1979) suggests that

> "Modelling is an indispensable part of microteaching and any course that omits it is only slowing things up for the trainees. Many practical sessions will be needed for each trainee if he is to rely only on feedback *after* he has performed. He must have an inkling of what successful performance looks like if he is to move rapidly towards effective performance himself" (p. 64).

Moore's (1979) comments on the value of modelling in microteaching can equally apply to the contexts of teacher education in general, in that it could be argued that there indeed is a need to show student teachers examples of 'good' or 'acceptable' teacher behaviour. However, one common and valid question that is asked of teacher educators is to define and state what exactly 'good' teaching is. Many teacher educators will it difficult to answer this question. It is possible that they as individuals would act in specific ways, or even show how they would handle a particular situation or problem. It is rare for teacher educators, at least in the context of Malaysia, to not venture some form of advice or prescribe correct procedures or solutions. It could be argued that the evaluatory role implies that these teacher educators will judge student teachers on certain principles, values and expectations, and it would be fair that they demonstrate the kind of behaviour or outcomes they expect of the students. Demonstration lessons are therefore one possible source of knowledge for students to learn about teaching.

Wallace (1981) argues that demonstration using the video tape can widen the student teachers' experience by introducing them to unusual or innovative teaching techniques. While normal

> "teaching observation (whereby the trainee sits in on an experienced teacher) is often conservative rather than otherwise: the teacher will teach something that he/she can confidently handle rather than something experimental. Even the tutor may discuss certain techniques rather than demonstrate them often because he or she feels that the techniques in question are worth mentioning but does not feel sufficiently convinced of their worth or confident enough of his or her own expertise in them to demonstrate them. In such cases, a videotaped demonstration by an experienced and dedicated teacher using a given method or technique would be invaluable" (Wallace, 1981, p.10).

Gebhard et al. (1990) suggest that observing video and live teaching provides two benefits. First, it allows student teachers to see teaching differently, from only looking at the content of teaching to becoming aware

> "of *how* that lesson is being taught, what teachers and students are doing, and what media are being used by the teacher" (p. 19);

Second, observation gives viewers fresh ideas about what they can do in classrooms. Bolitho (1979) however, warns against demonstration lessons because the demonstrators inevitably 'turn it on' and dazzle, so much so that in many cases they are seen to set standards that are perceived to be far too high for average student teachers to achieve, and thereby sometimes wreck their confidence. Such lessons may also turn out to be authoritarian and seminal statements which quite often reflect orthodoxy.

Gebhard et al. (1990) suggest that the problem with prescription is that there can be teacher resentment at being told what to do, as well as the lack of convincing evidence that there is a 'best" way to teach. Furthermore, it delays the development of teacher responsibility for their own decision making. Allwright (1988) suggests that adopting prescription on the basis of research evidence is not currently possible for teacher-trainers, although

> "Prescription on the basis of experience and 'knowledge of the literature' is of course is still possible. It must be up to the individual conscience, of course, and the teacher-trainer owes it to his students to make clear the lack of research support for such prescriptions, but prescriptions on the basis of experience must still be a very important notion for many teacher-trainers. Following my arguments...the teacher-trainer will not merely admit that he does not 'know best' (in any rigorous sense), he will positively assert that no one 'knows best', and that in the circumstances he will best be able to train his students, not by asserting any methodological dogma, but by eschewing dogma in general and then trying to help his students study just what goes on in the classroom" (p. 55).

Film or video can provide evidence for such study, and thus, opportunities for learning. More important, video data can inform, and reveal avenues for exploration as an underpinning to the kind of safe experimentation that Schon (1983) points out. As MacLeod and McIntyre (1977) point out,

> "One striking feature of classrooms is the sheer complexity, quantity and rapidity of classroom interaction. As many as 1,000 interpersonal exchanges each day have been observed, and the multiplicity of decisions which have to be made and the volume of information relevant to each decision are such that for the teacher logical consideration and decision-making would seem to be impossible..." (p.266).

Yet, experienced teachers do develop ways of working competently under such circumstances, and student teachers have to be helped to develop such expertise. Video seems an ideal avenue to expose students to the complex realities of classroom experiences.

Wallace (1981) suggests the following possible uses of video in EFL teacher education: objective recording of teaching; repeat viewing; self access; establishing a common ground of experience between trainees; exemplification for a metalanguage; demonstration of teaching techniques; exposing trainees to innovative teaching; commentary on classroom interaction; distance-teacher-education; and self-assessment by students. Day (1990) notes that one way in which student teachers can begin to acquire action - system knowledge (information dealing with teaching and learning in general, regardless of the subject matter) is through guided, systematic and focused observation of experienced second language teachers. Such a process will aid the student teacher in conceptualising what goes on in the second language classroom. Having a formal program of observation can assist the student teacher awareness of: the principles and decision making that underlie effective teaching; effective and ineffective classroom practices; and techniques and practices student teachers can apply to their own teaching. However, "...for observation to have a critical impact on student teachers' professional development, it must be guided and systematic" (p. 54).

Data on video can also help focus on the kind of expertise that experienced teachers demonstrate in situations such as described by MacLeod and McIntyre (1977) above. Such a focus also helps to establish common points of reference in discussions in the teacher education class. Using such data can lead student teachers into developing habits of observation, and habits of identifying and classifying the data. For example, they will reveal what type of a drill a teacher used, what kind of a response it brought from pupils, what problems were observed arising out of the use of that specific drill, what the teacher did to overcome these and so on. Once observation has led to the identification and classification of data, it could then lead to considerations of alternatives in similar contexts,

" not necessarily...what could be done *better*, but simply what could have been done *differently* " (Wallace, 1981, p.15).

Video is a convenient way of showing student teachers what happens in classrooms, and a way of studying what happens in classrooms in the way that Allwright (1988) suggests. It is realised that in Malaysia, opportunities for student teachers to observe what goes on in real classrooms are limited due to: a natural personal reluctance among Malaysian teachers to be observed; dislike for lesson distraction and disruption; administrator fears; and bureaucratic requirements. Certainly, where facilities for observing naturally what goes on in classrooms are few, as in the case of Malaysia, video is, perhaps, the only viable alternative.

Another compelling reason for the use of video materials showing classroom practice is linked to justification for the process of change in teacher development. Practising teachers often do not have the time, expertise and training to be able to reflect on developments and theoretical issues concerning the profession (Brumfit, 1984). Many teachers use intuition and copy techniques and procedures (which are often less than the highest quality) without a firm theoretical framework for their practice (Marton, 1988) Ahrens (1991) refers to reports of teacher practices which do not necessarily coincide with what the teachers believed they were doing, as well as teacher practices which research findings reveal have little value. In all of the above instances, it could be advocated that there need to be changes for improvement and professional development. Teachers are often exhorted (directly and indirectly) to change and improve themselves and to be 'agents of change'. White (1988) argues that for change to be long lasting, it needs to be involve changing one's own theory of teaching. But, given that the teaching-learning process is one of confusion for many teachers, how can they change? Ahrens (1991) suggests that change has to be gradual, and efforts "to bring about change must begin with current practice and move in manageable stages towards the new practice" (p.4). In order to get teachers to begin with current practice, they need to be able to observe their own and other teachers' practices.

Maley (1984) refers to problems of 'superchoice' for modern teachers. These problems are conceptual (understanding new concepts), existential (how to integrate such concepts, if understood, into one's own world view), moral (how to reconcile new ideas to existing societal situation), methodological and practical (how to make useful choices from range). Observing teaching can help student teachers build experience, and make informed choices. Furthermore, Hook (1981) suggests that expertise in, as well as knowledge of classroom observation will provide teachers with: the ability to monitor and describe both their own and their pupils' activities and behaviours; an understanding of instructional methods and materials and their application; an awareness of the relationship between classroom behaviours and pupil growth; the ability to modify or change their behaviours on the basis of their understanding of classroom settings (p. 23). Change is often the result of awareness. Data on video provide one avenue for both pre- and in-service teachers to begin the process of change.

The project designers decided that at the simplest level, the attempt to acquire video recordings of in-service teachers of English in practice was a considerable feat, and would amount to an undertaking of significance for education in Malaysia. At a higher level, realisation of the value of video in showing classroom techniques, strategies, processes and experiences provided strong motivation for the project. The focus on ELT methodology fulfils a long existing need recognised by Moore (1979) who called upon the British Council to play a more dynamic role than it did then, and

> "help to produce films of the best local teachers demonstrating a wide variety of the skills involved in TEFL. Then there would be at least one source of models on film which teacher trainers at first, then the trainees themselves could have access to" (p. 65).

Although not attempting to provide models, the project nevertheless hoped to concretise techniques, practices, strategies and processes (otherwise found usually only in sources of received knowledge) as observed and identified in Malaysian classrooms. In so doing, it is hoped to add to the experiential knowledge of student teachers usually gained in microteaching, peer teaching and field experiences and fulfil a need for video-based materials in teacher education.

In this regard, Ellis' (1990) observes that the

> "assumption that underlies the use of awareness-raising practices, however, is that the practice of actual teaching can be improved by making teachers aware of the options open to them and the principles by which they can evaluate the alternatives. It is not known to what extent this assumption is justified. Do teacher educators...really influence what teachers *do* in the classroom by making them *think* about the principles and practice of teaching in sessions remote from the classroom? It is all too easy to assume that a better-informed teacher will become a better teacher. It would be comforting if there were some clear evidence to support this assumption" (p. 27).

Ellis (1990) distinguishes between experiential and awareness-raising activities in teacher preparation (see Figure 9 in chapter 4). Awareness-raising activities will specify tasks based on data. Sources of data include video and audio recordings as well as transcripts, while examples of tasks are comparing, preparing, evaluating, improving, adapting, listing, selecting, ranking, adding/completing and rearranging.

Doff (1987) notes that innovation in ELT generally originates in the west, and is generally western oriented in the assumptions underlying the training materials produced, and the notions of what constitutes good teaching. Such assumptions and notions may not apply in non-western contexts. In the context of local teacher education, it was found that there were not many video-based

materials available for the kind of data and input that teacher education in Malaysia (in particular) needed. The production of the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials recognises the validity of Doff's (1987) observation, and fulfils a need for new materials to reflect local contexts and requirements.

For example, one of the better of such video-based packages (see Figure 1, p.31) is The British Council's (undated) Teaching and Learning in Focus, which shows short clips of different techniques used by teachers at various British Council centres around the world. Unfortunately, the researcher's experience is that Malaysian student teachers found the teachers, learners and the contexts shown not relevant to their perceived needs. In fact, many dismissed much of what they viewed as not only being irrelevant, but also impractical or unworkable for them because they were not native speakers teachers of English. An earlier package, which attempted to compare different teachers was the BBC's (1977) Teaching Observed. Each film in this package shows three teachers working towards similar objectives such as extending language control and listening comprehension. While better received because of the presence of a Malaysian teacher, it was again found unworkable and contextually irrelevant. Various educational institutions such as universities and teacher training colleges in Malaysia have also built up their own stock of video tapes of trainees in microteaching and teaching practice, but most do not show practising classroom teachers. The project, therefore, represents the belief that a locally produced video-based teacher education package with a focus on ELT methodology from the perspective of classroom practitioners could have great relevance, and therefore greater receptivity (Cullen, 1991), especially if it was professionally produced. In this context, it is interesting to note Lonergan's (1991) view that the usage of video in the area of teacher education is likely to expand during the 1990s.

Wright (1990) argues that an understanding of teacher-learner roles is central to teacher development, because the

> "teacher-learner role relationship lies at the very heart of the classroom process. Learning a language is a social activity above all, and in a classroom setting, it is subject to a unique set of social conventions...An investigation of roles raises and addresses issues related to both classroom behaviour and underlying value systems and attitudes held by individuals and groups. It also touches on issues that arise from a consideration of expectations of learning content and the ways in which teaching and learning take place" (p. 84).

A particularly effective way of coming to terms with the question of attitudes and values in learning about the roles of teachers and learners is through the observation of teaching whenever possible, and reflection on such experience (Wright, 1990). Video supplements the observation of real teaching.

The next section reviews relevant findings of research in the context of television and video in education.

Review of research findings

In the context of audiovisual and media studies, Campeau (1974) reports that: Chu and Schram's (1967) studies indicated that instructional television was less effective at the college level than the high school or grade school levels. Campeau (1974) suggests that decisions as to which audiovisual devices to purchase, install, and use have not been based on evidence of instructional effectiveness because little guidelines exist. Mondfrans and Houser (1970) suggested that :

-learning strategies are personal to individual learners, and not necessarily relevant for others;
-there are limits to the amount of information that humans can process. So there is a need to either limit information, or code it in such a way that it becomes easier;
-in most learning situations, positive examples result in greatest learning, followed by a combination of positive and negative examples, and last, by negative only; and
-training is better when a greater number of different exemplars is used than when there are fewer exemplars.

Learning strategies are a matter of personal preference, and may not be easily catered for. Pask et al. (1977, quoted in Jadeja, 1986) classified learners as: 'serialists' (who have a narrow focus of attention, prefer a step-by-step analysis of incoming information in isolation and in order of reception and can be objective); 'holists' (who impose a more subjective framework, preferring to build an overall picture, with new knowledge being processed without regard for sequence); and 'versatiles' who can vary their strategies. Pask et al. (1977) found that serialists given holist materials and vice versa learnt little, and with difficulty. When learning style matched the type of materials, learning was quicker, and with less effort. Some students can adopt whichever strategy is required or is more efficient in a particular context. Thus materials and approaches need to be appropriate to the kinds of learners involved.

A review of 'novice-expert' research suggests that the widespread encouragement given to student and novice teachers to observe other teachers at work rests on the assumption that an efficient way to learn is to "watch another teacher at work and go and do likewise" (Stones, 1987, p.682). Experience seems to lead to differences not only in what is perceived, but also in the quantity and quality of what is perceived. For example, after a five second viewing, a master chess player is able to remember with eighty to ninety percent accuracy the positions of pieces on a chess board, while novices can remember very little; master chess players also experienced only moderate loss in playing strength when time allowed for moves was reduced from 180 to 10 seconds (Chase and Simon, 1973).

Where teaching is concerned, Berliner and Carter (1989) reported that expert teachers were able to demonstrate greater 'if-then' thinking, sensitivity to subtle characteristics of tasks and identification of the important features of a task than novices and postulants (people interested in, but without training or experience in teaching). Borko and Livingston (1989) found that expert secondary and mathematics and science teachers demonstrate an ability to plan lessons more quickly and efficiently than novices. A comparison of student teachers', first year teachers' and experienced teachers' responses to their perceptions of a video tape of a first grade language arts lesson showed significant differences. Their written responses to questions regarding classroom management, teacher-pupil interactions and use of student knowledge revealed that experienced teachers showed a greater understanding of the connected nature of classroom events, while few differences were found between the student and first year teachers. Experienced teachers were able to: elaborate more on their assessment of lessons, display greater understanding of alternative practices and logical and temporal sequences within lessons, and reveal deeper understanding of the complexity of teaching (Needels,1991). Needels (1991) questions whether teachers' experience levels influence what is 'seen', thereby mediating the value of observing other teachers at work, and requiring careful planning in the preparation of student teachers' background knowledge before observation.

Most studies investigating the durability, generalisation and transfer of skills learned in the microteaching laboratory found no superiority of microteaching over conventional methods where inexperienced student teachers are concerned (Allen, McDonald and Orme, 1966; Copeland and Doyle, 1973; Peterson, 1973). Copeland (1977, 1978) reported limited degrees of success with skill durability and transfer. Borg et al. (1969) found microteaching (with video feedback) superior on two out of eleven skills after one year. Borg (1972) claimed long term gains for microteaching and transfer over three years. It has been suggested that cueing and focusing are important as compensatory measures when training student teachers to learn skills from modelling materials (Young, 1969). The use of expert models has failed with student teachers (Borg et al.,1969; Peterson, 1973) suggesting that the standard of teaching expertise demonstrated may have been seen to be either unrealistic or unattainable. Characteristics such as friendliness, self-assuredness and confidence portrayed in models have been valued by adult viewers (Brown, Brown and Danielson, 1975). Bandura and Menlove (1968) found that a variety of models is likely to result in greater acceptance and identification with models.

Cornford (1991) compared the effect of a high variety modelling film (a moderate number of exemplars on different topics) and a low variety modelling film (exemplars drawn from one topic) on promoting generalisation and transfer in pre-service Fashion teachers. It was found that film variety (high or low) was not a significant factor. The results indicate that "adults do not necessarily benefit at basic or generalised skill stages from the viewing of film mediated models

displaying reasonably complex skills" (Cornford, 1991, p.51). It is suggested that low variety films may suffice for training contexts due to ease and lower costs of production.

Summary

To summarise, this section has proposed the value of video data pertaining to English language teaching methodology as a valuable avenue for safe experimentation for the novice teacher in the process of developing professional expertise. Within a reflective orientation in teacher education, data on video contribute to the experiential knowledge that student teachers develop. Such experiential knowledge interacts in turn with received knowledge to lead to a knowledge base which represents a further step in a reflective cycle. Data on video is particularly valuable in developing habits of observation and classification which then can allow for reflection on what more is possible. Video also allows for safe-experimentation, and helps build awareness. A review of research findings has not, however, found evidence of long-term gains from the viewing of models or practitioners through film or video. It has to be noted that none of the studies relate to ELT methodology.

Issues to Consider

A number of assumptions, however, underlie the proposition that video is valuable for the preparation of English language teachers, and hence raise a number of questions. First, what evidence is there for the claim that video contributes to the experiential knowledge base of the students? There is a need to establish not only the kinds of knowledge it helps develop, but also how experiential knowledge is developed. Further questions could relate to the the length of any such gains. Second, what kinds of video data contribute to experiential knowledge. Do all categories of data have similar and equal value, or are there differences in the contribution of each type of data? A third question relates to whether video data can be presented in any form, or whether there are criteria that relate to the receptive value of the data? In other words, do factors such as the length, quality, content, focus and so on have any influence on student learning? If they are important, there is a need to establish how and why. In this context, there needs to be further exploration of the relationship between explication and gain in understanding the concepts and processes found in the tapes. A fourth question relates to how the materials need to be used in order to register gains? It could also be asked whether there is link between the design and usage of materials, and what effects these have? O'Brien's (1986) comments about the need for more research on video in language teaching can apply equally in this context. He observes that we "need to develop criteria for the selection of materials, and for when and how to use video with particular groups of learners. We need guidelines not only on techniques for exploiting video, but also on how to integrate the new activities and materials into our existing methodology and syllabus" (p.169). Strange and Strange (1991) similarly, point out the need for further research.

The following section discusses factors deemed to be important in the production of video materials for English language teacher education. In so doing, the discussion addresses some of the questions and issues raised above. The discussion is presented in the form of decisions that have been made in the development of the Reflections on Classroom Practice package, and include references to other research findings where relevant. A review of literature,however, reveals little evidence from research concerning factors to be considered in the design of video materials for English teacher education. The discussion represents initial explorations in the area, and establishes grounds for further research.

Factors involved in the design of the materials

The following section considers factors involved specifically in the designing of the materials in general, and video-led materials specifically. The effectiveness of any materials, and specifically video materials, depend on a number of factors. These factors relate to the design of both the video and print materials and strategies of usage.

Factors of video design

A number of questions present themselves for consideration in the design of video materials using classroom teaching practice. For example:

> Do different viewers concerned with teacher education have different expectations with regard to viewing video?
> Is it necessary and possible to tailor video materials for special groups, and if so, how?
> How do the characteristics of users contribute to receptivity and learning?

Factors involved in the design of the video materials include questions about the:

- user;
- authenticity;
- focus;
- length;
- quality;
- selection;
- theme;
- linking;
- editing effects; and
- convenience.

Users

Fundamental to the production of any materials is the question of who the intended users of the materials will be. In producing the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials, the choice was between pre-service and in-service teachers, and it was assumed that the interests, knowledge and requirements for both the groups would be different. For example, one interesting finding from informal surveys by the researcher with regard to the materials was that the more experienced the teachers are, the less interested they seem to be in the teachers shown (Chakravarthy and Wallace, 1989). Rather, the experienced teacher seems to be interested in what happens amongst the learners and the process of learning. It is possible that the more experienced the teachers become, and the more expertise they acquire, there is a lessening of insecurity and the need for new techniques or strategies, and an increased ability to deal with abstractions. Instead, such teachers seem to want opportunities so as to become aware of pupil behaviour in learning, and to reflect on how they might personally react in similar situations.

Wallace (1981) suggests that there

> " is research evidence which shows that when videotapes of the teacher and the class are shown side by side, initial teacher-trainees pay more attention to the teacher, whereas more experienced teachers pay more attention to the response of the class. The trainee is more concerned with 'What do I do?', the experienced teacher with 'What effect does it have?'" (p. 10).

Furthermore, another finding of the researcher's survey was that practising teachers seemed to either feel embarrassed by the mistakes of performing teachers if they happened to be known to them, or are surprisingly critical of the practices of some of the teachers shown. In this context, it is perhaps not surprising that the survey finding mirrors Cullen's (1991) experience with similar locally produced video materials for in-service teachers in Egypt. Cullen (1991) reports that

> "A fairly common reaction, especially among teachers on in-service courses, was to 'pick holes' in the performances of their colleagues on film, especially over language points like their pronunciation, and to request native-speaker teachers on film instead. Successful teaching was put down to such factors as the students' supposedly more privileged background, or to the assumption that the lesson must have been rehearsed beforehand, rather than to the competence of the teacher" (p. 34).

Part of the problem of teachers observing teaching appears to be a tendency to be over-critical, especially of themselves (Bolitho, 1984). Such findings have obvious value in matters of design, especially the focus of the video. It was decided that the materials would be aimed at pre-service teachers in Malaysia, because it involves about twenty six teacher education colleges and six

universities. It was felt that there would be greater return for effort and a greater spread of benefits in concentrating on pre-service. As such, there was a greater focus on teachers teaching, rather than on pupils learning in the tapes.

At the same time, however, it was recognised that teacher educators were the real users of the materials. Teacher educators would need to see the materials as fitting into their needs and goals, and that the more experienced they were, the less likely they were to be constrained by producer expectations and suggestions for usage of the materials. Informal feedback also suggested that there was greater receptivity among teacher educators to the idea of supplementary materials, rather than a complete course. Hence, the course was aimed at supplementing currently available materials.

The involvement of the British Council in 1988 expanded the scope of the materials, and with it the possibility of the materials being used in British institutions to supplement existing tapes such as Teaching and Learning in Focus. At a specific level, there was a possibility that the materials could satisfy the needs of institutions dealing with non-native EFL / ESL teacher education (especially a consortium of British institutions, for example Moray House College of Education, preparing Malaysian student teachers in a specifically designed programme) , which do not have the facilities for this kind of materials. The project was directed by informal feedback suggesting that there is interest in Britain for EFL/ESL teaching and learning in natural contexts. It was decided that though the materials would be designed for Malaysia in particular, as far as possible, the interests of institutions outside Malaysia would also be included.

Authenticity

Initial questions about authenticity included some of the following:

Is authenticity an important factor, and if so, how important?
How authentic can recordings of classroom experiences be?
What contributes to authenticity?
Are some elements more important than others with regard to authenticity?

Authenticity was recognised as a primary issue often affecting viewer acceptance or rejection of video materials. While the term 'authentic video' in the context of language teaching seems to refer to recordings of television programmes (MacWilliam, 1986), authenticity in this context of video on ELT methodology is taken to mean how realistic the material is. It can be considered in terms of the setting, the teacher, the pupils and the lesson.

Usually in matters pertaining to authenticity, the setting is important to contextualise what is shown. Thus, if the choice is between actual classrooms and the studio for conducting the

recording, it would be natural to prefer real classrooms. Classrooms have the advantage of showing pupils behaving in their accustomed learning environment, and probably show many things happening naturally and in an uninhibited way, such as classroom organisation and layout, peer interaction, learner grouping, classroom discourse and so on. This is particularly so after the novelty effect has worn of. On the other hand, the presence of outsiders at recordings may alter the balance of the real classroom, creating an artificial atmosphere. There can also be problems with regard to the sound and lighting.

For many, studio recordings are never realistic or representative enough of the authentic classroom. In finding a balance between classroom and studio recording, the main questions tend to be, as was the case with the project, matters of time, maximisation of effort and finance. Reflections on Classroom Practice represents a balance between classroom and studio recordings. Furthermore, a pragmatic approach to administrative and financial problems led to two different kinds of recordings - different teachers teaching the same group of students in their own classrooms and in studios.

With regard to teachers, decisions have to be made with regard to what aspects are shown, the length of teaching experience they should have, whether they are representative of the types of teachers found in schools, the competences they possess and their function in the finished package.

In the first place, it was agreed that the teachers would be shown as examples of experienced practitioner behaviour, not as experts to model teaching on. In other words, the slant was to be on classroom reality, and what practitioners do, rather than on what should be done. Second, for practical reasons, volunteers with a minimum of three years of experience and a range of expertise were accepted after being given certain assurances. For example, as Wallace (1981) points out

> "They are entitled to know what the video-recording is to be used for, and whom it is going to be made available to...However if teachers agree to make ... tapes which are to be preserved, it is good practice to assure them that they will be able to observe themselves, and that, if they are unhappy with their performance on any particular tape, it will be immediately wiped out. They should also be given a list of the potential audiences for the tapes ... and should indicate how widely they are willing that it be should be shown" (p.17).

Third, while the teachers were not given quite the full range of assurances that Wallace (1981) suggests, they were nevertheless given the assurance that goofs and mistakes on their part during the teaching would not be shown, and this was adhered to as an overriding consideration in the design of the materials. It was reasoned that there are enough examples in normal teaching of

mishaps and mistakes, and that it would be a waste of the projects's effort to provide more of these, unless they helped to show how experienced practitioners overcame problems. Fourth, the need for a representative range suggested the danger that too much expertise could make the teachers appear exceptional, and possibly have a daunting effect on the novices. On the other hand, less than acceptable teacher performances will put-off better students, and possibly affect the receptive value of the tapes. It is also possible that such 'poor' performances can give a false picture. It was, however, assumed that the teachers would be perceived to be representative of the Malaysian classroom as long as there was a variety of abilities. It was also assumed that the teachers would be representative if there was a satisfactory mixture representing the different ethnic groups in the country. The final package reflects these assumptions.

One issue that was considered was whether to include some examples of native speaker teachers with the Malaysian classes. While this would have allowed for variety, increase user options, and therefore make the package more internationally acceptable, the argument against such an inclusion was that it would lead to unnecessary comparisons of who were better, as Cullen (1991) also reports. It was also felt that the project represented an opportunity to focus on local elements, and as such it was felt that the opportunity to show as many competent local teachers as possible had to be fully exploited. A more important reason was that, in Malaysia, many good video or film productions of teaching by native speakers in western settings have been rejected by student teachers because of the perception that native speakers are necessarily better teachers, and therefore do not generalise to non-native contexts. Cullen's (1991) work in Egypt seems to have rejected the use of native speaker teachers for similar reasons, and to avoid the possible danger that native speakers might be viewed as models.

Where the pupils are concerned, questions again revolve around how representative they are (for example ability, background and behaviour). An attempt was made to try and present a balance between rural and urban pupils. This was done with a view to keeping the interests of student teachers from both contexts, as well as to provide a balanced perspective on pupils from both kinds of environment. Furthermore, there was always the likelihood that student teachers from one background might reject the examples of pupil behaviour from another background as atypical, irrelevant and, as Cullen (1991) reports, a reason for not accepting the teachers' successful methods. In the event, a range of ability classes from Forms 2, 3 and 4 were recorded. With regard to behaviour, it was conceded that recordings would distract and affect the normal behaviour of the school children. However, it was hoped that repeated recordings with the same classes would lead to pupils getting used to the interference, and create normality. Furthermore, it was conceded that there are limits to authenticity where video is concerned, but it was hoped that this would not detract from the value of the tapes.

Lessons

Where individual lessons are concerned, the usual issues that need to be considered include those relating to the authenticity (whether rehearsed, scripted or real) of the lessons, the length to be shown, coherence in terms of the development and objectives, and the focus (whether on teaching or learning). The recordings relating to this package are of genuine unrehearsed and un-scripted lessons that were autonomously decided by the teachers themselves. The segments that appear, however, are products of editing to fit them into topic categorisation.

Focus

The main dilemma of focus in recordings is to find an ideal balance between teachers and pupils, and teaching and learning. This is always a risky business, because decisions on the focus have to be made on the spot during recordings. More to the point is the underlying erroneous assumption that teaching and learning can be separated. In this context, Wallace (1981) points out that

> "Video-based training programmes are sometimes accused of encouraging teacher-centredness, of being obsessed with the teacher's performance instead of what the pupils are doing. If indeed this is a fault , then the responsibility does not lie with the medium, but with the training programmes - which consciously or unconsciously reflect the concerns of the trainees themselves" (p. 10).

However, in the final editing of the units of the package, an attempt was made to balance the focus by showing appropriate student responses to teacher behaviour, although the emphasis of the focus tended to be teacher behaviour (given the earlier suggested differences of interest among novices and experienced teachers).

Length

Questions about the length of videos include:

What is the ideal length?
What are acceptable lengths?
Does the length affect the effectiveness, and if so, how?
What problems can be associated with length of video?

Video and television can be tedious media for viewing if not well done. Crucial to the success of video is the question of finding an ideal segment length which maintains interest, communicates the objectives of both the lesson and topic of the video, and is coherent overall. While it would be

valuable for students to be able to observe the variety of processes, events and problems found in any complete lesson, the problem is that watching a forty-minute lesson can quite often be boring, even with good teaching. Long recordings become problematic when used for repeated viewing, when specific incidents need to be located and when teacher educators have their own time constraints. As such, the question for the project was to find the ideal length of first, the individual segments, and second, each unit. It is easier to decide on matters of unit (a collection of segments on a topic) length because, in principle at least, any number of segments can be included in a unit as long as it is consistent with the rest of the units in the package. On the other hand, a tendency to watch the whole unit or tape is perhaps a natural tendency. The findings of research have not been particularly revealing in this direction. Video has been used for educational purposes in both teacher education and in classrooms for a while now, but there does not seem to have been much research specific to language teacher education via video. Similarly, MacWilliam (1986) notes that

> "there has been practically no recorded research into language learning from video...the ELT profession, and in particular its British branch, has tended to eschew empirical research into the effectiveness of approaches and methodologies, and preferring instead to rely on the solipsism known as 'construct validity' for its measure of pedagogical approval" (p.131).

Where language teaching is concerned, McKnight (1981) in a survey of video usage in EFL teaching contexts found that the average length of classroom viewing time was between thirty and forty minutes. Hardly any videos were less than twenty minutes. Lonergan (1991) reports developments in language teaching video from 1982 when Nelson Filmscan produced forty minute programmes which were presented to learners as discrete four minute sequences, to the British Council's experiments with The Classroom Video Project (Allan and McGovern, 1982) where the sequences varied from sixteen seconds to seven minutes. The findings of research do not shed much light on ideal lengths for teacher education videos. It has been found from experiments involving broadcast television that the amount of aural information retained declined sharply over a half hour transmission, and from this, it has been suggested that the optimum maximum time for native speakers is six to seven minutes (Vernon, 1953). The implication for ESL / EFL situations is that retentive ability may be shorter. There have in fact been calls for shorter language teaching units that can be exploited more fully (Potter, 1982 ; Pilbeam, 1984).

Where teacher education is concerned, there is not much evidence to suggest any specific optimal length, and the suggested optimal length of six to seven minutes for general native speaker viewing seems applicable without any fresh evidence to contradict this. What must be realised, however, is that in teacher education of the sort envisaged by this project, content (meaning the numerous aspects of the teaching-learning process) rather than the language is the focus, and note taking may perhaps extend viewers' retentive ability. Thus it may be possible that longer video

segments may be acceptable for teacher education. Furthermore video presents opportunities for reviewing. Teaching and Learning in Focus is made up of segments that vary from a few seconds to a few minutes in length, and provided a point of reference for the design of the project tapes. Informal feedback from England, Scotland and Malaysia prior to the start of the project, suggested a preferred maximum time for video units of twenty minutes. Preferences for individual segments varied from two to five minutes, but it was also conceded that the length had to suit the specific topic and sequence. Following the findings of the initial survey, the project team decided on twenty minutes as being the preferred average length of each video unit comprising a number of shorter segments (the word 'episode' had also been suggested). Where there did not exist evidence to confirm the ideal or acceptable lengths, the project relied on experience among its experts to determine segment lengths.

Quality

Two opposing views exist with regard to the question of the quality of videos. One viewpoint insists that videos have to be of good quality, while other teacher educators point out that the videos in themselves are not important as they merely serve to facilitate learning of other matters. Both views are probably half true. The major question, however, must be what is an acceptable level of quality, and how does it affect learning. Further, one needs to know if both the sound and picture quality have to be equally good to produce video effectiveness.

From the start of the project, it was decided that the video materials had to be of good quality in terms of both picture and sound. This was based on the common experience of team members to the reactions of student teachers and themselves to poor quality videos, especially in view of the advent of quality television broadcasts and general commercial videos. Student teachers show a remarkable level of tolerance to poorer quality videos, but it was reasoned that it would be unrealistic to expect tolerance more than five minutes for even very interesting video clips of poor quality. Where language comprehension is concerned, Fisher (1984) suggests that there could be conflict between information presented simultaneously through the aural and visual channels, while Donaldson's (1976) view is that the linguistic mode is the one which is forsaken if there has to be a choice for the viewer between understanding the information presented in the two modes. Other research seems to suggest that retention of spoken information suffers when it is accompanied by visual information of a non-linguistic nature (Trenaman, 1967; Gunter, 1980). Quality in the case of video implies that the picture has to be clear, and the sound must be clear and loud enough to be understood.

In some cases, it is possible that the nature of the activity can make the sound redundant. For example, pupils seen sitting in threes or fours and talking or working suggests groupwork; pupils walking back from the teachers' desk with an exercise book in hand will suggest that they are collecting their books; a pupil seen walking to write a word in a blank in a sentence on the

blackboard is self-explanatory. On the other hand, it seems logical and preferable that clips of speech acts, by teachers and pupils, need to be significantly clear in the context of teacher education. The project aimed at quality in both sound and picture.

Selection

The term selection refers to decisions that are made relating to what is included in the segments and units, such as which lessons, how much of each lesson, which parts of the lessons, and where the segments are slotted in.

The selection of sequences is affected by considerations of time, contextualisation, topic and continuity. How much goes into the completing of any sequence is mainly dictated by the time available. This has also to be balanced against the need to include some details which help place the lesson in context. All kinds of details help to place a lesson in a context that the viewer can understand. For example, it may be possible to highlight the name of the school, or the class level, or the urban setting by showing very short clips of environmental details. Providing context details may also require including the teachers' explanations or class instructions with regard to what is expected of the pupils. Contextualisation in these cases attempt to make clear to the viewer where the lesson takes place, who the pupils are and their background, what has gone on before the specific sequence, and what the outcomes are likely to be. It could involve all of the above or only parts, depending on how much is already clear in the sequence itself, and how long it is. It is possible to provide much of these details either in accompanying print materials, or in written captions on the sequence, or even using a voice-over. Given a Malaysian market for the package, viewer familiarity with similar contexts was assumed, and greater attention was paid to lesson coherence and continuity. More problematic is the issue of slotting segments into convenient topic slots because language lessons tend to include a wide variety of aspects, and it is difficult to arbitrarily divide lessons. Selection decisions probably have the greatest importance in the overall success of the package, particularly in terms of content.

Topic

Selection is also affected by the nature of the topic. In other words, if the aim of the segment is to show something as simple as four ways of getting the class to rearrange furniture for groupwork or three ways of displaying pictures, then it should only take two or three minutes of tape time. On the other hand, if the aim is to show groupwork or discussions, it is very likely that more time will be required.

The project used topics to link material from numerous lessons into a single unit. The idea of a theme can also be used for bringing together a number of different aspects of what could be classified as similar activities. For example, it may be possible to show how three teachers

maintain control over their classes; they might point at offenders, focus class attention on the offenders, or lead the offending pupils indirectly into acceptable activities. It may even be that some of the strategies are idiosyncratic, and difficult for others to follow, but in showing them, different techniques and strategies are being added to the student teachers' repertoire. The range of topics covered will depend on the data and resources available. However, Masterman (1980) suggests that

> "though visual evidence appears 'seductively' open, and innocent, it is invariably ambiguous, partial and open to interpretation. More, there will inevitably be differences, and sometimes major discrepancies, between the perceptions of any two people of the same visual evidence" (p.40).

This suggests that there cannot be total agreement on matters such as the content, or theme, or even what each segment deals with. Therefore, there is a need to train learners to interpret the visual image, at least at the group level, in order that common grounds for discussion can be established.

Link

One major problem with attempting to put together different teaching episodes onto one tape or unit is to decide how they are to relate to each other. Quite often, editing may attempt to highlight a number of short sequences from within the same lesson rather than present the whole or long sections of the lesson. For example, one way of showing how a teacher gets pupils to produce written descriptions of an object following groupwork may involve linking the following aspects : teacher instructions, organisation of groups, collecting of learning aids, groupwork, and group or individual reports of what the final written work will include. Leaving out any of the above could affect the continuity of the segment.

On the other hand it would be possible to link them to convey a theme and create a kind of coherence. Any attempt at linking the different lessons into a thematically united piece is an arbitrary act, because it presupposes that lessons or even parts of lessons can be neatly categorised. What must not be forgotten is that such categorisations are the perceptions of one person. Furthermore, a single teaching act or incident could be viewed from a number of perspectives. For example, a segment that attempts to illustrate the topic of reading comprehension would probably include examples of teacher reading aloud, stress and intonation patterns, use of gestures, use of different types of questions, repetition, reacting to errors and so on. When a number of such segments are put together, the range of activities and data will obviously increase.

There are three ways in which the links can be made. The first, would be through the use of captions either at the beginning, or at the beginning and interspersed throughout the unit, to contextualise, link and highlight aspects to be noted. The second way would be through the use of sub-titles (at various stages of the lessons) performing the same kind of functions. Some examples of such sub-titles are 'The beginning of the lesson', 'The next lesson', 'Distributing hand-outs', 'Forming groups', and 'Revealing findings to own groups after the holidays'. The third, and commonly preferred way is the use of a narrator who speaks at strategic points and performs very much the same functions at possibly a higher qualitative level. Narrators can add an 'emotional' dimension to the video by virtue of their voice and personality. The danger is that narrators can become too dominating or even distracting. Narrators are usually not seen, but it is possible to have them as presenters, in which case they are seen and become characters in the video. They may also be the teachers themselves, introducing and discussing the lessons. Narrators can be varied, and they can be used at any stage of the video units.

Jadeja (1986) suggests that the design of the software should take care of the explicit teaching points, the implicit messages conveyed by the teacher's image on television and the demands on the viewers. The roles of the presenter and viewer teachers "will be reflected in elements like the formality of approach in the relationship between the expert opinion and the professional practice as seen in explication and demonstration of the concepts" (p.44).

Demonstration refers to the part in which practice is shown (good and bad), while explication refers to the analysis of the demonstration. This could include comments and criticism. Direct explication means that the concepts are directly addressed to the viewer teacher; explicitness in this context means that the concepts will not only be presented in the demonstration segments but also discussed explicitly by the presenter of the programme. However, direct and explicit discussion does not necessarily have to be formal or didactic.

In a review of a number of video and film material for ELT teacher education (see Figure 1 page 31), Jadeja (1986) notes that the materials reveal a pattern of moving away from the behaviourist principles towards a cognitive view. Earlier materials

> "like 'View and Teach' are designed with a view to training the viewer teacher. The aim is to shape his behaviour by taking him through a range of experiences...
>
> This, however, results in direct, explicit, formal and almost didactic tone in explication. The information is seen as flowing from a higher to a lower level; from an expert to a practitioner. And, as explication and demonstration are seen as two events, it is a case of external relationship between the two.
>
> In the later materials, they are seen as two stages of one event, establishing an intrinsic

relationship between the two. Even here, as in "Communication Games in a Language Programme", the explication is direct (in addressing the viewer teacher), and explicit (in explaining the concepts under discussion). But the tone is neither formal nor didactic. It can be surmised that this helps in reducing the distance between the presenting teacher and the audience. This would mean less resistance on the part of the viewer teacher in accepting the ideas presented in the material" (p.63).

Jadeja (1986) also notes a difference in the role of the teacher by an alteration of the relationship between the explication and demonstration.

> "In earlier materials, explication was the responsibility of an external authority and demonstration by the teacher was used as lower level function, at times going totally wrong. In any case, explication was seen as the theory, perfect in itself, and demonstration was merely an activity at the level of application. In later materials, because explication and demonstration are intrinsically related, the teacher's image comes out as 'a reflective practitioner'" (p.64).

In the context of the Reflections on Classroom Practice (1991) package, explication is left to be worked out through the work sheets. Narration (using different voices) is limited to the beginning of units and between segments, and merely attempts to contextualise the segments and units. Trial of the materials revealed that any attempt at explication, at whatever level of sophistication, through an unseen narrator was found to be intrusive and didactic. Thus, in keeping with the aim of the project to show classroom experiences, and given the reality that explication cannot be exhaustive, it was decided to leave out explication in the tapes. Rather, it was felt that individual teacher educators would be in the best position to decide whether there was a need for explication, when, how much of it Explication therefore becomes the responsibility of teacher educators.

Jadeja (1986) makes six recommendations. First, that materials need to bear in mind the type of learners used in the programmes. Second, support material are essential for tutor-independent programmes. Third, explication should form an important part of tutor-independent programmes. A minimum amount of direct and and explicit explication should be considered even for tutor-dependent programmes because implicit theory may be missed by both learner and tutor. Fourth, the choice of explicator can affect the teacher's image; an external authority can reduce the teacher's status. Fifth, choice of explication can affect viewers' attitudes, with an external authority creating a sense of distance and therefore resistance. Sixth, explication which is direct and explicit can be a part of a relaxed and informal approach, and when presented in such a way, is more effective than in a less relaxed, more formal approach.

Another way of overcoming the problem of linking is by the use of a standardised convention of editing effects. In this context, Baggaley (1973) analysed TV presentation techniques for effectiveness in education, and speculated that "the strategies of TV presentation equip a producer with aids to educational effectiveness that are never available in the conventional teaching situation" (p.18).

Once a standard system of editing conventions are used, they have the effect of representing certain kinds of information. Thus, a 'crumble' could mean leaving an activity while it is in progress, and when it is used again immediately afterwards, it would signal re-entry into the same activity, but at a much later stage of that same lesson. If, however, the initial crumble was followed by a 'fade', it could signify joining or entering into a different group or activity during the same lesson. Once such conventions are used often and consistently, they have the effect of sign-posting the unit in the way that the captions, sub-titles and narration work. This device is only possible with the use of sophisticated editing equipment. In the project, a 'slide' represents the editing out of a short section of the lesson, while a 'mosaic' or 'checked pattern' indicate that a longer section had been edited out.

There is a need to be careful with the choice of effects because some of them can distract by being elaborate, or create unintended results (such as 'slapstick' or 'other worldly' effects). Used judiciously, special effects create the impression of a professional production.

Convenience

One factor often ignored, but important when it comes to video materials that are intended for purposes of interrupted and multiple viewing (as would be the case with short segments of classroom activities provided by this package), is the element of convenience. Usually, there are problems involved in trying to locate a specific video segment or incident, especially if the fast forward or rewind functions are used. Locating specific details can be particularly irksome when one is teaching a class, not only because of the time wasted, but also because of the loss of control over the fluency of the lesson during such periods. As such, any feature that allows for quick locating of details must be extremely welcome for teacher educators. For this reason, videos (such as Teaching and Learning in Focus) have started using a visible time code in minutes and seconds running on the tape, so that it should be relatively easy to note and locate specific incidents or sequences. The use of the time code also overcomes the problem posed by the fact that different video recorders have different measures of tape length in their counters. Relying on the video recorder counter necessitates using the same recorder, because the counter numbers will not be valid for a different recorder, whereas the fact that there is a time code means that any one can locate details on any recorder.

However, trial of these materials found that a moving sequence of time displayed on the screen can be distracting, simply because it is present and moves. For this reason, and more importantly, because the timing code has no relevance to the act of teaching (as compared to an athletics sprint event, for example), the package leaves out this facility.

Despite all efforts at technical excellence and quality, it would be useful to remember Cripwell's (1979) feeling that most

> "of the attempts to record real lessons as against rehearsed lessons on film or tape have proved disastrous, mainly due to the technical difficulties of recording all the activities in any normal classroom. The result is that most recordings now available...while giving excellent demonstrations of methodology and use of materials, are patently artificial. They are creatures of the film crews, and the student teachers are quick to notice this" (p. 9).

It was accepted, though, that completely authentic recordings are not possible, especially when the process involves editing as in the project. It was assumed that what remained after editing is still valuable.

Factors of support materials design

A number of questions suggest themselves with regard to the concept of print materials accompanying videos. These are:

What is the role of print materials?
What should print materials include?
Who are they intended for?
Are they necessary?
How should they be used?

It is usually the case that supporting print materials consist of worksheets or workbooks, user guides, transcripts and possible answers to the tasks. The major considerations kept in mind when designing the support materials were:

- simplicity/comprehensiveness;
- variety;

- convenience; and
- self-sufficiency.

Simplicity

Perhaps the most significant influence on the philosophy of the design of the materials has been the British Council's (undated) Teaching and Learning in Focus , in that while being impressed by the quality of the effort that had gone into it, the project team found itself overwhelmed by the sheer amount of support materials that formed the bulk of that package. The British Council's effort included numerous detailed booklets that provided a lot of information, but also contributed a sense of burden. This view was confirmed in the pre-project survey, when academics (at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Moray House, and Warwick University) reported ignoring the Council's support materials completely, preferring instead to use only the content references for easy retrieval of tape segments, and designing their own activities as and when required. As such, the print materials in this package tend to deliberately simple, user friendly and accessible in comparison with the British Council effort. This acknowledges that most experienced teacher educators will prefer to construct their own tasks. It is for this reason that the worksheets are quite short. Furthermore, it was felt that even though Lonergan (1991) is of the opinion that the guides to many such packages have in fact become guides to the methodology of using such materials, most people are unlikely to pay too much attention to very detailed introductions, whether they be to video materials or books. Once again therefore, the over-riding consideration has been been simplicity in the design of the guide, which provides only details that are considered to be significant to the usage and understanding of the tape segments. Similarly, it was reasoned that good sound quality can overcome the need for transcripts, although Lonergan (1991) is of the opinion that transcripts are almost mandatory features of video packages.

Variety

One problem with many workbooks is that they can become repetitive in terms of the tasks. Another is, as in the case of Teaching and Learning in Focus, being comprehensive can make the supporting materials appear exhausting. The above mentioned points informed decisions in the project, so that simplicity became the over-riding concern. Exercises or tasks attempt not to be repetitive within the same worksheet, and between worksheets if possible. Thus the premise was that there was no need to 'drain' every bit of each segment, and that once examples of activities had been introduced, teacher educators could create similar ones for their purposes when required. It was also felt that this would ensure variety in the tasks. Even so, as the discussion which follows on strategies of usage shows, there tends to be a limit to the kinds of tasks that can be created to accompany videos.

Convenience

There has been an awareness of the need for print materials that are convenient to use, and hence, the worksheets are produced as part of a ring-bound book which allows for folding, and therefore, duplication. They also provide space for writing answers and making notes.

Self-sufficiency

In designing the materials, the possibility that they may also be used on a self-access basis for self-directed learning purposes has prompted the provision of suggested answers. One problem with providing answers is that there usually can be no clear cut 'right and wrong' answers to educational problems. Furthermore, it is not possible to cover the numerous perspectives that will have to be taken into consideration in suggesting such answers, especially in an approach that attempts to keep things simple. Many of the suggested answers, as such, tend to remain open ended, and rely upon teacher educator input, or group consensus for possible direction.

The above discussion has attempted to raise a number of considerations seen to be important in the design of video and supporting printed materials for English language teacher education. There is very little literature on this matter, and experience and expertise have informed decisions in the package. Research reported in chapters seven and eight attempts to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of these decisions in order to inform future efforts. The following section discusses issues to be considered in the usage of these materials.

Factors in Usage

Factors of general course usage, are linked to strategies of video usage, and depend on whether they are to be used for self-directed learning, group discussion or lecture-support purposes.

Strategies of course usage however are not necessarily as problematic as those that have to be considered in the design of the video component. Even so, the strategies that any educator adopts will depend on what the resource is to be used for. For example, video is a valuable device: when used to show actual learner behaviour (as in answering questions, role-playing and so on); when used as a stimulus for language activity (as when it is used to contextualise language in situations like 'At the post office', setting up a situation as in 'Helping a tourist' by showing a tourist making a request and so on); when used as a source of enrichment (as in the dramatisation of texts) and when used as models of target language behaviour among others. What is important is that the user knows what the strengths and weaknesses of the medium are in order to maximise benefits.

Video taped materials on ELT methodology are obviously valuable sources of exemplification, observation and evaluation. It is unfortunate if the evaluatory function takes precedence over the two other functions, as often is the case in the Malaysian context. Perhaps this is a factor of the lack of training in non-evaluatory observation, as well as the example set by teacher educators in the past. The researcher notes that usual questions that have followed video demonstrations (usually those of student teachers) have been 'What do you think of the lesson?', 'Is that what should have been done?', 'What was wrong with...?' and so on. These questions draw attention to what is perceived as problematic, and often frame student teacher perceptions of the teaching-learning process. Teacher educators may ask such evaluatory questions due to the pressure of time pressurising them to try and eradicate offending student teacher behaviour as quickly as possible, and also to warn them of practices which would obviously be faulted in the evaluation phase which has been an integral feature of teacher education in Malaysia. Such strategies create both defensive and evaluatory tendencies, rather than a neutral ability to observe. Hopefully, the provision of video data, especially of experienced teachers such as those found in the project package, will expedite a new awareness for observation as a precursor to learning.

Video materials can be used for self-directed learning, in group discussions and during lectures, and in all three areas, they can be used for exemplification, observation and evaluation.

If used on a self-access (self-directed learning) basis, it is important that convenience and self-sufficiency are catered for. Not only should the video materials be in short segments. Ideally they need to be clearly distinguished and stored as separate segments, complete with the necessary support materials. The advantage of self access usage is that it frees class and lecture times for other functions. It can also be used to assign homework in the form of preparatory or follow-up work.

The design of materials for self-directed learning needs clear and well constructed support materials that are self explanatory. Supporting print materials need to link accurately with the various segments and units, and will benefit considerably from use of the time code references when, for example, student teachers are required to observe specific sequences. Transcripts are very useful when students are working on their own. Self-directed learning necessitates providing some form of guidance in terms of any tasks or exercises that are found in the print section and it would be appropriate that some kind of answers are provided for worksheets. Considering that student teachers will be viewing the tape segments on their own, guidance may be required with regard to the question of what to look out for. If guidance is merely provided in the form of an accompanying text which says 'Look out for...', it is not likely to have the same kind of effect as questions or tasks that help engage the students in seeing the problematic aspects of the educational process. The problem of providing answers will be considered later.

Video materials are useful in group discussions in a number of ways. First, they can serve to stimulate discussion. Second, they can be the focus of the group activity. Third, they can help in training to observe. Fourth, they can help establish a common set of criteria for the group's subsequent actions. Fifth, they can help establish common criteria for evaluation. Finally, they can help to focus on and learn the metalanguage of education.

If used in lectures, the most likely value of video-based materials is to exemplify certain points that the teacher educator may wish to. Such points could be specific techniques, or strategies or details. Video may also be used in introductions to lectures, either to establish interest, to illustrate or provide common focus. Since the concept of a lecture implies a speaker holding the floor, it is unlikely that the video could be used for anything else. When used in lectures, it is likely that the segment will be short, and it is unlikely that any sequences will be repeated.

Given the strengths of the medium, it is up to individual teacher educators to use video in whatever effective way is convenient to them. O'Brien (1981) suggests the E-R-O-T-I model as an effective and necessary series of activities for teacher development. The model seeks to bring together Experience, Rationale, Observation, Trial and Integration as a natural and coherent cycle In the context of these materials, it is relatively less likely that rationale, and trial will feature in any significant way. If student teachers experience anything, it is in an indirect way, in the sense that they can become aware of what was possible in a given context with the particular participants featured in that specific sequence. They may also become aware of things that may go wrong, or how possible problems were averted by the teachers' actions. While these cannot substitute for real learning by doing, they nevertheless build up awareness, and the store of professional knowledge. It is likely that only the trial phase will truly allow for integration of that which was observed, and deliberated upon in the light of personal experience.

Printed materials should, ideally, contribute to the cycle of observation, reflection and integration. In the project, a Pre-viewing section in the worksheets not only serves as to focus the viewers' minds to the topic, but also to make them consider the numerous aspects, views and perspectives that can inform on the topic. Most of the options that are presented could equally be true in different contexts, and attempt to draw upon the individual viewers' own opinions and experiences. Having hopefully established a proper frame of mind, the main section concentrates on observation and reflective tasks. The Post-viewing section attempts to relate what has been observed and thought about to their own values, beliefs and practices.

Cullen (1991) suggests that rather than use worksheets, which implies trainer direction by pre-selecting what is to be focused upon, it is better to use a semi-directed approach, where the trainees themselves decide what they wish to focus upon and discuss on the basis of given information about the excerpt, while the trainer then builds upon these points for further

discussion. The latter approach he suggests is better because it relates more closely to the student teachers' concerns.

It is believed that video materials lend themselves to a cycle of observation leading to reflection and then to integration. Student teachers should first be encouraged to observe what they see objectively, and without passing judgment. They should then be able to think deeply about what they have observed. Such thinking could seek to find out why things happened the way they did, how different kinds of actions might have led to different results, which they themselves preferred and why. Once such reflection has occurred, the student teacher may be in a position to accept aspects of techniques and strategies and integrate them into his or her store of knowledge and beliefs and values. For example, observing how a teacher carries out a particular activity, the student may feel that the teacher's instructions were perhaps not as clear as could be. Attracted by aspects of what was observed, the student teacher may resolve to use the same technique in future, but at the same time make a mental note to ensure that instructions are clear and explicit. In this example, what was seen was adapted to fit and integrate with personal preferences and values, and given a personal identity. It is this sort of integration that the video materials aim to achieve.

In view of the fact that these materials are meant to supplement whatever materials are already available, they do not take away the teacher educators' autonomy. The design of the materials has attempted to accommodate the possibility, and even likelihood, that only relevant parts of the package will be utilised. This has been done by providing convenient segments which are not too long, and have support materials which are separate, and are meant to be duplicated whenever required. It is in the utilisation, however minimal, that the strength and weaknesses of the materials will become apparent, and inform future efforts.

Research proposal

A number of assumptions have gone into the design of the materials that comprise the Reflections on Classroom Practices project. These assumptions have ranged from those concerning the need for such materials, the contexts in teacher education where the materials will be useful, its role in attempting to bridge the theory-practice divide, to those concerning the design of the materials and the effectiveness of the materials.

Having specified many of the issues involved in the project, this researcher intends to study the effectiveness of the materials in the context of usage, and to make recommendations for future research and production of video-based materials for teacher education in the light of the research experience.

Aims of the study

General

The general aims of the study are to :

1. Describe an approach to English Language Teacher Education in Malaysia using video-based materials
2. Investigate the effectiveness of the approach and the materials
3. Describe the strengths and weaknesses of the approach and the materials
4. Suggest possible solutions for improving the approach and the materials
5. Recommend areas for further investigation and development.

Specific aims

More specifically, the aims of the study are to :

1. Describe:

a. The background to, and the development of the Reflections on Classroom Practice project.
b. The rationale behind the project.
c. The aims of the project and the materials.
d. The factors involved in the design of the video component.
e. The factors involved in the design of the support materials.
f. Suggested strategies of usage.

2. Investigate the effectiveness of:

a. Factors underlying the design of the video materials.
b. Factors underlying the design of the support materials.
c. Strategies for exploiting the materials.
d. The materials in increasing reflective abilities.

3. Analyse the strengths and weaknesses of:

a. The factors underlying the design of the video materials.
b. The factors underlying the design of the support materials.
c. Strategies employed in the exploitation of the materials.
d. The materials in increasing reflective abilities.

4. Suggest possible improvements to the:

a. Factors involved in the design of video materials
b. Factors involved in the design of support materials

c. Strategies for utilisation of the materials
d. Strategies for increasing reflective outcomes.

5. Recommend areas for future research and development in:
a. Video materials design
b. Support materials design
c. Teacher education.

Methodology of the research

While chapter 6 deals with the methodology of the research in detail, a brief description is presented here. The research was located in Penang, Malaysia, at the Science University of Malaysia. The researcher evaluated use of the video materials with third year undergraduates and postgraduate Diploma in Education student teachers in the School of Education in the University. The research period covered one semester of fourteen weeks (with a week's break for mid-semester) from December, 1991, to March, 1992. The process involved the researcher co-teaching the sample students together with their normal course lecturer. The instruments of the research are the video and support materials, individual lesson questionnaires, an overall questionnaire, a diary kept by the researcher, worksheets, a student essay, personal details sheet, and interviews of students and experts in teacher education.

Conclusion

The chapter places in context the background to a video-based materials production project that forms the basis of this study. In the process, the chapter raises and discusses a number of themes. First, it describes the rationale behind the project in the context of teacher education. Such a rationale rests on proposals for developing professional teaching expertise within a 'reflective orientation' to teacher education, as compared to prevailing models in the 'applied science' tradition (Schon, 1983, 1987; Wallace and Chakravarthy, 1989; Wallace, 1991). In such a reflective orientation, one strategy involves the use of video-taped materials of classroom teaching. Such materials provide data for analysis, and evidence of classroom processes. Observation, analysis, and reflection build knowledge bases among student teachers in an ongoing reflective cycle of growth towards expertise.

Second, the chapter reviews numerous views on the value of observing the process of teaching, and suggests that using video-taped excerpts of authentic classroom teaching is a convenient, practical and valuable way of finding a balance between theory and practice. The chapter also proposes that video is useful in proving opportunities for safe-experimentation. The observation of teachers (live and on video) is valuable (Hook, 1981; Day, 1990) for awareness-raising as contrasted to experiential activities (Ellis, 1990). A particularly effective way of coming to terms

with the question of attitudes and values in learning about teacher-learner roles is through the observation of teaching and reflection on that experience. Furthermore, it is suggested (Day, 1990) that student teachers can begin to acquire 'action - system knowledge' (information dealing with teaching and learning in general, regardless of the subject matter such as classroom management and teacher expectations) through guided, systematic and focused observation of experienced second language teachers.

Third, the chapter has described the factors that have influenced the production of both the video materials and the support materials. In this context, the production of the materials and the proposals for research provide opportunities to fulfil calls for more research on aspects of video usage such as criteria for the selection of materials, when and how to use video with particular groups of learners, techniques for exploiting video, and how to integrate the new activities and materials into existing methodology and syllabus (O'Brien, 1986).

Fourth, suggestions for strategies of utilisation of these materials have been described, particularly with a view to increasing reflective abilities in student teachers. A cycle of observation-reflection-integration allows for exploiting the potential of video to provide awareness of classroom practices. And finally, in view of the above, a proposal for research has been made identifying the aims of the study. It is hoped that the research will reveal significant student teacher perception of the value and effects of video in their preparation to teach English as a second and foreign language.

The next four chapters provide more information on various matters deemed important in the context of this study. Chapters Two and Three deal with reflection in education, especially teacher education. Chapter Four focuses this thesis on approaches to language teaching. Chapter Five narrows the focus to an examination of the development of language and education policies in Malaysia in order that the context of the study is established. Later chapters will then describe, analyse and review the methodology, findings and implications of the study, particularly in the context of the many issues raised in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2

REFLECTIVE TEACHING

Introduction

This chapter discusses an approach which is currently gaining popularity in the context of teacher education. The approach, which was introduced in chapter one in the discussion on the rationale for the study and project, has been called 'reflection', 'reflective teaching', or simply 'reflective practice'.

In discussing the approach, the following aspects will be considered:

-A rationale for reviewing reflective teaching;

-Reflection as conceived by John Dewey;

-Reflection as conceived by Donald Schon;

-A review of critiques of Schon;

A Rationale for Reviewing Reflective Teaching

It would be appropriate at this stage to be reminded of the justification for including a review of reflective teaching, and to bear in mind how the discussion will further the purposes of this research. As pointed out earlier, the most significant reason remains the original rationale to the development of the Reflections On Classroom Practice (RCP) project. The intention was not only to produce a video-based package for English Language Teaching methodology training, but also **to develop a degree of student reflection**. It will be recalled that the reflective element was a factor not only in the design of the package, and specifically in the support materials, but also in the process which would lead to the intended outcomes arising out of the use of the package. Such outcomes, it was expected, would result from both partial or full use of the package. Another equally important reason for dealing with reflective teaching lies in this researcher's personal interest in the approach. It is regarded a simportant to explore alternative approaches which would allow for the development of a truly professional approach to teacher education in general, and individual student teacher commitment to teaching in particular.

Furthermore, no one else in Malaysia has apparently studied in any depth this recent and increasingly significant approach to Teacher Education. Although the approach (as will be shown later) does not have a unity, and has a variety of interpretations (not only in conceptualisation but

also in practice), a great deal of interest has been generated in the United States, Britain, mainland Europe and Australasia. Such interest has resulted not only in discussion and research, but also in the design of new programmes and restructuring of teacher education in parts of the United States (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Cruickshank, 1985b; MacKinnon,1989), Britain (Handal and Lauvas 1987; Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989; Pollard and Tan, 1988; Calderhead, 1987a, 1988a), the Netherlands (Vedder and Bannink, 1988; Korthagen, 1985; Wubbels and Korthagen, 1990), Israel (Elbaz,1988) and Australia (Bartlett, 1989).

REFLECTION as conceived by DEWEY

It was Dewey (1933) who initially proposed the ideas of reflection and reflective thinking. This concept will be examined in the context of his views on the aims of education, the conditions for achieving these aims, and the role and qualities of teachers.

The aims of education

To Dewey (1933), education is a process that should lead to a balanced development of personal attitudes, as well as correct ways of thinking that allow for principles of logical reasoning together with some degree of technical skill in manipulating special logical processes. The personal attitudes that he refers to include open-mindedness, wholeheartedness, and responsibility.

Open-mindedness is

> "freedom from prejudice, partisanship,and such other habits as close the mind and make it unwilling to consider new problems and entertain new ideas" (p. 30).

Wholeheartedness is undivided, absorbed interest, while responsibility means a willingness to accept and follow fully the consequences of belief. These personal attitudes are important traits or qualities of character for the development of a readiness for and habit of considering everything in a thoughtful or reflective way.

Dewey (1933) points out, however, that there are also "...the other attitudes that, in the proper sense of the word, are *moral* , since they are traits of personal character that have to be cultivated" (p. 33). For Dewey (1933)

> "with respect to the aims of education, no separation can be made between impersonal, abstract principles of logic and moral qualities of character. What is needed is to weave them into a unity" (p. 33).

Education in Dewey's (1933) view, is a process aimed at the preparation of intelligent social beings. Pupils should grow up with moral traits as well as intellectual qualities (open - mindedness, wholeheartedness, and responsibility), especially in reflective thinking.

Reflective thinking

Dewey (1933) draws a distinction between three types of thought. The first type of thought he describes as "uncontrolled coursing of ideas through our heads" (p. 4), since it is unregulated and automatic. It is

> "inconsequential trifling with mental pictures,random recollections, pleasant but unfounded hopes, flitting, half-developed impressions" (p. 4).

The second type of thought he defines as a "mental picture of something not actually present, and thinking is the succession of such pictures" (p. 5). Thinking in this sense refers to the imaginative and inventive capacity that we bring to things not sensed or perceived directly. Thus, the stories that one creates would be examples of this second type of meaning.

The third type of thought is that which is synonymous with belief, meaning that some value is attached to an object or idea and then accepted or rejected. Dewey (1933) points out, however, that thought identified as belief does not necessarily prove the validity of the belief, because on most occasions thoughts are unconsciously acquired as a result of tradition, instruction and imitation.

If a belief is acquired as a result of proper study, investigation, and substantiated by evidence, it would hold enough validity to be accepted and acted upon in the present. Dewey (1933) implies that on most occasions this is not the case, and exemplifies the true nature of belief by citing Columbus' commitment to courses of action as a result of his studied conviction that the world was round at a time when it was generally accepted to be flat.

A reflective thought for Dewey(1933) is

> "Active persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p. 9).

The process by which Columbus arrived at his conclusion would thus be an example of this. Reflection differs from random thinking in that, while it does consist of a succession of things

thought of, such thoughts are not chance occurrences. Reflective thinking

> "involves not simply a sequence of ideas, but a *con*-sequence - a consecutive ordering in such a way that each determines the next as its proper outcome,while each outcome in turn leans back on, or refers to, its predecessors" (p. 4).

Unlike the second meaning, reflective thinking has a purpose which goes beyond the mere entertainment provided by imaginative successions of thoughts. It has to be purposeful, and have validity outside the chain of these ideas, in the sense that it can be verified. A reflective thought must be able to make some claim to truth, and a commitment to accept, assert and act upon it, in the way that Columbus' belief led to action.

To Dewey (1933), while the other kinds of thinking could lead to reflective thinking, reflection "includes a conscious and voluntary effort to establish belief upon a firm basis of evidence and rationality" (p. 9). Reflection grows out of a directly experienced situation which is characterised by some perplexity, trouble or uncertainty, and driven by a spirit of inquiry functions

> "to transform a situation in which there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent settled, harmonious..." (p.100-101).

The main factor in reflection is a desire to solve whatever is seen as problematic in a situation which is directly experienced. Thus given a difficulty, the facts (or data) of the case are observed, and suggestions (or ideas) for the solving of the difficulty present themselves. Observations of the data are either made by direct use of the senses, or recollecting past experiences and previous observations. Such data in themselves cannot however supply solutions. They however provide the basis for ideas through inference upon that which is possible. Inference in this sense includes "anticipation, supposition, conjecture, imagination" (p. 104). The ideas that are suggested as solutions have then to be weighed-up and tested, taking into account any further suggestions that come to head as one suspends judgment while testing. The complete consequential process then leads to a satisfactory solution or conclusion. Dewey (1933) cautioned that to be truly reflective, thinking must be critical, and

> "... we must be willing to sustain and protract that state of doubt which is the stimulus to thorough inquiry, so as not to accept an idea or make positive assertion of a belief until justifying reasons have been found" (p.16).

A complete act of reflection thus involves at one end, a problematic (or pre-reflective) situation, and a settled, unified (or post-reflective) situation at the other end. In between these, reflection is characterised by five phases:

> "(1)*Suggestions* , in which the mind leaps forward to a possible solution; (2) an intellectualisation of the difficulty or perplexity that has been *felt* (directly experienced) into a ***problem*** to be solved, a question for which the answer must be sought; (3) the use of one suggestion after another as a leading idea or ***hypothesis*** to initiate and guide observation and other operations in collection of factual material; (4) the mental elaboration of the idea or supposition (***reasoning***, in the sense in which reasoning is a part, not the whole, of inference); and (5) testing the hypothesis by overt or imaginative action" (p. 107).

Reflective thinking as conceived by Dewey (1933), amounts to a problem solving activity based on a thorough process of examining data and testing ideas, and "...enables us to ***know what we are about*** when we act...*converts action that is merely appetitive, blind, and impulsive into intelligent action*" (p. 17).

To summarise: reflective thinking is essentially a five-phased process between the observation of a problem and its satisfactory or valid solution. Reflective thinking is essentially problem-solving in nature. Reflective thinking for Dewey arises out of the genuine delight and desire in solving whatever is seen to be perplexing. The initial perception calls for a collection of facts or data (based on prior knowledge and present observation). This in turn provides ideas (or suggested solutions) which are then tested. More ideas will then present themselves, allowing for further experimentation and testing until a well considered and satisfactory solution is arrived at. Such a decision is equivalent to belief and commits the person to either a point of view or a course of action.

Conditions for the creation of reflective thinking.

Education for Dewey (1933) should aim at overcoming what he considers to be the biggest issue in teaching - how to provide activities

> "(a) that are most congenial to the immature stage of [the pupils'] development: (b) that have the most... promise as preparation for the social responsibilities of adult life : and (c) that, *at the same time*, have the maximum of influence in forming habits of acute observation and of consecutive inference" (p. 52).

The role of the school and teacher

The role of the school and the teacher is to create conditions that will arouse the child's curiosity, and also allow for connections to be made between what is experienced with whatever follows

later on in order to facilitate data and ideas for reflective thinking (Dewey, 1933, p. 56). Part of the responsibility includes the creation of conditions that have some link with previous experience. Reflective thinking is possible only

> "if the person has had some acquaintance with similar situations, if he has dealt with material of the same sort before... unless there has been some analogous experience, confusion remains mere confusion. Even when a child (or grown -up) has a problem, it is wholly futile to urge him to think when he has no prior experience that involves some of the same condition" (p. 15,16).

Such conditions, though, need to be realised in the intrinsic motivation of pupils, and call on their curiosity, inventiveness and ingenuity so that there can be genuine understanding. Otherwise, externally directed activities, even if they promote skill in external doing, only lead to a kind of uncritical mechanical ability in using rules and symbols. Understanding (or genuine knowledge) is only acquired

> "when there is either a desired consequence for which means have to be found by inquiry, or things...are presented under conditions where reflection is required to see what consequences can be affected by their use" (p. 147).

Qualities of teachers

Learning is augmented by the "quantity and quality of real teaching" (Dewey, 1933, p.36), where the teacher is both a guide and director of conditions for learning based on his "wider and deeper knowledge and matured experience" (p. 273). The teacher should be well versed in knowledge (especially of the subject matter) in order that his or her mind is "free to observe the mental responses and movements of the students..." (p. 275). The more a teacher is

> "aware of the past experiences of students, of their hopes, desires, chief interests, the better will he understand the forces at work that need to be directed and utilized for the formation of reflective habits" (p. 36).

Apart from knowledge of subject matter, teachers require 'technical knowledge' or professional knowledge (which includes psychology, history of education and teaching methods found useful by others) because they would then be in a position to note, learn from and react to pupil responses. Teachers who are well prepared (especially for specific lessons) will then be flexible and able to take advantage of unexpected incidents and questions that arise. Teachers have to be aware that the method of teaching includes whatever they intentionally devise, as well as their own unconscious behaviour which can have an influence on children. Furthermore, teachers

need to realise that one practical problem is to "...preserve a balance between so little showing and telling as to fail to stimulate reflection and so much as to choke thought" (p. 270).

For Dewey (1933), teachers can claim to rank as artists if they can foster the attitude of the artist in their pupils, that is

> "...when the thought of the end becomes so adequate that it compels translation into the means that embody it, or when attention to means is inspired by recognition of the end they serve, we have the typical attitude of the artist..." (p. 287-288).

In this way, pupils grow-up not serving self-interests, or docilely following others or leading unimaginative, dull lives.

Finally Dewey (1933) suggests that the most pressing problem of education is to organise the curriculum (what he calls subjects) and integrate the curriculum in such a way as to not only form "...alert , persistent and fruitful *intellectual* habits" (p. 216) but also encourage pupils' willingness to do things, provide training in self-reliance and social service, and present

> *"typical problems to be solved by personal reflection and experimentation and ...acquiring definite bodies of knowledge leading to more specialized scientific knowledge"* (p217).

In summary: the teacher is the one who has to create ideal activities and conditions for developing reflective thinking. In order to bring this about, teachers have to possess not only subject and technical knowledge, but also intimate knowledge of their pupils. If they possess these qualities, teachers who have prepared their lessons well can guide and direct learning while being acutely sensitive about when to intrude, how to help and how much to help. Teachers, like artists, have to aim to create enthusiasm, and balance attention to both techniques and goals so that harmony results.

For Dewey (1933), reflection is the valid goal of education, while education has the responsibility of providing not only the best conditions and activities for learning, but also "quantity and quality in teaching" (p. 36). In much of what follows, these ideas arise again with varying interpretation by different ways.

REFLECTION as conceived by SCHON

While Dewey is interested in how education can contribute to the development of reflective thinking, Donald Schon (1983, 1987, 1988), drawing in part on Dewey's views, has focused on the education of professionals. He proposes the idea of reflection-in-action, a form of knowing, as compared to Dewey's reflection, a way of thinking. Schon's three major works will be briefly summarised before considering his ideas on reflective teaching in detail.

In The Reflective Practitioner (1983), Schon explains what he claims to be the shortcomings of current approaches to professional education, argues for the recognition of the practitioner's stock of knowledge as well as the value inherent in the context of practice, and describes the kinds of knowing implicit in the "artistry" of the professional's actions. Illustrating these kinds of practical professional knowledge with case studies, he suggests the practicum as a vehicle for developing professionalism.

In Educating The Reflective Practitioner (1987), Schon develops his earlier ideas, and explains further the concept of reflection-in-action in the context of an architectural design studio, and other case studies. He further describes what he considers to be the paradox of learning, and the distinction between teaching and coaching.

In Coaching Reflective Teaching (1988), Schon, presents three examples of coaching styles, focuses specifically on how teachers can be educated to become reflective practitioners and suggests viewing the proposed kinds of teacher behaviour as forms of research. These terms and views will be explained and discussed in the sections that follow.

Epistemology

Schon frames his views within the limits of what he calls the "crisis of confidence in professional knowledge" (1987, p.3) and the "crisis of confidence in professional education" (1987, p.8). Schon (1987) clarifies the crises by presenting a clear dichotomy between what he terms Technical Rationality (1983, p.21) and the actual knowledge and practices adopted by professionals:

> In the varied topography of professional practice, there is a high, hard ground overlooking a swamp. On the high ground, manageable problems lend themselves to solution through the application of research-based theory and technique. In the swampy lowland, messy, confusing problems defy technical solution. The irony of the situation is that the problems of the high ground tend to be relatively unimportant to individuals and society at large, however great their technical interest may be, while in the swamp lie the problems of greatest human concern. The practitioner must choose. Shall he remain on the high ground where he can solve relatively unimportant problems according to

prevailing standards of rigor, or shall he descend to the swamp of important problems and nonrigorous inquiry?" (1987, p.3).

The origins of this difficult choice lie in what can be regarded as an inadequate epistemology of practice (1987, p.3) or an inadequate theory of the kind of knowledge on which professional competence is based (Hills and Gibson, 1988). Schon contends that according to

> "...the model of Technical Rationality - the view of professional knowledge which has most powerfully shaped our thinking both about the professions and the institutional relations of research, education and practice - professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique" (Schon, 1983, p.21) .

According to this view, professionals are seen as experts who use or apply the specialized abstract knowledge that they have in a rule-governed way on actual real -world contexts and problems. What has not been realised however is that

> "...the problems of real-world practice do not themselves to practitioners as well-formed structures. Indeed they tend not to present themselves as problems at all, but as messy, indeterminate situations" (Schon, 1987, p. 4).

To describe the way professionals act as problem solving does not take into account the fact that problems are often characterised by uncertainty, uniqueness, value conflicts, and being problematic in several ways at once (1987, p. 5-6). It ignores the often crucial ability of professionals to define or set the problem, which has to precede problem solving. Professionals find that if

> "...they are to get a well formed problem matched to their familiar theories and techniques, they must construct it from the materials of the situation that is, to use John Dewey's (1938) term, "problematic". And the problem of problem setting is not well formed.
>
> When a practitioner sets a problem, he chooses and names the things he will notice... Through complementary acts of naming and framing, the practitioner selects things for attention and organizes them, guided by an appreciation of the situation that gives it coherence and sets a direction for action (1987, p. 4).

Technical Rationality which has guided our conceptions of professional practice is essentially incapable of dealing with the reality that there are "indeterminate zones of practice", and the necessity of problem setting. Schon (1983) suggests professionals are increasingly realising that problem setting is not a technical problem.

> "When we set the problem, we select what we will treat as the 'things' of the situation, we set the boundaries of our attention to it, and we impose upon it a coherence which allows us to say what is wrong and in what directions the situation needs to be changed. Problem setting is a process in which, interactively, we name the things to which we attend and frame the contexts in which we will attend to them" (p. 40).

The crisis of confidence in professional knowledge has come about precisely because of the areas of practice which have been increasingly recognised as being central to professional practice, leading critics to

> "...voice a common complaint: that the most important areas of professional practice now lie beyond the conventional boundaries of professional competence" (1987, p. 7).

The problem of professional education

The crisis of confidence in professional practice is matched by a crisis of confidence in professional education. Schon (1987, p. 8) argues that while the professions can be accused of ineffectiveness and impropriety, professional schools are being blamed for "failing to teach the rudiments of effective and ethical practice" (p. 8).

Furthermore,

> "the schools' version of the dilemma is rooted in an underlying and largely unexamined epistemology of practice - a model of professional knowledge institutionally embedded in curriculum and arrangements for research and practice" (Schon, 1987, p. 8).

The problem of the professional school naturally follows from being rooted in technical rationality, and normative curricula . The basic idea here is that there is a hierarchy in which practice is guided by the principles of applied science, which in turn is guided by basic science. Practice therefore is assigned to the lowest level in terms of value, while theory occupies the most valued level. Applied science which is involved with theory-building research is favourably placed between the two. This is true even in the

> "...professions least equipped with a secure foundation of systematic professional knowledge - Nathan Glazer's (1974) "minor professions", such as social work, city planning, and education - yearning for the vigor of science-based knowledge and the power of science-based techniques leads the schools to import scholars from neighbouring departments of social science. And the relative status of the various professions is largely correlated with the extent to which they are able to present

themselves as rigorous practitioners of a science- based professional knowledge and embody in their schools a version of normative professional curriculum " (1987 , p. 9).

Confronted by the external attacks and internal doubt, the university-based professional schools have had to re-examine their foundational assumptions: that academic research yields professional knowledge and that this professional knowledge taught to students adequately prepares them for real-world practice. Schon (1987) argues that both assumptions are being increasingly questioned.

Professional knowledge

Having located the problems of the professional school in the prevailing epistemology of practice, Schon (1983, 1987) argues for a view that begins with an examination and understanding of the true nature of professional knowledge, for which he presents the following premises:

> " * Inherent in the practice of the professionals we recognize as unusually competent is a core of artistry.
> * Artistry is an exercise of intelligence, a kind of knowing...and we can learn a great deal about it ...by carefully studying the performance of unusually competent performers .
> * In the terrain of professional practice, applied science and research-based technique occupy a critically important though limited territory, bounded on several sides by artistry. There are an act of problem-framing, an art of implementation and an art of improvisation - all necessary to mediate the use of applied science and technique. There are an art of problem framing, an art of implementation and an art of improvisation - all necessary to mediate the use in practice of applied science and technique" (Schon, 1987, p. 13).

To look upon the competent practitioner's knowledge as mere application of theory in a rule governed way, especially when confronted by indeterminate zones is to ignore the fact that the practitioner

> "responds to the complexity... in what seems like a simple spontaneous way. His artistry is evident in his selective management of large amounts of information, his ability to spin out long lines of invention and inference and his capacity to hold several ways of looking at things at once without disrupting the flow of inquiry" (Schon 1983, p. 130).

The artistry of the practitioners can be looked upon as a kind of inquiry comprising "reflection-in-action", "problem-framing" and "problem setting", all of which are based upon their "knowing-in-action". Schon's alternative epistemology of practice will now be examined.

Knowing-in-action, "...the characteristic mode of ordinary practical knowledge" (Schon 1983, p. 54), is a kind of knowing characterised by spontaneous actions, judgments and recognitions performed without conscious thinking or even awareness of having learnt to do these actions. In some cases, we might once have been aware of understanding, but later the knowing is internalised. In others, we may never have been aware of understanding. Both cases however do not necessarily allow for our describing the knowledge displayed (Schon, 1983, p. 54). Some examples of this include the ability to recognise faces, recognise the moods of people from people's expressions, and making judgments for which we cannot state the criteria. Knowing-in-action refers

> " to all sorts of know-how we reveal in our intelligent action - publicity observable, physical performances like riding a bicycle and private operations like instant analysis of a balance sheet. In both cases, the knowing is *in* the action. We reveal it by our spontaneous, skillful execution of the performance: and we are characteristically unable to make it verbally explicit" (Schon 1987, p. 25).

Knowing-in-action is enough to enable individuals to get through the usual routines of everyday life. Sometimes, however, what should have been routine throws up unexpected results, and whether the experience is pleasant or unpleasant, it is characterised by an element of surprise. Faced with this, we may either ignore the matter, or choose to think about what caused the new experience.

If we choose to think about (or reflect on) the matter, we may

> "...reflect *on* action, thinking back on what we have done in order to discover how our knowing-in-action may have contributed to an unexpected outcome. We may do so after the fact, in tranquillity, or we may pause in the midst of action to make... a "stop-and-think". In either case, our reflection has no direct connection to present action. Alternatively, we may reflect in the midst of action without interrupting it. In an *action-present* - a period of time variable with the context, during which we can still make a difference to the situation at hand - our thinking serves to reshape what we are doing while we are doing it. I shall say, in cases like this, that we reflect-*in* -action" (Schon. 1987, p.26).

Reflection-in-action occurs

> "when the phenomenon at hand eludes the ordinary categories of knowledge-in-practice presenting itself as unique unstable, the practitioner may surface and criticise his initial understanding of the phenomenon, constructing a new description of it, and test the new description by an on-the-spot experiment" (Schon, 1983, p. 62 - 63).

In dealing with these unique situations, the practitioner brings a stock of experiences of varying levels of practical and theoretical sophistication - "a repertoire of examples, images, understandings and actions" (Schon, 1983, p. 138). These help in the processes of problem framing and problem setting. The practitioner, in other words, when confronted by a unique situation brings past experiences to bear upon the situation, frames the situation by highlighting certain pertinent aspects of the situation, and sets or defines the problem, and attempts to solve the problem. The past experiences brought to bear upon the present problem help the practitioner see it

> "... as something actually present in his repertoire. To see this site as that one is not to subsume the first under a familiar category or rule. It is rather to the see the unfamiliar, unique situation as both similar to and different from the familiar one...The familiar situation functions as a precedent, or a metaphor or...an exemplar for the familiar one" (Schon 1983, p. 138).

This process of defining is essentially experimental in nature, and ongoing because it leads to a

> "web of moves, discovered consequences, implications, appreciations and further moves. Within the larger web, individual moves yield phenomena to be understood, problems to be solved or opportunities to be exploited" (Schon, 1983, p. 131).

This reflective exchange is a kind of conversation for the "situation talks back" (Schon, 1983, p. 131) and

> "In this reflective conversation, the practitioner's efforts to solve the reframed problem yield new discoveries which call for new reflection-in-action. The process spirals through stages of appreciation, action, action and re-appreciation. The unique and uncertain situation comes to be understood through the attempt to change it, and changed through the attempt to understand it" (Schon 1983, p. 132).

Admitting that the description he has provided is general and idealised, Schon (1983) points out that moments of reflection-in-action are rarely as distinct as he has described. Reflection-in-action has immediate significance for action.

> " In reflection-in-action, the re-thinking of some part of our knowing-in-action leads to on-the-spot experiment and further thinking that affects what we do - in the situation at hand and perhaps also in others we shall see as similar to it" (1987, p. 29).

Reflection-in-action is a process like knowing-in-action in that it is a process which can happen without a practitioner being able to describe what is occurring. Furthermore, reflection-in-action has to be distinguished from reflection on reflection-in-action in order to present a verbal description, and distinguished from further reflection on that resulting description (Schon 1987, p.31).

To Schon (1987), problem setting and reframing a situation are central to the concept of reflection-in-action, which in turn is integral to his epistemology of practice, or professional knowledge - the way competent practitioners think in action and use their practical knowledge in practice. How a problem is defined affects the solutions that are developed, and experimentation and testing of suggested solutions may lead to a cyclical process of reflection and further experimentation. The failure to recognise the professional's artistry and knowledge as a result of technical rationality has led to a crisis of confidence both in the professions, and in professional education.

Contexts of professional education

It will be useful here to examine the contexts of professional knowledge, and how such professional knowledge can be obtained.

Schon (1987) suggests that learning the artistry of professional practice, no matter how different from ordinary life it may at first appear to be, amounts to learning new ways of using competences that we already possess. Nevertheless,

> "the context of a professional practice is significantly different from other contexts; and the roles of knowing - and reflection-in-action in professional artistry, correspondingly different" (p. 32).

A professional practice has to be placed essentially within the context of a community of practitioners, having special knowledge which sets them apart from other people (who in a sense accord them special rights and privileges). Such a community shares conventions of action (including distinctive media, language and tools), institutional settings of operation, structured units of institutionally patterned activity (for example cases, lessons or patient visits) and a common body of specialized knowledge and value systems. As such, a professional's

> "knowing-in-action is embedded in the socially and institutionally structured context shared by a community of practitioners. Knowing-in-practice is exercised in the institutional settings particular to the profession, organised in terms of its characteristic units of activity and its familiar types of practice situations, and constrained or facilitated by its common body of professional knowledge and professional artistry" (Schon, 1987, p.33).

Schon (1987) goes on to argue that our view of professional knowledge affects how the description of the ways in which such knowledge relates to artistry. If we adopt the technical rationalist view, which is essentially *objectivist* (p.36), professional knowledge rests on a foundation of facts which are testable by reference to them. If however we see the professional's knowledge in terms of reflection-in-action, such a view is *constructionist* (p. 36) in that the practitioner's perceptions, appreciations and beliefs are rooted in worlds of their own that they come to *accept* as reality; in other words "they remake a part of their practice world and thereby reveal the usually tacit processes of worldmaking that underlie all of their practice" (p. 36).

In order to understand how practitioners acquire their artistry, Schon (1987) suggests the need to examine "deviant traditions of education for practice- traditions that stand outside or alongside the normative curricula of the schools" (p. 15). Such deviant traditions can be seen, for example, in apprenticeships in industry and crafts, athletics coaching, conservatories of music and dance, and studios of visual and plastic arts. They can also be exemplified in the clinical supervision that medical students undergo, because they imply recognition of the importance of learning the art of clinical practice as compared to the application of medical science (research-based models of diagnosis and treatment), and also because emphasis is placed on learning by doing. In the fine arts for example, "Everything is practicum" (p. 16), with students learning to design, perform and produce by actually engaging in design, performance and production. The value of propositional contents of applied sciences and scholarship (in the sense of technical rationality) occupies only a marginal place.

Practicum

Schon (1987) suggests that in such alternative contexts, students learning to become adept in a profession learn by practising or making something, "helped by senior practitioners who initiate them into the traditions of practice" (p.16-17).

Schon (1987) quotes Dewey (1974):

> "The customs, methods and working standards of the calling constitute a 'tradition', and...initiation into the tradition is the means by which the powers of learners are released and directed" (p. 17).

Schon (1987) suggests that learning any form of professional artistry requires, at least partly, conditions similar to those created in the studios and conservatories. These conditions are characterised by

"freedom to learn in a setting relatively low in risk, with access to coaches who initiate students into the "traditions of the calling" and help them, by "the right kind of telling", to see on their own behalf and in their own way what they need most to see" (Schon, 1987,p.17).

A practicum is such a setting for the learning of professional competence. For Schon (1987), students entering practicums are faced with certain fundamental tasks. These tasks include learning to recognize what competent practice is, understanding their own position relative to competent practice, and acquiring a sense of how they are going to achieve their goals. They must also come to realise that the idea of a practicum has implicit claims: " a practice exists, worth learning, learnable...and represented in its essential features by the practicum" (p. 38). The tools, methods, projects and possibilities represented in the practicum have also to be realised and assimilated by the students.

How a practicum works, and the conditions and processes associated with it, can be viewed from a number of perspectives in line with the positions held with regard to what is conceived to be the nature of professional knowledge. Thus, if one feels that professional knowledge is a case of applying facts, rules and procedures non-problematically to instrumental problems, the practicum can then be conceived of as a form of technical training. A practicum for learning a computer language or methods of statistical analysis may be considered to be examples of these, where students pick up information by reading, listening and watching. Familiarity is acquired by working with problems in line with theories and techniques. Coaches would observe, detect errors in application and point out correct procedures.

On the other hand, Schon (1987) suggests that if professional knowing is seen as a matter of learning to "think like a" (p. 39) manager, doctor and so on, students will learn relevant facts, procedures and forms of inquiry representative of the way practitioners reason in problematic situations and make connections between clear cases and general knowledge. Underlying such an approach is the idea that there is a correct answer for every situation to be matched to an item in the general stock of knowledge. The coaches here could stress either rules, or reflection-in-action so that students can, when required, develop new rules and methods of their own .

If however, the reflection-in-action of practitioners is seen as the goal, 'indeterminate zones of practice' and 'reflective conversations' will be focused upon. Students will be expected to realise that existing professional knowledge does not necessarily provide a solution to every case, or that each problem has to have a correct answer. They will also learn new ways of reasoning, understanding, framing problems and performing actions.

Schon (1987) points out that the third kind of practicum need not obviate the work of the other two kinds, and that it in fact may be possible to reflect-in-action

> "by learning to recognize and apply standard rules, facts and operations: then to reason from general rules to problematic cases, in ways characteristic of the profession: and only then to develop and test new forms of understanding and action where familiar categories and ways of thinking fail" (p. 40).

The third kind of practicum, which Schon (1987) suggests exists in studios, conservatories,and apprenticeships, and even in professional schools, (although without formal legitimacy or status), can be termed reflective for two reasons. First, because the goal is to develop in the students a kind of reflection-in-action, and second, because "they depend for their effectiveness on a reciprocally reflective dialogue of coach and student" (p. 40).

Coaching

Schon (1987) suggests that there is a distinction between teaching and coaching. This distinction is tied up with what can be called a paradox of learning, similar to Plato's (1956) Meno paradox, which Schon illustrates using the architectural design studio as a context for reflection-in-action. Architectural students at the beginning do not and cannot understand what designing means, and certainly will not be able to demonstrate an understanding of designing in doing, and will experience feelings of mystery, confusion, frustration and futility in the early years of studying architecture.

There seems to be an assumption in the studio that this is the only way that students can learn, that they alone have to understand and learn the process found initially to be mysterious. For Schon (1987), there is a paradox inherent in trying to learn a new competence. The paradox, similar to the Meno paradox, is

> "that a student cannot at first understand what he needs to learn, can learn it only by educating himself, and can educate himself only by beginning to do what he does not yet understand" (p. 93).

Learning professional competence as such calls for an element of self-learning, and systems of professional education that create conditions for this kind of learning are in fact being consistent with older and broader traditions where " the most important things -artistry, wisdom, virtue- can only be learned for oneself". (Schon 1987, p. 84).

The problem of the learner is linked to a problem with coaching. Since the learners have to learn to see by themselves, coaches cannot tell the learners what needs to be learnt, but have to instead guide them to see for themselves. Thus the "student cannot be *taught* what he needs to know,

but he can be *coached*...." (Schon, 1987, p.17). For example, in the architectural design studio, the coaches cannot tell the students what they know This is not only because some features of designing do not fit in with clearly statable rules, but also because much of what the coaches might be able to explain can be understood by the students only as they begin to design. However, a transition from confusion at the beginning to a reasonable competence can be made through a dialogue (a kind of reciprocal reflection-in-action) which involves coaches and students conveying messages to each other in words and actions. When it works well, students reflect on what they hear or see the coaches do, and reflect on the knowing-in-action in their own performances, while the coaches in turn ask themselves what the students reveal in the way of knowledge, ignorance, or difficulty and what sort of responses might help them.

In the design studio, for example, coaches have the task of demonstrating and describing designing by utilising all means available to them, both tailored to suit the learners' stage of understanding. This process may involve improvisation, reflection, and experimentation, as well as call on the coaches' knowing-in-action and knowledge of learners.

Learners on the other hand have to imitate and learn reflectively. They have to imitate, reflect, improvise and experiment on their way to learning. In doing so, they take responsibility for their own learning.

> The two dimensions of the coach's task become, in the student's case, like two vectors, each of which contributes to a learning circle. For her, as for the coach, two kinds of practice are involved in the practicum: the substantive designing she tries to learn and the reflection-in-action by which she tries to learn it. Each kind of learning feeds the other, and the resulting circle may be virtuous or vicious" (Schon,1987, p 163-164).

In order to work, the coach will expect that the student

> "... be willing to suspend his disbelief, to give the teacher's suggestion a chance...to try the suggestion out ..." (Schon, 1987, p. 94).

Coaches and students have to involve themselves in a process of communication that combines (in many different ways) demonstrating, initiating, telling and listening, on what Schon (1987) calls a "ladder of reflection" (which represents a chain, not a hierarchy, of reciprocal actions and reflection). Such a process combines learning, coaching and reflection, and is an example of reflection-in-action. What is important however, is for both the coach and student "to become proficient at the practice of the practicum..." (Schon 1987, p. 118), and to choose to exercise these competences.

There are three styles of coaching according to Schon (1987), each appropriate to different contexts and needs. The first, he calls "joint experimentation", in which the coach invites the students to choose from preferred solutions, and works (experiments) jointly with them in order to solve the problem.

The second style of coaching, he describes as "Follow me!". Here the coaches, implicitly or explicitly, suggest imitation. In order however, to do as the coach does, students are invited to experiment, as they have to construct in their performances what they take to be the essential features of the coach's demonstrations.

The third style of coaching, he names as a "Hall of Mirrors", representing an approach within which students are allowed to experience action, both observed and felt, through a mixture of observation and rôle-play. Using the example of a psychoanalysis practice, Schon (1987) points out how the coach helps the student to discover how she has framed a rôle or problem in practice, by showing her how she has recreated it in the practicum. Also, by doing to the student what she might do with the patient, the coach allows her to experience what it feels like to experience that sort of action.

Teaching practicum

Schon (1987) provides an example of a practicum for teachers in a Faculty of Education. This example is important in the context of a rationale for this thesis. Assuming that the teachers have had some working experience and are involved in a teaching practice that includes working with pupils, Schon suggests that the practicum could begin

> "...by engaging teachers in tasks where they can explore their own learning...As they did these things, they would reflect on their own process of inquiry, examine their own shifting understandings - and compare their actual learning experiences with the formal theories of learning built into standard pedagogies. They might be helped in this process by exposure, later on, to experiments in and theories of cognitive development. Later still, they might shift their attention to classrooms in which they interact with children. Here they would be attentive to ways in which children's learning is like or unlike the kinds of learning they have detected in themselves. They would be encouraged to think of their teaching as a process of reflective experimentation in which they try to make sense of the sometimes puzzling things children say and do, asking themselves, as it were, "How must the kids be thinking about this thing in order to ask the questions, or give the answers they do?"
>
> Life in the bureaucratic system of the school would be included, as the teachers begin to experience the difficulties of (for example) listening to children in an actual classroom.

The teachers would be encouraged to reflect on the ways in which they frame their own teaching practice in a setting that can often be hostile to reflection-in-action, to observe and explain how other teachers and administrators behave in the system of the school. They would be helped to imagine and experiment with interventions aimed at increasing their freedoms, within the school, to use new approaches to learning and teaching. They would be encouraged to think of adapting to or coping with the life of the school as a component of their practice equal in importance to their work with children" (Schon, 1987, p 322-323).

Reflective teaching

In his only article to date to focus specifically on how teachers can be educated to become reflective practitioners, Schon (1988) provides some useful explanations of terms. He considers reflective teaching to

> "mean what some teachers have called "giving the kids reason" : listening to kids and responding to them,inventing and testing responses likely to help them get over their particular difficulties in understanding something, helping them build on what they already know, helping them discover what they already know but cannot say, helping them coordinate their own spontaneous knowing-in-action with the privileged knowledge of the school" (Schon, 1988, p. 19).

In providing an example, Schon (1988) analyses the way a teacher responds to a pupil's problem with regard to the phenomenon of an eclipse, and suggests that the approach typifies reflective teaching. From their transactions, Schon (1988) observes the following stages : first, the teacher is surprised by an odd or surprising thing that a child says; second, the teacher looks upon the child's response as a puzzle; third, she gets curious about solving it and invents on-the-spot experiments to solve the puzzle. In the process, or as a consequence of the attempts, she is able to link the child's understanding with the 'privileged knowledge' of the school. These transactions can be considered as a form of reflection-in-action because they involve reflection on phenomena and spontaneous ways of thinking and acting, all of which are performed in the midst of action to guide further action .

Schon describes instructional supervision as

> "...any activity that supports, guides, or encourages teachers in their reflective teaching. It may be undertaken through a variety of formal roles and programs: the venerable role of the principle as "principle teacher," continuing education, inservice training, internships.

It may also be undertaken through a variety of informal roles and activities on the part of fellow teachers, friends, students, and parents.

In all its guises, formal or informal, instructional supervision in the sense I propose can be usefully understood as a kind of coaching. Through advice, criticism, description, demonstration and questioning, one person helps another learn to practice reflective teaching in the context of doing. And one does so through a Hall of Mirrors : demonstrating reflective teaching in the very process of trying to help the other learn to do it" (Schon, 1988, p.19) .

Schon (1988) argues that someone is taking the stance of a coach if they decide to help the teachers to *do* things by helping them build their capacities for reflective teaching. Coaching involves paying attention to three levels: the child's problem, the way the teacher makes sense of and responds to the child's problem and understanding, and how the coach interacts with the teacher's understandings, feelings, and ways of inquiry. Entry into these levels however, has to begin with the interaction between the coach and teacher, before the other levels can be accessed .

One interesting observation of Schon's (1988) is that in the initial interaction between the coach and teacher, there is often vulnerability, anxiety and defensiveness. This phenomenon results from the fact that teachers often hold the view that there are correct answers for most things, and that it is usually their task to communicate these "correct answers" to learners. Reflective teaching on the other hand, may involve not-knowing, or even foregoing the possibility of correct answers.

Reflective teaching therefore opens a teacher to

> "...vulnerability, to anxiety provoked by vulnerability, and to defensive strategies designed (often automatically) to protect against vulnerability" (Schon, 1988, p. 23).

In order to coach reflective teaching someone has

> " - To make sense of, respond to the substantive issue of learning / teaching in the situation in hand,
> - To enter into the teacher's way of thinking about it ; *particularizing* one's description or demonstration to one's sense of the teacher's understanding,
> - To do these things in such a way as to make defensiveness less likely" (Schon, 1988, p.23).

Research

To Schon (1988), both " reflective teaching and reflective supervision...are kinds of research.

Research not *about* or *for* practice but *in* practice" (p.19). Research of this sort could include dealing with issues like

> " - The nature of the kids' spontaneous understandings and know-how, the substance of their confusions, difficulties that arise at the juncture of everyday knowledge and school knowledge.
> - The structures, strategies, and styles of reflection-in-action involved in reflective teaching; the logic of the teacher's on-the-spot experimentation, the forms of rigor appropriate to it.
> -Sources of defensiveness and bases for responses effective in reducing defensiveness" (Schon, 1988, p. 23).

Schon (1988) points out that research such as these may be carried out during the action-present, **in** practice, or after the event, **on** practice. Such research and proper documentation may yield two kinds of usable knowledge:

> "Carefully documented stories that contribute to usable repertoire.
> Theories that offer perspective on practice; to be tested in the next instance of reflection-in-action" (p. 24).

While the second kind of knowledge resulting from this kind of research is fairly clear, the first kind, stories, is not quite so clear, and will be explained . When one learns from past experience (one's own or others') Schon (1988) suggests that what is needed is an ability, not to transfer, but to transform knowledge obtained from one context into one adapted and made suitable for a new context. This is "...a process of metaphor, carrying a familiar experience over to a new context, transforming both the experience and the new situation" (p. 25). The knowledge arising out of past experience usually amounts to descriptions of reflections on actions observed (one's own or others'). These are best stored as stories "...for story-telling is the mode of description best suited to transformation in new situations of action" (p. 26). Such stories "... function like metaphors, projective models to be transformed and validated through on-the-spot experiment in the next situation" (p. 26).

In order that people benefit from past experience, we can

> "...encourage one another to tell stories about experiences that hold elements of surprise, positive or negative...When we get into the habit of recording our stories, we can look at them again, attending to the meanings that we have built into them and...to our strategies of narrative description...to the assumptions and ways of framing experience built into our stories...We can become builders of repertoire rather than accumulators of procedures and methods" (p. 26).

Problems

Schon (1988) however concedes that reflective teaching and reflective coaching both face uphill tasks in trying to function given the reality of well established and entrenched epistemologies in the institutional contexts within which they operate. For example, there is a bureaucracy of the school with set views on matters like lesson plans, coverage of units of knowledge, time-tables, tests and procedures for promotion, all of which in a way make it extremely difficult for a teacher to undertake the kinds of tasks required of reflective teaching such as listening to children, becoming surprised and curious, and solving problems through experimentation and testing. Similarly, a reflective coach in a Faculty of Education probably faces established views on the relatively low status of practice as legitimate areas of research.

Yet, even within these actual contexts

> "there are zones of discretionary freedom available to individuals, within which they can - and sometimes do - practice reflective teaching or reflective coaching or both. And these zones are expandable, as individuals are more willing to take what they see as risks within their institutions. And there is, for many, a pervasive sense of dissatisfaction and uneasiness in their current work that might presage institutional reform in the direction of reflective teaching and coaching" (Schon, 1988, p. 27).

While this may be true, Schon (1988) warns against what he calls *normal cynicism* (p. 27). By this, he means the cynical stance that individual teachers or educators often take in the face of what they perceive to be a working environment that cannot (or will not) support innovation and a reflective approach. Such an attitude ignores the unconscious contributions the individuals themselves make in further creating and fostering the same conditions in the environment that they themselves find distressing.

Reflection is a way of overcoming this normal cynicism

> "... when it helps an individual see how the embedded strategies and assumptions of his own theory-in-use mirror and reinforce the features of his organizational world that make him cynical ; when it helps him imagine and try out interventions aimed at making his organizational world more vigorous, substantive, and desirable;" (Schon, 1988, p. 28).

Schon (1987) suggests that there is a need to redesign the professional school, based on the following criteria :

> " * The predicament of practitioners subject to constrictions on freedom of action in their

organizational settings should be brought into the professional curriculum.

* It is more urgent than ever to develop new connections between applied science and reflection-in-action.

* there is a need to create or revitalize a phenomenology of practice that includes as a central component, reflection on the reflection-in-action of practitioners in their organizational settings. And this phenomenology of practice must be substantially connected to traditional disciplines or risk...a bifurcation of the schools.

In my vision, these requirements can best be met by giving a central place to the reflective practicum as a setting for the creation of bridges between the school and the worlds of university and practice" (p. 321).

CRITIQUES OF SCHON

This section focuses on reactions to the views of Schon. In reviewing the critiques, an attempt is made to examine reservations felt about some of his views, as well as endorsements.

Reservations

Schon's (1983, 1987, 1988) views have aroused considerable interest. While many people have been impressed and inspired, others have expressed reservations with regards to the following aspects of his work:

- the precise field and nature of the contribution;
- the dichotomy between Technical Rationality and Reflection;
- a new epistemology of practice;
- terminology and the precise nature of the concept of reflection;
- the design studio as a model for other professions;
- applicability to teaching;
- the incomplete nature of the concepts.

These critiques will now be reviewed.

Precise field and nature of Schon's contribution

Munby and Russell (1989) acknowledge that Schon's books (1983, 1987) offer promise for the conceptualisation of our understanding of professionals' knowledge and for charting how this knowledge might arise, but are not clear about to "which fields the work is a contribution and what the contribution might be" (p. 75). While noting Schon's debt to many writers like Tolstoy,

Dewey, Schultz, Piaget, and Wittgenstein, Munby and Russell (1989) are nevertheless prompted to ask "what precisely Schon has accomplished that Dewey had not accomplished..." (p. 74). In this context, Shulman (1988) feels that Schon has not done enough to link his ideas specifically with those of many other theorists and practitioners in education. Munby and Russell (1989) point out that while Schon's work is epistemological, it does not seem to have advanced by very much on Dewey's thinking. Rather, Schon seems to have

> "...reaffirmed it. So the novelty might lie only in the language that Schon employs to illuminate the inadequacy of technical rationality for describing professional knowledge" (p. 75).

Munby and Russell (1989) argue that if Schon's linking of the 'language of reframing' and 'reflection-in action' with case studies suggests a movement from epistemology to an empirical exploration of the character of professional knowledge, this is not entirely new because the work of Clandindin (1985) attempts this too. On the other hand, if Schon's work is a potential contribution to the understanding of the nature of professional thinking, it is reminiscent of the work on novices and experts by Leinhart and Smith (1985). While pointing out that Schon is not working in a cognitive science framework, Munby and Russell (1989) conclude that it may be possible that Schon's approach provides direction for exploring the link between his epistemology of practice and cognitive science.

Schon's dichotomy

For many critics, like Shulman (1988), Fenstermacher (1988), Hills and Gibson (1990), Selman (1988), Harris (1989), and Gilliss (1988), the most common and problematic area is the dichotomy that Schon establishes between a Technical Rational approach and a reflective approach.

Shulman (1988) finds Schon's (1983, 1987) dichotomy a " wonderful rhetorical device", but the divided worlds presented being "... too neat, too clean-and quite misleading" (p. 33). Instead, he suggests that

> "...most teachers are capable of teaching in a manner that combines the technical and the reflective, the theoretical and the practical, the universal and the concrete that Schon so eloquently seeks" (p. 37).

Furthermore, while Schon (1983, 1987) emphasises the importance of surprise and of discerning the indeterminate, surprise presupposes knowing or expecting something in the first place. As such,

> "...what one is confronting is not simply chaotic, but indeterminate, thus talking outside the boundaries where algorithms or rules of thumb can be employed. Without a base of technical rationality...surprise of certain kinds may well be impossible" (Shulman, 1988, p. 34).

Reflection has to be informed and guided not only by experience, examples, observations, descriptions, and back talk, but also by the special body of knowledge that exists, for example in teaching. This body of knowledge would include explanatory theories (like Piaget's theory of cognitive development or Dewey's theory of the relationship between knowledge and experience), doctrines (which are general frames of reference or philosophical assumptions), applied theories and practice theories (Harris, 1989).

There is a need to develop a " deeper set of principles through which the dichotomy could be resolved" (Shulman, 1988, p. 33). While agreeing with Schon's (1988) notion of " giving the learner reason", Shulman (1988) feels that this is not enough . Rather, he argues, teachers have a responsibility to see that "what is reasoned is married to what is *reasonable* " (p. 34). It is in this process that "...the traditions of technical rationality and reflection-in- action...come together. They are not competing principles..." (p. 34).

Fenstermacher (1988) cites Dewey's (1965) opinion that to be truly expert at one's vocation involves a thorough grounding and mastery of the scientific approach, and worries that if one follows Schon's (1983, 1987) argument and separates practitioners from social and behavioural sciences, embracing the notion of reflective practice is to "risk a kind of enslavement" (p. 41). He is interested in "how science finds its way into the thinking and practice of teachers" (p. 41), but finds that

> "...Schon has offered us an either-or description of a situation that is actually a both-and. I can detect no bifurcation between science (even to an extent, positivist science) and practice, such that the two are incapable of contributing productively to one another" (p. 45).

There is agreement with Fenstermacher (1988) that Schon (1987) seems to maintain the same dichotomies he wishes to avoid, and that rational evaluation of Schon's project should avoid an 'either-or' discussion (Selman,1988). Moreover, there are numerous alternatives to technical or instrument rationality (for example the approaches of Horkheimer, Habermas, Popper and Lakatos, Wittgenstein, Post-Wittgensteinians, and Charles Taylor). However, Schon (1987) ignores "a contested field" (Selman, 1988, p.179) in positing his alternative only to technical or positivist approaches.

It is argued that there is no real dichotomy between the kinds of knowledge that provide the basis for a technical rational performance and those of Schon's competent practitioners. Similarly, there is no dichotomy between the ways in which both approaches attempt to solve problems. Rather, the problem may lie in the fact that each profession involves the use of specialised linguistic-conceptual systems and the degree of development of these available systems may disadvantage the practitioners, especially in Schon's (1983) minor professions (Hills and Gibson, 1988).

Epistemology

It has been pointed out that because epistemology and education are related, people have used educational experiences as the basis for or against epistemic positions (Selman, 1988). But in using the quotation from Meno, Schon (1987) is trying to derive a form of educational practice from an epistemic position. Since epistemic theories are abstract, contested, and removed from experience, "...our confidence in any conclusion drawn from this sort of experience should be rather faint" (Selman, 1988, p.178).

Furthermore, Selman (1988) points out that technical rationality is not wrong in itself. It is however incomplete because issues involving values, interests and formulations are ignored. To assume, however, that all rationality takes the form of technical rationality is also wrong (p. 180). Selman (1988) points out that since many professions (education, medicine, engineering, law and urban planning) are characterised by diverse practices, concepts, exemplars, norms and rules, there is very little ground for suggesting that there is a unique (and by implication common) epistemology of professional practice (p. 180).

Schon's use of language and the nature of reflection.

Criticisms of Schon's use of language and a lack of clarity in terms he uses, (including the concept of reflection) have been expressed by Fenstermacher (1988), Munby and Russell (1989), Court (1988), Hills and Gibson (1988), Selman (1988), Russell (1989), La Boskey (1989), Gilliss (1988) and Calderhead (1989).

Fenstermacher (1988) expresses puzzlement at Schon's(1983 1987) use of the word 'epistemology' which he understands to mean the examination of evidence, belief, knowledge, and credibility of claim, "...all of which I take to be the opposite of what Schon is trying to talk about when he discusses reflective practice" (p. 40).

For Gilliss (1988) and Selman (1988), Schon's (1983, 1987) use of the words "art" and

"artistry" is not informative. Selman (1988) points out that the words have a number of separate meanings, and argues it does not follow that because the word "art" can be used correctly to describe a variety of types of practice in a general sense, that we

> "must accept that the more specific sense applies also. We cannot conclude that educational strategies which have been found to be effective in bringing about competent aesthetic performances should be similarly effective in developing artistry in enterprises which are less obviously aesthetic" (p. 182).

Hills and Gibson (1988) argue that what is useful (as Schon, 1983, noted but failed to pursue) is "...a language-more accurately, a linguistic-conceptual system - within which to think about what competent practitioners do" (p. 152). There is a need to find a linguistic-conceptual system to clarify what Schon (1983) means by terms such as "knowing in-action", "reflecting on phenomena", "surfacing prior understanding" and "conducting frame experiments" (p. 152).

The view that Schon' (1983, 1987, 1988) work is

> "...not sufficiently analytical and articulated to enable us to follow the connections that must be made between elements of experience and elements of cognition so that we might be able to see how Reflection-in -Action might be understood to occur" (Munby and Russell, p.74).

A similar echo is found in Court's (1988) comments about Schon's (1983) lack of precision. She notes that Schon's (1983) term reflection-in-action is applied to several different types of activities, but " most, upon examination appear to involve *removing* oneself from the action in order to reflect" (p.144), thus suggesting that the term reflection-in-action may not be appropriate.

Schon's (1983) notion of an "action-present" (where the action can still affect a situation) can range from a very short time frame to even a year, and as such Court (1988) feels "...a more precise definition of "action" is needed" (p. 145). Furthermore, the distinction between the reflection that occurs "in-action", "in the thick of things" (Court, 1988, p. 145), and the more leisurely kinds of reflection arising out of later reflection, or discussion with colleagues needs to be clearly distinguished. Instead, she proposes Dewey's (1932) notion of deliberation, a case of

> "... being more focussed on a specific problem, more deliberate....and less free ranging than reflection can be. One might see "reflecting on" as closer to "meditating on" and "deliberating" as closer to "considering" or "weighing alternatives" " (p.146).

In particular, Court (1988) finds that Schon's (1983) examples of reflection-in-action "do not

seem truly to involve action, or "the thick of things" (p. 146) or in the example of tennis players planning their next shots not truly involving reflection. In any case she argues, momentary "times out" that happen during the progress of action could be called "reflection-in-action", as an example of quick deliberation leading to decision, but the longer kinds of reflecting (over days, weeks and months) are examples of reflection-on-practice, and not reflection- in-action (p. 146).

There is a contention that when Schon (1987) describes his experience in building a gate, the reflection-in-action involved was in fact two processes and not one (Selman, 1988) . If Schon's experiences were not two processes, but part of the same process, it does not add much to Schon's (1987) account of building the gate to argue that the experience was a case of reflection-in-action. As such, if what was important was the manner of approach to gate building, which made it a case of reflection in action, Selman (1988) argues that reflection-in-action must mean that the task is approached "with care and an open mind..." (p. 184). If this were so, then to put forward a special process seems misleading. The significance of this observation for Selman (1988) lies in some confusion as to whether Schon (1987) is suggesting that professional education should aim to encourage a certain attitude on the part of students, or to foster certain virtues, habits or skills. Attempting to emulate Schon's (1987) examples of exemplary practice is not appropriate without a more complete account of the knowledge and experiences of professionals in addition to what Schon (1987) provides in terms of their emotional states.

Furthermore Selman (1988) believes the danger is that because the criteria for reflection-in-action, or Schon's (1987) use of other specialised terms such as 'tacit sensations', 'knowing-in-action', and 'tacit theories' are not specified, there will be numerous interpretations. As such, "...we can expect considerable disagreement among various practitioners attempting to employ Schon's approach to education for professional practice" (Selman, 1988, p.185).

Russell (1989) points out that a great deal of confusion has resulted from Schon's (1983) account of reflection-in-action "as a process of "reframing" experience as the experience proceeds..." (p.275). This is so not only because the term is broad with a number of well established meanings (especially in teacher education), but also because reflection normally suggests "...thinking back over events that are now passed and often occurs in a setting other than that in which the events occurred" (p. 275). This is different from Schon's (1983) act of reflection-in-action which occurs "spontaneously rather than when we make time for it" (p. 275). Russell (1989) acknowledges difficulty with the term, and that understanding has been arrived at (in his case) only after years of research, drawing on Schon's perspectives. For Russell (1989), relying on Schon's writings (1983, 1987) is not useful in recognising reflection-in-action, because very little is provided about how to recognize the process, especially in the face of two problems -

> "First, the term is confused with "reading the moment", and the performance of "good teaching". Second, reflection-in-action is discouraged by existing systems of "knowing-

in-practice" in school settings" (p. 276).

Dissatisfaction is also expressed with the way Schon (1987) uses specialized terms within the same theoretic structure, as when for example reflection-in-action is partly defined by (and in relation to) knowing-in-action (Selman,1988 p. 186), while Bartlett (1989) finds Schon's (1983) work undertheorized, and his claim about practitioners having a theory to guide them as being no more than saying that practitioners have systematic ideas.

Tacit knowledge

Shulman (1988) warns that it is not enough to be aware of the importance of tacit knowledge. While tacit knowledge maybe characteristic of many things that teachers do, he argues that teacher educators have an obligation to make "the tacit explicit" (p. 33), and to find answers to such questions as "how do we know what we know", "how we know the reasons for what we do", and "why we ask students to do things in specific ways" (p. 33). Arriving at answers to these questions represents becoming skilled as teachers, and calls for a combination of reflection on practical experience and on theoretical understanding.

Concern about Schon's emphasis on tacit knowledge at the expense of propositional and codified knowledge is also expressed by Harris (1989), who argues for the value of written codification of effective practice and use of these codifications, especially in the form of case studies.

Selman (1988) objects to Schon's use of the word "tacit" as in "tacit knowledge", "tacit theory", "tacit claim", and "tacit sensation", whereby the various meanings (especially in an epistemological approach) are subsumed partially or wholly under a single category. Moreover, in view of the fact that much confusion surrounds the use of theories, rules, and norms and their role in determining human action (especially in tasks where competence is determined by adherence to rules or norms, and for which no fully explicit rules are available, as in the use of language), Selman (1988) asks whether there is any sense saying that "rules exist in some tacit sense...in the language user's mind, or whether competent language users merely know how to speak according to rules without knowing how to express them" (p. 187).

It is argued that the reflection-in-action approach, which emphasises tacit knowledge, will create "wholly idiosyncratic practitioners" (Gilliss, 1988, p. 50) with unique solutions to unique problems, which carried to extremes will block the development and sharing of knowledge, and create a foundation of differences rather than similarities (p. 50).

Non - applicability to teaching.

Gilliss (1988), Nolan (1989), LaBoskey (1989) and Russell (1989) all express reservations about

the value of Schon's views in the context of teaching and teacher education.

Gilliss (1988), in considering Schon's views on the failure of professional education to provide the kind of answers that practice demands, asks how reflection-in-action can provide answers when the "difficulties faced by the professionals arise chiefly from sources outside the purview and control of the particular profession..." (p. 49). For example, teachers reflecting on the learning problems of children may find that they will have to move outside the field of education (wherein lies their expertise) to fields of social welfare and political action in order to recognise that the children's problems of learning have, for example, really been caused by hunger and cold. It is further argued that if Technical Rationality exists in the field of education, it is only to be found amongst administrators, bureaucrats and politicians, rather than in teachers. Teachers come from institutions which typically "neither conduct nor teach about research" (Gilliss, 1988, p.49), and it is well known that teachers "do not tend to consult research findings...preferring instead to consult their colleagues or to invent solutions themselves" (Gilliss, 1988, p.49).

While Selman (1988) questions the validity of aesthetic exemplars in non-aesthetic settings (p.182), Gilliss (1988) questions the value of design and music schools as models for teacher education. She points out that these schools differ considerably from faculties of education. In the first place, these schools are characterised by a very selective nature of student intake (for example, typical music students will already have high competence in basic skills, theory and performance prior to entry, unlike student teachers who are selected on the basis of performance in other disciplines than teaching). Furthermore, there is an element of mutual selection involved in the intake of these schools. For example, students tend to apply for places in schools with the best coaches, who being in short supply, pick the best students only. This is the case because there is usually no state stipulation for an adequate supply of music or design graduates. This is unlike teacher education, where the reverse is often true.

The value of the design studio concept to teaching is questioned because the concept functions essentially on the idea of creating a concrete finished product, for example a design, as compared to teaching where this is not the case (LaBoskey, 1989). The web-stringing activity of the designer may be similar to lesson planning, but teachers cannot realise the outcome of lessons until they are enacted, unlike designers who make final decisions to stop stringing their "web of moves" by looking at expected outcomes (LaBoskey, 1989, p.30). Furthermore, for teachers, the problem of deciding when their jobs are finished is problematic, and usually involves arbitrary cut-off points decided by time (dates, or a number of lessons for example).

While Shulman (1988) objects to Schon's distinction between teaching and coaching, LaBoskey (1989) sees an inherent problem in Schon's (1987) model of the relationship between coach and student for teacher education in that the relationship between supervisor and student teacher does not equate to the relationship between teacher and students, neither of which can make for

reflection-in-action as explicitly as Schon's (1987) one-to-one reflective practicum .

Arguments against the viability of Schon's (1983, 1987) concept of a reflective practicum based on schools of music and design in teacher education include:

- the need to provide for hours of practice acquiring basic skills and knowledge (Gilliss, 1988),
- the difficulty of negotiating Schon's (1987) recommendations with regard to supervision (Model 2 value contracts) when one teacher can have up to 180 students (LaBoskey, 1989),
- the lack of time, encouragement or energy for reflection (which, at least for a while, inhibits action) when faced with the actual decision of what kind of training coaches should have, who should train them, and who (faculty members or supervising teachers) should be the coaches (Gilliss, 1988).

Other problems include the difficulties of applying Schon's (1987) criteria (ability to solve the new problem set, appreciation of unintended effects, and achievement of coherence) for evaluating the results of experimentation in reframing a problematic situation given Jackson's (1986) "uncertainties of teaching" (LaBoskey, 1989, p.32).

Nolan (1989) argues that at least eight inter-related factors prevent Schon's model being applied as reflective supervision, clinical supervision, or collegial peer coaching. These according to him are beliefs that :

- meaningful change can occur quickly; the expectation that teachers can become reflective quickly ignores the effects of risk taking and exposure on the need to maintain teacher confidence, and the need for long term patience between supervisor and teacher.
- the primary goal of coaching and supervision is changing teacher behaviour;
- the supervisor is the teacher and the teacher is the learner in the coaching relationship;
- answers to problems inherent in the teaching-learning process can be found outside the actual teaching-learning situation;
- the same person can carry out the roles of both teacher evaluator and reflective supervisor (which ignores the reality that in nature, teacher evaluation and reflective supervision are incompatible) ;
- reflective supervision means following a prescribed set of steps, which ignores the need rather for a set of deeply held, inter-related views and beliefs rather than a set of procedures;
- reflective supervision is best accomplished through a one to one relationship, thereby not utilising group supervision to overcome the constraints of time;

- the term "supervision" can be used to refer to the reflective coaching process, ignoring the fact that the term has unfortunate denotational and connotational meanings implying a hierarchal superior who supervises, and thus creates and continues in student teachers a set of ritualized expectations and behaviours .

The coach-student relationship in Schon's (1983, 1987) reflective practicum is dangerous as a model for teacher education, because it resembles the craft traditions of apprenticeship, where the experts' accumulated experience is passed on through word of mouth or demonstration, and leaves out important critical self reflection, especially on political and ethical matters (LaBoskey, 1989). Moreover, given the limitations of time and means in the average teachers' daily lives, Gilliss (1988) argues that "...classroom teaching is by definition, neither tutoring nor coaching" (p. 52), and as such, teachers are unlikely to engage in any lengthy reflection of the type that Schon describes. She suggests that a reflective practicum will have to await a later stage in a teacher's career rather than during pre-service, due to the need, in particular, for acquisition of basic skills prior to "amateurish reflection on single classroom events..." (p. 51). Gilliss (1988) concludes that reflection-in-action

> "...must...await some more enlightened future, when there is time as well as intention. It will however, still be to little effect if it does not rest on a firm technical foundation" (p. 52).

Incomplete nature of Schon's concepts

Shulman (1988), Munby and Russell (1989), Grimmett (1989), LaBoskey (1989), and Erickson (1988) point to gaps in Schon's views and concepts, and suggest that there is a need for further elaboration and research. Shulman (1988) expresses the hope that Schon will publish another book and go beyond dichotomies to "...help us understand why there is, in fact, an insufficient portrayal of the ways the world of practice is organised" (p. 33).

For Munby and Russell (1989), Schon seems to have offered clear details of where professional education should go, but "very little in the way of how we might get there" (p. 74). Munby and Russell (1989) contend that it is not clear what his cases are cases of, providing only an account of the surface characteristics of reflection-in-action, but "virtually *no elaboration of the psychological realities* of reflection-in-action" (p. 74) so that one can understand when it begins, what causes it to begin, and the conditions for recognising its occurrence.

Grimmett (1989) observes that Schon (1983, 1987, 1988) only provides a general level of description, and "has not entered first hand the specific practice settings of teachers" (p. 26). Furthermore, for Grimmett (1989) Schon (1983, 1987, 1988) seems to be addressing the issues of "who or what is a reflective practitioner", and "where a practitioner is reflective", but very little

about "when a practitioner is reflective" (p. 26-27).

Grimmett (1989) also argues that Schon (1983, 1987,1988) has not

> "differentiated the general features of reflection-in-action...in action settings...from the context-bound expression of these very features within a specific professional domain such as education..." (p. 27).

On the issue of whether there is such a thing as wrong or incorrect reflection, LaBoskey (1989) argues that Schon (1983, p. 168-203) hints of a preferred position on the question of "rightness" in the reflective process in his extensive consideration of how different professions role frame differently when considering the problem of malnourishment in an area of Columbia, thereby determining the way problems are set, strategies are employed and facts are treated as relevant. In the specific example that Schon (1983) provides, his preference seems to be for Wilson's (a systems engineer) approach because it attempts to reconcile several conflicting perspectives, but LaBoskey finds that Schon is not specific enough, and even contradicts himself by "implying that any well constructed role frame is all right" (p. 33). Furthermore, LaBoskey (1989) accuses Schon (1983, 1987) of not elaborating and providing conscientious definition of the following (in her opinion) critical issues - "his constants of reflective practice" (p. 33) which might offer solutions to Schon's shortcomings, namely, the media and language and repertoires of practitioners, their appreciative systems, their overarching theories and the role frames they use.

In <u>summary</u>: much of the criticism of Schon seems to have arisen out of the dichotomy that he sets up between what he terms Technical Rationality and his new epistemology of practice, Reflection-in-Action. This seems to have been compounded by lack of clarity in the terms he uses, especially in the central term reflection-in-action, and has prompted calls for further clarification of what exactly such reflection is, how it is to be recognised, and what its characteristics are in the contexts of specific professional fields. Doubts also exist for many as to whether Schon's use of design and music schools as models across the professions is valid, and in general if his ideas can be applied to the field of education.

<u>Schon's contribution</u>

Despite the problems and dissatisfaction noted in the previous section, the fact Schon's works are now part of the reference lists of many teacher education writers (Connelly and Clandindin, 1988), and a "rallying point for besieged liberal progressive educators" (Smyth, 1989, p.2). Acknowledgement of Schon's contributions has come from many writers like Smyth (1989), Munby and Russell (1989), Grimmett (1989), O'Gorman (1989), as well as critics such as Fenstermacher (1988), Court (1988), Gilliss (1988), Selman (1988), and Harris (1989).

General

In general, as Fenstermacher (1988) points out, Schon (1983, 1987) seems to have provided a "new rhetoric for talking about practical teaching" (p. 39), a view echoed by Smyth (1989a), who suggests that Schon (1983, 1987, 1988) has provided "a way of fundamentally re-thinking how we view professional practice and the relationship between theory and practice" (p. 3). Smyth (1989a) further argues that while Schon's works (1983, 1987, 1989) provide a convenient way in which to focus and "keep alive the tradition of experiential knowledge...his substantive arguments are of major importance" (p. 2).

It may well be that Schon (1983, 1987) is providing a direction for linking his epistemology of practice with cognitive science programmes, as well as offering a new level of discourse by which to talk about the relationship between theory and practice (Munby and Russell, 1989). Furthermore, Munby and Russell (1989) suggest that "...Schon has made progress by advancing an epistemology on the back of evidence - in this case his case studies. For this reason ... moving epistemology towards empirically testable theory" (p. 75). Bartlett (1989) however feels that this is only true if it is taken to mean that theories of reflection could develop as a result of theorizing through practice.

Harris (1989) recognises that Schon's argument for a new epistemology of practice "...broadens our horizons, reduces our isolation, and points to new linkages. He demonstrates that these fundamental questions of teacher education are common across the diverse professions and the arts" (p. 13). She sees these links extending across arguments about whether teaching is technology, craft, or art, in the nature and traditions of supervision, the untapped knowledge available in problem solving artistry of master teachers, and in viewing reflection as a form of research.

Practice

There is value to Schon's (1983, 1987, 1988) views of reflection as reconstruction of experience in order to understand practice settings in problematic ways. Further, his views on how practitioners produce professional knowledge while appreciating problems arising out of action settings makes

> "...Schon's contribution...distinctively important. He builds on and extends Dewey's foundational properties of reflection in a manner that is clearly different from how critical theorists (e.g.Habermas; Van Manen), critical action researchers (e.g. Carr and Kemmis, Smyth) and investigators of teachers cultural mileau (e.g.Clandindin; Connelly and Clandindin; Elbaz) conceive of the process of reflection" (Grimmett, 1989, p.24).

Many writers however, like Munby and Russell (1989), Court (1988), and Harris (1989), feel that Schon's major contribution lies in his highlighting the knowledge that arises out of practice settings.

Erickson (1988) agrees about the value of Schon's (1983, 1987) contribution to practice settings and suggests that in "...laying out a language and a set of constructs to bolster his position, Schon not only validates the type of knowledge that derives from a practitioner's experience..." (p. 204) but also issues of theory-practice links. O'Gorman (1989) sees the value of Schon's contribution as his making us aware of the importance of complexity, uncertainty, value conflicts to knowing, and uniqueness, as well as knowing-in-action and problem setting. Both Gilliss (1988) and Harris (1989) find the idea of an extended reflective practicum appealing, especially in the variations possible in the one-to-one coach-student relationships. What Munby and Russell (1989), and O'Gorman (1989) find highly appealing is Schon's notion of reflection-in-action as being a form of research. Harris (1989) suggests that this notion of Schon's is consistent with a growing body of research on teaching.

In general there is wide consensus that there is much that is common sense and valuable in Schon's works. Writers like Selman (1988), Gilliss (1988) and Grimmett (1989) all find a basic appeal in Schon's writings, especially in the aesthetic examples he provides, the identification of features in educational settings, and the notion of an artistry that goes beyond mere technical knowledge and skills. Selman (1988) however concludes that the real appeal of Schon lies in his promise of a new epistemology of practice.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, it is noted that, in general, there seems to be agreement that while there is an overall attraction to some of Schon's notions such as artistry, reflective practicum, and knowing-in-action, his greatest contribution is in drawing attention to the knowledge that is generated in practice.

The next chapter examines other perspectives on reflection, as well as programmes and strategies aimed at developing reflection.

CHAPTER 3

APPROACHES TO REFLECTION

Introduction

The previous chapter examined reflection as interpreted by Dewey and Schon. This chapter looks at other approaches to reflection. Specifically, the chapter comprises the following:

- Various interpretations of Reflection;
- Strategies of Reflection in Teacher Education;
- A review of relevant research.

In the context of this research, it is important to examine the numerous approaches to teacher education which claim to be reflective in orientation. However, as the following discussion will reveal, such approaches do not all interpret the terms 'reflection', and 'reflective teaching' in the same way. In understanding the terms to mean different things, the various approaches emphasise different aspects, have different goals, and adopt different strategies to achieve their goals. Often, the approaches may be seen to be taking different paths, each of which is not necessarily compatible with others. Such an examination is useful in order to specify the orientation of this research.

The chapter reviews various programmes that have evolved within a reflective orientation. In doing so, the review examines the claims made, as well as research findings. Such a review highlights significant findings, and at the same time helps to place in focus the nature of this study.

Interpretations of Reflection

Since Dewey, there have been numerous approaches to teacher education aiming to produce reflective teachers who will be inclined to make intelligent and informed decisions about what to teach, when to do so, and why they undertake particular courses of action (Richert, 1990; Ross and Hannay,1986). While this may be so, there does not seem to be much agreement as to what exactly is reflection. One reason for this is the broad range of established meanings associated with the word 'reflection' (Russell,1989), and as far as the field of education is concerned, terms

> "...such as "reflective practice," "inquiry-oriented teacher education," "reflection-in-action," "teacher as researcher," "teacher as decision maker," "teacher as professional," "teacher as problem-solver," all encompass some notion of reflection in the process of professional development, but at the same time disguise a vast number of conceptual

variations, with a range of alternative implications for the organisation and design of teacher education courses" (Calderhead,1989, p.43).

Liston and Zeichner (1987a) point out that reflection has become something of an "...educational slogan...that lacks sufficient conceptual elaboration and programmatic strength" (p.2).

Griffiths and Tann (1992) suggest that reflection is one of the recent approaches which provide a radical answer to the theory-practice division (i.e. that they are separate/mutually interdependent) by suggesting that "all action is an expression of theory (albeit, highly personal and implicit theory)" (p. 70). They propose, however, that such a division is false, because "what we still tend to label as 'theory' and 'practice are more accurately seen as 'public' and 'personal' theories...to be viewed as lining, intertwining tendrils of knowledge which grow from and feed into practice" (1992, p. 71).

The influence of knowledge on reflection

Approaches to reflection have varied depending on what the function of knowledge obtained either from research or practice is. If such knowledge is seen to be externally derived, then research findings are used in the belief that knowledge obtained from external sources can be useful not only in directing, but also controlling practice. Teachers thus model their practices in the belief that replicating the findings of empirical research findings is valid and effective in solving the problems of practice. On the other hand, such knowledge from research can be viewed as constituting merely one other source of knowing. Research findings can then be accepted as another acceptable source of knowledge for informing practice. Based upon careful consideration of existing options, teachers choose the best option in the light of possible consequences. Such an approach would essentially be eclectic, and aim for what would be best for students. Knowledge can also be viewed as being found in the domain of practice. Attempts to reconstruct experience arising from practice leads to new revelations. Such revelations may be about either the contexts of action, the teacher's self (in the cultural environment of teaching) or on certain assumptions about teaching that are taken for granted (such as the social, political and cultural assumptions embedded in the context of teaching). In these cases, knowledge is obtained from the context as well as personal experience, and acts to transform practice (Grimmett, 1988).

One definition of the reflective approach has been to suggest that

> "when teachers adopt a reflective attitude toward their teaching, actually questioning their own practices, then they engage in a process of rendering problematic or questionable those aspects of teaching generally taken for granted" (Smyth, 1984, p.60).

However, there is some confusion as to what it is that can be described as problematic, because

> " the objects of our doubts might be accepted principles of good pedagogy, typical ways teachers respond to classroom management issues, customary beliefs about the relationship of schooling to society, or ordinary definitions of teacher authority - both in the classroom and the broader school context" (Tom,1985, p.37).

In other words, approaches that seek to problematise educational matters are trying to raise questions about issues that might otherwise be accepted as sound. What seems to be important then is how to conceptualise teaching. If teaching is viewed as being value-free and technical in nature, the reflective approach might focus on the teaching and learning process and knowledge of subject matter. If education is seen as something broader, reflection will be macro in nature, and concern itself with the ethical, moral and political dimensions of education (Smyth,1989b).

In the sections that follow, an attempt will be made to highlight and categorise the orientations and major characteristics of a number of recent approaches to reflection in teacher education. The attempt will not aim to be comprehensive, but rather aim at providing a representative selection.

Approaches influenced by Dewey

Dewey (1933) suggests that reflection is an act of intelligence, and emphasises the sense of wonder or perplexity that leads a person to reason and purposefully seek out solutions based on ideas of what the goal of the enquiry should be. Certain characteristics such as open-mindedness, wholeheartedness and responsibility, and certain ways of thinking such as reasoning and proper ordering of one's thoughts are all necessary for reflection. One could therefore classify approaches within this paradigm as belonging to modes of reasoning.

A number of approaches have emphasised the problem solving nature of reflection, as suggested by Dewey (1933). An example of such approaches would be the ALACT model proposed by Vedder and Bannink (1988) in the Netherlands. They suggest that the model develops a proposal that there are two kinds of reflection : an after-the-event reflection and a reflection that is similar to error analysis in that it is called for when things go wrong. One notes the similarity of the stages involved in this kind of reflection and the one proposed by Dewey, as illustrated by **A**ction, **L**ooking back on action, **A**wareness of essential aspects, **C**reating alternative models for action, and **T**rial.

Reflection is an important aspect of what has been called an experiential learning approach. Two features of the model include the experience itself, and the reflective activity that is based on the experience. Experience in this context is described as "the total response of a person to a situation

or event : what he or she thinks, feels, does and concludes at the time and immediately thereafter" (Boud, Keogh, and Walker, 1985b, p.18). Such an event or situation could be either formal (for example through lectures, field trips, and workshops) or informal, and may come about through an external or internal cause. It is during a phase of processing following experience that reflection occurs. Reflection in this case is "a form of response of the learner to experience" (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985b, p.18), and represents people trying to recapture their experience, thinking about it, mulling over it and evaluating it. In this approach, there is a constant interplay between behaviour, ideas and feelings, experience and reflection leading to new perspectives, understandings and action. While acknowledging their debt to John Dewey, Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985b) point out that their approach is different because it places greater emphasis on the affective aspects of learning. These affective aspects are important not only because they provide opportunities for enhancing reflection, but also because they provide barriers to reflection.

Approaches influenced by Schon.

Schon (1983,1987,1988) has emphasised knowledge that is found in the artistic performance of skilled practitioners. Many skilled practitioners are able to reflect while in the midst of action and try out new solutions, instinctively as it were, based on their previous knowledge and experience. This involves a consideration of alternative modes of framing and reframing (Calderhead, 1987). For Schon (1983, 1987, 1988), the act of reflection calls for a kind of interactive and interpretive skill for the analysis of complex and unclear problems (Calderhead, 1989).

On the other hand, Hayes and Ross (1989) define reflection as a

> "way of thinking about educational matters that involves the ability to make rational choices and to assume responsibility for those choices" (p.315).

They point out that the elements of reflection include the recognition of educational dilemmas, responding to these dilemmas by recognising similarities and dissimilarities, framing and reframing the dilemma, mentally experimenting with the situation to discover consequences and implications of possible solutions, examining intended and unintended consequences and evaluating the solution by determining whether or not the consequences are desirable. The similarities to Dewey's and Schon's stages of reflection are apparent in this approach.

Wallace (1991) acknowledges being influenced by Dewey and Schon when proposing his model of teacher education. In his reflective model, pre-service teachers come to professional education with existing conceptual schemata or mental constructs. Then, in the course of teacher education, they receive inputs of "received" knowledge and experiential knowledge. The interaction of these

three elements in the context of practice leads to reflection and understanding. Practice and reflection form a reflective cycle, and lead to professional competence.

Wallace's (1991) approach recognises an individual's previous knowledge and experience of the profession. Students bring at least twelve years of vocational observation and participation to professional education, and these include craft knowledge as well as conventional wisdom which amount to explicit behavioural tenets of the dominant prevailing ideology (Armaline and Hoover, 1989). Wallace (1991) points out that once enrolled on courses, students have inputs of received knowledge (the vocabulary of subjects, matching concepts, research findings and theories and skills) as well as experiential knowledge (knowledge-in-action, knowledge from observation and doing) which together provide for a cycle of practice and reflection leading to professional competence. The term 'received knowledge' is proposed as an alternative to Schon's reference to research-based theories and techniques (1983, p.58) not only because the student receives it rather than experiences it, but also because it is a deliberate echo of received wisdom or that which is commonly believed without proof or question. Furthermore, much of what students learn (like intonation patterns, and concepts such as a grammatical hierarchy and educational validity) are not necessarily all based on research. Experiential knowledge refers to professional experience acquired in the context of practice, and is closest to Schon's notion of knowing-in-action. However, for Wallace (1991), experiential knowledge could include knowledge-by-observation (p.15) of someone else's practice (in person or through video). Wallace (1991) refers to feelings, intentions and doubts that can arise in the course of doing things and suggests that

> "It is possible to leave these feelings or intentions either unexplored or unconsciously stored, or it is possible to reflect on them, leading to conscious development of insights into knowing-in-action. It is (or should be) normal for professionals to reflect on their own professional performance, particularly when it goes especially well or particularly badly. They will probably ask themselves what went wrong, or why it went so well...what to avoid in future, what to repeat and so on" (p.13).

Wallace's (1991) approach is important in being specifically designed for the general training of foreign language teachers. It has been designed for those engaged in teacher education (especially in developing countries), as well as programmes for in-service, supervisory or inspection, advisory, managerial and personal development. In attempting to put ideas and suggestions within the broader context of a coherent framework for the approach to language teacher education, no attempt is made to prescribe the content of any specific approach to teacher education. The approach represents a collection of practical activities (based on the views and content presented in each section) with no prescription of correctness. This recognises that there is no single correct answer or solution to educational problems. Most activities remain open-ended, and chapters are characterised by sections entitled "personal review" which invite the readers to think about ideas and issues raised in each of these chapters. Reflection in this

approach then represents deliberating over ideas that have been raised. In the process, received and experiential knowledge combine to inform on the idea or problem, thus leading to new understanding, and a reflective cycle.

Wubbels and Korthagen (1990) acknowledge the influence of reframing as the key to their interpretation of reflection as being the result of constant attempts to expand, refine and alter mental perceptions of reality. They follow a definition that "a person is reflecting when he or she is engaged in structuring his or her perception of a situation, of his or her actions or learning, or when...engaged in altering or adjusting these structures" (p. 32) as being the basis of a four year teacher education programme in the Netherlands. In reporting this, Wubbels and Korthagen (1990) go on to suggest that one "has a *reflective attitude* if one displays a tendency to develop or alter mental structures, thus indicating an orientation towards one's professional growth" (p.32).

Schon's concept of reflection-in-action is also very much in evidence in Richert's (1990) definition of reflection (with regard to a study of factors involved in reflection) as

> "the time in the teaching process when teachers stop for a moment (or longer) to think about what has occurred to make sense of it in order to learn from their experiences in the classroom" (p.526)

The previous section has explored approaches in the tradition of Dewey. John Dewey and Donald Schon have had a significant influence on teacher education, which will be evident in many of the following approaches described. In the context of the research, the views of Wallace (1991) have been highlighted. The following sections will attempt to analyse reflective approaches from different perspectives. For example, it will be possible to look upon reflection as being technical, interpretive, or critical (Gore,1987). It is also possible to add a moral orientation, made up of deliberative, relational and critical orientations (Valli, 1990). In other words, the critical approach to reflection could be seen as only one of a number of possible moral approaches (Valli, 1990). Grimmett et al. (1990) suggest that reflection can be classified as technical, deliberative and dialectical modes of knowing (see Table 1 on page 84). Each of these will now be examined.

Reflection in a Technical orientation.

In a **technical** orientation, the most important consideration is the solution of problems, and specifically the ways in which the problem can be solved. The emphasis as such is on means, while the goals and embedded assumptions about teaching are taken for granted. A technical approach would be dependent upon the findings of research to inform and speedily provide solutions to problems. In teaching, the approach emphasises teachers' abilities to perfect and employ teaching techniques (Bullough and Gitlin, 1989).

Table 1

Summary of Epistemological Commitments for Three Perspectives on Reflection in Teacher Education

	Perspectives on Reflection	Source of knowledge for Reflection	Mode of Reflective Knowing	Purpose of Reflection
1.	Reflection as instrumental mediation of action	External authority (mediated through action)	Technical	Directs
2.	Reflection as deliberating among competing views of teaching	External authority (mediated through context)	Deliberative	Informs
3.	Reflection as reconstructing experience	Context (mediated through colleagues/self)	Dialectical	Apprehends and transforms

(Source: Grimmett et al., 1990, p.35).

Such an approach is best exemplified by Cruickshank and Applegate (1981) where reflection is defined as

> "teachers thinking about what happened, why it happened, and what else could have been done to reach their goals" (Gore,1987, p.36).

'Reflective Teaching' (distinguished as a specific procedure by capital letters) as advocated by Cruickshank and Applegate (1981), and Cruickshank (1985b, 1987), seems to amount to a variation of micro-teaching (Zeichner, 1990) in which student teachers practice various techniques in groups of four to six. Each student is given identical lessons to prepare and teach, with the subject matter, materials, and allotted time all being specified and controlled. Time is restricted to 15 minutes per student, and because students are not allowed to teach their own subject specialisations, or use any materials not supplied to them, this form of reflective teaching is advocated as allowing for an emphasis and focus on how to teach. The 36 lessons that comprise the approach are arranged according to domains such as cognitive, psychomotor and affective. The fifteen minute performance by the student is followed by reflective discussions, first in groups, and then the class as a whole, focusing on factors that affect teaching and learning. The approach is considered to be reflective in that there is a looking back on events that have occurred. The focus is on skills alone, thereby reducing reflective enquiry into a matter of technique and ignoring the educational and social contexts in which teaching is embedded (Ross and Hannay, 1986).

Some presentations of reflective enquiry and pedagogy have made Dewey's phases of reflective thought into a highly structured problem-solving procedure (Beyer, 1984a; 1984b). This technical, problem-solving procedure is presented to students in a "detailed step-by-step manner, and students are encouraged to approach problem-solving tasks in this linear procedure" (Ross and Hannay, 1986, p.10). Such an approach runs the risk of reducing all problems into technical ones, and ignores the need quite often for dialogical (rather than technical) reasoning when there are alternative systems or competing viewpoints to be considered. Furthermore, in transforming issues into procedures, the approach does not take into account the fact that reflective enquiry is a dialectical process which is guided by principles, and therefore open to debate (Ross and Hannay, 1986).

Another approach that depends on retrospection (looking back and examining after the event) is Schulman's (1987) description of a programme of research into teachers' knowledge at Stanford University, where reflection is seen as

> "reviewing, reconstructing, reenacting and critically analysing one's own and the class performance and grounding explanations in evidence" (p.15).

Such an approach, argue Munby and Russell (1989), remains in the technical rational tradition, and appears to be a model of knowledge production and use, and the processes comprising reflection are meta-cognitive (cognitive processes that depend on introspection) similar to Schon's (1983, 1987) reflection-on- action only, rather than reflection-in-action. That the approach emphasises reflection-on-action is evident particularly in view of Shulman's (1987) further explanation of reflection as

> "what a teacher does when he or she looks back at teaching and learning that has occurred, and reconstructs, reenacts, and / or recaptures the events, emotions and the accomplishments. It is that set of processes through which a profession learns from experience" (p.19).

Reflection in an Interpretive orientation.

In an **interpretive** orientation, the important factor becomes the individual teacher's experience. Action only makes sense in terms of the subjective meanings ascribed by the performers of actions, and interpretations of these actions with reference to those meanings. In other words, to describe something involves interpretation of the individuals' conscious intentions as well as the social contexts within which such intentions make sense, because the

> "...social character of actions implies that actions arise from the network of meanings that are given to individuals by their past history and present social order and which structure their interpretation of 'reality' in a certain way. To this extent, the meanings in terms of which individuals act are predetermined by the 'forms of life' into which they are initiated" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986, p.89).

The interpretive approach attempts to bring about practical change by making transparent to individuals the meanings of their actions. This is achieved by facilitating dialogue between interested parties. Furthermore, by suggesting alternative ways of interpreting their actions through a reconsideration of the beliefs and attitudes inherent in their present way of thinking, an opportunity is provided for practitioners to comprehend themselves and their situation.

Interpretive approaches have led to the use of "self-reflection" in teacher education, for example in Israel (Elbaz, 1988), where one reflects on ones' own actions and understandings. Self-reflection in such approaches allows for the examination of habitual ways in which individuals perceive their world. Such an examination could then lead in teacher education programmes to helping students become aware of the ways in which they look upon their world, and teaching and learning in particular, so that this understanding can lead to professional development. In an effort to define the form of practical knowledge in its own terms, Elbaz (1983) offers the constructs of image,

practical principle and rule to give an account of the structure of practical knowledge. She defines 'image' as a " brief, descriptive and sometimes metaphoric statement" (p. 254), a kind of a brief, constant picture that encapsulates the individual's knowledge. Clandindin and Connelly (1984) suggest that the image represents a kind of knowledge embodied in a person, linked to the individual's past, present and future, and the experiencing of events.

Ross and Hannay, (1986) suggest that a narrative approach to "thought and biography...might yield stories linking...thought and biography, not as cause and effect, but as one among several possible explanatory narratives" (p.499). Such narratives amount to stories about experience which are usually kept within individuals and provide structure for coping and problem-solving action (Grumet, 1987), and allow for connections to be seen

> "between the practice of teaching and the virtues and knowledge proper to it : the institutions of education and their traditions: and the stories of individual teachers through which we see their knowledge enacted" (Elbaz, 1991,p.3).

The interpretive approach to reflection can thus focus on individuals' stories, making it possible to "...reconstruct, to rebuild a narrative that 'remakes' the taken for granted, habitual ways we all have of responding to our own curriculum situations" (Clandindin and Connelly, 1988, p.81). This will thus reveal what is interesting about teaching. Furthermore, in efforts to improve schooling, the interpretive approach allows seeking ways of making good teaching common to all, particularly through the expert teacher as an exemplar (Elbaz,1991). In reflection (or self-reflection)

> "...experience for the person is reorganised in what Dewey calls reconstruction of experience. The notion of reflection offered here is set within a theory of experience. It is in reflection one comes to challenge one's assumptions *and* reconstruct one's experience. Reflection is seen...to have both internal and external dimensions and to be both deliberate and ongoing in practice" (Clandindin, 1986, p.166).

Among the objections to such an approach is the danger that it ends up serving the status quo, by being merely a cathartic or a therapeutic 'indwelling', and not going beyond individualism to confront the alienating and hierarchical structures inherent in the situation (Bullough and Gitlin, 1989). Furthermore, interpretive approaches do not involve

> "us as participants in the improvement of reflection as a practice, through self reflection on our own participation in processes of communication, decision making and social action" (Kemmis, 1985, p.152).

Griffiths and Tann (1992) suggest that the "view that all practice is an expression of personal theory underpins the approach referred to as 'the reflective teacher'..." (p.71), and that central to "the spirit of of reflective practice is reflection on the personal and professional concerns of the individual student teacher. The reflective practitioner reflects on his or her *own* practice" (p. 71). They argue that teacher professional development requires reflection on personal theories, making these explicit, then scrutinising them against public theories, thereby confirming or reconstructing them, but the problem is that scant attention has been paid to the difficulties involved in uncovering such personal theories.

Reflection in a Moral orientation.

Moral approaches include deliberative, relational and critical orientations.

Deliberative

Approaches based on Gauthier (1963), Polyanyi (1967), Van Manen (1977) and Schwab (1971) look upon teaching as consisting of practical problems requiring **deliberation**, as well as action for their solution. Such reflection or deliberation "is a moral as well as rational process of deciding what ought to be done in a practical situation" (Calderhead, 1989, p.44). It is also both moral and rational because it brings to bear upon a situation the "greatest number of genuinely pertinent concerns and genuinely relevant considerations commensurate with the importance of the deliberative context" (Gauthier, 1963, cited by Calderhead,1989, p.44). Schwab's (1969) work on 'the practical' and 'practical deliberation' is suggested as being of this kind, whereby it is "informed not only by ideas but also by the practical exigencies of situations; it always requires critical appraisal and mediation by the judgment of the actor" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986 p.93). Kemmis (1985) suggests that in practical deliberation, we do not focus on means, but begin to address questions of what is right and appropriate.

The deliberative approach, implying thoughtful consideration of issues, is best described as a moral craft approach (Tom, 1984), with a concern for pursuing desirable ends, right conduct and values. Deliberative reflective teachers would consistently examine the rightness of their conduct with regard to their students, and would attempt to develop curricula with a view to what is best and worthwhile (Valli, 1990). Pedagogical questions rather than pedagogical knowledge (Tom, 1987) may provide the thrust of the approach, as found in the Teachers for Rural Alaska programme (Valli, 1990).

A programme for student teachers at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, which draws inspiration from the philosophy of action (Calderhead, 1987) aims at the preparation of teachers

who are both "willing and able to reflect on origins, purposes and consequences of their actions" (Zeichner and Liston, 1987, p.23). Furthermore, the aim of the programme is to develop in student teachers those

> "orientations (toward open mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness) and skills (of keen observation and reasoned analysis) proposed by John Dewey which lead to reflective action. The continuing development of technical skill in teaching is also addressed, but only within this broader context of reflective teaching" (p.24).

The approach also takes account of Van Manen's (1977) levels of reflection and attempts to take student teachers from the first level of technical rationality (where educational knowledge is used to achieve ends which are usually taken for granted as given), through the second level (where every action is seen as linked to specific value positions, and deliberated upon amongst competing educational alternatives) to the third (where ethical and moral criteria are brought to bear upon discourses about action). The approach is committed to a position of moral deliberation as a legitimate ideal for teacher education because it takes into account the need for examination of sufficiently varied and contrasting viewpoints (rather than moral inculcation) and the need to achieve equality and justice as educational goals. Liston and Zeichner (1987a) however suggest that the moral craft deliberative approach poses problems because it is not based on any ethical theory. They warn against a tendency in some programmes toward a political activist stance which is mainly confrontational, and does not sufficiently provide for consideration of other views (Liston and Zeichner, 1987a). Instead , they propose as a better approach, an "ethic of duty" approach, in which students will choose from two different systems of ethics, because reflection should lead to choosing moral decisions based on clearly defined and distinctive principles. They suggest that field experiences provide an ideal vehicle for the development of such reflective teachers.

The role of reflection in such deliberative approaches would be to make students focus on ethical aspects of their work. Questions are emphasised in an attempt to elicit moral judgments, rather than provide theories or principles from which to answer such questions. Furthermore, technical decisions are embedded or subsumed under ethical or moral deliberation (Valli, 1990).

The content of deliberative approaches is diffuse, and can cover any of Tom's (1985) arenas of the problematic, as long as the emphasis is on ethical questions. On the question of how to judge moral practice, deliberative approaches suggest that the criteria should be the long range benefits to students and the importance of the knowledge taught. However, as the example of the deliberative approach at the Catholic University of America shows, no guidelines are usually provided about how to determine the effectiveness of moral goals (Valli, 1990).

Relational

Another moral approach to reflection is the **relational** approach, and this has led to ethic-of-caring programmes based on Noddings' (1984) work, and is

> "rooted in the natural relation of mothering, subjective experience, and the uniqueness of human encounters. While the approach does involve moral deliberation, its rootedness in receptivity, relatedness, and responsiveness rather than in moral reasoning precludes its being subsumed under the category of moral deliberation" (Valli, 1990, p.43).

The goal of such an approach is to develop caring teachers, or caretakers, who care more for the affirmative growth of their students than, say, performance in achievement tests. Such affective growth may come about through a mutually constructed (by teacher and pupil) ethical ideal of caring.

Reflection in such an approach may provide opportunities for the student teachers to model and demonstrate the kind of ethical communities that they as teachers are expected to create. The content of such programmes may be guided by the teachers' responsibility to individual students, as well as relational questions, and could include any issue or topic. The effectiveness of moral decisions made in such an approach will be guided by the sole question of how it would benefit the students being cared for, especially their individual talents, aspirations and personal desires rather than broad societal needs (Noddings, 1984).

Critical

The **critical** approach to reflection has its origins in the critical approach to social science, where self-reflection is expected to lead to understandings, explanations, and action for removal of conditions that frustrate. The critical approach is the only strategy among the three moral approaches to explicitly treat schools and school knowledge as political (rather than neutral) constructions that impede social justice and equality. Reflection in this case is "action-oriented, social and political" and its "product is praxis (informed, committed action)" (Kemmis, 1985, p.141). The basis of the approach is critique, in order to provide a form of

> "therapeutic self-knowlege which will liberate individuals from the irrational compulsions of their individual history through a process of self-reflection" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986, p.138).

In other words, the approach attempts to discover how the form and content of thought has been given by history, and how "history itself will be shaped by our praxis..." (Kemmis, 1985, p.142).

In arguing for Van Manen's (1977) notion of "critical reflectivity" in teacher education (described as being a level of thought that incorporates the consideration of moral and ethical criteria in addition to reflective thinking procedures), Ross and Hannay (1986), and Newman (1985), suggest that this will be best achieved through a critical theory of education attempting to provide enlightenment and emancipation by enabling individuals to discover insights into the nature of social life, and particularly the conflicts that arise between dominant interests of society and the autonomy of individuals and organisations. Such an approach uses three basic strategies, namely increasing social knowledge, acquiring practical skills and developing abilities in critical discourse as the means for achieving emancipation. Carr and Kemmis (1986) point out however that there is a danger that the critical theory approach will "...transform consciousness (ways of knowing the world) without necessarily changing practice in the world" (p.144).

Critical social science, goes beyond critique to critical praxis, requiring an integration of theory and practice, described

> "as reflective and practical moments in a dialectical process of reflection, enlightenment and political struggle carried out by groups for the purpose of their own emancipation" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986, p.144).

Action Research

One major approach arising out of a critical orientation has been action research, a form of self-reflective enquiry

> "undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understanding of these practices, and the situations in which the practices are carried out" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986, p.162).

The approach is not new to the 1980's, but was originally introduced by Levin (1952), and then as the "self-monitoring teacher" (Elliot and Adelman,1973, Elliot, 1976) and Stenhouse (1975) as "teacher as researcher". Reflective research has been used for example: in Britain (Rudduck,1989; Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989) at the University of Sheffield and Oxford Polytechnic; in Australia (Kemmis, 1985) at Deakin University; and in America (Goodman,1986; Zeichner and Liston, 1987) Washburn and Indiana University as well as University of Wisconsin-Madison as a means of improving teachers' own classroom practice. Adelman and Carr (1988) suggest that reflective research has created the impression of being a well spread movement which does not threaten, nor itself is threatened. While conceding that such research may appear to be

addressing trivial questions, lack cumulative power and offer no radical challenge, Rudduck (1989) suggests that it is "a way of building personal excitement, confidence and insight - and these are important foundations for career-long personal and professional development" (p.68). Three structural features are evident in the reflective approach at Sheffield University: student pairing (which allows for observation and collaborative learning), a three day 'analysis' workshop (which focuses on student selected topics) and collaborative enquiry groups (where students return to a student teacher's school and seek to solve, through collaboration, a problem identified by the school.

Distinct from research-based courses are enquiry based courses. Nias (1988) suggests that enquiry based courses, though not meeting Stenhouse's criterion of "systematic enquiry made public" (p. 2), do provide students with enquiry tasks using concepts and processes as complex and intellectually demanding as those involved in conventional research. Such approaches are characterised by student enquiries being subjected to both tutor and / or peer criticism. Such criticism is considered necessary if the students are to gain their credentials. Peer criticism forms part of the course assessment, and unlike conventional courses, the outcomes of these student enquiries are shared with tutors and / or course members. These courses, although not called reflective approaches as such, do involve "gathering evidence about...reflect[ing] on and...perhaps chang[ing] one's own professional practice" (Nias,1988, p.3) and calls for greater support from staff and teaching groups. Nias (1988) suggests that this is an area where "the field is a burgeoning one" (p.11).

Roth (1989) describes a course where inquiry, seen as essential to reflection, is deliberately built into the course. She provides a comprehensive list of 24 processes involved in what is suggested as an operational definition of the reflective practitioner (p.32). Such a preferred enquiry-oriented approach is presented in contrast to behaviouristic (stressing specific observable teaching skills identified in advance), personalistic (focusing on the development of the psychological maturity of the teacher) and traditional craft (emphasis on the accumulated wisdom of experienced practitioners) models of teacher education (Roth, 1989).

Educational action research, is a term used to describe

> "a family of activities in curriculum development, professional development, school improvement programs, and system planning and policy development. These activities have in common the identification of strategies of planned action which are *implemented*, and then systematically submitted to *observation, reflection and change*. Participants in the action being considered are integrally involved in all of these activities" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986, p.165).

Such an approach then is characterised by the notion of strategic action, aimed at improving practice, understanding and the situation, and requires the involvement of people at all levels. This provides the idea of emancipatory action research (as compared to technical and practical action research) where the group takes joint responsibility

> "for the development of practice, understandings and situations, and sees these as socially-constructed in the interactive process of educational life" (Carr and Kemmis, 1986, p.203).

The members of the group see themselves involved in "an empowering process" (p.205), and as "agents of history who must express their practical judgments about needed changes in education in their own considered action..." (p.209).

The notion of empowering has to do with teachers

> "taking charge of aspects of their lives over which they have been prevented from gaining access in the past...The intention is to critique and uncover the tensions that exist between particular teaching practices and the larger cultural and social contexts in which they are embedded" (Smyth, 1989a, p.5).

To empower teachers involves providing for the development of skills of critical reflectivity, "enlightened attitudes toward reform, and acquisition of theoretical knowledge that can be used to determine the validity of professional judgments concerning teaching and schooling in a democratic society" (Armaline and Hoover, 1989, p.42).

It is claimed that action research forms an important element in the student teaching component of the elementary teacher education programme at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. Liston and Zeichner (1990) point out that the programme does not stress the collaborative aspects, but nevertheless comes closest to the Deakin University notion of "emancipatory action research" because the emphasis is both on teaching and the contexts of teaching, and because teachers are seen as agents rather than instruments of change. Unlike the view put forward by Carr and Kemmis (1986), Liston and Zeichner (1990) argue that action research, as practised in their programme, is valid whether it is conducted as shared enquiry, or individually, as long as the group provides supportive contexts for the examination of views and ideas.

Armaline and Hoover (1989) suggest that education for critical reflection

> "is a process by which students become aware of the perhaps unarticulated beliefs that have shaped their conception of teaching ; it is a *critical* reflection in that those beliefs are subject to scrutiny and may be modified or replaced" (p.42).

For example, the aim of the University of Sussex PGCE course is to develop the reflective dimensions of students, defined as " the ability to make informed and professional judgments about what they are doing and why" (Furlong et al., 1988, p.67). A high priority is placed upon getting students

> "...to adopt a critical, reflective stance toward their activities...to provide them with the reality of experience in the school, at the same time confronting them with ideas about the purpose of education, schooling, curriculum etc., and demanding that they work out for themselves a supportable justification for what they are doing or intending to do" (Furlong et al., 1988, p.67).

Reflection, it is suggested, has a double meaning, involving the "relationship between an individual's thought and action and the relationship between an individual teacher and his or her membership in a larger collective called society" (Bartlett, 1990, p.204-205). Becoming critical involves moving away from 'how' to 'what' and 'why' questions, and thereby acquiring control over our teaching. Examples of such preferred questions could include:

> "What counts as knowledge in second language teaching?"
> "What kind of multicultural society or cultural system uses this knowledge legitimately?"
> "What caused me to become a second language teacher?"
> "Do these reasons still exist for me now?"
> "Who has power in my classroom and how is it expressed?" (1990, p. 206).

It is believed that critical reflection can be achieved through a defined set of field experiences and concomitant seminars at three levels as implemented in the secondary education programme at Youngstown State University (Armaline and Hoover, 1989). At the first level, critique is introduced on fundamental political, social, and economic issues. Next, student teachers are introduced to pedagogic principles informed by an ongoing examination of critical social, economic and political issues, and finally at the third level, a variety of complementary clinical activities within regular coursework settings (like micro-teaching, reflective teaching, and peer teaching) leads to reflection on practice by emphasising an examination, and refinement of specific pedagogic principles.

Unlike American approaches described above, the origins of reflection in Australia lies in case study methods. Bartlett (1989) points out that in case study approaches reflection was seen as explorations of relationships between the subjective knowledge and action of individuals, and then between individuals and society, culture and state, and social, cultural and political conditions existing in the society. The terms action research, clinical supervision, critical deliberation and experiential learning have all arisen out of these. Bartlett (1989) argues that American approaches

seem to operate within two orientations. One is a constuctivist or interpretive framework (Etheridge,1989; Russell, 1989) where reflection is *on* teacher practices. The second is based on naturalistic contexts of reflection (Hayes and Ross, 1989) within a constructivist orientation where reflection is about *contexts* of teacher practice that limit, constrain and govern reflection. In both these orientations the researcher is an *outsider* who conducts research about the teacher who is the *insider*. In Australia (especially Deakin University) however, there has been a move away from the previously predominant interpretive approach to critical approaches emphasising non-individualistic collaborative contexts, with the emphasis now on participatory research and action.

The aim of critical reflection is

> "to remove the "outsider" researcher by making the researcher an "insider", co-responsible *for* and co-participant *with* the action. The shift is away from disengaged research *on* reflecting teachers to collaborative research *with* reflecting teachers *through* action" (Bartlett, 1989, p.354).

In Britain, Pollard and Tann (1987), similar to Wallace (1991), present their approach in the form of a handbook of ideas to be used as required "within a theoretical framework..." (p. xi). Unlike Wallace (1991) however, their approach "attempts to link classroom practice and educational theory with current educational, political and social debates" (p.xi) as well as to recognise professional judgments and "value-commitments that would command widespread support in moral and ethical terms" (p.xi). For them, a reflective teacher

> "...is one who constantly questions his or her own aims and actions, monitors practice and outcomes, and considers the short- term and long-term effects upon a child" (p.5).

Their approach is specifically aimed at primary teachers, and contains the following four aspects :

- a concern with aims and consequences as well as means and technical efficiency;
- combining enquiry and implementation skills with attitudes of open mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness;
- an application of a cyclical or spiralling process, in which teachers monitor and evaluate their own practice reflexively; and
- a dependence on informed teacher judgment in which the product of educational disciplines, appropriately put, can make significant contributions (Menter and Pollard, 1989).

While it would seem from the above description that the approach appears to be essentially in the moral deliberation orientation, Menter and Pollard (1989) suggest that it is a critical approach to reflective teaching, and not merely a self-evaluative model. It is concerned with "increasing

awareness and sensitivity to the institutional, cultural, social and political contexts of one's own teaching work in order to act upon and within those contexts" (p.38).

The term reflectivity is presented by Bullough and Gitlin (1989), and by Bullough (1989) who see it as having two functions;

> "...at one and the same time it represents an end to be sought (the reflective teacher, professional, practitioner - someone who is disposed to and and able to reflect) and a means for achieving the end (reflection)" (p.15).

It is argued that one may be reflective and yet at the same time embrace solutions that are ethically irresponsible given a society's democratic values. Reflectivity therefore has to be grounded in "a social ideal useful for judging the validity of the proposed solutions" (Bullough,1989, p.16). In arguing for this notion of reflectivity, Bullough and Gitlin (1989) point out that many critical approaches are merely individual undertakings, quite often determined for (rather than with) prospective teachers, and can become expert-driven, impositional and hierarchical. In order to ensure reflectivity that is truly critical, they propose the ideal of "educative communities".

The goal of a critical approach as compared to the goal of the deliberative approach (moral decision maker) and the relational approach (caretaker) is the preparation of "critical pedagogues" or "transformative intellectuals" (Giroux and McLaren, 1986). For critical theorists, the main goal of teacher education should be the preparation of teachers who understand the ways in which schools might be contributing to an unjust society so that these teachers could then engage in emancipatory action.

The role of reflection in such an orientation would be twofold. The first is epistemological, with reflection being used as a way of making knowledge problematic through the process of deconstruction, usually achieved by introducing students to radical theory. The second is pedagogical, with reflection aiming to provide an ethic of caring which will empower the voiceless by exposing " the race-, class- , and gender- based construction of present society in order to radically transform it" (Valli, 1990, p.49).

The content of critical approaches would be those moral issues which have broad social implications such as issues of social justice, equality and emancipation. These issues would be analysed from a radical political perspective, in order that students would have a broad frame of reference to make political and moral decisions.

In each of the deliberative, relational and critical approaches, moral criteria are found within the approach itself (Valli, 1990). Thus, they would all be both an "approach" and an "ethic", each embodying its own principle of good conduct. Caring, moral deliberation and social criticism

would be the ethically correct practices of reflective teachers in the respective approaches. While teachers could conceivably integrate the three ethics into their practice, Valli (1990) warns that this could be problematic. She suggests that while the three ethics can be seen as complimentary to each other, they all deal with problematic areas that are connected and not discrete, and as such it would be difficult to see teachers consciously shifting between the three perspectives. Arguing that these are conflicting perspectives, she points out that reflective practice

> "...is not singular. Different approaches do not lead to the same reflective practice, even when those approaches are all grounded in moral considerations. Only by unreflectively incorporating conflicting perspectives into daily practice could one teacher be caring, critical, and deliberative. This is an unlikely (and surely undesirable) option for those who prepare reflective teachers" (Valli, 1990, p.54).

Another approach to reflection is Henderson's (1989) Positioned Reflective Practice (or PRP), which

> "involves a complex interrelated process in which the practitioner considers a relevant discourse in relation to other possible related discourses, takes a position, acts on the basis of this "preferred" interpretation, and then reconsiders his or her position in light of the consequences of the action. Variations on this basic sequence are possible" (p.11).

The case for this approach is made in view of the normative judgments called for by the ambiguity of the term reflective teaching, and in the light of an increasing awareness of the "constructive nature of language". This is a notion that suggests that we understand through the act of language, and therefore it is possible to look upon any piece of discourse as an historical or paradoxical accumulation of meaning. In other words, the full meaning of any discourse can be understood by exploring the tacit dimensions of the discourse, which will then reveal its interpretive and rhetorical underpinnings. Stated simply, the approach asks whether given "the rhetorical alternatives, did I properly understand before, during and / or after acting?" (Henderson, 1989, p. 11). Reflection in such an approach is the reacting to and relationship with discourses provided to student teachers. Such a process of reflection can be classified as historically oriented (in relation to other historically significant discourses), content oriented (in relation to other appropriate discourses on content) and personally oriented (in relation to individual growth) .

In the analysis of the various approaches to reflective teaching in this section, it has been considered useful to classify the approaches according to whether they are influenced by: the

mental processes and reasoning suggested by Dewey, the ways of knowledge demonstrated in practice as suggested by Schon, orientations which are technical, interpretive or moral, and others that do not fall into neat categorisations. It is acknowledged that there are other possible classifications. Calderhead (1987b) suggests that it may be possible to categorise reflection according to the content of reflection (for instance societal values, teachers' own values, the goals of education), or prerequisites for reflection (the practicum, qualities for reflection), the goals of reflection (emancipation, the reflective teacher, empowerment), or the processes for achieving reflection (reflection-in-action, the testing of proposed solutions). Tom (1985) argues that it is possible to classify reflection found in enquiry oriented approaches to teacher education according to "arenas of the problematic" (ranging from very narrow ones to those which are comprehensive and attempt to include ethical, political and contextual elements as problematic), the ontological status of educational phenomena (whether these are seen as natural and lawlike or as more socially constructed), and the models of enquiry adopted (according to the rigour or the goals of the enquiry).

It will be fair to say in concluding this section that the term reflection has led to numerous approaches, all having varying interpretations and emphases. Feiman-Nemser (1990), in reviewing literature on reflection, suggests that the present consensus is that "reflective teacher education is not a distinct programmatic emphasis but rather a generic professional disposition" (p.221). Calderhead (1989) observes that there is "great difficulty in gaining any precise conceptual grasp of what reflection is or might be in teachers' professional development. The only uniting theme in discussions of reflective teaching is the general emphasis on the cognitive, and to some extent moral or affective, aspects of learning to teach" (p.45). More pertinent however is Zeichner's (1981/1982) observation that it will not be possible to equip prospective teachers with all the necessary knowledge and skills for their entire careers,"...that no teacher education program, no matter what the orientation and no matter how good, can produce a fully developed teacher at the pre-service level" (p.5). The best that can be done is to provide experiences which enrich rather than impede student teacher growth.

Strategies for the Development of Reflective Teachers

The following review of strategies and techniques that have been employed to encourage reflection does not necessarily imply that they have been used only within the notion of reflective approaches. Rather, it is a review of what has been found in the literature on reflective approaches and descriptions of teacher education programmes having reflection as a goal.

Anthony (1960) suggested that a technique will implement a method (which is procedural) in keeping with the approach (which is axiomatic). The term technique describes whatever activity or procedure carried out at the classroom level and is usually used to mean specific identifiable methods that have been used (for example micro-teaching), as compared to strategies which are broader in scope, and could include a number of techniques within it, as in for example, when a seminar could include micro-teaching, observation, recording of details, and leader-led discussion. As the review of literature does not reveal this distinction as being significant in the context of reflection, no attempt at a neat categorisation is being made here (but see chapter five for further discussion of these terms in the context of language teaching methodology).

Strategies and techniques

Ross (1990) suggests that most programmes of teacher education that have reflection as a goal have only adopted strategies to develop technical competence. However, many educators believe that knowledge is socially constructed, and hence feel that while the courses should attempt to encourage student enquiry into the connections between personal knowledge and knowledge derived from research and theories, they should also encourage students to develop an active role in curricula construction and evaluation. Action research, ethnography and case studies are, it is suggested (Ross, 1990), strategies that can be employed to achieve these aims, because they provide disciplined ways to evaluate students' intuitive beliefs about teaching and the effectiveness of instructional approaches derived from theories and research.

The major strategies for reflection that Zeichner (1987) identifies are 'Reflective Teaching', action research, curriculum analysis and development, supervision and writing. Ethnography, the use of questioning and dialogue, and faculty modelling have also been identified as strategies (Ross, 1990). These will be elaborated upon here.

Reflective Teaching

The Reflective Teaching approach (Cruickshank, 1985), distinguished as a specific technique by the capitalisation, aims essentially to provide repeated opportunities for student teachers to develop the necessary skills for effective teaching, through teaching and the analysis of brief pre-specified

lessons and teaching behaviour. A variation of this (essentially technical orientation to reflective teacher education) is to be found in the reflective inquiry teacher education (or RITE) programme at the University of Houston (Freiberg and Waxman, 1990a), which provides "ample opportunities for prospective teachers to speculate on their development as teachers as a way for them to improve their expertise" (p.119). Four skills developed there are systematic classroom observation of others, self assessment of student teaching, journal writing and simulated teaching.

Action research

Action research has already been introduced in the previous section. In implementation, it follows a cyclical pattern of reconnaissance, planning, acting, observing and reflecting following Kemmis and McTaggarts' (1988) Action Research Planner. There have been variations in the way action research has been carried out (Liston and Zeichner, 1987), and have included students working individually or in groups on common problems, the involvement of pupils in teachers' action research projects, and involved student teachers working with co-operating teachers who themselves may or may not be participants in action research projects. This strategy has been characterised by three elements, namely: conducted by participants in a field setting (sometimes with the aid of an outsider), the study of problems of practice selected by the participants themselves, and the collection of evidence and analysis of data by participants themselves (Ross, 1990). Examples of action research can be found at the University of Florida and the University of Virginia where student teachers return to investigate classroom issues arising from their student teaching experience, and at the University of Wisconsin where student teachers undertake action research projects as part of their final internship (Ross, 1990).

Case studies and ethnography, on the other hand, are aimed at sensitising students to factors that influence teachers and children's perspectives on school situations, and at examining the realities that lie beneath surface appearances.

Ethnography

A definition of ethnography is "the description of the races of mankind" (Longmans Modern English Dictionary). van Lier (1990) suggests that originally ethnography involved anthropologists conducting descriptive fieldwork, but gradually it has moved from involvement with unknown ethnic groups to examining human groups in industrialised society, and then into sociolology and education. In education research, learners in the classroom are sometimes treated as if they are members of identifiable groups with identifiable characteristics. Ethnography appears heuristic, with no firm rules and guidelines for scientific research conduct. Rather than being concerned with controlling or isolating factors from the context, ethnographers "refers to the rules, concepts beliefs and meanings of the people themselves, functioning within their own groups", and looking at events in its context (van Lier, 1990, p.43).

Ethnography is useful

> "to explore the ideological nature of curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation and the inter-relationships between these socially constructed practices within the school and the social, economic, and political contexts within which they are embedded" (Zeichner and Liston, 1987).

Ethnographic studies have been conducted within campus-based courses (Gitlin and Teitlebaum, 1983), as well as during clinical or field experiences (Zeichner and Liston, 1987) and have involved students studying aspects of classrooms, curriculum, and teacher - pupil interaction, all accompanied by varying degrees of guidance from teacher educators. While the kinds of topics that students have investigated through ethnographic studies have been fairly well documented, the specific methodological procedures that have been employed have not been clearly described (Zeichner, 1987).

Curriculum Analysis and Development

Curriculum analysis and development are ways in which the focus is on preparing reflective users and developers of the curriculum. Curriculum analysis may be targeted at either curricula developed by the student teachers themselves or those developed by others (Ross, 1990). In curriculum analysis, (as exemplified in projects at the University of Wisconsin), the aim is to increasingly sensitise students to values and assumptions embedded in specific curriculum materials and programmes, as well as the influences on curriculum development process in specific settings (Zeichner and Liston, 1987).

Curriculum development on the other hand, attempts to empower teachers by making them the decision makers with regard to curricular issues by their designing or adapting curricula, rather than become mere implementors of pre-designed instructional courses. For example, Goodman (1986a, 1986b) and Beyer (1984a, 1984b) describe restructured courses wherein students are taught specific approaches to curriculum design involving consideration of technical, educational and moral issues at each stage of the process. Original student contributions are required at each of these stages. Students then develop, teach and evaluate part of the curriculum as part of their field experience. Similar requirements can be found at the University of Florida (Ross, 1990) and the University of Alaska (Noordhoff and Kleinfield, 1990).

Reflective Writing.

Writing with a reflective orientation is believed to be one way of getting pre-service teachers to practice critical analysis and reasoning (Copeland, 1986). Approaches that have used writing to

stimulate reflection have included "systematic reflection", implicit theory exercises, portfolios, and autobiographical methods, but the journal seems to be the preferred approach (Zeichner, 1987). An example of the strategy can be seen at the University of Florida, where journal entries include identification and description of problems faced by the students during internship, as well as details of their attempts to resolve the problems (Weade, Shea and Seraphin, 1988).

Field Experiences.

Perhaps the most important innovation in strategies for reflection has been the focus and emphasis placed on field experiences, particularly through reflective supervision. While teaching practice, classroom observation and teaching apprenticeships have all been regular features of many types of field experiences, it is not necessarily true that all teacher education courses provide opportunities for practice (Wallace, 1991).

Numerous problems have been identified with practicums. These have included the following : lack of explicit practicum curricula, lack of connection between tertiary input and classroom reality, lack of formal preparation of supervisors and the uneven quality of supervision, the view that apprenticeship (even if unmediated and unstructured) to good teachers will bring positive results, low priority to practicums at both tertiary and school levels and role conflicts arising from reflective orientations in schools having technical orientations (Zeichner, 1990).

Innovations in the practicums seem to fall between two orientations, the applied science and reflective orientations (Zeichner, 1990). Berliner (1984, 1985) best represents the former orientation with the view that educational research should provide the basis of planning teacher education including the practicum, and has called for the creation of pedagogical laboratories where students can learn to focus on strategies and skills under experimental conditions. Zeichner (1990) suggests that

> "many of the reported innovations in the practicum and practicum supervision in the past few years assume this applied science view of a practicum curriculum" (p.111).

It is suggested that in a narrow version of this view, students would be trained to reproduce behaviours and patterns of behaviours and thinking suggested by research, while in the broader version, research would be used within a wider process of decision making and problem solving, and thereby fostering good judgment between means and ends (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). One recent development has been a thematic approach, exemplified by Michigan State University (Barnes, 1987) and Flinders University (Hogburn and Simpson, 1986), where research has influenced teacher education curriculum to foster closer coordination between college courses and practicums. In both these cases, clear and distinct focuses have been developed based on specific conceptions of of the teachers' role providing the unifying theme of the practicum education

(Zeichner, 1990), leading to less variation and conflicts arising from differing faculty interpretations. Some other innovations in the practicum have also relied on research-based knowledge providing the impetus for the provision of specific structured experiences, which allow for developing student understanding of ideas and skills in practice arising out of these (Hill, 1986, Hollingsworth, 1988, Ferguson, 1989).

In a reflective orientation to the practicum, Schon's (1983, 1987) ideas of the reflective practicum and reflective research (1983, 1987, 1988) have led to encouragement and support for teacher enquiry into their own practices. Field experiences, as a consequence, have had restructured goals to produce teacher researchers of their own practices. Some examples of these efforts include Oxford Polytechnic (Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989), the University of Sheffield (Lucas, 1988), the University of Wisconsin-Madison (Zeichner and Liston, 1987), Washburn and Indiana University (Goodman, 1986), and Deakin University (Robottom, 1988).

Supervision.

There have been efforts in improving supervision to accompany changes to the practicum. Within an applied science orientation, the aim of supervision has been to help student teachers to master skills, knowledge and dispositions suggested by research (Zeichner, 1990). In view of the problem of a lack of proper formal training of supervisors, recent efforts have focused on getting supervisors trained in the use of observation instruments that are based on research (Zeichner, 1990). Such efforts have included developing instruments for self-analysis and providing student teachers with feedback from pupils and cooperating teachers (Freiberg and Waxman, 1988), and the development of a self-instructional training system for cooperating teachers (Taggart, 1988).

Within a reflective orientation, supervision has led to attempts to develop student teacher ability for self-reflection. Such efforts at supervision have included "partnership supervision" (Rudduck and Sigsworth, 1985), "reflective supervision" (MacKinnon and Erickson, 1988), "horizontal evaluation" (Gitlin and Smyth, 1989) and critically oriented versions of clinical supervision (Zeichner and Liston, 1987). These efforts have been characterised by a desire to develop ideas of teacher research and experimentation, and in most cases have included some form of action research (Zeichner, 1990), peer supervision or student pairing (Rudduck, !989) and collaborative enquiry (Zeichner, 1990). Efforts have also been made to understand Schon's (1983, 1987) "hall of mirrors" method of supervision in the context of a science teaching practicum at the University of British Columbia, and in conceptualising and illustrating such an approach, MacKinnon (1989) concludes that when

> "created, it leads to a powerful model of teaching-it can lead to consistency in the practice supervisors demonstrate for student teachers, and it may communicate some aspects of teaching that defy description" (p.58).

In attempting to encourage reflective attitudes among student teachers, teacher educators have come to realise that it is incumbent upon them to set an example of such reflective orientations (Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989, Armaline and Hoover, 1989). As a result, faculty modelling is seen as a legitimate and necessary strategy, involving either the faculty (Zeichner and Liston, 1987, Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989) or individual staff involvement with action research (Ross, 1989). It has been suggested that proper faculty modelling could involve publicly sharing the reasoning behind decisions, acknowledging to students that knowledge can be uncertain at times, allowing students time to question the instructors' sources of knowledge and decisions and demonstrating the skilled performance of the truly reflective practitioner (Ross, 1990).

One other strategy needing a mention is the supervisory conference (Zeichner, 1987). These conferences follow the normal formal observations of student teaching, and can focus on both classroom lessons that have been observed as well as the more general development of student teacher perspectives. For example, at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, the main form of supervision is the clinical supervision model with an emphasis on "rational analysis" of classroom instruction. Supervisory visits follow a pattern of " a preconference, observation, analysis and strategy, and a postconference. During the observation supervisors compile detailed narrative notes which are used to document patterns and critical incidents in classroom instruction" (Zeichner and Liston, 1987, p.33).

Seminars

Campus based seminars have long been associated with attempts to provide a forum for focused discussion and exchanging views. For example, Zeichner and Liston (1987) report that seminars at the University of Wisconsin, while building upon classroom experiences, do not provide specific methods and techniques for direct application. Instead, seminars are designed to help students develop broad perspectives and examine teacher development in the light of diverse conceptual frameworks, and focus on collaborative enquiry, and educational research. Reflective approaches have also utilised this strategy. However, while externally derived knowledge may feature in such discussions, the focus is on knowledge and issues generated through enquiry during the practicum, all discussed in communal settings (Robottom, 1988).

Finally, it has been suggested (Zeichner, 1990) that two of the latest innovations which could have far reaching possibilities are the widening of practicum from attachment to classrooms and collaborating teachers to school placements, thereby allowing for more realistic and wider inputs from the whole school environment, and the proposed establishment of professional development schools (or clinical schools). The emphasis and primary purpose in such schools will be professional education of teachers, unlike in normal schools, where low priority is usually assigned to learning how to teach.

Zeichner (1990) however warns that both the applied science and reflective orientations have limitations, and that resulting efforts at improving the practicum will not lead "to genuine and lasting improvement in the all too familiar problems of the practicum" (p.116), unless efforts are made to reconcile both orientations.

Specific techniques have included dialogues and peer collaboration (Pugach and Johnson, 1990) which try to focus on clarification, summarisation and prediction. Other techniques have included self-assessment, classroom observation of others, keeping diaries, journals, academic journals (meaning entries relate to academic matters), dialogue journals (cooperating teachers or supervisors keep up a dialogue with students either in discussion or in writing upon reading journal entries), audiotape analysis and questioning (Freiberg and Waxman, 1990a; Valli, 1990).

This section has reviewed a number of strategies for developing reflective practice in teacher education. The effectiveness of these strategies will however be discussed in the following section.

A Review of Research Relevant to Reflection

What is striking about much of the literature reviewed in the earlier sections of this chapter is that most of the writings express a conviction about how to approach teacher education, usually from a moral or personal or common sense perspective. Very few of the positions seem, however, to be grounded on a foundation of research findings.

The following review of the findings of research is guided by broad questions such as:

> What do teachers and student teachers think about teaching, and why? Such a question pertains to their attitudes, general thinking, and cognition, and may be conceived of as student reflection on teaching.
>
> What kind of knowledge do teachers and student teachers possess? This would relate to personal, practical, and pedagogic knowledge which can affect reflection.
>
> Does training, and the context of training in particular, have any effect ? This would consider the effects of specific courses, contexts, and strategies on student teachers' reflection.

While reviewing research findings relevant to these issues, findings which do not seem to relate specifically to the promotion of reflection, but do have implications for the preparation of

reflective teachers, will also be referred to. It should also be borne in mind that the issues addressed need not be conceived of as being separate and unconnected.

Attitudes , thinking and cognition

Book et al. (1983) and Lortie (1975) point out that novice student teachers believe that they already know quite a lot about teaching. This is often because of the long 'apprenticeship' of their own schooling. Weinstein (1988) found that prior to training, student teachers were already confident that they could deal with problems of teaching in the classrooms, though they were aware of the fact that even experienced teachers tend to have problems.

In reviewing studies on the initial dispositions of student teachers, Carter (1990, p.293-294) points out various research findings. One study (Ball, 1988) shows that while most mathematics teachers had rule bound knowledge of their subject, very few had substantive understanding of underlying key principles. A second study (Paine, 1988) reveals that student teachers' understanding of pupil diversity was superficial, and not realistic enough with regard to specific contexts. Amarel and Feiman-Nemser's (1988) study showed that student teachers were primarily interested in managing the class and feeling at ease in front of pupils. Student teachers were more concerned about gaining practical experience rather than gaining knowledge of student learning, or subject knowledge. In fact, students tended to dismiss the value of the coursework even before these courses started.

What is significant about these findings is that teacher education will have to convince student teachers that it has a valuable contribution to make to students' professional learning, and perhaps to make students aware of new ways of looking at school life in order to make them aware of the complexities involved.

Knowledge

Jackson (1968) identified four recurrent themes in his interviews with fifty outstanding teachers: immediacy (teachers looked out for immediate and spontaneous signs of how well things were going in class), informality (in their relationships with pupils, and their distrust of formal tests as true measures of teaching ability), autonomy (their dislike of curricular constraints and administrative intrusions), and individuality (seeing individual pupil's progress). He also characterises the teachers' language and thinking as being conceptually simple. Jackson (1968) suggests that a more deliberate (or reflective) style might be prevalent during the "preactive" phase when planning the lessons, while an intuitive approach may predominate during the "interactive" phase of actual teaching, given the uncertainties and complexities of classroom life.

Borko et al. (1988) studied the thinking and planning of novice teachers and found that while initial views of successful teaching were the same and did not change with time, the views of strong and weak students about what was considered to constitute unsuccessful lessons did change. Stronger teachers engaged in more complex planning activities than weaker ones, and generally anticipated possible problems and solutions.

Clark and Yinger (1987) in a review of research findings suggest that teacher planning is of five kinds: yearly, term, unit, weekly, and daily. Only seven percent of teachers listed lesson planning as important (p.87). Findings from other studies indicate that the greater proportion of planning time was spent on the content to be taught, followed by planning instructional processes, and finally by defining objectives (p.91). Clark and Yinger (1987) conclude that teacher planning seems to influence opportunity to learn, class grouping, classroom processes and content coverage. However, finer classroom details, being unpredictable, are not planned for, and "...once interactive teaching begins, the teachers' plan moves to the background and interactive decision-making becomes more important" (p.95).

Expert-novices studies have led to the finding that experts have a richer repertoire for reporting on organising and managing instruction. When compared to novices, experts also have well developed guiding routines and action strategies for taking over someone else's class (Carter et al., 1987). Carter et al. (1988) report that experts also tended to be more interested than novices in signs of pupils working. Furthermore, their study also revealed that teachers (but rarely novices) tended to view classroom scenes as "typical" and "untypical". Once experienced teachers classified a lesson as typical, they were no longer interested in that lesson, but paid attention to that which was perceived to be atypical. Experienced teachers also had a greater ability to recall significant classroom events, as well as more complex understandings of the classroom learning and teaching when compared to novices (Peterson and Comeaux, 1987).

Berliner (1987) found in a study of simulated teaching tasks performed by three groups (experienced / expert , less experienced / novice, and inexperienced / postulant) that the greatest differences, as expected, were between the most and least experienced groups. Experienced / expert teachers

> "appear to use their rich schemas about students, their large store of episodic knowledge, and their unique memory to analyse student work...differently. These same cognitive processes are also used to develop plans for instruction that are different. In short, our specially selected experienced teachers often acted like the experts we thought they were..." (p.76).

Teachers' practical knowledge may be studied in terms of personal practical knowledge and implicit theories, classroom structures and comprehension, and how knowledge is used to plan

and carry out instruction (Carter, 1990). Research on personal practical knowledge, as pointed out earlier, focuses on teachers' personal understandings of their teaching circumstances. Elbaz (1983) suggests five broad domains of practical knowledge : self, mileau of teaching, subject matter, curriculum development and instruction. Such knowledge is organised according to three levels, namely rules of practice, practical principles and images. Metaphors in teachers' thinking, it is suggested, are a further useful way of finding out how teachers view problems and solutions to these problems, as well as to the types of knowledge that teachers have (Munby, 1986,1987 ; Munby and Russell, 1989). Images may be looked upon as a type of knowledge that links past and future into a personally meaningful present experience, revealed quite often in teacher narratives (Clandindin and Connelly, 1986, 1987). Such studies of teachers' personal knowledge, being focused on the individual personal experiences, reveal the characteristics of teachers' knowledge, rather than what teachers know (Carter, 1990). Carter (1990) suggests that implicit in much of the research on learning to teach is the personalised view of teachers' knowledge, which sees teachers' practical knowledge as personal and idiosyncratic (especially in those studies which focus on the results of beliefs, attitudes, orientations and perspectives). As such, the "issue then becomes one of how settings affect the development of personal perspectives, rather than of how teachers learn a defined body of knowledge about practice " (p.302).

Ecological studies of teachers' knowledge have focused on work systems and programmes of action. They reveal that teachers seen as successful managers tend to design (plan) appropriate 'work systems' (organised and systematic procedures). These teachers communicate the procedures clearly to students, and monitor progress of students (Carter, 1990).

With regard to how knowledge is used to plan and carry out instruction, Doyle (1977) found that student teachers who coped successfully with classroom problems seemed to have developed cognitive strategies which made it possible for them to understand what was happening in their classrooms.

Fuller and Brown (1975) found that novice teachers are at first more concerned about survival and self-orientation; then second, they worry about the teaching situation, before reaching the stage where they worry about pupils. Wilson et al. (1987) disagree, and suggest that beginning teachers do worry about how to communicate subject matter to pupils. In their efforts to overcome this problem, student teachers tend to draw on various kinds of knowledge to generate 'pedagogical content knowledge', and the process by which the students generate this special understanding to be communicated to pupils is through 'pedagogical reasoning'.

In reviewing studies of the pedagogical content knowledge of teachers, Carter (1990) suggests that teachers' disciplinary knowledge, experiences, background and views have a significant impact on how subject matter knowledge is communicated to pupils. She suggests that, at least at

secondary school level, teachers are probably more at ease with pedagogical aspects of teaching (possibly from long apprenticeship in the classroom) than with practical knowledge which has to be gained from experience as a teacher.

Carter (1990) feels that the

> "learning-to-teach problem...is more one of translating knowledge from one form to another, from propositional to procedural, than of unravelling the meaning of complex experiences. At the same time, curricular goals, as well as forms of representation and modes of instructing, are often quite personal and must be understood, if they are to be enacted at all, as classroom events. It might well be that pedagogical content knowledge and classroom knowledge are not ultimately that different for the learning teacher" (p.306-307).

What much of the studies and reviews presented here seem to confirm is that more experienced teachers have a greater range of specialised and personally developed systems of practical knowledge and strategies to cope with classroom complexities, that do not seem to be available to beginners. Yet as the study by Berliner (1987) shows, greater experience is not a guarantee of greater expertise commensurate with experience. Nor does lack of experience necessarily mean that novices do not have capabilities and range of skills to develop expertise. More worrying is that research has not revealed how the expertise is developed, nor how such expertise can be successfully transmitted to student teachers. Furthermore, if reflection is deemed to be part of the requisites for qualification as an expert or good teacher, little has been revealed by research to aid reflective teacher educators.

Training , context and strategies

Training

Wubbels and Korthagen (1990) attempted to establish whether a programme designed primarily to produce reflective teachers did lead (among teachers) to a more reflective attitude, better interpersonal relationships with students or a more adequate perception of those relationships, greater inclination toward innovation and a higher level of job satisfaction. They found that there was no difference in reflective ability between control and experimental groups. Students from the reflective course did have a better relationship with pupils (as perceived by the pupils) than those who had not undergone such a course. No significant difference was found in teachers' own perceptions of their relationships with pupils. No significant inclination toward innovation was noticed, but teachers who had taken the reflective course seemed to have greater job satisfaction. Wubbels and Korthagen (1990) suggest that reflective goals may be unsuccessful with students who are not inclined to reflect, and that future research should examine a possible

link between the quality of teachers and their reflective attitude, and the characteristics of courses where there were reflective outcomes.

The design and implementation of a four year B.Ed. course at Oxford Polytechnic is based on the idea of developing a reflective tutor / teacher, and in the process, a number of tentative conclusions have been formulated. Ashcroft and Griffiths (1989) suggest that evaluation of reflective outcomes may adequately focus on single issues or problems, but evaluation of extended periods of teaching require long term and short term strategies. Furthermore, they suggest that there are problems in getting students to be open-minded when tutors themselves possess personal values (which may be strongly held), and group compositions change (thereby affecting collaborative enquiry and within-group confidence and trust). This goal is also made difficult by the fact that there is an unequal distribution of power in the school experience set-up, which does not allow for the free exchange of ideas, nor for the establishment of proper criteria for evaluation.

The Research in Elementary Education course at the University of Florida aims at helping students gain the expertise and judgment necessary for using research findings appropriately. In order to do so, reflective capacities have to be developed (Ross, 1989). Evaluation of the course outcomes showed, firstly, that only 22 percent of the course papers demonstrated the required high level of reflection, but almost all students showed an ability to reflect at a high level at least part of the time. Second, the level of reflection demonstrated by the students did not change or increase over time. Third, the nature of topics (in a theory-to-practice paper) did not influence the students' level of reflection. Ross (1989) feels however that in some cases, students did reflect on issues of central importance. She suggests that the programme marks a step in the right direction because students' ability to recognise elements of good performance is consistent with Schon's (1987) view that the first step in the development of reflective competence is being able to recognise elements of competent performance. She notes however that future research will need to focus on the understanding of students' reflective abilities and the means for evaluating these reflective abilities. Attention will also have to be paid to the development of instructor insight and abilities.

It is suggested (Wildman and Niles, 1987) that there is a need to develop the student teachers' ability to describe and analyse what goes on in classrooms because teachers' understandings as demonstrated in the Beginning Teacher Assistance Program (Wildman and Niles, 1987) were utilitarian and not analytical enough for the development of reflection. The researchers also conclude that the goal of reflective practitioner is viable, though it will require strong and reliable support systems for the students so that there can be insight sharing and collaborative problem solving. Such support will have to include both emotional and technical dimensions.

Lucas (1988a) suggests that the research-based teacher education course at Sheffield successfully developed reflective abilities with regard to day-to-day problems, but that this falls short of what

is actually required. In order to develop systematic reflection (Lucas, 1988c) and a disposition to enquiry as "habits of mind", there is a need to act on what students perceive to be relevant. Furthermore, educators have to be aware of students' vulnerability in the face of being confronted by changing situations and pressures recurrently.

Despite efforts to structure an early field learning experience component, Calderhead (1988a) reports that students underwent qualitatively different types of learning experiences. These ranged from a modelling experience, an accumulation of practical tips, opportunity to reflect critically on one's own and others' practice, opportunity for self discovery and an occasion for hardening of existing attitudes towards teaching and teachers. What students did value were the variety of lessons, classroom involvement with both teachers and pupils, and the efforts of supervisors and teachers who were supportive. The early field experience also confirmed that there are different student expectations for the experience. While some wanted to observe a variety of practices in order to develop their own style, others wanted guidance and structuring from teachers, while yet others wanted to learn from their own trials and errors.

Calderhead (1988b) points out that a study of the effects of field experiences on student primary teachers' professional learning reveals shallow levels of analysis of both their own and the supervising teachers' practices. The students did learn about children management, curriculum materials, classroom procedures and classroom "realities". Such learning, however, occurred through the students' own experiences of difficulty. The students were not oriented to learning from their experiences, and did not know what could be analysed, and how. What is significant though is that student teachers perceived the whole experience as a kind of 'driving test' which they had to pass by demonstrating their competence through 'model' lessons. Such model lessons were based on their own and cooperating teachers' perceptions of tutor expectations. Further impediments to learning included: confusion over expectations, perceived inconsistencies of college demands, and beliefs that tutors themselves were confused about objectives. Tutor feedback was dismissed because the students often could not understand the tutors' more sophisticated interpretations, and the fact that many of the issues dealt with by tutors had not been noticed by the students, so much so that they believed that the tutors were being unduly fussy. Furthermore, the supervising teacher, rather than the tutor was seen to be more realistic, and valuable. The supporting teacher was also valued as a model.

A number of studies have focused on the enquiry oriented elementary programme at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, and reveal that it achieves some but not all of its goals (Zeichner and Liston, 1987). Tabachnik and Zeichner (1984) found that students entered the programme with different perspectives, and these remained essentially unchanged (but more refined) by the time they completed the course. Zeichner and Grant (1981) similarly found that student teachers' views on pupil-control ideology remained unchanged by the end of the course, and that the orientations of the cooperating teacher had little effect on the students' views. Little

evidence was also found of any attempts by the student teachers to implement one of the goals of the programme, which was to implement a multicultural view of education (Grant, 1981).

Furlong et al. (1988) suggest from interview data, that the habit of reflective awareness had been ingrained in and had influenced the practices of probationers on the PGCE course offered by the University of Sussex. This finding was similarly corroborated by headmasters and senior colleagues (in interviews) who were impressed by the level and awareness of educational matters displayed by the Sussex students, especially with regard to a personal philosophy of education, analytic ability and the premium placed on professional development.

Zeichner and Liston (1987) admit that a number of factors work against stated enquiry / reflective programme goals. These include: the historically dominant and common sense view that student teaching is apprenticeship; student teachers' feelings that time spent on reflection is time taken away from the more valuable tasks of learning and demonstrating skills and knowledge; work and time constraints on supervisors; structural constraints on cooperating teachers and university faculty; and the existing dominant view that sees teachers as technicians who should merely implement decisions made elsewhere.

The findings of Jackson (1968), confirmed by Clark and Yinger (1975) and Lortie (1975), - that teachers in fact approach their jobs intuitively - must raise doubts about the possibility of training reflective teachers, especially at the pre-service level. Jackson (1968) questions the possible effectiveness of reflective teachers in the classrooms, and suggests that

> "...it is quite possible that such paragons of virtue...would actually have a deuce of a time coping in any sustained way with a class of tired third graders or a playyard full of nursery tots" (p.151).

Contexts

The term context is usually associated with existing elements of a situation in which an event or action is perceived to have taken place. Contexts cannot be neatly divided into discrete factors, and is "experienced as a gestalt, with each piece intertwining with and influencing all others" (Hayes and Ross, 1989, p.337).

The following assumptions formed the basis of a study (Veal et al., 1989) of the relationship between school context and learning to teach: learning to teach is enhanced by reflection-in and - on the actions of teaching; sustained reflection is not accidental but the result of supportive leadership; reflective contexts provide access to information and create structures for the exchange of information; and that reflective contexts are characterised by question asking and searching (individually or in collaboration) for answers.

Veal et al. (1989) found that

> "administrators are vital to the process of reflection because of their ability to structure time for teachers to work together. There is some evidence that successful collaboration requires the slow and sometimes painful process of simply working together and that a pattern of successful work experience must be accumulated before reflective collaboration can begin" (p.324).

Work environments which were open tended to be more positively viewed than closed departmental structures which did not allow for interaction and common problem solving. Investigations of collaborative work patterns revealed that where successful experiences of collaboration and reflection exist, they provide the basis for more complex forms of collaboration and reflection. Veal et al. (1989) caution that to "...encourage teachers to discuss their learning needs and to seek help requires a supportive atmosphere that does not exist currently in schools" (p. 331-332).

In a study of the impact of two contrasting school contexts on reflection, Hayes and Ross (1989) report that a leadership which is supportive, reflective and trusting encourages reflection, whereas a leadership that controls and directs discourages reflection. They also found that the organisation of the school and the type of resources provided can affect the development of reflection. Time had to be provided for reflection and flexibility in the use of resources accommodated in order to have positive benefits. Communication and discussions between the administration and the teachers are perceived to be important elements. Hayes and Ross (1989) suggest that in order to develop reflective teachers, teacher educators will have to attend to the educational contexts in which the graduates will teach.

School environments that support reflection are led by strong supportive administrators (Wildman and Niles, 1987), and by those who value teacher decision-making (Ashton and Webb, 1986) nourished through the idea of teachers' continuous development (Wildman and Niles, 1987). Reflection is more likely to occur if teachers are given the time for reflection (Wildman and Niles, 1987). Supervisory behaviour has to move away from one typified by control, superiority, certainty, neutrality and evaluation (Gibb, 1969) if it is to reduce teacher defensiveness. Leadership should allow for dissent and conflict and encourage experimentation (Goodman, 1984, 1985b).

The contexts of training often conflict with reflective goals. Common perception has it that learning to teach requires being thrown into the deep end and learning for oneself (Lanier and Little, 1986; Calderhead, 1987b), thus devaluing the need for analysis, reflection and evaluation of practice. The need for certification also leads student teachers into conforming with established

achievement criteria, preferring to " pass the test" rather than develop reflective habits (Calderhead, 1989). Attempts to define the goals of teacher education in terms of self-evaluative goals, in the belief that this enhances reflection, have apparently failed (Zeichner and Liston, 1987). Often cooperating teachers who perform as teacher educators or supervisors (Boothroyd, 1979; Grimmett and Ratzlaff, 1986), and the socialising pressures of the field sites (Seperson and Joyce, 1973) amount to negative influences. Within two weeks, cooperating teachers became more valued than the student teachers' instructors, especially on student teachers' practices (Richardson-Koehler, 1988). Classrooms that reflected conservative attitudes and practices, (and where curriculum and instruction were highly structured, predetermined and mechanistic), make the implementation of enquiry-oriented seminars difficult (Goodman, 1983).

Generally, problems have been identified with regard to the perceptions of the three people usually involved in the field experience setting-the student teacher, college supervisor, and the cooperating teacher. College supervisors and cooperating teachers diverged in terms of interpretations of their roles (Beswick et al.,1980) as well as the role of the student teacher in the school (Gettone, 1980). Expectations about field experiences also varied between all three parties (Tittle, 1974).

Studies of field experiences also reveal that, in many of the placements, there is a sequence of experiences, but the focus is on the amount of time that the students spend on each activity rather than on proceeding from less to more involved classroom activities (Guyton and McIntyre, 1990). One study of teaching reports that student teachers were involved in only a narrow range of classroom activities over which they had a little control. Their interactions with their pupils were brief, usually related to the task at hand, while their teaching was routine, mechanical and generally amounted to taking the children through prescribed lessons within given periods of time (Tabachnik, 1979). O'Neal et al. (1986) found that student teaching tended to be similar in different settings (for example, university compared with public school.

Several studies consistently indicate that field-based experiences contribute to the development of "utilitarian teaching perspectives" where teaching is separated from its ethical and political dimensions, and the technique of teaching becomes an end in itself, and consequently, student teachers accept the practices they observe in field placements as the upper and outer limits of what is possible (Zeichner, 1981-1982).

One explanation given for a lack of teacher reflection is based on ideas of teacher development. Reference has already been made to Fuller and Brown's(1975) stages of student teacher concerns. Doyle and Ponder (1977) suggest that the lack of a reflective stance is an adaptive response and a natural consequence of the fast paced and unpredictable nature of classroom life. Their conclusion arises out of the use of an ecological model whereby environmental variables shape and limit the range of possible classroom actions. Calderhead (1987) identifies phases of student teachers' conceptions of the teaching task. At the beginning, there was a need to fit into the school's and

supervising teacher's routines and expectations. A pragmatic survivalist approach usually characterises this stage. In the middle of the placement, student teachers become conscious of being assessed, and they concentrate on demonstrating approved behaviour as signs of competence, and winning the supervisors' praises. Once such 'competence' has been demonstrated, they begin to experiment and find their own way, usually characterised by minimal supervision. Katz (1974) suggests that, typically, three to five years are required before teachers become mature. In this regard, this researcher is able to confirm that trials of the video materials (when in the course of preparation) showed that while student teachers were more interested in observing the behaviour of the teacher, experienced teachers, on the other hand, tended to focus on the behaviour of the pupils.

These studies suggest that survival needs have to be satisfied before teachers feel they have the knowledge and confidence to experiment and be fully concerned about pupils. It would appear to be unrealistic to expect truly reflective orientations developing fully within the period of training.

Strategies

Cruickshank et al. (1981b) conducted a study to evaluate the effectiveness of Reflective Teaching, and concluded that it significantly prompted students' ability to think, and to express themselves in a complex manner. Reporting that few studies have been conducted on the generic notion of reflective teaching, Cruickshank and Metcalf (1990) suggest that the few studies that have been conducted at the Ohio State University seem to indicate that in the main, the strategy has been effective, with reflection resulting in higher order thinking about teaching. There is however the likelihood that the training strategy may have to be modified wherever necessary.

Cruickshank (1986a) defines microteaching as a

> "brief encounter in which pre-service teachers teach five to twenty-minute lessons in their subject field...to a small group of pupils who are usually peers. The purpose of microteaching lessons is to [give] practice [in each] specific technical skill of teaching until the pre-service teacher reaches an acceptable level of performance" (quoted by Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990, p.481).

Training studies generally suggest that, though microteaching is popular, it is not easy to modify the behavioural repertoire of pre-service and inservice teachers to include the so-called microteaching skills (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990). Microteaching efforts are enhanced when educators use modelling more suitably, for instance, by using visual rather than written examples of the skills to be learned (MacLeod, 1987). Copeland (1977, 1986) found that training is facilitated when it provides for learners to see significant people such as the cooperating teachers using the skills that the students need to learn, or when they recognise or reward learners' use of

these skills. However, despite " the enormity of research endeavours, there are few definite conclusions which can be drawn about the...effectiveness of microteaching" (MacLeod, 1987, p.538). Wagner (1973) found that cognitive-discrimination training (in which student teachers learned ***when*** specific skills were appropriate, but did not practice them) had greater effects on classroom performance than microteaching (where students learned *how* to perform the teaching skills). Gliessman et al. (1979) similarly found that teaching skills, when learned as concepts, but without practice, led to increased use in classrooms, and use increased with greater concept mastery.

Another training device is the use of protocols, which in their original sense were audiovisual or written records of naturally occurring classroom events or phenomena (Smith et al., 1969). For example, if pupils' social talk was the topic to be investigated, cameras would be placed in the classroom in the hope that it would capture such an event naturally. However, they have become recordings of contrived events to illustrate concepts that teachers should acquire (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990). Describing studies conducted on the use of protocols, Cruickshank and Metcalf (1990) conclude that people trained through the use of protocols find the experience pleasurable, and do learn target concepts. However, such learners are able to show only some of the concepts in their teaching, and they gain greatest benefits when such training includes both concept acquisition and practice. Still at "issue is the purpose of protocol materials: Should they illuminate events and phenomena of special significance to teachers, help teachers acquire concepts important to teaching, provide practice in teaching skills, or achieve some combination therefore? Should protocol materials be used for education and / or training?" (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990, p. 485).

Simulation, an alternative instrument for skill training, involves elements of real situations being presented to learners in order to provide them with awareness, learning and practice (Cruickshank, 1988). This includes classroom problem solving. In general, while simulation has been used to recreate real classroom life, usually through visual images, focus on the effectiveness of the strategy has been scant, and claims have to be accepted with caution. Studies report that simulation need not have one to one correspondence with 'reality' in order to allow subjects to be trained to reproduce appropriate behaviour. Subjects find such simulations believable, and are perceived to have less classroom problems following their training (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990).

Conferences, which refer to the formal discussions between student teacher and cooperating teacher or college supervisor following student teaching, and usually focusing on an episode of the observed teaching, are not a frequent occurrence (Tittle, 1974), and are usually clustered more at the end of the student teaching experience (Killian and McIntyre, 1988). Student teaching experiences during conferences, seminars and workshops reveal that the students assumed a passive role in their interactions with cooperating teacher supervisors, who tended to focus on

directions, procedural issues and classroom management rather than reflection and analysis of teaching. Furthermore, conferences involving the college supervisors also emphasised teaching techniques and classroom management rather than the stated goals of reflection amongst others (Tabachnik et al.,1979; Richardson-Koehler, 1988). In a study of the congruence between expressed programme goals of enquiry and the quality of discourses between the supervisors and students during conferences, Zeichner and Liston, (1985a) found that 19.6 percent of the total 260 minutes of discourse amounted to reflective communication, and that the students' conceptual levels seemed to influence the quality of discourse. Thus, the higher the student teachers' conceptual level, the higher the level of reflective discourse, suggesting that the supervisors adjusted their discourse to the students' level.

Seminars, unlike conferences, tend to be group processes typically involving one college supervisor and a number of student teachers, and a wider focus. Seminars, like conferences tend to encourage an emphasis on mastery of technique and classroom management, rather than theory and reflection (Lanier and Little, 1986). They are not usually issue oriented, and do not facilitate critical thought, analysis, and reflection (Tabachnik et al., 1979). While college supervisors claimed to use seminars to raise broader educational issues, most focused on concrete teaching incidents (Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1982).

Goodman (1983) suggests that the role of seminars does not depend on the stated purpose, but on how these were interpreted to perform either a liberalising, collaborating or inquiring role. The collaborating function, wherein school practices and beliefs were supported, tended to be the predominant role of the seminars.

Supervision is a key factor in most teacher preparation programmes, and has been significant for approaches influenced by Schon's (1983, 1987) suggestions on coaching. Zeichner and Tabachnik (1983, 1987) found however that supervisors in an enquiry oriented programme tended to implement the programme goals in different ways ranging from technical-instrumental, personal-growth and critical orientations. They also found that every supervisor utilised aspects of all three orientations in their supervision. When cooperating teachers were prepared for reflective or enquiry oriented supervision however, student teachers seemed less inclined towards conservatism (Zeichner and Liston, 1985b), and supervision education seems to have improved the communication between cooperating teachers and student teachers (Painter and Brown, 1979).

Guyton and McIntyre (1990) report that their survey of various supervisory approach studies reveal that the use of the clinical supervision model has lead to positive outcomes such as improved supervision, positive self assessment, improved teaching and attitude to teaching and the generation of preferred behaviours. Horizontal evaluation facilitated student teacher analysis and reflection. A reflective teaching supervision model led to more complex analyses of teaching and a more favourable attitude toward teaching (p.528).

Calderhead (1987) points out that little is known about the types of interpretive frameworks that teachers use, or the kinds of analyses and evaluations that they make, and reveals that student teachers' general quality of reflection tended to be shallow, rarely considering in detail the origins, purposes and contexts of their actions. Even when the students were engaged in experimentation, and by implication were at an advanced stage where they were relatively confident and competent, their reflection was perceived as inadequate. A similar kind of finding is reported even in courses aimed at inculcating reflection (Borko et al., 1988; Feiman-Nemser and Buchman, 1987). Reflection in the general sense of being able to evaluate one's own work may require not only confidence and competence, but also knowledge and skills, and may in fact, possibly, be developed only after basic mastery and a sense of comfort has been achieved (Russell, 1988).

Korthagen (1988) suggests that what is important is the learning orientation of students to develop critical ability. He suggests that those with an internal orientation could more objectively evaluate their own performances, while those with an external orientation had greater difficulty in doing this, and tended to rely on modelling other teachers, and depended on tutors for guidance.

Despite conducting courses which attempted improvements on traditional courses and encouraged students to test theories against their own experience, the suspicion that students were not 'reflective' enough led to the discovery that students were not refining their own personal theories (Griffiths and Tann, 1992). Following on from Van Manen (1990) (that there are 3 levels of reflection, each higher than the other, and superseding it; i.e. the first relating to technical application, second to underlying assumptions of action and third to 'critical reflectivity'), Griffiths and Tann (1992) suggest that reflection has different levels (and purposes), and also assert that all three levels are both necessary and important to the reflective action researcher at different stages.

They propose the five following levels, as well as actions:

A. **Reflection-in-action**: which is likely to be personal and private, comprising:

1.*Act-react* (rapid reaction), where action is almost immediate and automatic;
2.*React-monitor-react / rework-plan-act (repair)*, where teachers pause momentarily to make 'on-the-spot' adjustment, often hardly noticeable;

B. **Reflection-on-action**: which is likely to be interpersonal and collegial, comprising:

3. *Act-observe-analyse and evaluate-plan-act. (review),* which is slower. and happens after actions are completed, thereby modifying plans;
4. *Act-observe systematically-analyse rigorously-evaluate-plan-act (research),* which is

likely to be focused and collegial; and

5. *Act-observe systematically-analyse rigorously-evaluate-retheorise-plan-act (retheorising and reformulating).* At this level, reflection is rigorous, abstract, and is formulated and re-formulated over months and years.

Further, they suggest that different levels of reflection each come with a language appropriate to the articulation of what is at issue at each level. The gap between personal and public theory is often one of language. Student teachers and teachers use language that uses more everyday than academic language. So teachers have difficulty trying to make connections between personal theory, academic theory, and everyday planning and evaluation. While the planning and evaluation uses everyday language, 'research' and 'retheorisation' use academic language, and personal theories depend on images and metaphors. Therefore teachers need to be comfortable with the different 'languages'. It is worth noting that language in reflection appears to be crucial, but it is not analysed sufficiently. It seems likely that this will be the area of future research in reflection.

The review of research findings listed above covers a number of aspects of teacher education. While it was hoped that the findings provide encouraging evidence of advances and cause for optimism, unfortunately this does not always seem to be the case. Some of the significant points will be highlighted in the following discussion.

Discussion

This summary discussion will attempt to place in perspective a number of points arising out of the review of reflective teaching. In so doing, the discussion will reconsider the following questions :

- What is meant by reflection and reflective teaching ?
- What are the substantive issues involved in , and arising out of the various approaches ?
- What support is there from research efforts to substantiate any claims for reflective approaches ?
- What are the implications for teacher education ?
- What are the implications for this research proposal ?

These questions will now be addressed under broad subheadings: reflective teaching, issues, research, teacher education, and research proposal .

Reflective teaching

Briefly, recent approaches to reflective teacher education may be considered to have been influenced by one of the following : Dewey (whereby education attempts to instil positive values

and a mental attitude of responsible problem solving), Schon (whereby teachers' practical knowledge and teacher research becomes the focus of emphasis), technical orientations (emphasising the way problems are solved), interpretive orientations (emphasising exploration and interpretation of contexts and personally held views), and moral orientations. Moral orientations may include the deliberative (deliberating on questions of right and wrong in order to solve problems), relational (emphasising an ethical ideal of caring), or critical (leading to informed action arising out of ethical, political and moral stances).

What is evident from the literature is that there is no clear agreement as to what exactly reflection comprises. Feiman-Nemser's (1990) conclusion that reflective teaching is not so much a programmatic emphasis as a generic professional disposition perhaps best sums up current opinion among educationists.

Another conclusion to be drawn is that reflective teaching approaches have in many cases built upon traditions of the ideal or good teacher. Many of these approaches seem to have been built upon prevailing ideologies, pragmatism, and the moral convictions of individuals and institutions. As a result, it seems that the approaches have sometimes tried to accommodate numerous educational elements (in the form of course content) as well as aspects of different approaches. Such combinations have included, for example, Dewey's reflection as well as critical reflection (Armaline and Hoover, 1989), Dewey's, Schon's, and Zeichner and Liston's (1987) views (Ross, 1989), or Dewey's reflection and moral as well as critical perspectives (Zeichner and Liston, 1987). While this is not a criticism, it seems that numerous approaches represent preferred moral positions to ideal teacher education sometimes based on vague, loosely defined and quite often conflicting positions, all united though, by a common lack of empirical findings to support the positions advocated. The problem posed by such a situation is that it commits institutions, teacher educators and students to funds, time and effort toward ends that are conflicting, unclear, and quite often not based on available empirical evidence. Teacher education then becomes a victim of rhetorical advocacy, rather than proof of sound professional education based on and confirmed by research.

Issues

Dewey, recognised as a 'grand theorist' (Carr and Kemmis, 1986), is venerated, and his views on reflection and enquiry are often tacitly embedded in teacher education as pointed out earlier. Schon's (1983, 1987, 1988) views however have drawn substantial criticism which seem to cloud the issue and miss currently pedagogical concerns. While it is acknowledged that Schon does not provide a complete picture or description of professional knowledge, nor satisfactorily define the terms he uses, much of the criticism seems to have questioned minor aspects, and not recognised the substantial contribution that Schon (1983, 1987, 1988) makes by drawing attention to the fact that experts or professionals have a kind of knowledge built up cumulatively in the contexts of

practice. A reflective process has, somehow, to be incorporated in the education of teachers. Much of the criticism with regard to teacher education, in particular, seems to arise out of considerations of problems of school and college administration (time, funds, structures, and leadership), and context (time, workload, classrooms, school realities and problems of supervision). Schon (1988) concedes that his proposals are idealised and that there will be pragmatic problems. However, in raising such issues as teacher knowledge, research, coach-student relationship and reflection-in-action, Schon has highlighted matters that teacher education can fruitfully address in the development of teachers and teaching.

On a positive note, Schon's recommendations for reflection-in-action, supervision and coaching, and research which provides 'teacher stories' seem to have led to similar views among many experts. Such similar views and foci can be seen in writings on new forms of field experience. Echoes of Schon's views can also be observed in some of the interpretive and moral approaches (but with different emphases), in the form of teachers' practical knowledge (image, metaphor and narratives), critical enquiry (research), deliberation (best moral solution) and relationships (caring for the best interests of the learners).

These issues will be contextualised in the perspective of research findings below.

Research

The review of research findings indicated that most claims for reflection have little empirical basis. At most, there are indications of partial reflective gains (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Calderhead, 1988b; Ross, 1989; Wubbels and Korthagen, 1990). More significantly, student abilities, including their dispositions toward reflection and existing reflective abilities, seem to exert an influence on further reflective gains (Zeichner and Liston, 1985a; Korthagen, 1988; Wubbels and Korthagen, 1990). In other words, the implication is that if students have already have reflective dispositions, reflective courses benefit them most. In view of the findings that student perspectives remain generally unchanged at the end of courses (Tabachnik and Zeichner, 1984) and that students have utilitarian perspectives (Zeichner 1981 /1982; Calderhead, 1988b) especially in view of certification requirements, it seems likely that students will often be able to produce (Calderhead, 1988b) or even "fake" the kind of expected behaviour, including reflective behaviour, in order to merely satisfy tutors. Thus it may well be that even reported positive outcomes ascribed to reflective courses may not give the true picture.

An issue connected to the above discussion is the problem of how to recognise (Munby and Russell, 1989) and to evaluate (Ross, 1989) reflective ability. In other words, how does one recognise a truly reflective orientation as compared to utilitarian stances adopted by students, and how does one assign value (in coursework and tests) to the various elements that make up reflection? How will a teacher educator differentiate between or evaluate two students if, for

example, one student is extremely capable (in the technical sense), while the other is committed to reflection (in whatever orientation) but is perhaps slow to act because of the tendency to deliberate? A moral dilemma presents itself for reflective teacher educators who, while being committed to reflective goals, have to accept and evaluate student teachers with a technical orientation (often developed through existing and entrenched societal values).

While the findings seem to suggest that, where there has been specific training (as in the training of supervisors and cooperating teachers, and through thematic approaches), there has been an increase in the kind of required behaviour, the problem at the student level seems to be twofold. First, courses and programmes designed to increase reflection do not guarantee success, especially if students are not disposed to reflect. Second, the effects of training do not seem to persist for long, and too little research has examined long term effects, especially for 'ingrained' reflection. Moreover, the literature reviewed suggests that students do not have the kind of experience or training to view life in classrooms and the teaching / learning process quite as problematically, and at the depth required by advocates of reflection. The paradox suggested by Schon (1987) is particularly applicable in this context. The students, in most cases, do not have the necessary experience of education (particularly in terms of problems), to think like more experienced educationists, and they cannot be expected to do so without gaining the necessary experience. As Calderhead (1988b) points out, students learnt out of their own experiences of difficulty in practice settings; and in all likelihood they will continue to learn selectively from their own experience of teaching in the contexts of their work. Educators therefore may be unreasonable in expecting the development of reflective orientations as a result of input from a few courses, given the likelihood that most of the students have probably never needed to reflect at the levels required, and their experiences of life probably do not confirm a need to develop such an (often slow and painful) orientation.

Another important finding is the increasing awareness of teachers' knowledge (including practical knowledge) as built up through the interaction of their observations, knowledge, values and experiences (as students and as teachers), and also the finding that this kind of knowledge affects the way teachers see the classroom environment. Both of these findings seem to be of significance. They suggest that the education of pre-service teachers must work from the individual student's experiences. New learning experiences need to develop out of students' beliefs, values and experiences, and build upon these in ways that are, as far as possible, tailored to their individual needs. Schon's views on coaching and the relationship between coach and student seem particularly relevant in this context. Great demands will be made on such reflective supervisors or coaches in terms of their time, patience, knowledge (of teaching, learning, learners and subject matter), effort and commitment. But the envisaged result of professional learning may be well worth the effort, and may in fact represent the only realistic way in which reflective practitioners can develop. Many of the problems of reflection that have been reported seem to be linked with expectations of outcomes without the necessary input in terms of effort and guidance.

Such guidance will perhaps have to be total, as in the craft traditions, where the expert takes on the responsibility of training at least one novice. The craft tradition implies a one-to-one relationship, responsibility, and relevance arising out of the context of work, immediacy, and observable expertise that demonstrates effectiveness. In most teacher education contexts, the reality is that student teachers have a full timetable that does not allow much time for reflection, have numerous (often conflicting) expectations, requirements, obligations and viewpoints to satisfy, and mentors who do not always do what they preach. In the face of such difficulties, students usually find little support from sympathetic tutors, nor an understanding of student problems (especially in the field experience component) because they are not physically present all the time during their period of practice in the way that the craft tradition demands. No wonder then that the cooperating teachers become more valued than college mentors (Calderhead, 1988b), who appear to be twice removed from being able to provide solutions by not being school teachers themselves and not being around to demonstrate support and expert problem solving during the period of field experience. In most cases, tutors make evaluative visits, and inevitably become identified with an evaluatory role. In view of the above, it seems unlikely that true reflective orientations can develop without radical changes to teacher education.

Teacher education

One major factor often forgotten in teacher education expectations is the limitation of time in achieving the desired outcomes. Teacher educators take on a major undertaking in attempting to, for example, bring about a reflective orientation (where perhaps very little existed previously) within institutional contexts and the time at their disposal. It seems a daunting task to expect even reflective dispositions of the sort proposed by Dewey, because what is required is to develop a habitual mental way of approaching life itself. It also means developing personal values. To expect any teacher education programme to be able to achieve this seems unrealistic.

In such circumstances, the best that teacher education might achieve is to develop teachers' existing knowledge bases in the context of practice, provide support to overcome students' fears and problems so that they learn to build confidence in their own judgment and ability, and demonstrate expertise . To do these, it may be necessary to model reflection, show and, if possible, transmit the accumulated knowledge of the profession, attempt to get students to see possible problems in otherwise taken-for-granted commonplaces of education, and perhaps build on the students 'linguistic-conceptual systems' (Hills and Gibson, 1988) so that they may be able to participate and benefit from knowledge generated by the profession. The problem still remains one of balancing the need for educating and the need for evaluating.

Despite the above, it will be obvious that student teachers need to be trained to become aware of what has been happening (in the sense of what 'good' and 'bad' practices and processes are in existence in classrooms), what can happen (in terms of how the student teachers can benefit from

other people's experiences and add their own positive contributions toward learning in classrooms), and what should happen (from a justifiable moral position that seeks the best for learners). In order to be able to do these, teachers need to be informed, taught, and allowed to develop awareness of the world of education and awareness of themselves; all this however has to be reflected upon and internalised in order to lead to responsibility and accountability in teaching. For teacher education, this may have require seeking new directions. Such new directions could include reducing the workload to allow time for reflection, placing student teachers in schools from the beginning and getting them to spend part of the week in colleges, getting tutors to return to schools themselves as teachers for part of the week, or training a highly efficient group of cooperating teachers to become the major supervisors of student teachers.

Research proposal

Reflection as perceived by most of the approaches detailed so far in this thesis is different from the interpretation adopted by the team which designed the video materials forming the basis of this enquiry. Differences have included the scope, interpretation, input and the purpose of reflection in the various approaches

Reflection, as conceived in the design of the video package, is a process that makes one stop and think about whatever one perceives in order to develop an understanding that is built upon observation, description, explaining reasons and relating these to one's own personal knowledge, views and beliefs to lead to increased understanding, and to build up a personal store of knowledge and a repertoire of strategies and techniques. Wallace and Chakravarthy's (1989) and Wallace's (1991) approach to reflection are perhaps the greatest influences in the research design, in that the emphasis is on the process rather than any specific outcomes. Student teacher growth in this approach is considered to be a continuous and ongoing process that builds on experiences (which are both direct and indirect) interacting with their previous knowledge, beliefs and motivations in order to lead to new knowledge. Reflection then becomes a strategy that underlies the tasks in the package, designed to draw the attention of the students to what is perceived to be significant, thereby hopefully helping students to learn to see what can be significant (at least in the opinion of experienced teachers who designed the package) and overcoming the problem of students not being able to analyse in any depth, and not being able to look out for the elements that teacher educators perceive to be significant.

The focus of reflection in the package is on methodology in EFL / ESL teaching and as such, is smaller in scope compared to the other approaches. More important, the research attempts first, to evaluate the effects of video based materials (which in some ways resembles protocols described earlier), and second, to see if any reflective ability develops. As reflection in this approach is seen to be part of an ongoing process, the success of the materials have to be evaluated in terms of how they contribute to student teacher growth, knowledge and repertoire. The materials present

opportunities for building on what has happened and what can happen. They attempt to help students to think about what should happen, in the sense that they are encouraged to consider how the individual teacher conceptualises the lesson, but not necessarily from any moral standpoint.

The research will examine student reactions to the video as a medium in their professional education. In so doing, the research will examine student perceptions of the problems and strengths of video, and an approach to teacher education with regard to EFL/ESL methodology. In the process, student perceptions of whether the approach contributes to reflection, as well as whether it is valued will be focused upon in the research.

Conclusion

The chapter has reviewed numerous interpretations of reflection, and various strategies that have been utilised in developing student teacher reflection. The findings of research with regard to reflection in teaching have been reviewed and this research is contextualised within the earlier interpretations and reviews.

The next chapter narrows the focus of the thesis from teacher education in general to methodology in English language teaching, particularly with relevance to Malaysia.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Introduction

The belief that finding a 'proper' method of teaching will solve all learning problems is a fairly widespread one, if relatively naive. This belief has accounted for much of the energy and resources of experts and practitioners for more than a century (Howatt, 1984; Stern, 1983). Finding the methodological 'pot of gold' still fascinates even though much confusion exists with regards to the exact nature and role of methodology in language teaching. Despite numerous research and theoretical studies, "the concept of teaching itself is as yet the least clearly formulated" (Stern, 1983, p.497), while research or "theory that deals with the nature of second language teaching per se is scant..." (Richards, 1990, p. 3).

This chapter reviews various approaches to methodology in language teaching. A review is considered important for a number of reasons. First, the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials are aimed at developing student teacher expertise in English language teaching methodology. So, it is useful to understand the place of materials such as these in language teaching in general, and methodology in particular. Second, it is useful to appreciate how the observation of the teaching-learning process through video-based materials contributes to developing student teacher expertise, especially with regard to teacher education in methodology. Third, one of the aims of the materials is to develop student reflection. In this context, it is important to establish what constitutes methodology, what is deemed to be important in approaching methodology and what the students reflected on as a result of the materials.

The following sections attempt to clarify some of the main problems associated with the concept of methodology in the context of language education. In these sections, the following questions will be addressed:

1. How can language teaching be conceptualised with relevance to the focus of the study?
2. What is meant by language teaching methodology?
3. What are some of the major language teaching methods relevant to English language teaching in Malaysia?
4. What are the implications for teacher education in Malaysia?

A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

Language teaching and language learning.

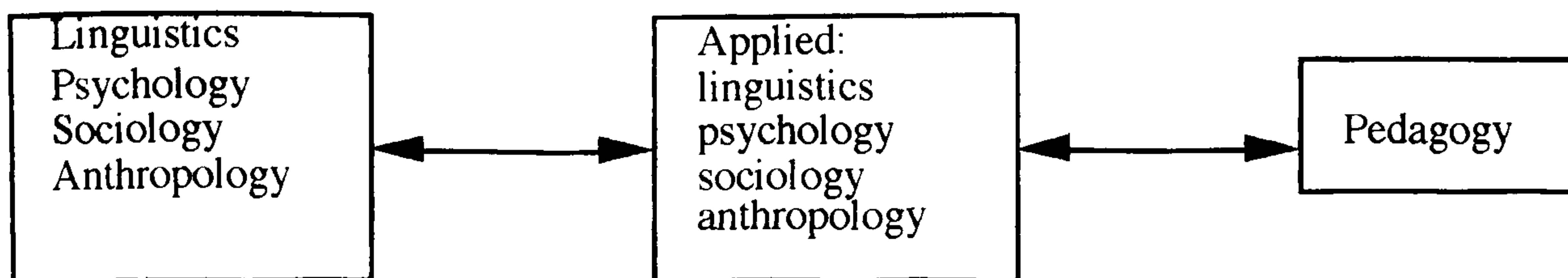
Language teaching may be broadly defined as "the activities which are intended to bring about language learning" (Stern, 1983, p.21). Language learning may similarly be perceived in broad terms as both the formal learning and the informal acquisition of languages. Such learning will involve learning skills, knowledge of the language, structure rules, meanings, correctness and socially appropriate ways of using the target language. Krashen (1981) distinguishes between 'acquisition' in second language development (the natural way in which language is acquired, as in the case of a child acquiring the first language without conscious focus on linguistic form) and 'learning' (where there is focus on the conscious learning of the language as in formal settings such as schools). While this is a useful distinction, a broader perspective is preferred for purposes of this research, and no distinction is made between the terms acquisition and learning. This is because modern language classrooms tend to contain a subtle mix of formal learning and informal acquisition, with little clear separation. For example, a Malaysian class in an urban setting may display a range of pupil abilities in English. In such a setting, a pupil with a low proficiency may partially learn but not necessarily internalise an item of grammar taught by the language teacher, and yet 'acquire' knowledge of the same grammatical item through listening to peers using it correctly. Similarly, opportunities for watching television and video programmes in English, or reading books in English may allow for the informal acquisition of aspects of the language, which may or may not have been 'learnt' in the language lessons.

Some conceptual frameworks.

Language teaching and learning are not context-free activities. They occur in the broader contexts of history, culture, ideology, politics, economics, values and institutions of societies. It is likely that variations in any of these variables will affect the teaching-learning process. In order to better understand the overall process, it is useful to present wide ranging but integrated, organising frameworks. A brief description is offered of a number of such frameworks. Each of these contains an element of 'truth', and together provide a relatively comprehensive basis for understanding key elements in language learning and teaching.

Campbell's (1980) model (Figure 2) of the relationship between theory and practice suggests that inguistics, psychology, sociology and anthropology in their applied form mediates between the heorists of those disciplines and the pedagogy of the practitioner.

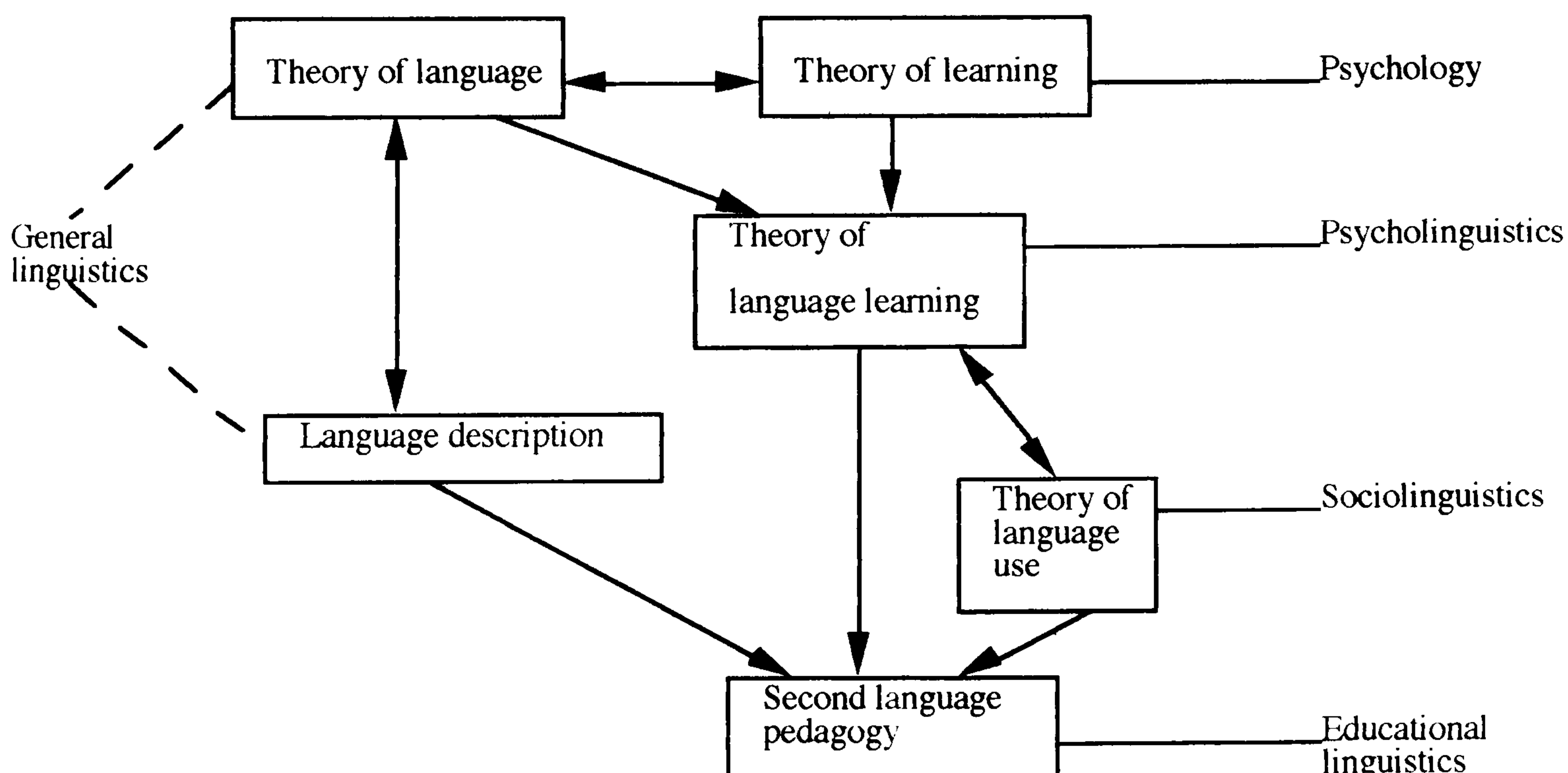
Figure 2: Campbell's (1980) model of the relationship between theory and practice



Source: Stern, 1983, p37.

Spolsky's (1980) model of educational linguistics (Figure 3) sees language teaching being informed by language description (based on a theory of language), a theory of language learning, and a theory of language use. These three are underpinned by psychology (specifically with regard to learning theory) and psycholinguistics (language learning), general linguistics (language description), and sociolinguistics (language use), which together provide 'educational linguistics'. Educational linguistics, in turn, informs second language language pedagogy. Spolsky (1980) and Campbell (1980) therefore emphasise the importance of the relationship between pedagogy and the major disciplines.

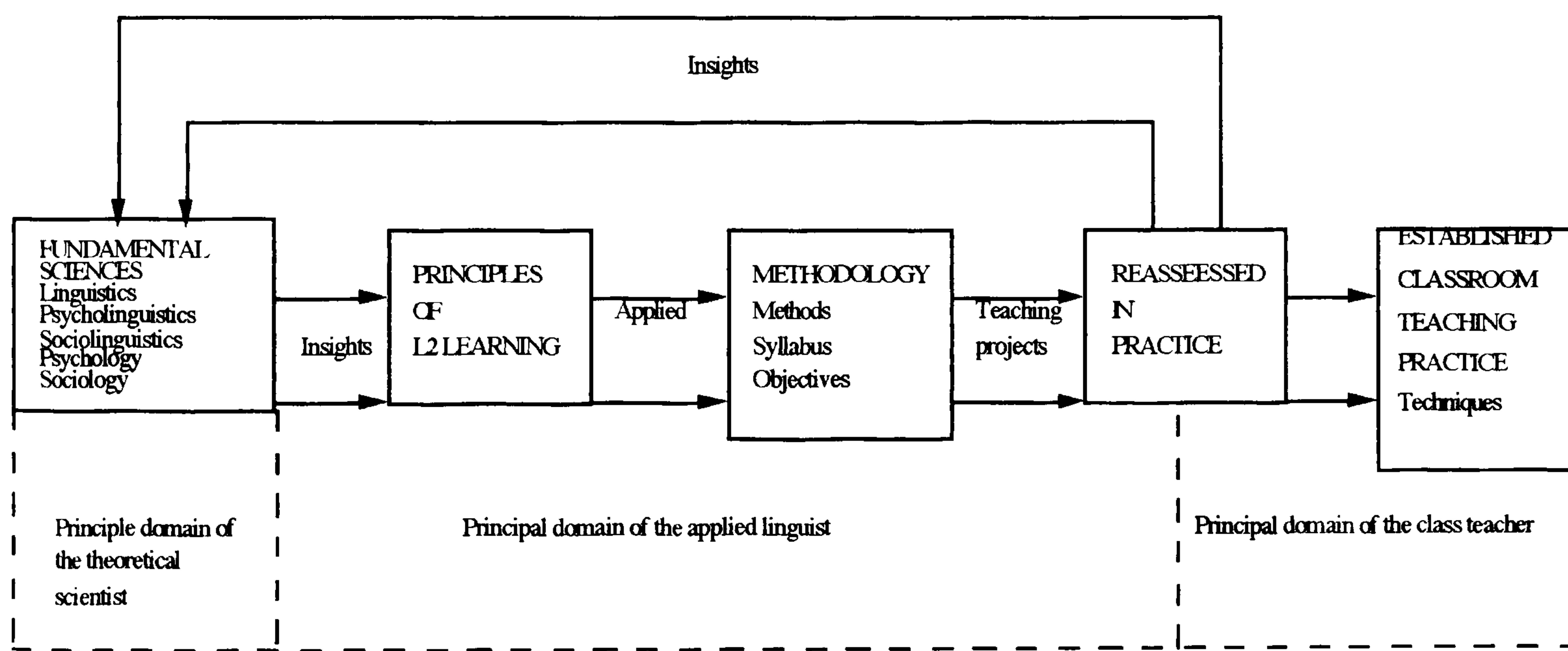
Figure 3: Spolsky's (1980) model of educational linguistics



Source: Stern, 1983, p.37.

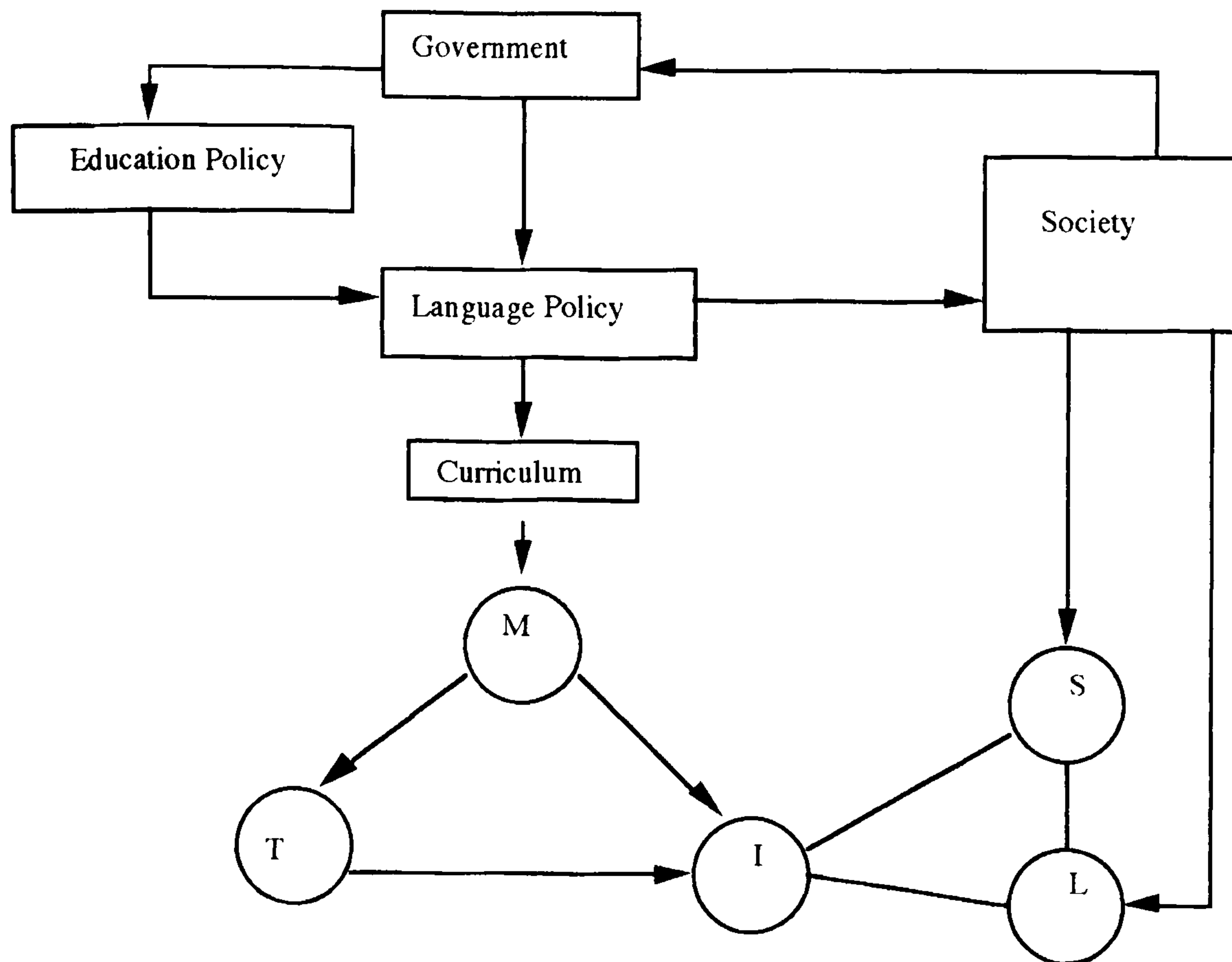
Ingram (1980) proposed a model (Figure 4) which sees the fundamental sciences (linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, psychology and sociology) providing insights for the formulation of second language learning principles. When these principles are applied, they provide for methodology (methods, syllabuses and objectives). The teaching projects which arise out of methodology provide techniques and established classroom practices. Assessment of the projects that arise out of methodology help not only to inform classroom practice, but also the fundamental sciences in turn. In this model, the fundamental sciences belong to the area of the theoretical scientist, practice is in the area of the classroom practitioner, while the remaining areas belong to the applied linguist's domain (1980). Stern (1983) suggests that, despite built-in feedback and interaction assumptions, these models are basically unidirectional from language sciences to practice, reflective of the 'applied science' model (Wallace and Chakravarthy, 1989).

Figure 4: Ingram's (1980) model for the development of language teaching practice



Source: Stern, 1983, p.38.

Mackey's (1970) interaction model of language teaching, learning and policy (Figure 5) advocates specific aspects which need to be studied in the context of a broad theoretical perspective. The connected variables in this model are government policy, educational policy, language policy, society and curriculum. Curriculum is subsumed by two triangles comprising 'MTI' (method and materials variables, teacher variables, and instruction variables) and 'ISL' (instruction variables, sociocultural variables and learner variables).



M=Method and material variables: texts, tapes,films

T=Teacher variables: what the teacher does

I=Instruction variables: what the learner gets

S=Sociocultural variables: what the environment does

L=Learner variables: what the learner does

Figure 5

Mackey's (1970) interaction model of language learning, teaching and policy

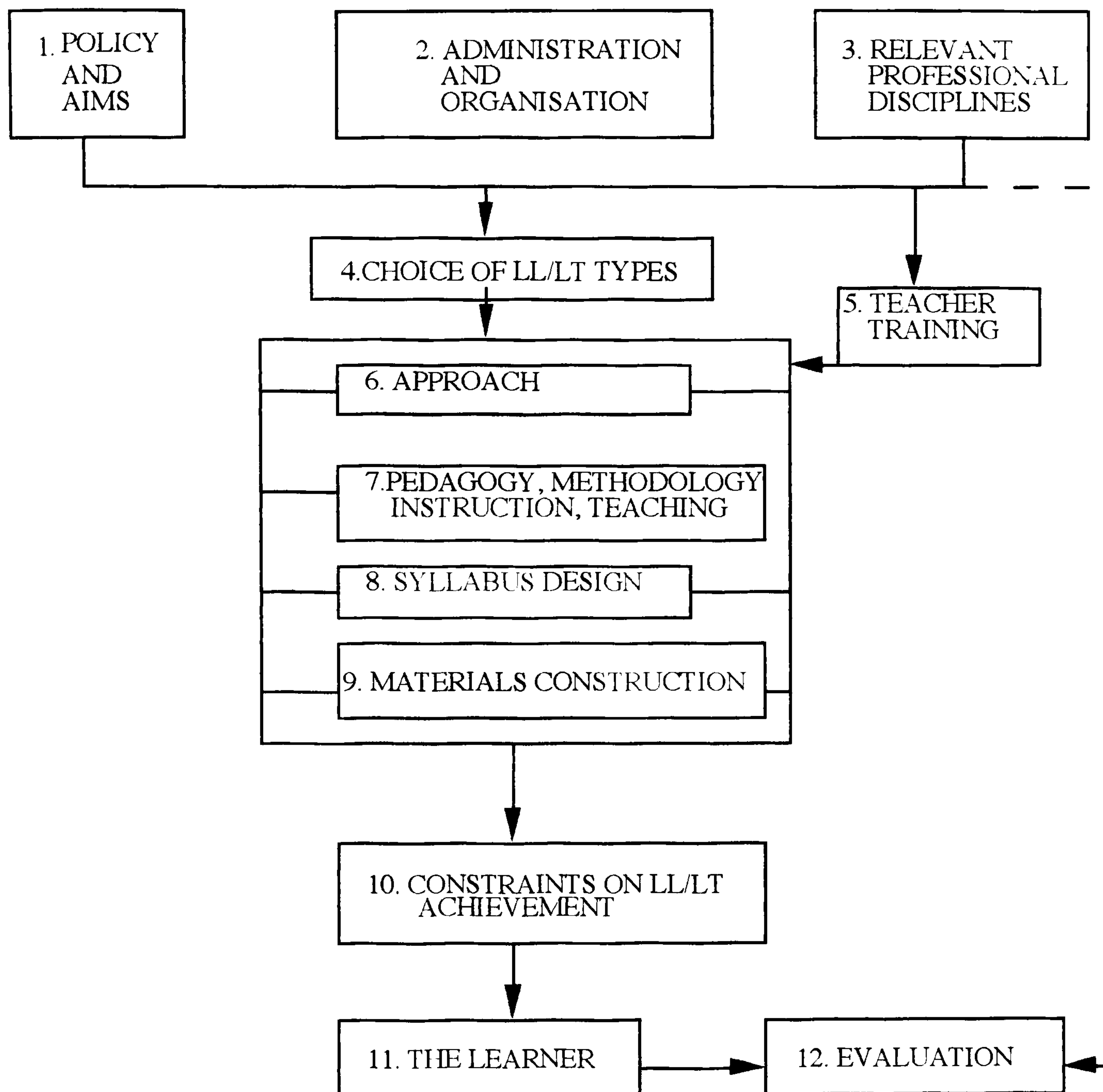
Source: Stern, 1983, p.40.

Strevens (1977) proposed a model consisting of twelve variables (Figure 6).

Teaching is initiated by:

1. Policy and aims;
2. Administration and Organisation; and
3. Professional disciplines which are relevant.

Figure 6
Strevens' (1976, 1977) model of the language learning / language teaching process



(*Source:Stern, 1983, p.42*).

The next six elements describe the aspects of implementation. These are:

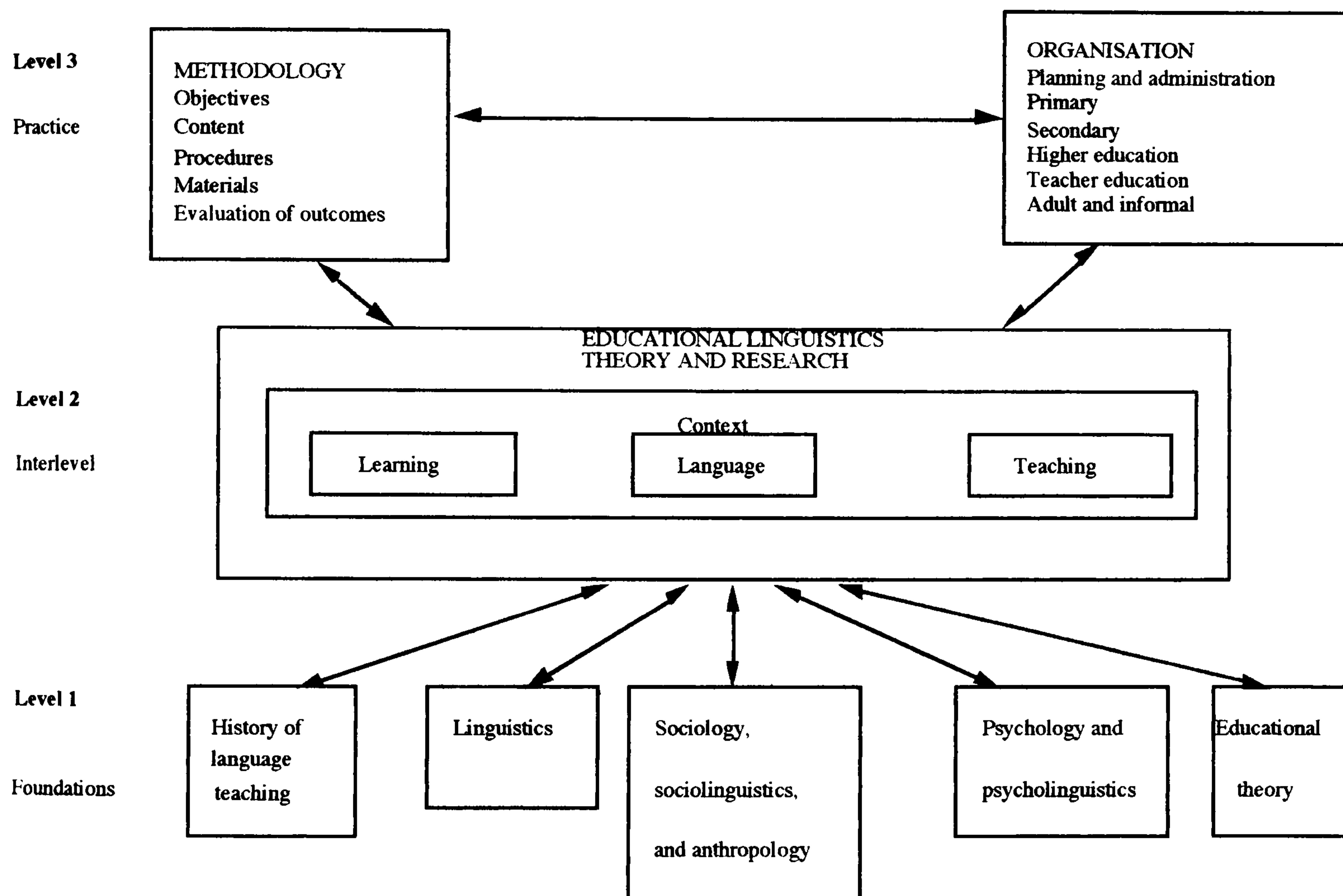
4. Choice of Language Learning/ Teaching Types;
5. Teacher Training;
6. Approach;
7. Pedagogy, Methodology, Instruction and Teaching;
8. Syllabus Design; and
9. Materials Construction.

The last three elements, which complete learning outcomes are:

10. Constraints on Language Learning/Teaching Achievement,
11. The Learner; and
12. Evaluation.

Stern (1983) has proposed a general model for second language teaching (Figure 6), which aims to: serve as a conceptual frame for developing theory; detail features for examining existing theories; accommodate planning and practice; and direct research. The emphasis of the model is potentially in helping teachers analyse different aspects of the language teaching-learning process.

Figure 7: Stern's (1983) general model for second language teaching



(Source: Stern, 1983, p.44).

While there is no ideal model, the ones described above are important in illustrating the multi-faceted and interdisciplinary nature of a language teaching theory. They further portray the numerous perspectives that have to be taken into account in describing or evaluating teaching-learning processes. More specifically, they confirm that the concept of a language teaching methodology (in the broad sense) is merely one aspect of the teaching-learning cycle. The various inputs into a language teaching framework do not each necessarily equally influence language

teaching outcomes. The various factors can be differentiated into those which are intellectual and academic (such as linguistics and psycholinguistics), and those which pertain to the wider social context (such as economics, history, ideology and culture). It may be that the latter group of factors is more important in terms of what decides language teaching at the level of implementation, especially in a country such as Malaysia (as will be evident in the review of educational developments in chapter five). For example, if learners have traditional (cultural) views on how to learn, and what are the roles of teachers and learners, they may be reluctant to accept progressive approaches which do not match such traditional expectations.

Theory and practice

These models represent the conceptualisations of theoreticians and experts, not necessarily classroom practitioners. Ingram (1980) provides for feedback from practice in the formulation of established classroom techniques, while Stern's (1983) model visualises 'methodology' and 'organisation' as operating at the level of practice. The following is an example of the theory / practice divide. In a 'means / end' (or objectives) model of curriculum, it is normal for aims and objectives to be defined first, and content, learning experiences and evaluation to follow. Taylor (1970), however, found that when planning courses, teachers usually began with the context in which they work. At the same time, they paid attention to aspects of sequence, time and methods. They then considered pupils' interests and the selection of subject matter. Only after a consideration of such practical matters did they consider questions such as aims. Similarly, many conceptions of the language teaching-learning process can be accused of being 'top-down' or 'expert-driven'. The models are neat representations of a complex issue, and do not originate from classroom practitioners. Reference has been made to Schon's (1983, 1987) views on the divide between neat theories and the unpredictable nature of actual practice, and how the views of the experts do not always have much relevance for practising teachers. In this context, renewed calls (Nunan, 1990) for research originating in, and conducted by, practising teachers may provide new insights, greater practical relevance, and a more balanced framework (in terms of both theory and practice) than those currently existing for language teaching and learning.

The following section discusses the term 'language teaching methodology' and reviews its role in the context of education. This will be followed by a discussion of methodology in the context of an understanding of language itself, as a function of language teacher education and a review of major approaches. The review and discussions are important in order to examine implications for English language teacher education in Malaysia.

Language Teaching Methodology

Defining Methodology

The term 'language teaching methodology' presents a number of problems. The foremost is one of definition, mainly because of different interpretations. Rodgers (1990) points out that

> "...Method and Methodology and related terms like Approach are used in several, often incompatible, senses by those who write and talk about methods" (p.2).

A second, and equally important, problem is that to talk of 'methods' implies a distinctiveness of different methods. Stern (1983) argues that to think of methods as distinct and separate entities is questionable, because no agreement exists as to "what the different methods precisely stand for nor how they could be satisfactorily combined" (p.482). Furthermore, it has been suggested that terms such as the 'Direct Method', the "Natural Method' and so on are "...vague and inadequate because they limit themselves to a single aspect of a complex subject, inferring that that aspect alone is all that matters" (Mackey, 1965, p.156). As the earlier discussion of approaches to conceptualising language teaching revealed, numerous elements which are often equally important can be found in the language teaching-learning matrix, and as such, to assign a centrality to the concept of 'methods' in language teaching is self defeating.

Anthony (1960) suggested that the terms were **hierarchical** in relationship. Approach is axiomatic and at a level involving a set of assumptions about the nature of language teaching and learning. Method is procedural and at a level where the theoretical assumptions are operationalised through choices consistent with an approach. A technique is implementational, describing whatever strategy or procedure is carried out at the classroom level. The suggestion is that a technique will implement a method in keeping with the approach. For example, the Reform Movement of the late 1800s was at the level of approach, and led to the Direct Method among others (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Similarly, the Oral Approach led to the Audiolingual Method and techniques such as 'drill and practice'. Anthony's (1960) model is simple, comprehensive and useful for differentiating between levels of abstraction. However, these definitions do not reflect the broad and loose way in which the terms have been used (Stern, 1983). For Richards and Rodgers (1986), Anthony's (1960) terms 'method' and 'technique' need clarification with regard to the roles (of learners, teachers and instructional materials) in a method, how an approach is realised in methods, and how techniques and methods are related.

Other Interpretations of Methodology

A number of other interpretations of methodology have been attempted and reflect divergences in conceptualising language teaching methodology. The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1985) explains that methodology is:

"(1)...the study of the practices and procedures used in teaching, and the principles and beliefs that underlie them. Methodology includes:

> (a) study of the nature of LANGUAGE skills (e.g. reading, writing, speaking, listening) and procedures for teaching them
> (b)study of the preparation of Lesson Plans, materials, and textbook for teaching language skills
> (c) the evaluation and comparison of language teaching Methods (e.g. the AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD)

(2) such practices, procedures, principles, and beliefs themselves. One can, for example, criticise or praise the methodology of a language teaching course." (Richards, Platt, and Weber, 1985, p.177)

On the other hand, Richards and Rodgers (1986) see 'approaches' as being related to 'procedures' through 'design' (Figure 8). Thus,

> "...a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organisationally determined by a design, and is practically realised in a procedure" (p.16).

At the level of approach, Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that the concern is with theoretical principles of language theory (language competence, linguistic organisation and language use) and language learning (central psycholinguistics, cognitive processes, and conditions for learning). Approach, however, does not prescribe procedures, techniques and activities or a "method". Rather, approach (or theory) is linked to procedure (or practice) by design.

Design operates at a level which deals with the:

> objectives of a method;
> selection and organisation of language content (that is the syllabus);
> teaching activity and learning tasks advocated; and
> roles of learners, teachers and instructional materials.

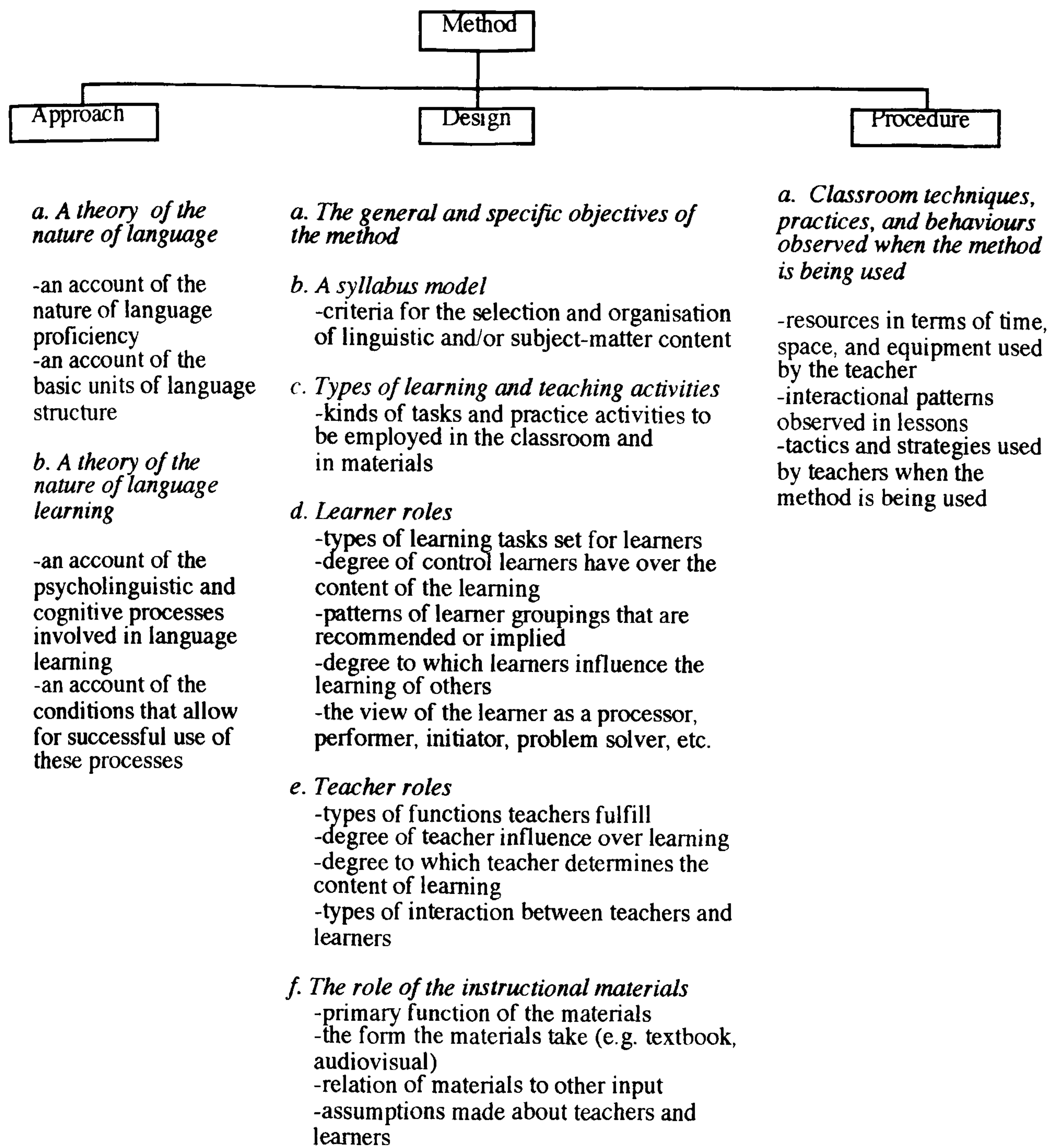


Figure 8: Summary of elements and subelements that constitute a method
(Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 27).

Objectives are a product of the design (not approach) and may be process or product oriented. Content matters relate to the selection and gradation of language (syllabus) and instructional materials. The orientation to learning gives rise to the activities which distinguish interaction between methods, as in the case of Audiolingualism (dialogue and pattern practice) and The Silent Way (problem-solving activity using rods and charts). Learners' roles in learning (as recipients, processors, performers, problem-solvers and so on) reflect the method. Similarly, teachers' roles are related to their function and status, and maybe seen as directors, catalysts, guides, models or consultants. The role of instructional materials will involve questions of the goals (facilitate communication, present content, provide practice and so on), form (textbooks, worksheets and so on), status with regard to other materials used and the abilities of the teachers using the materials.

Procedure refers to what is done in class in accordance with a method. This may relate to teaching activities (drills, dialogues and so on), how the activities provide for practice and the provision of feedback for learners. Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that their model allows for describing language teaching methodology, but admit that methodological development does not proceed neatly from approach to design and procedure. Further, no attempt has been made to generalise features (across the methods that they describe) which are central to the success of the methods, nor how such an analysis will help discover appropriate or successful methods or features of methods for individual learning contexts (Rodgers, 1990). Daniel (1989) suggests that 'evaluation' is required in order that the Richards and Rodgers' (1986) model is complete. Evaluation operates at the same level as 'approach', 'design' and 'procedure'.

Stern (1983) suggests that it is the confusion between ends (content and objectives) and means (instruction) which has been problematic in debates about methods. In accordance with a rational curriculum theory approach, he suggests that instruction can be conceived of as teaching in the specific sense, in terms of what the teacher does to induce learning, comprising "all and any procedures which are intended to bring about language learning" (p. 505). Rather than look upon instruction as a fixed unalterable package distinguishable from other methods, he proposes that it is

> "analytically more effective, and pedagogically more flexible to operate with the broader concept of *teaching strategy* under which can be subsumed a large number of specified *teaching techniques* " (p. 503).

These terms correspond with the terms 'learning strategy' and 'learning techniques' in language learning approaches. Strategy refers to "broad intentional action", while technique refers to "more specific behaviours, operations, procedures, and activities" (Allen and Harley, 1992, p. 277). Stern's (1983) proposal for methodology suggests six major strategies. Three crucial language learning issues for Stern (1983) are:

a) the use or non-use of the learner's language in the second language learning;
b) how the language is learnt (formally and objectively learnt as a code or communicatively and subjectively learnt through social use); and
c) whether explicit techniques are employed or whether the language is acquired through implicit processes.

The three issues provide for 'intralingual / crosslingual', 'analytic / experiential' and 'explicit/ implicit' strategies respectively in language teaching (Stern, 1983; 1992). These three aspects can be ordered along dimensions such as language skills, instruction time and organisational features (teacher-centred, group-centred and so on) to provide six strategies in all.

While different interpretations do capture many of the essential elements in a consideration of methodology, they tend to use numerous criteria and involve features of unequal importance. As such, one criticism that can be levelled against different frameworks, according to Marton (1988), is that they fail to take into effective consideration the most important and distinctive element in second language methodology, which is the **strategies** employed by learners to develop competence in the second language. Consequently, Marton (1988) prefers the term '<u>teaching strategy</u>' (as compared to 'approach'), a

> "globally conceived set of pedagogical procedures imposing a definite learning strategy directly leading to the development of competence in the target language" (p. 2).

Such an interpretation excludes elements which do not contribute specifically to the development of competence in the target language such as general educational (affective or emotional) factors, factors connected with a 'whole person' approach, and the explicit study of second language grammar.

Marton (1988) suggests that there "...exist only four basic and successful strategies of language teaching..." (p.2). These are the receptive, communicative, reconstructive and eclectic strategies. A language teaching strategy is

> "a globally conceived set of pedagogical procedures imposing a definite learning strategy on the learner directly leading to the development of competence in the target language. These procedures are derived from a set of correlative assumptions concerning the nature of language, the nature of second language development and the functions of language teaching" (p.2).

Further, "procedures which are sometimes treated as language teaching activities but which do not aim at the development of a competence in L2 cannot be subsumed under language teaching strategies" (p.2) such as general educative factors and culture studies.The receptive strategy makes learners silently process target language input. They do not produce any utterances. Input has to comprehensible to learners. The <u>receptive strategy</u> assumes a role for hypothesis formation and testing in language acquisition. It also assumes that language reception and production are linked, and that production can easily be developed once global competence has been achieved through listening and reading. The <u>communicative strategy</u> requires learners to communicate in the target language. Less prolonged input ('meaningful exposure') than in the receptive strategy is provided for learners' testing of hypothesis. They also test hypotheses in the process of obtaining feedback to their utterances in communication. It is accepted that in the process of communicating, errors will occur reflecting learners' current abilities, and that learners will develop communication strategies to compensate for lack of language competence. The <u>reconstructive strategy</u> expects

controlled and gradual development of learner competence. Successful language learning depends on prolonged exposure to reconstructive activities (spoken or written) based on texts in the target language. Reconstructive tasks are text-referenced, and do not use communicative strategies. Texts provide the necessary language elements for the completion of reconstructive tasks, which are pitched at learners' current levels, and therefore, well-formed utterances are expected. Memorisation of texts by learners often accompanies the reconstructive strategy, but is not an integral part of the approach. The eclectic strategy as generally understood keeps an open mind and utilises whatever works for an individual within a specific context. Marton (1988) dismisses what he calls practical (intuitive) eclecticism, theoretical eclecticism and systematic eclecticism, arguing instead for certain combinations of strategies in a certain order (see discussion of eclecticism later in this chapter).

Cook (1991) simplifies classification by proposing the more neutral terms 'teaching style' and 'teaching techniques'. A teaching style is a

> "...loosely connected set of teaching techniques believed to share the same goals of language teaching and the same views of language and of L2 learning" (p.132).

A teaching technique would be the "...actual point of contact with the students" (p. 132). Teachers could combine techniques in various ways within a style. For example, within a social communicative style, a teacher may use functional drills combined with role-play and information-gap exercises. Cook's (1991) analysis reveals six teaching categories, namely the academic, audiolingual, social communicative, information communicative, mainstream EFL (combining aspects of the first three) and 'other styles' (which move in aims beyond language learning). The term 'style' is preferred, implying changeability and the possibility that teachers apprehensive about changing methods, may not feel inhibitions about switching styles

A number of other attempts to move away from the single method debate have been made, and are reviewed here. Mackey (1965) saw a need to match learners, materials and teachers, and proposed a 'method analysis', which is really a way of analysing textual teaching materials. The key terms are selection, gradation, presentation, repetition and measurement. Language items to be taught have to be selected from a corpus according to the purpose, the time available and the level of the learner. Selection of language items also needs to take into account the frequency, range, availability, coverage and learnability of the items. Such selection will provide the syllabus or the course. The selected language then needs to be grouped (items that go together) and sequenced (what naturally follows). This gradation of items is followed by considerations of presentation, or how the language is communicated to the learners. Presentation involves both what the text presents and how the teacher presents the items. Repetition, or practice, whereby good language habits are fixed in learners follows. Finally, measurement and teaching analysis evaluate the materials as well as the teaching respectively. Similarly, Halliday, McIntosh and

Strevens (1964) proposed 'methodics'. Limitation (or choice) of language is followed by restriction (of variety or register) and selection (of language items to be taught). Such selection has to be graded into steps (or stages) and sequenced (in accordance with the needs of the course), presented and tested. Presentation involves both initial presentation and repeated teaching which can include practice, reinforcement and remediation.

Stern (1983) refers to a number of teacher guides which attempted to incorporate "...methods into more comprehensive statements about language teaching" (p. 477). He suggests that teacher guides, such as those by Brooks (1960/64), Lado (1964) and Rivers (1968/81) are examples of theories of language teaching as conceptualised by modern 'theorist-practitioners'. These guides addressed the following: a) Nature of language or linguistics; b) Psychology of language learning and the learner; c) Historical, sociopolitical and educational contexts; d) Reasons, aims and objectives; e) Content (phonology, grammar, vocabulary, literature and culture); f) Teaching methods, strategies and techniques; g) Language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing); h) Curriculum design; i) Equipment, materials and technological aids; j) Testing and evaluation; k) Teachers; and l) Other topics. While providing a valuable link between theory and practice, Stern (1983) suggests that the guides were merely the personal language teaching theories of experienced and sophisticated theorists and practitioners because of a lack of distinction between attested knowledge, hypotheses, speculation and research evidence.

Role of Assessment

One aspect of language teaching-learning that is often not given due attention in discussions about 'methodology' and 'methods' is the relationship between assessment of learners and methodology. Before discussing the relationship, the terms , 'measurement', 'assessment', 'test' and 'evaluation' are discussed here in order to clarify them because they "are often used synonymously; indeed they may, in practice, refer to the same activity" (Bachman, 1990, p.19). It has been suggested that 'assessment' and 'appraisal' are terms that have been used with impressionistic approaches to measurement and large scale programmes aimed at measuring a wide range of characteristics (Bachman, 1990). While measurement is "the process of quantifying the characteristics of persons according to explicit procedures and rules" (Bachman, 1990, p.18), a test is a "procedure designed to elicit certain behavior from which one can make inferences about certain characteristics of an individual" (Carroll, 1968, p.46). Thus, a language test is distinguished from other types of measurement because it contains a specific sample of language behaviour or ability. Tests are needed because random samples of language cannot guarantee scope for making inferences about given language abilities.

Evaluation is concerned with the gathering of information systematically in order that decisions can be made (Bachman, 1990, p.22), and in the context of curriculum theory, usually refers to

decision-making with regards to the effectiveness of courses, programmes and the entire curriculum. While measurement aims to provide information, evaluation aims for decision-making. Bachman (1990) suggests that

> "neither measures or tests are in and of themselves evaluative, and evaluation need not involve measurement or testing" (p. 49).

It has been suggested that assessment

> "in the curriculum is a process of determining and passing judgments on students' learning potential and performance; evaluation means assembling evidence on and making judgments about the curriculum including the processes of planning, designing and implementing it" (Skilbeck, 1984, p.238).

Ideally, the relationship between methodology and assessment is a twofold one. Language teaching methodology leads to the creation of special procedures for assessing learner proficiency and achievement. Traditional kinds of second language assessment, for example, tend to measure learner attainment against group averages ('norm' references) or preconceived criteria of success in formal ways. The development of new approaches or methods of language teaching creates new perspectives and emphases. Cummins (1980) pointed out that standard tests of proficiency tend to measure certain kinds of academic or cognitive language proficiency rather than interpersonal and communicative skills. Such new perspectives and emphases in turn may cause a re-examination of ways of assessing the effectiveness of teaching as seen in pupil performances, and can lead to new types of tests and examinations. For example, the swing to communicative methodology has necessitated designing new tests to accommodate the new communicative goals of language teaching. Such communicative tests include oral interviews (which can be guided), adapting traditional multiple-choice tests and open-ended tests. Similarly, assessment can lead to a re-examination of teaching methodology and introduce changes.

Language assessment, especially on a national scale, aims at measuring the language abilities of learners (nationally) at a specific point in time. The impact of national assessments is usually felt by classroom teachers who are often judged by the performance of their learners in such examinations. In Malaysia, for example, teachers who 'produce' good results are often characterised as being 'good' teachers, and in many instances have been transferred to other schools in order to improve school results there, without due regard for other contextual factors. Often, the expectations of pupils, parents and administrators have the effect of forcing teachers to adopt 'examination-oriented' strategies of teaching. In such contexts, assessment and assessment materials provide the necessary methodological impetus, and not teaching 'methods'. It will be interesting to observe what the effect of the current on-going focus on assessment in the National Curriculum in Britain will be. As Widdowson (1990) points out, what

"learners do is not directly determined by the syllabus but is a consequence of how the syllabus is methodologically mediated by the teacher in the pursuit of his own course of instruction" (p.129).

Research evidence

Little evidence seems to exist to support any particular method, or even that it was a method per se rather than something else which caused learning to occur (Nunan, 1990). Long (1990) refers to a number of studies with regard to methodology, and the findings that he reports are presented here. Studies show that teachers recall their lessons not in terms of methods, but as sequences of instructional activities or tasks. Studies show little difference in what teachers actually do, as compared to what they were trained to do. There was also little difference in what they do and what they think they do. Studies of 'comparative methods' show either short-lived differences or no difference in relative effectiveness of not only different methods, but also between inductive and deductive approaches. Nunan (1990) suggests that most of the "designer methods, are based on assumptions drawn, not from the close observation and analysis of the classroom, but from logico-deductive speculation" (p.66). It is suggested that rather than focus on the old single method approach, language teaching methodology should proceed by referring to recent findings in second language processing and production, classroom interaction and acquisition, learning strategy preferences and teacher research (Nunan, 1990).

Language teaching within approaches to language description

It has been argued that language teaching may be placed within two approaches to language description, namely the semantic and the pragmatic approaches (Widdowson, 1990). The semantic approach accounts for how language contains within its linguistic forms (grammar and lexis), the essential resources for meanings. The pragmatic approach focuses on how these resources are exploited (the procedures and contextual conditions) in order that the potential for meaning is realised by users. These approaches in turn inform different approaches to language pedagogy. If language is taken to be communication, the medium has a potential for meaning, with meaning being negotiated in the mediation of human activity.

For purposes of pedagogy, the medium approach to language will seek ways of manipulating the syntactic and semantic qualities of the language for the purposes of transmission. Learner goals will be increased receptivity, internalisation and storing units of meaning for use when required.. Teaching aims at facilitating this receptivity through activities which are, typically, exercises providing for practice. In such an approach, the syllabus (whether formal, functional or notional) is primary because language units can be specified and ordered. The syllabus is presented as a package of meaning. With regard to the organisation of language for teaching, the medium view

aims for gradual learner development (according to his or her capacity) through contrivance and controlling of the text (and hence, units of meaning),

> "...a pedagogic fabrication which shapes the raw materials of actually occurring language so as to make it simpler and more accessible" (Widdowson, 1990, pp.120, 121).

The teachers' role is to transmit, and learners are dependent on teachers. The learners' role is to learn what is transmitted. Transmission in the medium approach is seen by Widdowson (1990) to be the same as learning. Methodology, in the medium view, is not as important as the syllabus, and its role is merely to facilitate the learners' internalisation of meaning. Since meaning in the medium view is language bound, language rules become all important. Language deviation in learners is seen as failure to learn correctly, and as an 'error' that needs to be corrected

In the mediation approach, the focus is on creating conditions for the negotiation of meaning through language. Rather than exercises, the typical activities here will be process-based tasks. In this approach, the preference is for

> "...a pedagogy of discovery whereby language is learned as a consequence of carrying out activities which engage the language with the learner's knowledge and experience of other things" (Widdowson, 1990, p.120).

Since meaning in the mediation view is not confined to language, it is held that learners can be exposed to more language than they can process. Such exposure is ordered through task control, which allows for language to be regulated by input (not intake), and favours the presentation of language in its natural state. Prior knowledge and inference help learners to interpret meanings in context. Learners in such an orientation bring the assets of already knowing how to use language and negotiate meaning to the task of learning the new language. As such, learners are viewed as having a more active and positive role. Learning becomes self-generating rather than teacher-dependent. Methodology (not the syllabus) becomes primary here, because meaning can only be obtained in the context of action, and is a function of the activity to achieve outcomes. In this approach, incomplete and incorrect language in the learner is seen as a positive sign of learning, because the learner is using whatever limited resources available at that stage in a creative manner. Errors become like temporary blemishes on wood that are removable with increased polishing.

Widdowson (1990) observes that it is the mediation view that has recently become prominent in language teaching. This is not only in keeping with developments in language research and second language acquisition studies, but because the medium view has come to be associated with authority (transmission, conformity, and correctness) and therefore is seen to be out of place in the context of progressive education preferences. He argues, however, that both these approaches should be seen as complementary because the parameters of meaning established by linguistic

rules have to be realised through mediation. By way of illustration, he refers to the need to allow for flexibility in methodology to exploit opportunities for learning, but at the same time, the concept of learning implies conforming to some prefigured concept of what it is that is to be learnt.

Widdowson (1990) argues that methodology is not the main consideration in a medium approach, but becomes primary in the mediation approach. This may be so from a theoretical perception. However, at the level of the practitioner it is more likely that a primary concern with methodology has always been present, whatever the approach. The question of 'how to' is a corollary of 'why' and 'what' questions for practitioners, both in the medium and the mediation approach. Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that changes in language teaching methods have followed perceptions of changes in learners' needs, as well as theories of the nature of language and language learning. So much so that today's

> "...controversies reflect contemporary responses to questions that have been asked often throughout the history of language teaching" (p.1).

Such questions deal with issues such as the goals of language teaching, how the nature of language will affect teaching methods, the selection of content, the principles for selecting, sequencing and presentation, learning processes, the role of the native language, conditions for effective techniques and activities, and how to assess language outcomes.

Summary

The review above has revealed that there are a number of problems with the 'methods' approach to language teaching. The main problem has been definitional, caused by differing interpretations (Mackey, 1965; Rodgers, 1990; Cook, 1991). Another problem has been the lack of synthesis and comprehensiveness in the attempted approaches (Stern, 1983). To talk about 'methods' also implies a misplaced centrality to the concept of method in language teaching (Mackey, 1965). Methods are deemed to be less important in the medium view of language as compared to the mediation view (Widdowson, 1990). Furthermore, methodological approaches have tended to be prescriptive and 'top-down' (Rodgers, 1990), while actually being indistinguishable from each other in actual classroom practices (Rodgers, 1991; Long, 1990).

Language teaching 'methodology' is only one of the variables that can be found in the language teaching-learning process. As the discussion above has revealed, much of the confusion and problems with methodology is in attempting to fit the various elements constituting methodology into neat over-arching frameworks. In the process, it seems that the real issues, such as what teachers 'actually do' in classrooms, what theories (about language, learning, and teaching)

teachers have, what successful strategies they adopt (and why), and how they relate with colleagues and learners are often marginalised. Schon (1983, 1987) has argued for a focus on the epistemology of expert practice, and it appears that one way of ensuring this is to keep an open mind to about effective methodologies. While Richards and Rodgers (1986) see a method's theoretical elements revealed in the approach, organised in the design and demonstrated in practical classroom teaching, Marton (1988) prefers to categorise approaches according to 'language teaching strategies' and Cook (1991) according to 'learning styles'. Stern (1983) suggests that teaching 'techniques' subsume teaching 'strategies', while teaching is seen as all procedures to bring about language learning. It appears that the suggested terms 'strategy and style' and 'technique' operate at the levels of design and procedure in the Richards and Rodgers (1986) model.

A REVIEW OF LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

Introduction

The previous section discussed the problematic nature of the term 'method', and reviewed possible ways of conceptualising approaches to methodology in language teaching and learning. The discussion concluded in favour of keeping an open mind on the value of a non-prescriptive and objective approach to methods in language teaching in view of the numerous complex elements associated with the term, and the lack of an accepted overarching framework at present. It seems evident that discussion of methodology needs to take into consideration both 'methods' and 'other elements'. While this section examines the former, the next section examines the latter.

The methods that are usually reviewed in language teaching literature (Kelly, 1969; Stevick, 1980; Stern, 1983; Howatt, 1984; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Cook, 1991) are:

> Grammar Translation; The Direct Method; The Reading Method; The Oral Method; The Audiolingual Method; Communicative Language Teaching; The Natural Method; Community Language Learning; The Silent Way; Total Physical Response; Suggestopedia; and the Mainstream EFL or Eclectic Method.

Given the comprehensive treatment (which has informed this study) by the reviewers named above, this section provides a brief review of methods seen to be relevant in the Malaysian context. Relevance in this case is perceived in the researcher's experience of what exists, and what may be effective. Such a review is valuable in view of the project materials presentation of classroom approaches, student demands for 'methods that work' and the official propagation of the communicative approach.

The Malaysian context

While the next chapter deals in depth with the development of education and policies toward languages in Malaysia, this section provides a brief contextualisation of the main influences on English language teaching. The period after 1970 saw a number of syllabuses defining the goals, content and procedures to be adopted in the teaching of English as a second language, since Bahasa Malaysia became the official medium of instruction in schools. These are:

-The Post-1970 Primary Schools Syllabus, (Ministry of Education, 1977);
-The English Syllabus for Forms I-III of Secondary Schools in Malaysia, (Ministry of Education, 1973b);
-English Language Syllabus in Malaysian Schools Tingkatan 4-5 [Forms 4-5], (Ministry of Education, 1975);
-New Integrated Primary School Syllabus (KBSR) and
-New Integrated Secondary School Syllabus (KBSM).

English expanded, became institutionalised (Moag, 1982) and enjoyed its best years in the 1960s before it was reduced to the status of the official second language taught in schools. As such, approaches to ELT moved from expectations of high standards in what approximated a 'mother tongue' approach before 1970, to second and foreign language teaching approaches and expected outcomes since. The researcher was schooled within the former approach, where all students studied English literature (including Shakespeare). In many cases, the predominant influences on Malaysian teachers were similar to those on teachers elsewhere as a result of developments in language teaching (such as The Direct Method, The Oral Method and The Audiolingual Method). From 1970, the syllabus defined a structural approach to English language learning, whereas from 1975, a communicative approach was prescribed for fourth and fifth form students. The KBSR and KBSM integrate a structural base, a product-oriented syllabus, communicative methodology and content from a range of subjects.

In such a context, the evident influences have been, first, grammar translation due to traditional concepts of how languages should be taught. Second, the Direct, Oral and Audiolingual Methods in response to language teaching developments in the period before 1970. Third, the communicative approach, and fourth, eclecticism These methods are now reviewed.

Grammar Translation

Status and Aims

One of the oldest approaches, Grammar-Translation was originally considered a necessary preliminary to studying the literature of the second language. It was also considered a sound

mental discipline in its own right. The approach continues to be prevalent in traditions of "teach as I was taught", where teachers and lecturers have not been versed (or convinced) in modern second language teaching ideology. Cook (1991) calls this the 'academic style', while in Marton's (1988) categorisation, it can be placed in the 'reconstructive strategy'. The approach aims for learning of the language as an academic subject, although, in many instances, practitioners claim preparation for actual use of the language as the aim.

Teaching Methodology

Usually, the presentation of grammar rules is followed by exemplification. Students are then given exercises to complete. Translation exercises may follow. Vocabulary is dealt with through explanation, bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorisation. Explanations often rely on other languages such as the mother tongue.

Theoretical Assumptions

Languages to be learnt are seen as systems of rules as observed in sentences in texts. Learning is intellectual, involving the memorisation of rules and facts, which are related to meanings in the first language.

Other Characteristics

The emphasis is on reading and writing. A high premium is placed on accuracy. Grammar is systematically ordered, and taught deductively. In most cases, the students' first language provides the medium of teaching.

Evaluation

While Richards and Rodgers (1986) argue that the method and the literature have no advocates, no theory, and no justification or rationale, the fact remains that it is still widely practised in many contexts. Although practitioners do not adopt the method in its entirety, many of its principles such as the focus on rules, memorisation and use of the first language are still evident in practice, especially when some of its principles are found in other methods described in this section. The approach is sufficient in academic contexts when foreign languages are learnt for the study of foreign literary texts.

Evident weaknesses of the approach include the over-emphasis on grammar which does not have a proper theoretical description, inadequate attention to other aspects of language knowledge and use, and reliance on the first language. It is demanding of students, and may well be an inefficient way of learning languages, especially for purposes of communication.

On the other hand, the approach often appeals to those who possess a reconstructive approach to learning, and those who are academically gifted. Many teachers find it appealing because it makes few demands on them. For many who were taught in this way, the approach is seen to be proof of success. For example, Nunan (1988) reports conflicts in teacher preference for communicative practices and adult-immigrant-learners' expectations of a more traditional approach to language teaching and learning. Aspects of this method do continue to be used in Malaysia by many teachers (by habit and inclination), but adherence to it is not publicly admitted because the official approach is supposed to be communicative.

The Direct Method

Status and Aims

The Direct Method has been called the 'reform method', 'psychological method', 'phonetic method' and so on. The Direct Method resulted from a reaction to the Grammar Translation approach by the International Phonetic Association and individuals. Evident from the middle of the 1800s, the Direct Method aims to switch the focus from literary language to everyday spoken language. The procedural emphasis was on using the second language as the medium of instruction, with no recourse to the first language at all. Where there was a compromise (as in Britain in the 1920s), translation and grammatical explanations were allowed, and the method came to be called the 'compromise' or 'oral' method. Stern (1983) suggests that the reaction against translation, and the increased use of the target language in teaching only represented a change in means, and not ends.

Teaching Methodology

The presentation of a short foreign language text is followed by explanation (by various means except translation) of vocabulary, question and answer sessions revolving around the text, pictures and wall charts. These would be followed by exercises such as transpositions, substitutions, dictation, narrative and free composition, and even phonetic transcriptions.

Theoretical Assumptions

The approach is based on phonetics and a coherent grammar. Second language learning is seen to be similar to first language learning, and hence the distinctive emphasis on using the target language in teaching.

Other Characteristics

There is a focus on everyday language taught in the target language exclusively. Great emphasis is placed on oral communication, as well as correct pronunciation and grammar. Grammar is taught inductively.

Evaluation

Although important in establishing a breakaway from Grammar-Translation and reliance on the first language, a number of problems have been identified with the Direct Method. First, there tends to be a distorted emphasis on similariies between first and second language acquisition. Second, strict avoidance of the first language can lead to inefficiency (especially in teaching meaning), and a lack of safeguards against misunderstanding by learners. Third, it has been difficult to apply the method in teaching advanced learners. Fourth, there is a need to have almost native speaker fluency and pronunciation in teachers in order to provide good models for learners to imitate. Despite the above, many aspects of the method continue to be used, both directly and indirectly, and have been adopted into other approaches to language teaching. Many senior teachers in Malaysia rely on aspects of this approach such as correct pronunciation, grammar, substitutions and reliance on using English only, often due to their own training.

The Reading Method

Status and Aims

The Reading Method is a product of Michael West's (1926) efforts to reduce what was perceived to be inefficient learning of English in Bengal in India by focusing essentially on reading for its great surrender value. The Reading Method has gained renewed interest in limited utility contexts, such as reading for information in Malaysian universities. The aim of the method is to develop reading comprehension skills.

Teaching Methodology

Essentially, this method is not very different from the previous methods described here. The students' first language is allowed in instruction while new target language is introduced orally. Vocabulary control is considered important. Reading texts consist of controlled vocabulary and regular repetition of new words.

Theoretical Assumptions

The Reading approach is very practical, and seems to have been an early attempt at language teaching with specific and limited objectives evidenced these days in courses such as 'English for Specific Purposes' and 'English for Academic Purposes'. Graded reading texts built around a core of frequently used words were believed capable of help learners achieve reading fluency.

Other Characteristics

A distinction is made between intensive reading for detailed study and rapid extensive reading of graded readers.

Evaluation

The Reading Method is an example of language learning within constraints. It is still valued in contexts where the language is not foreseen to have social communicative functions. Such a situation probably applies in EFL rather than ESL contexts. Universities have attempted specific English courses aimed at improving students' abilities to read for information in academic literature (e.g. University of Malaya), and since reading is often an integral aspect of language work these days, an approach which focuses on reading must be appealing. An experiment in Malaysian schools involved Centre for British Teachers members producing a package of graded reading cards and other support materials for less proficient lower secondary school pupils.

The Oral Method

Status and Aims

The Oral Method has also been called the Structural-Situational and Situational Language Teaching approaches in various interpretations and modified applications. Originating in the 1920s and 1930s through the efforts of H.Palmer and A.S.Hornby, it attempted to provide a more scientific basis for an oral approach to language teaching. The approach has been useful in the selection and organisation of language courses. The aim was to provide a practical command of the four language skills through language structure.

Teaching Methodology

Oral language is carefully introduced according to a structural syllabus and a word list. Students initially listen and repeat through drills and practice techniques (such as guided repetition, substitution activities, chorus repetition, dictation and so on). Oral work precedes writing.

Grammar is induced from the meaningful use of language in 'situations' (here meaning in the context of sentences, pictures and objects) and not through grammatical description, translation or description.

Theoretical Assumptions

The method derives from structural linguistics with language seen as purposeful activity related to goals and situations. Thus, the learning of controlled and graded language (in the form of grammatical structures, sentence patterns and words) in situations (or context) allows for gradual learner independence in use and mastery of language.

Other Characteristics

The usual target language for beginners is classroom language. Vocabulary selection attempts to cover a general service word list (of essential words). The presentation of grammatical structures is graded from from simple to difficult and complex forms. Reading and writing are allowed only when there is sufficient competence in the learners for these activities.

Evaluation

Some of the sound principles of the approach such as gradation, pattern practice, primacy of speech and contextualisation are still favoured by many teachers, especially those trained in the 1960s and 1970s in Malaysia as well as Britain. The influence of the method can still be seen in many of the textbooks used in teaching English

The Audiolingual Method

Status and Aims

The Audiolingual method grew out of an increasing need for the acquisition of foreign language skills during the war years, as well as ESL skills for the increasing number of foreign students in America. American linguists (like C.Fries) proposed this method in order to develop a practical set of communicative skills with emphasis essentially listening and speaking preceding any reading and writing. This order in teaching skills was based on the view that language is speech. By the 1970s, the method was mostly discredited as a preferred method.

Teaching Methodology

Target language is presented in the form of dialogues and students are required to memorise these. Specific grammatical points will then be focused upon in the form of drills and pattern-

practice exercises (such as repetition, replacement, completion, transformation, expansion, restatement and so on).

Theoretical Assumptions

Based on structural linguistics, the it is assumed that language is a system of structurally related elements. Learning a language involves mastering these elements or building blocks of the language, as well as phonemic, syntactic and lexical rules. The guiding learning theory is behaviourism, whereby stimulus, response and reinforcement would for the development of a set of good language habits or behaviour.

Other Characteristics

Grammar is taught inductively through analogy (examples in context) rather than analysis. The approach is essentially teacher-centred. It is only in the final phase, when learner mastery is considered satisfactory do the learners experiment with free use of language. Mimicry and memorisation are emphasised.

Evaluation

Although currently out of favour as a method, many of its features continue to be used by teachers today, especially in Malaysia. Such features include the emphasis on speech and the use of drills and dialogues. It may be valuable for students who are not necessarily academic or analytic. It may also be attractive to teachers who need clear outlines and procedures to follow. It is still particularly effective for teaching pronunciation. An example of the approach is depicted in Unit 8 of the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials.

Communicative Language Teaching

Status and Aims

Considered an approach rather than a method (Richards and Rodgers, 1986), Communicative Language Teaching grew out of dissatisfaction with the Situational Language Teaching in Britain in the late 1960s. It has sometimes been called a functional approach, and is best contrasted with 'linguistic', 'grammatical', 'structural' or 'formal approaches. Cook (1991) suggests that the approach can be further specified into 'social communicative' and 'information communicative' styles of teaching. The approach aims to develop 'communicative competence' (knowledge of the language as well as knowledge of language use) as compared to linguistic competence alone. Knowledge of language use is knowing

"when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes,1972, p.277).

The approach exemplifies Stern's (1992) experiential strategy.

Teaching Methodology

Typical activities in the approach include role-playing, simulation and problem-solving (in the form of information-gap exercises) as favoured activities. Purposeful activities attempt to provide genuine communicative tasks such as seeking information, replying politely and engaging in conversation through using the language.

Theoretical Assumptions

The main assumption of Communicative language teaching is that language is communication. As such, second language learning is seen as deriving from language use in specified social contexts and situations. Language is seen to fulfil functions (such as personal, imaginative, instrumental, regulatory and other functions) in the contexts of interaction and communication. Language learning is believed to be enhanced by meaningful use of the language in genuine communicative tasks and activities.

Other Characteristics

Syllabuses for the approach have varied, and include the 'notional' (semantic-grammatical categories and communicative functions), 'structures and functions', 'interactional', 'task-based', 'learner-generated' and other syllabuses. The Malaysian Communicative syllabus is an example of a task-based syllabus producing outcomes or products (such as letters, stories, telephone messages and so on). Needs analysis provides the initial impetus for designing learning outcomes. Attention is not focused on formal grammar work, and the use of the first language is not discouraged. Learner errors are often tolerated and corrected only in passing.

Learners are expected to contribute by participating in the activities and tasks, often negotiating, seeking, giving and using communicative strategies. Teachers have to facilitate communication and often participate in the process themselves. They are also expected to engage in needs analysis, provide counsel and manage group-processes.

Evaluation

As a result of this approach, it is fairly widespread now for language pedagogy (at whatever level) to include some kind of non-analytical, experiential and participatory communication (Stern,

1983). The approach seems to satisfy learner needs (often immediately) as a result of an initial needs analysis. In so doing, it helps build confidence and provide for social interaction.

However, the approach may possibly be better suited for the less academic and more outgoing type of students. The 'laissez-faire' (Cook, 1991) approach adopted in teaching can lead to disjointed learning and confuse those used to systematic learning. Marton (1988) points out that non-emphasis on errors can lead to error-fossilisation, and at the same time develop learners' 'strategic competence' (strategies of communication) rather than true communicative competence. Stern (1990) suggests that experiential activities are often more difficult linguistically compared to class proficiency levels, require conditions of natural language use that are difficult to create in classroom contexts, and may provide benefits which are often indirect and less tangible compared to analytic approaches. Over use of uncontrolled and uncorrected use of the language may also lead to the development of pidgin varieties. The approach is currently widespread, and it has been effected in the national Communicative Syllabus for secondary schools in Malaysia. This approach has been adopted at national level in Malaysia, and it has led to a number of problems described in chapter 5.

The Natural Approach

Status and Aims

The Natural Approach is based on the 'naturalistic' way in which second language learning occurs. The approach was advocated by Krashen and Terrell (1983). It can be linked to traditional approaches which used language communicatively without reference to the native language. It aims at allowing learners to communicate with native speakers.

Teaching Methodology

Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that the method is evolutionary rather than revolutionary, because the techniques used in the approach are often borrowed and adapted from other methods. The emphasis of the methodology is presenting 'comprehensive input' (language that can be understood by the learner) which focuses on objects, people and pictures in the classroom, and the avoidance of learner production of the target language as much as possible, until they are ready to do so.

Theoretical Assumptions

The primary function of language is seen as communication of messages and meanings. This leads to an emphasis on lexis and meaning, rather than grammar. The approach is based on Krashen's (1981; 1982) theory of language acquisition. 'Learning' here is the conscious learning

of the rules of language (associated with formal learning). 'Acquisition' on the other hand, is seen as the real goal of language learning. It is the unconscious and natural development of proficiency through understanding and meaningful use of the language. Learning does not lead to the learner functioning effectively in the language. Rather, learning only serves to 'monitor' ('Monitor Hypothesis') or edit or check the output of language originating from the process of acquisition. Learning therefore allows for 'monitoring' or learner self-correction, depending on how much time the learner has to self-correct, whether the learner knows the rules of the language and whether the learner focuses on correctness. The acquisition of grammatical structures is seen to follow a natural predictable order ('Natural Order Hypothesis'), and learner errors are seen as signs of development. Language acquisition occurs when the learner understands language which is slightly above the learner's present ability ('Input Hypothesis'), usually represented as 'I (present level) + 1'. Acquisition is helped by learners' having low affective filters ('Affective Filter Hypothesis') whereby they seek and receive more input, react with greater confidence and become even more receptive to input. A state of low anxiety aids this process of acquisition.

Other Characteristics

The syllabus may be organised along the lines of basic personal communication skills (oral and written) or academic learning skills (oral and written). The thrust is on the provision of as much comprehensible input as possible, aided by anything or technique that helps comprehension. Exposure to a wide variety of vocabulary is considered more important than the study of structures. The classroom focus is on listening and reading. Speaking is allowed to 'emerge' when ready.

Evaluation

Relatively new, the Natural approach is gaining appeal, especially in America. In particular, Krashen's (1981; 1982) views about language acquisition are currently influential in second language learning. The approach has been useful in reminding second language pedagogy on the importance of comprehension and meaningful use of language in practice instead of the stress on producing correct discourse. In the context of Malaysia, an attempt has been made to incorporate graded readers in schools. Using published graded readers, learners are encouraged to complete reading a number of readers at their perceived levels while teachers attempt to raise learner levels by working through one reader at the next higher level on a whole class basis over 4 lessons. Class discussion and oral reading aloud by teachers could be seen as attempts to accomodate the Input Hypothesis (I+1). [The input hypothesis and Krashen's (1981, 1982) views on acquisition were often referred to by the course lecturer during the conduct of the research].

The Mainstream EFL or Eclectic Approach

Status and Aims

Cook (1991) suggests that the Mainstream EFL style (combining elements from the academic, audiolingual and social communicative styles) is currently practised in the 'British' approach. The Mainstream EFL approach is probably the most widespread and practical strategy that teachers adopt in the face of the inconclusiveness of the 'methods debate'. It is suggested by Richards and Rodgers (1986) that most language teaching programmes use 'informed eclecticism' - that is to say "various design features and procedures are selected, perhaps drawn from different methods, that can be shown to relate explicitly to program objectives" (p.158) - rather than adhere rigidly to a specific method.

Teaching Methodology

As the name suggests, there is no standard procedure or lesson plan in the approach. It can include many different (often contradictory) elements from different approaches and methods. In Cook's (1991) analysis, the typical lesson revolves around the grammatical point, presented either in terms of structural or traditional grammar, and is presently characterised by the addition of a communicative element in terms of group work, pair work and information orientation to the exercises. This researcher prefers a broader interpretation (explained below) which extends to including any combination of elements from various approaches and perspectives.

Theoretical Assumptions

In Cook's (1991) view, the approach assumes the importance of understanding, practice and use as the basic theoretical considerations. At a more informed level, the approach is probably necessitated by the contexts of teaching and learning. Marton (1988) draws a distinction between practical intuitive eclecticism, theoretical eclecticism and systemic eclecticism. Intuitive eclecticism, based on unclear thinking, assumes that good language teaching is a "kind of melting pot into which you can put a little of everything and produce a coherent method" (p. 86). Theoretical eclecticism is when theorists try to reconcile seemingly contradictory aspects of two different theories. Systemic eclecticism is enlightened and sophisticated, and is based on the assumption

> "almost every one of these methods and approaches offers some valuable insight and procedure which should be integrated within the comprehensive system of language pedagogy" (p.89).

Systemic eclecticism has been referred to as 'judicious eclecticism' (Stern, 1983) with regards a practical pedagogy through teacher guides such as that by Rivers (1981). For the purposes of this research, eclecticism will be taken to refer to the eclectic mixing of ideas, principles, designs, techniques, activities and exercises adopted by teachers with a practical perspective in language teaching without any sense of an obligatory reference to theoretical positions. Such mixing may still allow for rational integration and diversity within overall harmony.

Other Characteristics

Perhaps the eclectic approach could also be used to describe the approach of teachers who do not hold strong views about language teaching, as well as those who are not trained specialists in language teaching, but instinctively adopt efficient practices. It is possible to observe a lesson in Malaysia where the teacher begins by reading aloud, for example, a letter from a textbook, and follows with comprehension questions orally. Pattern practice drills may then be used to practice accuracy, followed then by pair or group work by the pupils to discuss possible replies to the letter. The lesson could end with each pupil writing individual replies to the letter in their exercise books. Such a sequence of activities includes elements from The Direct Method, The Audiolingual Method and the Communicative approach. This is what often transpires in the Malaysian context. For Cook (1991), however, eclecticism is a specific defined methodology. The problem in defining eclecticism is deciding how 'informed' an eclecticist has to be, and using a term for what the majority of committed, but non-dogmatic practical teachers do.

Evaluation

Rivers (1981) recommends an eclectic approach, arguing that teachers cannot afford the luxury of commitment to methods in fashion, but need to pick the best for appropriate purposes. Stern suggests that

> "Eclecticists have intuitively grasped that practitioners cannot limit themselves to one teaching method, the results of a single research direction, or the approach offered by one or other of the disciplines...their openness to everything...has been an advantage" (1992, p.14).

However, the strength and practicality of eclecticism may also be the cause of an inherent weakness. Unselective openness is self defeating because it leaves teachers without direction (Stern, 1992). Marton (1988) condemns practical and intuitive eclecticism as "a widespread and common disease" (p.87) which is the cause of much bad teaching, precisely because it is ill-informed, puts together contradictory practices, and goes against the logic of efficiency only arising out of concerted and consistent actions. He rejects theoretical eclecticism as irrelevant

because either a new theory arises, or one of two theoretical positions are modified or extended. While conceding that systemic eclecticism is intuitively appealing and can lead to much good teaching, he argues that it fails because there is insufficient notice taken of learning theories. As a result, teachers can be confused about choosing optimal procedures from those recommended, and will not be able to evaluate the effectiveness of particular techniques and procedures adopted. He also argues that certain sequences of strategies are not possible. For example, the 'receptive' strategy may come before, but not follow communicative or 'reconstructive' strategies. However, Marton (1988) suggests that an eclectic procedure combining the receptive and reconstructive strategies is recommended for remedial teaching. Stern (1983) makes the criticism that eclecticists have not recognised and questioned the fundamental weakness of "the concept of teaching method as a distinct entity and a central concept in language teaching" (p.482). Furthermore, they do not "offer any guidance on what basis and by what principles aspects of different methods can be selected and combined" (p.512). Eclecticism also does not offer criteria for determining which is the best theory (Stern, 1992).

Pointing out that none of the teaching styles nor models of L2 learning is complete, Cook (1991) defends the mainstream EFL style because eclecticism only becomes an issue if two styles concern the same area of L2 learning. However, at the moment

> "all teaching methods are partial in L2 learning terms. Some areas of language are only covered by one type of teaching technique. Some methods conversely deal with only a fraction of the totality of L2 learning" (p.148).

Mainstream EFL is argued to be "neither more nor less eclectic than any other overall teaching style in terms of L2 learning" (p.148).

Other Methods

Some other notable methods include Total Physical Response, and Cook's (1991) humanistic approaches (Community Language Learning, The Silent Way, Suggestopedia) which aim at developing the learners' ability to learn.

Asher's (1966, 1977) Total Physical Response aims to teach oral proficiency to beginners, leading onto basic speaking skills and eventually, uninhibited intelligible communication with native speakers. It is based on the belief that language learning should be built around the coordination of speech and activity, and shares with other humanistic traditions belief in the value of stress-free learning. Typical teaching activities include the use of imperative drills, slide presentation and role-play. The basis of the approach is the learner performance of actions to teacher commands such as 'sit down', 'touch the window', 'give her the chalk' and so on. It appears to draw on a

number of traditions such as development psychology, learning theory and humanistic pedagogy. Second language acquisition (especially in adults) is seen to parallel children's acquisition of the first language. The selection of teaching items is based on ease of assimilation, and the focus of attention is on meaning rather than form. Grammar is taught inductively and the flexible borrowing of techniques is advocated.

Underhill (1989) suggests that common psychological themes underlying humanistic approaches are:

1. Health and well being;
2. The whole person;
3. Motivation towards self-realisation;
4. Development and change;
5. Life-long education;
6. Respecting subjective experience;
7. Self-empowerment.

These themes are realised by scrutinising classroom 'process'. Process "concerns the way in which...content...is taught and learnt from the point of view of the learner, and how that content can become directly relevant to the lives of the learners. Process focuses on the immediate subjective reality of the individuals in the learning group, and is concerned with how participants relate to themselves and each other...Whatever contributes to the ambient learning atmosphere, including the attitudes, values, and awareness of the teacher and of the learners, is part of process" (Underhill, 1989, p.251). He argues that it is these aspects which are valuable about the following humanistic approaches, rather than specific techniques.

Suggestopedia (Lozanov, 1978) aims to provide learners with conversational proficiency quickly. At the same time, Suggestopedia has the general educative goal of promoting understanding and creative problem-solving. What is unique to the method is that it attempts to create conditions for optimal language learning through attractive language learning environments, silence, relaxation and music. Teaching activities in the method include a special procedure for listening, discussing, questioning and answering, imitating and role-playing. Deriving from 'Suggestology' (from psychiatry), the main influences seem to be Soviet psychology and raja-yoga.

The Silent Way (Gattegno, 1972) focuses on expressing meaning using coloured wooden sticks called 'cuesinaire rods', colour-coded wall charts (for teaching pronunciation and vocabulary), a pointer (for the teacher) and reading / writing exercises. Based on the belief that the teacher should should be as silent as possible while the learners are encouraged to produce as much language as possible, the approach aims to develop basic oral and aural elements to near native speaker fluency in the target language. It is claimed that the approach teaches learners how to

learn languages, and that it can be used successfully to teach reading and writing as well (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). The beliefs underlying the approach are that learning increases if learners create and discover (rather than remember and repeat), if physical objects mediate, and where there is problem solving.

Community Language Learning (Curran, 1972, 1976) originates from Counseling-Learning in psychology as applied to language learning. The approach aims at the self-expression of emotions and ideas, so that the learners achieve a positive understanding of themselves and their surroundings, rather than 'do' anything with the language in society. Language teaching is geared towards individual goals, and enhancing general educative values.. The approach aims at engaging the whole person (in affective aspects, behavioural skills and linguistic knowledge). In so doing, it combines innovative and conventional techniques, which can include translation, group work, recordings, transcriptions, reflection and observation, listening and free conversation.

Implications for Teacher Education in Malaysia

Lessons from the past

It is evident that while the attraction of an identifiable method with definite procedures and materials is always a lure, language teaching is more than a 'method' or 'methods'. As student teachers develop, they may realise that educational change "is not a matter of new techniques and resources but fundamentally of shifts between system and sensitivity, process and person, institution and individual" (Bowers, 1987, p.4) Yet, because 'methods' will always attract, student teachers need to be equipped with experience of what each method involves, its strengths and weaknesses, and how a method often works by restricting its focus and excluding aspects from other methods. It is likely that there will not be many adherents to a single-method approach, with the majority preferring eclecticism. As such, awareness of the theoretical underpinnings, strengths and limitations of methods can inform eclecticism, and perhaps make students realise the need to take into account other elements.

Similarly, a focus on methods reveals that often, methods arise out of reaction to others and have different emphases. What this suggests is that no single method is complete; each has strengths and weaknesses. It seems prudent to avoid the single-method approach, and adopt what works for oneself (i.e. informed eclecticism). Furthermore, it is possible to adopt strategies and techniques from various methods and use them in different lessons without creating the kind of conflicts predicted by Marton (1988). It seems acceptable that a teacher can use communicative activities to develop fluency in one week and have structural drills the next week in order to focus on accuracy, preferably after learners have been given an explanation. Bowers (1987) suggests

that successful classroom and project methodology involves being appropriate in approach, techniques, curriculum and resources to the total context of its practice.

Possibilities for the future

Earlier in this chapter, reference was made to frameworks for language teaching, which suggested numerous elements that can affect teaching. Teacher education needs to take account of these numerous elements, and to make student teachers aware that **methodology involves more than methods**. For example, even when a teacher professes to be using a specific method, numerous variables such as Mackey's (1970) 'methods and materials-teacher-instruction' and 'instruction-socioculte-learner' variables (Figure 5) can affect teaching-learning outcomes. A teacher's stern demeanour can stifle communication. Similarly, a learner's inherent belief that a language lesson should involve a teacher giving rules rather than pair work (Nunan, 1988) can provide mismatches of teacher-learner expectations. Observing classroom teaching provides opportunities to raise many such issues, and reflecting on the issues may lead to awareness of the complexity of teaching and learning a language, especially second and foreign languages.

It can be argued that teaching and learning a language is not necessarily unique, but is similar to teaching and learning other subjects and skills. If so, it is perhaps possible to pay greater attention to **developments in other fields** that can have value for language teaching. For example, humanistic approaches to language learning look at other traditions of learning such as psychology and raja-yoga (Suggestopedia) and mathematics (The Silent Way) rather than language learning specifically. Teacher education may need to pay attention to **process** in the classroom, and issues such as "authority and self-determination; co-operation and competition; expectation and motivation; the individual and the group; security and risk; failure and success; self-esteem and its absence; personal meaning; and how participants feel, think, and act in relation to themselves, to each other, and to what they are doing (Underhill, 1989, p. 251-252). For example, subjective experiences such as feelings about being part of a group, or making mistakes, or having to co-operate can affect learning. Similarly, pupils need to be able to trust and be comfortable with their teachers. There is a need for teachers to develop "genuineness; unconditional acceptance; and empathy" (Underhill, 1989, p.258), the characteristics of good 'facilitators' of learning. Such facilitators create an atmosphere conducive to self-directed learning, especially by listening "to the person behind the language" (Underhill, 1989, p.256). Observing classroom experiences on video, and reflecting on these may be ways of learning how successful managers create the appropriate mood for learning.

Apart from attention to aspects of 'process' as exemplified in humanistic approaches, student teachers need to be alerted to the possibility that learners may demonstrate greater autonomy, self-awareness and personal goals. As information technology becomes more widespread, and the ability to retrieve and process information through self-direction increases, teachers may need to

pay heed to learner-centred approaches (Nunan, 1988). Such learner-centred approaches will require negotiating a learner-centred curriculum which will involve "planning (including needs analysis, goals and objectives setting), implementation (including methodology and materials development) and evaluation" (Nunan, 1988, p.2). Nunan's (1988) proposals for adult learners may apply equally well for younger learners. He proposes that given existing constraints present in most learning contexts, one assumption is that learners cannot be taught everything they need to be taught in class. Hence, effective teaching may involve balancing the teaching of language skills (identified by learners as essential) and learning skills (such as learning strategies, objectives setting and self-evaluation). While many aspects of such self-directed learning may have to be addressed directly in teacher education, tasks involving case studies and video observation and analysis may familiarise student teachers with the spirit of self-directed learning.

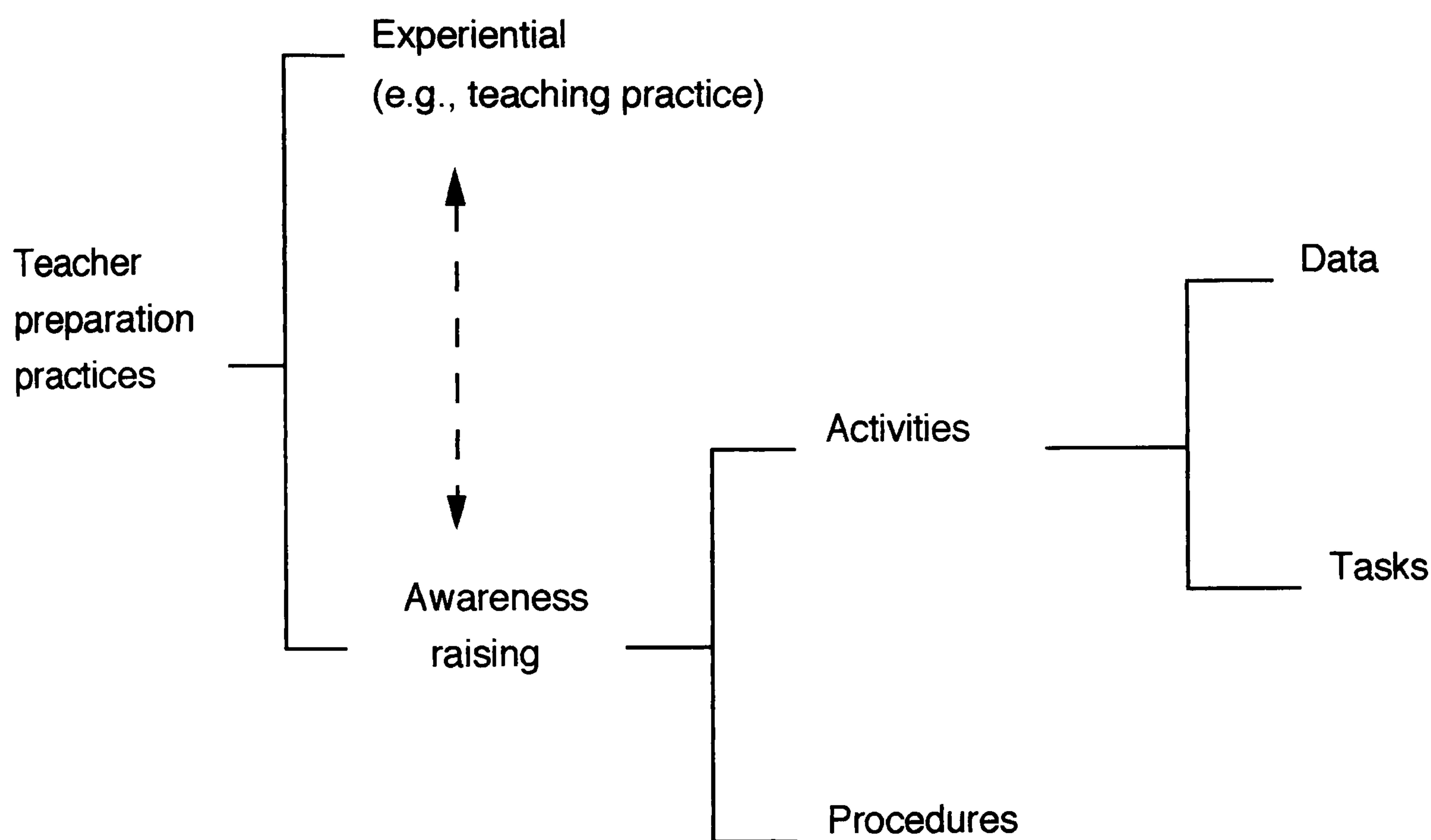


Figure 9: An outline for teacher preparation practices
(source: Ellis, 1990, p.28).

A focus on learner-centred approaches allows for the examination of the roles of learners and teachers. It is argued that such an examination of roles "mediates between theory and practice, because it focuses on the people most intimately involved in the translating of theory into practice, who are able to test and modify theory from practice - teachers" (Wright, 1990, p.84).

Ellis' (1990) proposals for teacher training practices include a distinction between 'awareness raising' and 'experiential activities' (Figure 9). While the latter refers to teaching practice, the former relies on data and tasks to create awareness. Such proposals can accommodate many of the issues raised above within a reflective cycle.

Conclusion

This review of approaches to methodology suggests that different methods have arisen out of differing dissatisfactions, needs, contexts, perspectives and emphases. Each approach and method presents strong as well as weak points, and all have been variously criticised and defended (Marton, 1988; Stern, 1983; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Cook, 1991). It is suggested that language pedagogy has moved away from the 'methods' concept (Allen and Harley, 1992), and a number of alternative terms (and interpretations) have been put forward to explain methodology (Stern, 1983, 1992; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Marton,1988: Cook, 1991). All have, by implicitly or explicitly addressing the numerous problems associated with how language is taught and learnt, made important contributions towards understanding teaching. They have also contributed (by the diversity of views and claims) to some confusion among language teachers. However, Cook (1991) suggests

> "...such diversity reflects the complexity of language and the range of student needs; why should one expect that a system as complex as language could be mastered in a single way? Even adding...teaching styles together gives an inadequate account of the totality of L2 learning. Second language learning means learning in all these ways and more" (p.151).

In general, while 'methods' have been too broad, ill-defined, or not comprehensive enough, 'teacher guides' have failed to distinguish between personal views, controversial issues and relatively established knowledge. Investigations of teaching methods have provided either empirical evidence with a focus on isolated aspects (Stern, 1983), or little in the way of advancing any individual method's claims (Nunan, 1990). Many methods share much in common and overlap (Long, 1990).

Rivers (1968, 1981) has argued for informed eclecticism, but as with every approach, eclecticism has its limitations (Marton, 1988; Cook, 1991), especially when it is open and unselective (Stern, 1992). Richards and Rodgers (1986) suggest that the choice of teaching method is usually one phase of curriculum development activities, and occurs only when needs analysis and a formulation of objectives has been completed; informed eclecticism can play a part at this stage if methods do not match objectives.

It may well be, as Long (1990) argues, that 'methods' exist, but do not matter, or they may not matter because they do not exist (outside of books and discussions about methods) in the classroom. It may also be, as Rodgers (1990) contends, that the 1990s may not be the decade of methods in the way that he feels the 1980s was. However, given the lack of conceptual agreement as to what constitutes language teaching methodology, and the lack of a viable and established alternative, it seems reasonable to continue exploring and understanding further what we as teachers do to help learners achieve second language competence. An interest in language teaching methodology will continue in teacher education, especially at pre-service level, to help create awareness and develop teaching craft. Student teachers need to develop confidence, and as Widdowson (1990) suggests,

> "...they need to draw upon a set of established and reliable techniques and learn to feel secure in the straightforward business of actually putting them into practice, whatever their validity in terms of learning effect might be" (p.64).

At the same time, student teachers need to be made aware that teaching involves management and the creation of conditions conducive to learning, perhaps by focusing on process in the classroom. Such exposure and focus (through real and video-taped teaching) adds to the students' store of knowledge bases (received and experiential) within a reflective orientation. In so doing, and given the interdisciplinary and multi-faceted nature of discussions about language teaching methodology, students may be ready to reflect on the numerous variables involved in the teaching-learning cycle.

CHAPTER 5

ENGLISH IN EDUCATION IN MALAYSIA

Introduction

This chapter will attempt to contextualise this thesis within the broad educational and English language teaching goals of Malaysia, and answer the following questions :

1. What historical factors have shaped the present educational and language policies in Malaysia?

2. What are the essential features of Malaysia's language education policy?

3. What are the aims of Malaysia's education and language policies?

4. What are the status and role of English in Malaysia, especially in education?

5. What strategies have been employed to preserve and propagate English language teaching in Malaysia?

Answers to these questions (regarded as important for understanding the research) will surface in the course of the following review and discussion.

The background of Malaysia

Malaysia, which is South-East Asia, is a relatively prosperous country. Malaysia is one of the world's largest producers of rubber, tin, palm oil, and timber (Andaya and Andaya, 1982). More recently, petroleum related products and components production for the electronics industry have become very significant contributors to the national wealth.

System of Government

Malaysia comprises thirteen states, and is an elective constitutional monarchy. Nine hereditary Malay rulers elect from among their own number the Supreme Head of State (the Yang Di Pertuan Agong) and the Deputy Supreme Head of State (the Timbalan Yang Di Pertuan Agong) for a period of five years. The nine hereditary rulers, the Governors of Malacca, Penang and Sarawak and the Yang Di Pertuan Negara of Sarawak together comprise the Conference of Rulers, which has power relating to Islamic religious matters, certain appointments, and the right

to deliberate on questions of national policy. Executive power rests with the Cabinet, which is led by the Prime Minister. He or she is the leader of the political party that wins the most number of parliamentary seats (in democratic elections), and the cabinet is chosen from members of Parliament. Parliament, to which the cabinet is responsible, is made up of a House of Representatives (elected for a maximum term of five years) and a Senate (sitting for six year terms). Legislative power is divided between State and Federal Legislatures. Power over external affairs, defence, internal security, justice (except Islamic law), citizenship, commerce, finance, communications, industry, and education rests with the Federal Government (Postlethwaite and Thomas, 1980).

People

Malaysia has a population of 18.01 million, which is expected to rise to 20.26 million by 1995 (Government of Malaysia,1991, Table 1.7). The population is made up of multi-ethnic groups, the main groups being Malays, Chinese and Indians. Each group speaks a different language, has a different culture and, in large part, has been demographically separate, with the Chinese being found in urban areas, the Malays in the rural areas, and the Indians mainly in plantations. This general pattern is however slowly undergoing a shift, especially with greater 'rural to urban' migration among the Malays in more recent times (Andaya and Andaya, 1982).

The Malays are the indigenous people of the land, and have been traditionally a tightly-knit community bound together by the Islamic faith, history and culture of their forefathers. In comparison to the Chinese, a Malay was stereotyped as

> "unassertive, oriented toward present consumption rather than delayed rewards, is unwilling to risk his existing security for possible greater profits and has no ambition to accumulate wealth" (Government of United States of America,1965, p.171).

Chinese immigration into the country followed British intervention into the peninsula, and once the "facilities for trade and protection to enjoy the fruits of their industry were available, the Chinese began to pour into Malaya and settle down in ever increasing numbers" (Turnbull, 1978, p.8). They

> "remain[ed] close-knit and socially isolated from the indigenous people in Malaysia with a strong tendency to organise themselves into guilds, mutual aid groups and associations based on dialect, place of origin, occupational relationship and surname relationship" (Choy, 1965, p.60).

As a group, the Chinese are reported to be "economically aggressive since social status among them depends solely on wealth" (McGhee,1964, p.4). They generally tend to take a long-term

approach, forsaking immediate rewards for future gains, but are willing to take risks for greater gains. Influenced by Confucian, Taoist, Buddhist and Christian values, they have taken pride in their education, culture and heritage.

The Indians were encouraged by the British to emigrate from India in order to resource British plantation labour requirements, and were a mix of Hindus, Christians, Muslims and Sikhs showing little inter-group antagonism, prompting Choy (1965) to suggest that their "integration into the Malaysian nation would not be difficult" (p.61). Hindu religious influence has left many Malaysian Indians (Hindus form the majority) fatalistic. The majority of the Indians are found in the lower income groups found in the plantation sector, and have generally lacked the social and economic strengths of the Chinese, and the cohesiveness of the Malays.

British expansion

British presence in Malaya began with Francis Light managing to lease Penang from the Sultan of Kedah. Singapore was similarly obtained from Johor in 1819. When the economic potential was realised, the British expanded into the whole Peninsula and also Borneo by signing treaties with local rulers to establish a system of 'indirect rule'. British presence in Malaya (except for the period of Japanese domination during World War Two) remained until Malaya was granted Independence in 1957.

The nation and its goals

Malaysia may be described as one example of a plural society, which according to Furnival (1948) is one in which the various groups of the multi-racial country mix, but do not synthesise; instead, they remain separate, having their own religions, cultures and languages. Such a situation will obviously not be acceptable to societies committed to the idea of a united nation, but the problem is that people

> "must have a conception of the nation as a whole, and attach positive valuations to this idea before they can feel that national independence and national consolidation are goals worth striving for..." (Myrdal, 1968, p.118).

Successive Malaysian governments have all attempted to achieve this sense of nationhood through cultural, economic and educational policies. Culturally, the country is secular in character, allowing people to retain their own cultures and languages. Officially, even as early as 1968, the government was committed to preserving and sustaining the growth of the various languages and cultures of the different communities in the country. Economically, various national development plans (called Malaysia Plans, the latest being the sixth), have attempted to redistribute wealth to all sections of the population, and give each of the ethnic groups a sense of

well being. Present national goals as detailed in the National Development Policy (NDP) by the Sixth Malaysia Plan are :

> "to attain balanced development in order to create a more unified and just society. NDP which emphasises growth with equity will enable all Malaysians to participate in the mainstream of economic activities, thereby ensuring political stability and national unity. Building upon the ongoing thrust of the NEP [New Economic Policy] in eradicating poverty and restructuring society, NDP will encompass the following critical aspects:
>
> * striking an optimum balance between the goals of economic growth and equity;
> * ensuring a balanced development of the major sectors of the economy so as to increase their mutual complementarities to optimize growth;
> * reducing and ultimately eliminating the social and economic inequalities and imbalances in the country to promote a fair and more equitable sharing of the benefits of economic growth by all Malaysians;
> * promoting and strengthening national integration by reducing the wide disparities in economic development between states and between urban and rural areas in the country;
> * developing a progressive society in which all citizens enjoy greater material welfare, while simultaneously imbued with positive social and spiritual values, and an increased sense of national pride and consciousness;
> * promoting human resource development including creating a productive and disciplined labour force and developing the necessary skills to meet the challenges in industrial development through a culture of merit and excellence without jeopardising the restructuring objectives;
> * making science and technology an integral component of socio-economic planning and development, which entails building competence in strategic and knowledge-based technologies, and promoting a science and technology culture in the process of building a modern industrial economy; and
> * ensuring that in the pursuit of economic development, adequate attention will be given to the protection of the environment and ecology so as to maintain the long-term sustainability of the country's development" (Government of Malaysia, 1991, para. 1.05).

The latest national goal, referred to as 'Vision 2020' by the Prime Minister Mahathir Mohamad, aims to make Malaysia a developed country by the year 2020. It is supposed to represent a long-term goal replacing the New Economic Policy (to be explained later) which has ended .

Educational policies have attempted to create a single national system of education out of the four (English, Malay, Chinese and Indian) systems inherited from the past in order to forge a sense of

commonality, and nationhood. These attempts to achieve unity through educational strategies and reform will provide the first (brief) focus of this chapter. The second focus will be on the place of English in Malaysia.

History of Education in Malaysia

This review and discussion will focus on the historical factors that have helped shape developments in education, and language policies in Malaysia.

The discussion will be divided into four phases, namely:

Before World War Two;
After World War Two;
From Independence (1957) to 1969; and
From 1970.

Before World War Two

General schooling in the Malay states before the coming of the Europeans consisted of religious classes conducted by Muslim missionaries, while royalty learnt the Quran, as well as military skills and astrology (Beebout,1972). Much of the documented evidence on educational developments comes from British sources (e.g Winstedt,1917; Thomas, 1940).

Education in British Malaya

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, interest in the teaching of English was advocated to meet the labour requirements (commercial and administrative) of the British. This resulted in increased attention being paid to education (Kok, 1978). British policy towards vernacular education varied in motivation in response to British needs and perception of the roles of the various communities. These efforts will be elaborated upon in the following sections.

Chinese vernacular education

The Chinese have always valued education, and in Malaysia this led to the establishment of Chinese vernacular schools using the predominant dialect of that settlement wherever there have been Chinese children. In most cases these schools evolved out of the Chinese community's own efforts and donations, either through individuals or the Chinese associations (Wong and Ee, 1975).

Chinese education came to be associated with the preservation of the Chinese way of life and culture. It had a tendency to look to China for inspiration, aided by China's attitude then that overseas Chinese were in effect still natives of China, and not citizens of the lands they were living in (Mills, 1942) The Chinese government sent inspection teams to these schools, provided aid grants and expected accountability to them in Nanking (Purcell, 1948). Such a state of affairs could obviously not be allowed to go on, and the British instituted a series of legislation over a period of years aimed at controlling Chinese education. By 1940, the British view was that Chinese schools were a source of anti-British activity and Communism, and hence needed to be controlled, either through financial control or by inducing a swing to English-based education (Kok, 1978).

Malay vernacular education

Malay education was restricted to primary education (Andaya and Andaya,1982). The curriculum seems to have been guided by the perception "early on in terms of a fossilised agrarian peasantry" (Rudner,1977, p.25) that the Malays would be happy to continue being farmers and fisherman in land areas put aside for them and "to till their lands or to occupy themselves with handicrafts and agriculture" (Asmah,1979, p.147).

In general, there seems to have been a reluctance to interfere with a romantic perception of the quality of the Malay way of life, and requests for the introduction of the teaching of English in Malay schools by Malay chiefs was refused by the British administrators in 1920 (Loh, 1975). Malay vernacular education was impoverished and did not lead to opportunities for socio-economic advancement (Wong and Ee, 1975).

Indian vernacular education

Indians were enticed to work in the plantation sector involving rubber, coffee, sugar and coconut. British commitment to Indian vernacular education is reflected in their desire to ensure that there were schools in the plantations, not only to keep the workers happy, but also as a way of making sure that these Indian pupils stayed on in the plantations, thereby building a pool of labour (Furnival, 1948).

While there was enormous linguistic diversity among the Indian immigrants, it was mostly Tamil education that the British sponsored. While ensuring that Tamil medium schools were established, the Labour Code of 1923 did not mention any minimum quality of education, or the minimum number and quality of physical buildings (Arasaratnam,1979).

In 1947, there were 741 Tamil schools (Asmah, 1979). However, with no real government commitment to quality in Tamil-medium education, the enrolment in Tamil schools gradually

declined after Independence in 1957. The main problem with Tamil education was that, similar to Malay vernacular education, it was limited to the elementary levels only, and offered no prospects for long term improvements. But unlike the Malays, the Indians did not find a suitable advocate in power to recommend its educational cause, nor did it, unlike the Chinese, have the necessary resources to be self-sustaining.

English-medium schools

English medium schools, being the best organised and most developed, came to be associated with better jobs, and white collar employment which was preferred to manual labour (Koh,1967). As such, English medium schools were preferred to education in the vernacular. Historically, English "grammar type education became the accepted preparation for social recruitment to leadership roles in public administration and corporate enterprise" (Rudner,1977, p.57).

As the colonial government did not have the means to provide education for the whole country (Chelliah,1960), private organisations and missions were encouraged to build schools. Thus, English medium schools were established mainly by missionaries, voluntary organisations or private efforts (Wong and Ee,1971; Rudner,1977). It would be true to say that the Christian missionaries were "largely responsible for establishing modern secular education in Malaya" (Watson,1984, p.134), and offered quality education in the English medium, which included religious and moral education mainly in urban areas, thus benefiting the mainly urban Chinese population (Sandhu,1976). One reason as to why these schools had very few Malays was that Christian missionaries "were debarred from proselytising the Malays and thus from establishing schools among them" (Watson,1984, p.134). Another was a fear among the rural Malays that education through the English language would lead to a conversion to Christianity (Asmah, 1983).

The success of the mission schools and the demand for more English medium schools convinced the government to open its own 'free' schools offering education in English. Many of these schools, were established in urban areas, matching available resources with areas of dense population (Wong and Ee,1971), and maintaining the British policy of protecting Islam in the Malay states (Asmah, 1983). Unfortunately, this concentration of English medium schools in urban areas meant that those in rural areas (especially Malays and to a lesser extent, the Indians) did not benefit.

There were two exceptions to this. The first was the establishment in 1905 of Malay College in the royal town of Kuala Kangsar. It was a boarding school based on the lines of Eton and Harrow, catering exclusively for the education of the children of Malay royalty and "of good family" (Stevenson, 1975, p.178), because the British believed that only the upper class Malay

children could become rulers of the country (Loh, 1967, p.20). When education in the English medium was extended to the Malay commoners, it was not to train them to be "professionals of some calibre in any field, as this was contradictory to the policy of divide and rule" (Asmah, 1983, p.243). Rather, the rural Malays were to remain farmers and fishermen, while urban Malays "should not achieve a status beyond that of clerks, typists and office boys" (p. 243). The second avenue for Malays to get an English medium education was through the provision of Special Malay Classes. Exceptional Malay children were selected for these classes (for two years) following four years of Malay-medium primary education. If satisfactory progress occurred, they were able to join and continue in English medium schools.

English medium education was divided into primary, middle and secondary levels, and was based on the system in Britain. When the Cambridge Local Examination was introduced in 1891, the position of English medium education was immensely enhanced, as a good pass in the English paper was often the path to government related jobs. Higher education became available locally for English medium educated when the Singapore Medical School was established in 1905. The recommendations of the Firmstone Committee in 1918, which studied possibilities for higher education in Malaya, led to the foundation of Raffles College in 1949 (Wong and Ee,1971). Raffles College was eventually to become the University of Malaya with a branch campus established in Kuala Lumpur in 1957. Admission required a pass in the School Certificate examination with credits in English and three other subjects.

After World War Two

Recognising that freedom would have to be granted, especially after their experiences in India, the British began taking steps to prepare for the transition of power, and to create conditions for nationhood in Malaya. But there were numerous problems that had to be attended to before independence could be granted. These problems included Communist insurrection (essentially by the Chinese, and linked to the problem of Chinese nationalism), communal political tensions and Malay nationalism.

Malaysia's fundamental problem has been whether a meaningful and cohesive society can be moulded "out of the various ethnic, linguistic and cultural groups, brought into one economic and political entity by an overriding European power" (Lee, 1968, p.4). Proposed solutions have been framed by a number of commissions and reports on education. Since 1946, there have been no less than six Commissions and major government reports on education, the last being in 1985. These are :

- 1951 - The Committee on Malay Education, headed by Barnes, and henceforth referred to as The Barnes Report,

- 1951 - The Mission invited to Study the Problems of the Chinese in Malaya, headed by Dr.William Fenn and Wu Teh-yao, henceforth referred to as the Fenn-Wu Report,
- 1956 - The Education Committee, headed by Abdul Razak, henceforth referred to as the Razak Report,
- 1960 - The Education Review Committee, headed by Rahman Talib, henceforth referred to as the Rahman Talib Report,
- 1971 - Education In Malaysia Committee, headed by Hussein Onn, hereafter referred to as the Hussein Onn Report and
- 1985 - The Cabinet Committee, headed by Mahathir Mohammed, and hereafter referred to as the the Cabinet Report.

The last four of the above were formed to study the overall system of education, whereas the impetus for the first two arose out of the problems of individual ethnic groups.

Malay nationalism became evident from the 1920s. Malay Nationalism took many forms, including calls for independence, the return of authority to the ruling Sultans, and the position of the Malays in the country. Where education was concerned, it expressed itself in dissatisfaction with the quality of education provided through the Malay vernacular system. The British responded to the Malay dissatisfaction with education by appointing the Barnes Committee to look into problems facing the Malays.

The Barnes Report (1951)

The Barnes Report went beyond its mandate and looked into the overall problem of the plural society, and recommended that government aid to Tamil and Chinese schools be withdrawn. Furthermore, it recommended that the primary pupils be bilingual in Malay and English, feeding into English post-primary institutions. In making this link between language and national unification, the report was also aware that it was proposing a system in which Malay would be the only oriental language to be taught. While Malay nationalists argued that the Barnes Report did not do enough for the Malay language, the Chinese protested vehemently.

Chinese nationalism expressed itself in pride in Chinese language and culture, and became entrenched in the Chinese medium schools. It created a sense of possessiveness that was highly sensitive and suspicious of whatever was seen to threaten Chinese language education, exemplified in protests that greeted the Barnes Report (Federation of Malaya, 1951a) which forced the British to placate the Chinese by commissioning a new study of Chinese education (Fenn-Wu Report, Federation of Malaya, 1951b). At the same time, the British saw Chinese education as sources of Communist and anti-British agitation. Thus one effective way to deal with this problem was to reduce opportunities for Communism to influence young minds, by the restriction of Chinese schools.

Fenn-Wu Report (1951)

To pacify the Chinese the Fenn-Wu Committee was commissioned. This committee argued for the validity of vernacular schools, it recommended instead that Chinese schools be trilingual, with English and Malay being introduced in the third and fifth years respectively. Thus, Chinese schools were seen to be capable of being integrated into the proposed national system. The Fenn-Wu Report further promoted the welfare of the Chinese by proposing the need for a Chinese language university, which led to the establishment of Nanyang University in Singapore in 1956.

Political developments

Democratic elections were held In 1955, and the Alliance party (a coalition of United Malay National Organisation or UMNO, the Malayan Chinese Association or MCA and the Malayan Indian Congress or MIC) won. The Alliance has won all subsequent elections and has continued to hold power, although by the 1971 elections, the party had become the National Front (Barisan Nasional) to include new alliances. In essence, the party has represented inter-communal consultation and cooperation, and its victories have stood for a pragmatic resignation of the Malaysian population to the view that it represents the only political choice for the country. The Federation of Malaya came into being in 1957 under Tunku Abdul Rahman, but Singapore was allowed internal self-government under Lee Kuan Yew and the People' Action Party in 1958. The transitional constitution was expected to expire in 1963, with Singapore being expected to demand and obtain full independence.

The existence of four separate educational systems was considered to be non-conducive to the creation of a united nation. Vernacular education is often highly prized. In fact, it has been recognised

> "...as axiomatic that the best medium for teaching a child is his mother tongue. Psychologically it is the system of meaningful sounds that in his mind works automatically for expression and understanding. Sociologically, it is a means of identification among the members of the community to which he belongs. Educationally, he learns more quickly through it" (UNESCO, 1953, p.11).

The problem, however, is that the propagation of education in different languages promoted different views of the world which were "relevant to the maintenance of the cultural identity of each group, but they were all... incongruous in the...conditions of a country preparing for national independence" (Chai, 1977, p.26). The fact that each of these systems was made up mostly of members of the language specific community inevitably created group and communal

identities, and thereby created a lack of commonality which was not going to help integration. English medium schools however, while genuinely providing commonality and a certain amount of cross-ethnic integration (Chai,1977), are alleged to have promoted alien views and values (Watson, 1983).

The choice of a national language was an important issue. Language planning involves "the organized pursuit of solutions to language problems, typically at the national level" (Fishman, 1973, p.23-24). Very often the choice is between nationalism or nationism. Nationism (referring to the degree of political unity) is best served by political integration. Thus, the more nationistic a country is, the more integrative it is, and usually, for practical and linguistic purposes, it is best served by a language of wider communication. Nationalism, on the other hand, is more concerned with "ethnic authenticity" than operational efficiency and is best served by developing an ethnic-based indigenous language (Fishman,1969). Gupta (1970) points out that political problems usually ensure that "convenience, rationality and efficiency are not necessarily the decisive criteria" (p.21) in the choice of the national language. While Malay had been the dominant language before the advent of the British and served as the lingua franca amongst the non-English educated across the communities, English had too many colonial associations, and the Chinese and Indian languages were considered to be immigrant and not indigenous languages. The available options included the concept of "one nation-one language", which would aim to impose one language over others, and impose social homogenisation and amalgamation, but imposition

> "in most cases has purchased political discipline at the cost of alienation of social groups from the political authority. In doing this, what is gained in point of temporary stability is generally lost in point of political integration..." (Gupta, 1968, p.23).

What this implies is that one group is able to impose its values and wishes over the other groups in the country.

The other option is the concept of "one nation - more than one language" which may be considered the pluralistic approach. In this case, the diverse languages of the various cultural groups are preserved in the cultural and language planning. However, a common language which does not inspire resistance because of sentimental or emotional attachments with regards any specific language group is required to 'link' the groups (Nadkarni, 1978). Singapore eventually chose the second option, with Malay as the national language, but having Mandarin, Tamil and English also as official languages. In Malaysia, tempered by a sense of compromise among the various community leaders, Malay was chosen as the national and official language (under Article 152 (1) of the Malayan Constitution,1957). An official language in the Malaysian context means "a language which is used in government administration (viz. in the writing of reports and minutes of meetings, in correspondence, meetings, interviews etc.) and official

ceremonies (speeches, announcements, taking of vows, pledges etc.)" (Asmah, 1983, p.230). The constitution also provided that no one would be prohibited or prevented from using, teaching or learning any other language (Article 152). It also provided for the continued use of the English language for a period of ten years.

On the eve of Independence, the Razak Committee was commissioned to draw up a new educational policy, and it took into account the recommendations of the Barnes and Fenn-Wu Reports.

The Razak Report (1956)

The Razak Report laid the foundation of the present national education policy, and placed special emphasis on language. It suggested that the ultimate aim of education in the country must be unity, and bringing all children into a national system in which the national language would be the main medium of instruction.

The Razak Committee, however, recognised that this could not be rushed, and saw

> "no educational objection to the learning of three languages in secondary schools or to the use of more than one language in the same school as the medium of instruction" (Razak Report,1956, p.12).

Thus the status quo was maintained with English, Malay, Mandarin and Tamil being continued in schools. While being committed to making Malay the national language of the country, the committee was mindful of the need to preserve and sustain the growth of the language and culture of every race in the country. Bilingualism was to be encouraged, with non-Malays being encouraged to learn Malay, and Malays being encouraged to learn English. Among the many other recommendations made by the Razak Report were :

- the provision of publicly funded Tamil or Mandarin language instruction in any school where parents of fifteen children requested these;
- making the Malay language a qualification at the various levels of entry into government service;
- making the Malay language a requirement for anyone aspiring to a scholarship from public funds;
- making the Malay language a compulsory part of teacher training courses and examinations (Razak Report,1956, p.14).

Many of the Razak Report recommendations were adopted by the various governmental agencies, and have now become standard practice. The Razak Committee paved the way for a

national system of education that would be ultimately unified through the use of the national language. The Constitution of Malaya at Independence in 1957 stipulated that the Malay language was to be the national language of the country, but both English and Malay would be official languages for a period of ten years, after which Malay would replace English and become the only official language, and the main medium of instruction.

From Independence to 1969

The Rahman Talib Report (1960)

The Rahman Talib Committee was formed to evaluate implementation of the Razak Report. The Rahman Talib Report restated the same national educational objectives as the Razak Report but stated that education in different languages was not desirable, and certainly should not extend into the secondary system. It's major recommendation was that public secondary education at secondary be conducted mainly Malay and English with the intention of ultimately using the national language as the main medium of instruction, except that other languages and literatures may be taught and learnt in their own media" (Rahman Talib Report, 1960, pp.3-4).

The Report also proposed (announced by the government in 1965) that major public examinations be conducted only in the two official languages, thereby ensuring that the schools, for pragmatic reasons, would have to consider switching to one of the two language mediums. It also made a case for the training of Malay language teachers, and the expediting of Malay textbook production, both original and translated. The Report was the basis of the 1961 Education Act, which effectively abolished Chinese-medium secondary education in National-type schools. English-medium instruction in the National-type schools was, however, preserved (Andaya and Andaya, 1982).

The formation of Malaysia, and related developments

The 1960s was a period of significant political development. In 1963, Malaya, Singapore, Sabah and Sarawak came together to form a new nation called Malaysia. The period also witnessed public discussion of many sensitive issues such as the choice of the national language, the status of Malays, educational options and national goals. The People's Action Party championed a call for a 'Malaysian Malaysia' as against a 'Malay Malaysia' which it claimed was being imposed by the UMNO-dominated Alliance government. These led to communal tensions, and in 1965, fear of inter-ethnic violence led to the government separating Singapore from the Federation of Malaysia despite protests from Singapore's leaders (Andaya and Andaya,1982). Many of the issues that had surfaced did not die out however, and continued to place stress on inter-communal relationships. Chinese militants continued to agitate for making Chinese a national language, especially in 1967 when the ten year grace period for the use of English came

to an end. The effort failed, and the National Language Act which was passed the same year put a stop to any debate on the status of the Malay language by making it the sole official language. The use of English was, however, given an extension until 1973. The Chinese have continued to push for greater recognition of the Chinese language, and the issue resurfaced with demands for the right to establish a Chinese medium university.

As far as the government was concerned, the solution to the problem of ethnicity seemed to lie in moulding a future Malaysian individual loyal to the nation and not to particular states or ethnic groups. Few

> "would have disagreed in seeing this goal as the only guarantee of Malaysia's survival; it was, however, the interpretation of what should constitute this 'new Malaysian' which became the contentious issue. The UMNO-dominated Alliance government decided that the basis...would be Malaya's traditional culture and heritage, meaning Malay language and culture. The other ethnic groups argued for a Malaysian identity which would reflect the country's multi-ethnic background" (Andaya and Andaya, 1982, p. 277).

For many non-Malay groups, education and language were real sources of discontent, and government policies were seen as being directed to securing more special privileges for the Malays.

Non-Malays have generally insisted on cultural pluralism, although granting the need for a local orientation in education. While willing to become Malaysians politically and culturally they are determined to

> "remain Chinese and Indians. In advocating a policy of cultural pluralism, the non-Malays protest that it is meaningless to ask them to become absorbed into a common [Malaysian] culture because that culture has yet to be identified" (Ratnam, 1965, p.136).

For many Malays, on the other hand, especially the more communal minded, not enough was being done to enhance the position and status of the Malays, particularly in comparison to the 'migrant' communities. The issue focused for them in getting the status of the Malay language entrenched as the national language, which to them was one of the cardinal conditions for non-Malays being accepted into the Malaysian political community. It was also "a matter of ethnic pride that at least one aspect of their culture should be adopted by the other ethnic groups" (Andaya and Andaya, 1982, p.278). The Malays felt they were in danger of losing out economically in their own country when compared to non-Malays. The economic structure of the country in the 1960s seemed to show division along ethnic lines, with the non-Malays

predominating in modern sector employment. Urban Malays were encouraged to join the civil service, and this resulted in 62 per cent of government employees being Malays while the majority were left as subsistence farmers and fishermen. The Chinese on the other hand controlled the major businesses, import / export firms, transportation, rice-milling, banking, insurance and tin related industries (Watson, 1984, p.134). Non-Malays also dominated the professions (Jayasuria, 1980, p.129).

Riots (1969)

Events reached reached boiling point in the run-up to the 1969 elections, and when opposition parties won a very large number of seats, so that the UMNO-dominated Alliance was not in a position to form a government by majority, the Malays began to feel that even their political control of the country was slipping. In May 1969, racial riots broke out in Kuala Lumpur and other main cities (essentially between the Malays and the Chinese) on a scale not previously seen in the country. Another reason for the riots was a "growing sense of fear and insecurity among the Malays, due to the disparity existing between themselves and the non-Malays, particularly in the fields of education and economy" (National Operations Council, 1971, p.5). The riots had far reaching consequences for the country, as the following discussion reveals.

Since 1970

The decades since 1970 have been marked by a number of economic, social and educational developments. The riots of May 1969 may be considered the watershed of recent Malaysian history in the sense that it channelled the Government towards taking decisive goal-directed action, and making many issues non-negotiable and non-questionable. Malay nationalism, which had been more moderate before, became radical in nature, characterised by the following: adoption of Malay as a national symbol and using the language as a means to unite and integrate the various races; the equating of non-allegiance to the Malay language with disloyalty to Malaysia; and using Malay as a means of propagating Malay culture (Tan, 1978). Constitutional amendments (passed after Parliament resumed in 1971) ensured that sensitive issues could not any longer be discussed in public, even in Parliament. These sensitive issues included the power and status of the Malay rulers, Malay special privileges, citizenship, Malay as the national language and the status of Islam as the official religion.

The Malaysian Government decided that the most immediate goals of the nation were national unity, eradication of poverty, manpower development for economic growth and accelerating Malay social and economic mobility (Tan, 1982). Underlying these was the conviction that the goals could be achieved through the education system. The problem has been that the four goals are linked, but the strategies that have evolved suggest a contradiction. In order to achieve

national unity, common elements that bond the various ethnic groups together would be emphasised. In order to achieve the eradication of poverty and provide for the upliftment of the Malays, however, the Government has seen fit to divide the population into Bumiputras (meaning literally 'sons of the soil') and non-Bumiputras. Therein remains the contradiction in governmental efforts to create a common united Malaysia in the years since 1970, and only time can tell whether the goal will be realised.

Economic and social measures.

The first significant measure was the formulation of the New Economic Policy (NEP) to be implemented over a period of twenty five years (from 1971 to 1990), and has been "an effort to satisfy the more immediate demands of the Malays for the reduction of economic disparity while maintaining long-term growth" (Andaya and Andaya, 1982, p.284). The basis of the NEP "was the argument that national unity and integration could not be achieved where one or more groups felt disadvantaged in relation to other groups" (Mukherjee, 1990, p.222). Second, the Second Malaysia Plan (1971 to 1975) was seen as the first in a series of development plans which aimed to achieve the goals of the NEP, namely, the eradication of poverty regardless of race, and the restructuring of society so that there would be an eradication and eventual elimination of the association of ethnic groups with economic functions. This first goal was to be achieved by making land, capital, training and public amenities available to the poor. The strategy to achieve restructuring, it was decided, was to establish an employment pattern that reflected the ethnic population of the country (which in 1970 in Peninsula Malaysia was 53.2 per cent Malay, 35.4 per cent Chinese, 10.7 per cent Indian and 0.8 per cent others), and to achieve by 1990 the following proportion of share capital in commercial and industrial sectors : 30 per cent by Malays and other indigenous groups, 40 per cent by other Malaysians, and 30 per cent by foreigners (Andaya and Andaya, 1982). The strategy adopted may be described as 'reverse discrimination' after Gross (1977), implying

> "giving special or preferred treatment to persons who are members of racial or religious, or ethnic groups or a sex against whose membership generally unjust discrimination was or is being practised" (quoted in Spaulding and Shuib, 1989, p.106).

Some discontent still remains. Progress in achieving this goal of social restructuring was affected by slow economic growth and limited employment opportunities, but out of 996,400 new jobs created between 1985 and 1990, Bumiputras obtained 60 per cent compared to Chinese, 32 per cent, and Indians, 7.0 per cent. Most of the jobs obtained by the Bumiputras were in manufacturing, agriculture and commerce (Sixth Malaysia, 1991, 1.26, p.12). Tzannatos (1991) suggests that reverse discrimination is inefficient as a policy, and that it has mainly benefited the better-off Bumiputras.

Spaulding and Shuib (1989) report the following effects of the New Economic Policy :

- Malay leaders worrying that Malays are becoming increasingly complacent, possibly creating a dependence and subsidy orientation;
- the reduction of inter-ethnic differences, but the creation of intra-ethnic differences;
- wealth increase among Malays being limited to the Malay elites;
- non-Bumiputras feeling deprived of economic, educational cultural, political and citizenship rights;
- poverty among the poor Malays and non-Malays remaining;
- reduced opportunities for the non-Malays as compared to the past;
- resentment among the non-Malays as a result of Bumiputra preferential treatment; and
- racial polarisation among the people, especially among university students.

Education measures

Changes that have occurred to national education in Malaysia since 1970 must be understood against the background of the economic and social measures described above.

Implementation of Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction

In 1970, it was decided that all English-medium schools would convert into Malay-medium. Education was to be in a common language in order to create unity in the country. Asmah (1983) expresses the justification as follows:

> "Based on the statistics taken in 1967-1968, of the total population in English schools 28% were Malays; 39% Chinese; and 26% Indians; while the country's population at that time consisted of 46% Malays; 34.1% Chinese; 9.0% Indians; and 10.15% others...Chinese were proportionately represented, the Indians over-represented and the Malays under-represented...The National Education Policy, in which language planning is an important component, is one of the instruments employed to erase this state of racial imbalance" (Asmah, 1983, p. 242).

The schedule was that one at a time, starting from Primary One (in 1970) and moving up the education system with that group of pupils, the whole system would be in Malay by the year 1983 (Government of Malaysia, 10th July, 1969, Professional Circular No.8 / 1969). In order to overcome the shortage of teachers, intensive (3 month) Malay language courses were imposed as part of retraining, and upon their return, teachers were expected to perform efficiently using the Malay language. By 1972, a pass in the Bahasa Malaysia paper became compulsory at the School Certificate level (now renamed the Malaysian Certificate of Education). It will be

sufficient to note that qualitatively, the education system suffered, and passing examinations became a sensitive and crucial requirement in what was seen as insecure times. Learning became, and continues to be instrumental for purposes of obtaining qualifications, and not necessarily for intrinsic reasons.

Expansion of Education

Since the Second Malaysia Plan (1971-75), numerous residential schools, among others, have been created to benefit the rural Malay school children. All of these are boarding schools based on the original Malay College, and spread out over the peninsula. The aim behind these schools has been to compensate for rural handicaps and provide a science biased education of the highest quality with the best facilities and teachers, and also to provide opportunities for educational experimentation and modification in order to improve existing programmes (Halliwell et al., 1973). In addition, there also are junior science-biased schools, which together with the residential schools total nineteen, accounted for an enrolment of 23,400 in 1983 (Government of Malaysia,1984).

Tertiary education

In 1970, there were only two universities in Malaysia, Universiti Malaya (University of Malaya) and Universiti Sains Malaysia (Science University of Malaysia). Three others were created in the same year, namely Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (National University of Malaysia), Universiti Pertanian Malaysia (Agricultural University of Malaysia) and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (Technical University of Malaysia), the last two of which were established by upgrading existing colleges. These measures were expected not only to meet the additional facilities required to meet the needs of increased Malay student intake, but also to promote the use of Bahasa Malaysia in all of the courses taught. Since then, two more universities, Universiti Islam Antarabangsa (International Islamic University) and Universiti Utara Malaysia (Northern University of Malaysia), have been established.

According to Watson (1980), the greatest educational discrimination in favour of Malays has been at the tertiary education level. The government's concern was not only to increase the Malay share of the total enrolment, but also to overcome under representation in certain fields, especially medicine, engineering and science. As such, Malay students have been allocated a very large number of government scholarships (Mehmet and Hoong, 1983). The numbers of Malays enrolled in university education increased from 35.6 per cent of 7,667 students to 66.7 per cent of 20,764 students in 1980 (Government of Malaysia, 1981). By 1975, Malays were more proportionately represented, and by 1990, Bumiputra representation in the professional occupations such as engineers, accountants and architects had increased from 22.2 to 29 per cent

(Sixth Malaysia Plan,1991, 1.26, p.13). In 1990, the ethnic breakdown of professionals showed that the Chinese were the largest group of architects, accountants, engineers, dentists doctors, lawyers and surveyors. The share of Indians, on the other hand, did not show much improvement (Sixth Malaysia Plan,1991, p.13-14). The existence of quotas and preferential intake has in some cases forced people to send their children overseas for what is now extremely expensive tertiary education. In 1990, the total enrolment overseas tertiary level institutions was about 52,000 (Government of Malaysia, 1991, pp. 5.21, p.163) Most of the Malays studying overseas tend to be on government awards. Recently the Government has had to review its policy with regards overseas students. The first reason has been the increasing fees and disadvantageous foreign exchange rates. The other is because of growing fundamentalist Islamic influence on Malay students (Mukherjee, 1990).

The present solution to this problem, and the problem of the continuing demand for education, at all levels from preschool to tertiary levels, has been government approval for increasing private sector involvement in education, "as this will supplement public sector efforts. Expansion of places at the tertiary level through twinning programmes and preparatory courses in the country will also reduce the outflow of foreign exchange..." (Government of Malaysia, 1991, pp.5.83, p.181). In fact, the number of twinning programmes are on the increase involving, presently, universities from Australia, the United States and Britain.

Curriculum development

The formal curriculum for Malaysian schools is represented by the following documents :

- the Schools (Courses of Studies) Regulations, 1956 ;
- the various subject syllabuses issued by the Ministry of Education ;
- the list of textbooks approved by the Textbooks Bureau of the Ministry of Education ; and
- the guides and regulations for the various public examinations issued by the examinations syndicate.

As identified earlier, common syllabuses and examinations have been seen as avenues for creating unity. Generally, curriculum development in Malaysia has been subject-based, in the sense that it has been concerned with the preparation of subject syllabuses, supervising the production of textbooks, developing teacher guides and teacher training. Generally, the goals and objectives of the curriculum are obtained from the educational policy defined by Parliament. Asiah (1988) suggests that the national philosophy of education

> "lays special emphasis on the harmonious and integrated development of intellectual, spiritual, moral, social, emotional and physical attributes of the individual in the context

of a united, balanced and progressive Malaysian society" (p.138),

towards which goals the curriculum renewal efforts have been directed. The introduction of the Kurikulum Baru Sekolah Rendah (New Primary School Curriculum) or KBSR in 1983 advocated a return to the 3Rs, reading, writing and arithmetic. In order to instil an early interest in science and technical subjects, the KBSR incorporates various subjects like Man and His Environment and Manipulative Skills (Sixth Malaysia Plan, 1991, 5.09, p.159). Curricular changes have accompanied the classes up the school ladder and the Kurikulum Baru Sekolah Menengah (Integrated Curriculum for Secondary Schools) or KBSM was implemented in 1989, which together with the KBSR is expected to "produce a balanced individual with the relevant knowledge and skills as well as with strong moral and ethical values" (Sixth Malaysia Plan, 1991, 5.04, p.158).

Examinations

The Federation of Malaysia Examinations Syndicate is responsible for examinations (both organised by itself and overseas bodies). In the past, all public examinations served to differentiate pupils of varying attainment, but now, only examinations at secondary school and university level have this function. The examinations are:

- the Secondary School Entrance examination after six years of primary education; this was discontinued and replaced by the Standard V Assessment Examination in 1967 for remediation purposes as well as for selection of pupils for the residential schools;
- the Lower Certificate of Education (Sijil Rendah Pelajaran) examination after three years of secondary schooling; since 1978 it has been conducted entirely in Bahasa Malaysia, and is used as a selection device for continuing secondary schooling and for channelling students into arts, science, technical and vocational streams;
- the Malaysian Certificate of Education (Sijil Pelajaran Malaysian) examination after five years of secondary schooling; this used to be a joint examination for the General Certificate of Education, and was conducted in both English and Bahasa Malaysia in collaboration with the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate; it is now administered by by the Malaysian syndicate, and is conducted entirely in Bahasa Malaysia;
- the Sixth Form Entrance examination also administered after five years of secondary schooling, but now discontinued;
- the Malaysian Vocational Certificate of Education examination administered at the end of secondary vocational education ; and
- the Higher Certificate of Education (Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran) after seven years of secondary schooling.

Public examinations in Malaysia are serious matters involving commitment to oaths of secrecy for all personnel involved and a ritual of bureaucratic procedures. Private tuition is now a well established feature of the Malaysian scene. A study found 52 per cent of students in examination classes attending tuition. 59 per cent of urban students took tuition as compared to 29 per cent of rural students, and 65 per cent of high achievers attended tuition classes. The study estimated that at least $2.6 million was spent on tuition ("Unfair to say tutors are better:Fong", The Star, 16th September,1991, p.9). The result is the importance attached by students to paper qualifications, and the general belief among the public that the quality of teaching in schools is inadequate.

Teacher education

Following the recommendations of the Razak Report, an attempt was made to coordinate teacher education in line with the national education policy. Postlethwaite and Thomas (1980) in describing the system of teacher education in Malaysia, point out that teachers for the primary system were trained to teach as general purpose teachers in any one language, but by 1970, instruction was in Bahasa Malaysia with English a compulsory second language. Instead of remaining general all-purpose colleges, most of the secondary school teacher training institutions have been organised in terms of subject specialisation since 1964. Teacher education is organised at graduate level by most of the universities primarily for teaching upper secondary classes. However, the Ministry of Education is now considering sending graduates with English language qualifications into primary schools in an effort to provide a good foundation in English, and to reduce the need for remediation at the secondary level. University training may be in the form of a one year Diploma in Education for graduates or through built-in undergraduate courses such as Universiti Sains Malaysia's B.A. with Education. The usual length of training is 4 years in either approach. At the non-graduate level, training is undertaken by the Ministry of Education through twenty five teacher training colleges. Nineteen are in West Malaysia, three in Sabah, and two in Sarawak. Most of these originally conducted two year certificate courses (increased to three years now), although one year specialist courses (at the Technical Teachers Training College and the Specialist Teacher Training College) and a three year course at the Kent Teacher Training College in Sabah for candidates with only an SRP (or equivalent qualification) were available.

There has always been pressure to produce enough teachers. Teacher shortages have ranged from a total shortage in numbers to a shortage of subject specialisms. Out of 72,500 secondary teachers at the secondary level in 1990, only 38 per cent were graduates, and about 3,400 or 4.7 per cent were untrained (Government of Malaysia, 1991, p.166). The number of teacher training colleges increased from 24 in 1985 to 28 in 1990 (Government of Malaysia, 1991, p.166). The total enrolment in teacher training colleges increased from 3,877 in 1970 to 7,940

in 1975, an increase of 104.3 per cent (Government of Malaysia,1976). From 1985 to 1990, output from the colleges was 34,600 primary and 7,700 secondary teachers, as well as 2,900 graduate teachers under a Post-graduate Teacher Education Programme; the five local universities also produced a total of 1,800 teachers, of whom about 780 were in the sciences and 990 in the arts and humanities (Government of Malaysia, 1991, p.166). There has also been continuous effort at inservice education, which is the responsibility of the Government or Government-sponsored agencies (Lokman, 1974, p.38.) Inservice teacher training has been the responsibility of the Teacher Education Division of the Ministry of Education, and is aimed at helping teachers to keep up with developments in knowledge, methods, and techniques in their fields through both formal and informal programmes (Postlethwaite and Thomas, 1980). The off-campus programme at Universiti Sains Malaysia allows candidates to complete 75 per cent of the courses off-campus, while the remaining 25 per cent has to be completed on campus, and has been popular. The Curriculum Development Centre strategy has been to select teachers on the basis of proven quality, ability and experience become 'key personnel'. After training, they in turn return to their various states to retrain colleagues in latest curricular developments and policies. This 'cascading' strategy has also been used successfully by the Schools Division, particularly in the implementation of the New Primary School Curriculum and the New Integrated Secondary Curriculum.

In reviewing the developments since 1970, it will be evident that unity and equity seem to have been the goals. However, Mukherjee (1990) concludes that

> "national unity continues to be more evident in the political rhetoric than in the reality of Malaysian life. The perceived contraction of educational and economic opportunities appears to have had a more lasting effect on behaviour and attitudes than have changes in curriculum and language policies" (p.228).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH IN MALAYSIA

One result of the British expansion around the world has been the accompanying spread of the English language so that it is now used by millions of speakers either as their mother tongue, their second language or a foreign language. Another result has been the rise of diverse varieties of English different from standard English, which is "a particular dialect of English, being the only non-localised dialect, of global currency without significant variation, universally accepted as the appropriate educational target in teaching English, which may be spoken with an unrestricted choice of accent" (Strevens, 1983, p.88). These varieties include the native speaker varieties such as Canadian, American and Australian English, and also non-native speaker varieties such as Nigerian, Sri Lankan, Indian, Philippine, Singapore and Malaysian English. Many of these non-native varieties are new in the sense that they are now being increasingly

accepted, provided they are used as the second language of the speakers, as legitimate and independent national varieties rather than as deviations from some variety of standard English (Wong, 1991). In calling these second language varieties institutionalized varieties, Kachru (1985) points out that they

> "have a long history of acculturation in new cultural and geographical contexts; they have a large range of functions in the local educational, administrative, and legal systems. The result of such uses is that that such varieties have developed nativized discourse and style types and functionally determined sublanguages (registers), and are used as a linguistic vehicle for creative writing in various genres" (p.211).

He further suggests that nativization "must be seen as the result of those linguistic innovations which are determined by the localized functions of a second language variety, the 'culture of communication' and communicative strategies in new situations, and the 'transfer' from local languages" (Kachru, 1985, p.213).

Wong (1991) argues that although there have been attempts to describe Malaysian English at the acrolectal, mesolectal, and basilectal levels, it is the mesolectal level that is most representative of Malaysian English. She argues that since the mesolectal is primarily a colloquial register which is not meant for use at formal and official functions, Malaysian English is mainly a colloquial variety of English. This is despite its long history of acculturation, because this variety does not have a "large range of functions in the local educational, administrative and legal systems, and it does not have the marked nativized discourse and style types and functionally determined registers" (p.102). Rather, what is used in educational, administrative and legal systems is not the Malaysian English variety, but standard English. She further argues that many of the "features of Malaysian English bear a striking resemblance to ESL learners' interlanguage" (p.102), and that the linguistic innovations found in the Malaysian variety are not the creations of those fully proficient in the language, but rather the creations of those who overcome their deficiencies through innovation. Wong (1983) describes Malaysian English as being characterised by a simplification of features of standard English. Simplification is employed to reduce standard English into a simpler and economical system. The criterion that is used to measure acceptability is whether there has been communication. The simplification features that Wong (1983) identifies are a blend of over-generalisation, omission, reduction, substitution and restructuring.

Moag (1982) postulates that new varieties of English undergo at least four stages, namely, transportation, indigenization, expansion and institutionalization. The fifth, restriction, may or may not occur depending on the sociolinguistic environment. These are not stages in the strict sense of the term. Each of them starts in that order, but though not consecutive, once started, overlaps with succeeding processes.

Transportation refers to the more or less permanent transportation of English to a new environment (as in colonisation), and is followed almost immediately by indigenization, a process by which the new English becomes a distinct variety. This process of indigenization will see not only lexical borrowing from the local languages as the local learners communicate initially only with the native speakers of English, but also a later phase in which more structural features of the local languages are transferred to English in the process of local elites using English to communicate among themselves. This process may last a long time, as long as the English speaking elites exist and use English.

Expansion may be concurrent with, or follow indigenization. How much the new English expands will depend on a number of factors, especially how much the language is used in other domains such as education and the media. Other factors include the presence, status, function, degree of use, prestige and the state of development of a local language that acts as the lingua franca among the various groups. All of these can affect the expansion of English.

Institutionalization is a gradual process and it is not easy to say when the process starts. It usually overlaps with expansion in usage, and is aided by a number of factors. These include the presence of local teachers of English, increasing usage by the media and creative use of the language by local writers. Local teachers contribute to a situation in which the pupils learn English from non-native speakers who themselves learnt the language from other non-natives, and possibly second language speakers, so that with reduced native speaker input, the local variety begins to show differences compared to the native variety. Media usage of this variety, especially in the spoken form, helps to legitimise the variety. Local writers also help to extend the boundaries of the language in what Thumboo (1976) refers to as their endeavours to make English serve them as they create new metaphors, idioms and uses.

In the final stage of the cycle, the growth of this new variety of English undergoes restriction as a local official language gains in status, usually as a result of governmental promotion, and challenges the position of the local variety of English. What usually happens then is that English reverts to the status of a foreign language, with restricted usage (usually in science and technology and higher education) by a small elite.

The following discussion will review the status of English in Malaysia in the context of the historical factors reviewed earlier, through Moag's (1982) framework for the life-cycle of non-native varieties of English (Choy, 1986).

Transportation

The spread of English into the Malay peninsula followed the expansion of British influence from

the Straits Settlements (Penang in 1786, Singapore in 1819 and Malacca in 1824) into the Malay states. By the year 1914, the whole of Malaya was under British influence. The language of British government and administration was English. As the machinery of administration grew, there was an increasing need for personnel to fulfil requirements, especially at the lower end of the administration. This need was fulfilled by locals who had to learn the English language in order to communicate with their superiors. The English language was thus transported and gained a firm foothold in Malaya.

Indigenization

As the schools number of English medium schools increased in Malaya, there was increasing use of the English language between pupils and their native speaker teachers (such as the missionaries) and between the pupils of the different communities themselves in these schools. As these pupils left school to take up employment (often in commerce and government), increasing contacts with native speakers involved the use of the English language as part of the process of indigenization. At the initial stage, the process would have seen the transference of linguistic concepts and lexical items from the local languages to English. While English-medium education expanded and became firmly established, it acquired great prestige because it appeared to be the way to employment and betterment. The ensuing expansion in enrolment necessitated recruiting teachers to serve in these schools from among the local populace, adding to expatriates (from Britain and India) already in service. Until the establishment of Raffles College in 1928, students with seven years of education or Junior Cambridge qualifications were employed to teach while attending after-school classes themselves (Loh, 1975). From 1928 onwards, locally trained teachers with an English-medium education were available for employment in the English-medium schools, quite often replacing expatriates who left the country. At this stage, there was increasing use of the language in contacts between pupils of different linguistic backgrounds themselves, as well as their teachers who were locally educated and trained. The language may be described at this point to have reached a later stage of indigenization, in which increasing local usage leads to the transference of many structural features of local languages to the English language, thereby creating a fairly distinct variety. This distinct quality is most evident to observers in the use of particles or fillers such as 'what', 'man' and 'lah'. This process, which may also be referred to as nativization, becomes enhanced in the course of expansion in usage.

Expansion

The process of expansion is made possible by encouragement of greater use of the English language. From the beginning of the twentieth century to Independence, there was expansion of English language usage in employment, education, government, entertainment and social relationships. New commercial enterprises led to increased use of English in employment.

Continued demand for English-medium education led to more schools being created in expanding urban areas. The creation of institutions of higher education such as Raffles College, and later, the University of Malaya, ensured that English would be the language of prestigious education. English was the language of administration and the courts. Moreover, English accorded social prestige to the user because it was the language of power. All of these combined to create an elite who began to use English not only in the home, but also in social communication, both with members of their own ethnic group and with those of other ethnic groups. By Independence, an informal variety of English, especially spoken English, was clearly evident.

The Razak Report (1956) can be looked upon as another element in the spread of the English language in the sense that, in recommending a bilingual approach to national education in Malaya, it made available opportunities for the learning of English in schools that hitherto had not taught English. School children who would not have had the chance to learn English because of the vernacular nature of their schools were now able to learn and use the language, thereby increasing the pool of English language speakers.

Institutionalization

The 1960s could be considered the peak period reflecting the enhanced status of the English language. It was a period which saw the English departments in the colleges and the University of Malaya producing elite speakers of English. The return of many teachers from teacher training in Britain (many of whom have risen to the highest ranks in the Ministry of Education) also helped the status of English.

The media in English included the national daily, The Straits Times, and Penang-based Straits Echo newspapers, both of which influenced attitudes and values, and contributed to the overall high status of English. The introduction of television added to radio programmes already available in English and these also helped to institutionalise English.

It was also a period which witnessed increased efforts by local writers to produce works in English. The writings include works in prose, verse and drama. The earliest works had begun in Singapore at the University of Malaya in the 1950s, especially under the influence of D.J.Enwright in the English department, and numerous poems were written. It has been suggested that emergent literatures undergo an initial phase of imitation of the works of mainstream English literature (for example the works of Shelley, Keats and Byron), then a phase of questioning and doubt in which the writing seeks answers to doubts about the self, community, culture, values and nation before a more assured phase follows, in which the writing reflects confidence in new found directions (Thumboo, 1976). In the first phase, the writers learn to use the language by imitation, while in the second, they seek to master the language and

create new meanings and uses. The third phase should see writing in English which shows mastery of the language, and very often nativized constructions reflecting the state of the new English. Examples of writers having reached this assured phase would include Chinua Achebe (Nigeria), V.S.Naipaul (Caribbean) and Raja Rao (India). Malaysian writing has followed this pattern up to the second phase, but has not quite reached a stage of assurance.

Malaysian poets writing in English include Ee Tiang Hong, C.Rajendra, Muhammad Haji Salleh and Shirley Lim. Writers of prose include Lee Kok Liang, K.Subramaniam, and Siew-Yue Killingly. Among dramatists are E.Dorall, K.Subramaniam, Lee Joo For and Patrick Yeoh. Anthologies of poetry, collections of short stories, a few novels and two volumes of plays are among the readily available local writings in English. Much of these were written in the 1960s and early 1970s. The output has significantly dropped due to a number of reasons, including emigration. Many stopped writing for reasons which will become evident in the discussion on restriction. Others have not bothered to continue to publish. The colloquial nature of Malaysian English seems to have posed problems for writers, and many have found it useful for creating comic effects, but not quite able to sustain serious writing. Wong (1991) notes that though a local variety exists, attempts to use Malaysian English have been "half-hearted, tentative and rather hesitant ones. There were a few bolder writers but even here most tended to limit the use of Malaysian English to dialogue portions of their works" (p.103).

All of these have helped in the institutionalization of the English language in Malaysia.

Restriction

Some of the developments since the riots of 1969 have already been referred to. One of the immediate effects was the general down-grading of the status of English, and the active promotion of Bahasa Malaysia as one of the keys to ending Malays' status as second-class citizens in their own country (Jay Branegan, "Finding a Proper Place for English", Time, 16th September 1991, p.69). It was an era in which to publicly proclaim support for English was to court criticisms of disloyalty, anti-nationalism and having a colonial mentality, especially from radical nationalists. The process saw committed action to enforce Bahasa Malaysia in all aspects of public life such as official functions, ceremonies, speeches, conduct of meetings, keeping of minutes, interviews correspondence and education.

One result was the alienation of a large group of English speakers, many of whom saw themselves as being unable (or unwilling) to cope and adapt, and left the country. Among those who left were writers, teachers and academics. Theatrical productions in English dropped dramatically, as well as the output in general of writings in English. As a result the factors described above, creative writing in English "seems to be slowly but surely drying up in Malaysia, instead of developing and growing. Those who write...are now few and far in

between...Without this rich source of development, Malaysian English can remain no more than a 'pidgin', a colloquial, functional and informal variety" (Wong,1991, p.104). The legal system was the only area where use of English was tolerated (Asmah, 1981), but since 1989, court proceedings are being conducted in Bahasa Malaysia, with special dispensation being required for proceedings to be in English. The use of translators, however, is still available for the needs of the public that cannot speak or understand Bahasa Malaysia or English.

Moag (1982) suggests that in the final stage of restriction (which is most evident is education), the English language reverts to the status of a foreign language. The status and role of English in Malaysia as a whole, and education in particular, will be the foci of the following review and discussion.

Current Status of English in Malaysia

Officially, English has no special status, except that it is deemed to be a second language to be taught in the schools. Pointing out that there are planned and unplanned roles for English, Asmah (1983) explains that the planned roles are those that are accorded official status by the Government (especially the Parliament) in national programmes and institutions, while unplanned ones exist outside official allocation reflected in social interaction and entertainment. She notes that English has no official status in the framework of the Malaysian Constitution since 1967 in Peninsula Malaysia, except that the courts were allowed to phase out usage at a slower pace, while in Parliament also, English was an official language for members of Parliament not proficient in Malay. English is also used in Government directives to Malaysian representatives overseas, and English is allowed for the keeping of medical records of patients in hospitals The states of Sabah and Sarawak were given 10 years' grace to make the transition to Bahasa Malaysia, which in the case of Sabah was adhered to. In the case of Sarawak, the state Legislative Council (and not Federal Parliament) had the power to extend this period of transition, and it did so. Again in 1980, the state Legislative Council voted to extend the period for another 5 years (Asmah, 1983). While in Peninsula Malaysia and Sabah Bahasa Malaysia was the national and official language, in Sarawak, there has been one national language (Bahasa Malaysia) and two official languages (English and Bahasa Malaysia)

In the Malaysian context, English is a second language

> "in terms of its importance in the education system and international relations, and it is second only to Bahasa Malaysia. Here we see that it has nothing to do with the acquisition of the language by the speakers in a temporal context, viz. a language acquired after the mother tongue, nor does it take into consideration the role it plays as a medium of instruction it plays in the school and the university where one would expect a

second language to have a fair allocation of the school subjects which will use it as medium vis-a-vis the national language" (Asmah, 1983, p.230).

Aims of English Language Teaching in Malaysia

From being the medium of instruction, English has been reduced to being a subject in the timetable. The Razak Report (1956) proposed the retention of teaching English for its utilitarian value (Wong and Ee, 1975, p. 58), and recommended that the teaching of Bahasa Malaysia and English be made compulsory (Federation of Malaya, 1956). But it also felt that no "secondary pupil shall be at a disadvantage in the matter either of employment or of higher education in Malaya or overseas as long as it is necessary to use the English language for these purposes" (Federation of Malaya, 1956, p. 12).

Future directions for the teaching of English were delineated by the Teachers' Handbook for the Post-1970 Primary School English Syllabus "to teach English in such a way that they will be understood not only by fellow-Malaysians, but also by speakers of English from other parts of the world" (Ministry of Education, 1977, p. 3). It also suggests that while Received Pronunciation should continue to be the basis, the aim should be that students "be able to speak with acceptable stress and rhythm, and to produce the sounds of English sufficiently well for a listener to be able to distinguish between similar words, e.g. pan-pen" (Ministry of Education, 1977, p. 3). In terms of the different language skills, reading was aimed at helping students read for pleasure and knowledge, and develop silent reading skills in view of its value in higher and tertiary education. Writing was to enable students to "write a short paragraph of narrative; a simple statement (e.g. about themselves); a simple letter to a friend; or a short dialogue" (p. 29). Thus at the end of his primary schooling, a pupil was expected to have enough oral and aural skills so that simple English could be used in a variety of situations, be able to understand and enjoy simple written English, and write simply for effective informal communication (Ministry of Education, 1973, p. 1).

This approach concentrated on the acquisition of fundamental structures and vocabulary and continued into lower secondary education by providing the components learnt a context of use. At the end of three years of secondary schooling, the students were expected to :

- display oral and aural skills containing a larger vocabulary and extended patterns;
- read to get gists of passages, note details and causes and effects, compare, classify, outline and sequence ideas;
- and in writing, produce a purposeful, correct and unified piece as well as develop a theme or idea and make accurate notes on what is heard or read (Ministry of Education, 1973, p.1).

Students at this stage would sit for the Lower Certificate of Education examinations, and if successful, would continue for two years of higher secondary education and sit for the School Certificate of Education examination in Form five. Since 1969, English language teaching began to acquire a more pragmatic and utilitarian value. The Third Malaysia Plan stated that

> "While the Government will implement vigorously the teaching of Bahasa Malaysia, measures will be taken to ensure that English is taught as a strong second language. This is important if Malaysia is to keep abreast of scientific and technological developments in the world and participate meaningfully in international trade and commerce" (Government of Malaysia, 1976, para.1316, p.386).

In 1976, the English Language Syllabus for Forms Four and Five (also called the Communicational Syllabus) was implemented to follow logically from the aims of the earlier syllabuses and determine the types of linguistic products that students would be expected to handle (Ministry of Education, 1975). It was designed for a narrower, more defined and specialised role of English, because much of the "recreational and professional material in the work environment will remain in English, and because at present and for the immediate future many areas of work will rely on English to a significant degree, the school leaver's ability to use English will increase his value to his potential employer" (p.3).

The Communicational Syllabus attempted to fulfil the practical needs of the school leaver, and not those of potential tertiary students because, it argued, "ninety per cent of form five leavers enter the job market and do not expect to participate in tertiary education" (p.4). Furthermore, the universities were expected to programme for their own language requirements. As such, the syllabus

> "specifies a number of language products, and suggests strategies for realising these products...the minimum level is where the communicational intent is successfully conveyed, irrespective of the linguistic finesse. The maximum level is, of course, native speaker ability. The focus...is on whether the student manages to communicate, how effectively he does so, and and how he can improve on the communicational skills that he has" (Ministry of Education, 1975, p.4).

A product would be comprehensible information, whether in written, spoken or non-linguistic form. The syllabus saw the broad aim of English language learning as "writing for various purposes, speaking for various purposes, and reading for understanding" (p.8). This syllabus has been the basis of English language teaching in secondary schools since 1976, and leading to the New Integrated Syllabus in 1992, when the pioneer batch of KBSR pupils were in Form five.

While there were many common sense and pragmatic elements in the syllabus, it gave rise to a number of problems. The syllabus, forced to seek new directions as a result of the reduced and non-compulsory status of English in education, took the position that it would be inconceivable that the poorest students would not increase their communicational ability in some of the areas of language functions and tasks as a result of teaching in accordance with the new guidelines (p.6). It expected that weaker students would improve quantitatively, whereas advanced students would improve qualitatively (p.5). The resulting problem was that teachers themselves were expected to use their professional skills, materials in hand and knowledge of student abilities to determine each student's path to completing the products. In so doing, the syllabus presumed on teachers' knowledge, ability and commitment to effective teaching in a school system that did not stream students and thus usually had mixed ability in English groups. Such teachers were unfortunately few.

Teachers tended to pitch lessons to average levels of pupil ability. In view of the public examination at the end of Form five, teachers interpret the syllabus individually, and set their own standards of acceptable and unacceptable English in their classes. Thus, although the aim of the syllabus was individual student language development, teachers had to continue assessing students in tests and school work, and aim to increase examination success levels in the examination oriented society. If teachers were too lenient in their normal and formal assessments, the poor results in public examinations would create an unnecessary complication because students presumed to be doing well in class tests had suddenly failed. Furthermore, because no minimum standards had been defined, there were teachers at the other end of the scale who were content that communicational intent had been successfully conveyed (to them as teachers), and give high grades freely knowing that these had no bearing on the final examination grades.

Many teachers also paid little attention to teaching linguistic finesse or grammatical correctness, with the result that large numbers of students grew up believing their English to be acceptable. They also believed that using the English language amounted merely to communicating intent successfully, no matter what they said or wrote. It was therefore quite acceptable in their view to switch codes when speaking to increase communication, and to create a kind of pidgin. In an environment that did not support English such as the rural areas, and where there was no real need to communicate in English, students felt little motivation to learn the language unless their parents or teachers created the motivation.

Many teachers continue to use passages and questions from textbooks used in their school in tests and examinations, rather than design their own based on what they have taught, and on pupil abilities. This is often because of constraints of time and ability. The result is that pupils fare badly, and eventually lose all motivation for learning the language, until the point where they resent learning the English language. For many of these students, and those with strong Islamic

fundamentalist views, the language is associated with western values and thus to be avoided. Such views also provided them justification to discourage other students from using English outside class.

The Mid-Term Review of the Third Malaysia Plan realised some of the problems of teaching, and indicated that

> "The upgrading of teachers' proficiency in the teaching of English as a second language will be intensified through in-service courses at the Maktab Perguruan Bahasa [Language Teachers' College, formerly known as the Language Institute and faculty of Education and Language Centre of UM [University of Malaya]" (Government of Malaysia, 1979, p.202).

The plan also made clear that "English language teachers recruited from the United Kingdom will be assigned to local schools to supplement local efforts" (p.202). This strategy was implemented, and nearly 300 teachers served in Malaysia during the late 1970s and early 1980s. The plan also confirmed that research would be conducted into aspects of the teaching of English in the country. The Fourth Malaysia Plan confirmed that 1,598 lower secondary teachers had been trained in the seventies (Government of Malaysia, 1981, p.347). It however continued to state a commitment to strengthening the teaching of English as a second language in the country, by setting up resource centres at state levels, ensuring the availability of teaching aids and continuing with the training of more teachers as well as with in-service training (p. 343).

The New Integrated Syllabus (KBSM) has been introduced into secondary schools since 1987 and aims to integrate language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), the language areas of lexis, phonology and grammar as well as knowledge of other subjects and moral values in line with the National Education Philosophy of Malaysia. The Ministry of Education has been conducting a process of formative evaluation since 1989. It has been a national collaborative effort involving relevant personnel, especially teachers. Areas under investigation have included methodological aspects such as teachers' methodologies, classroom management, group and pair work management, integration of skills and content, use of teaching aids and materials, teaching and learning techniques and the performance of non-English option teachers presently teaching English (Ali and Hunt, 1991).

The Government is committed to ensuring that English continues to be taught, and taught well in schools. However, the total time allocated for learning the language is hardly enough (at 200 minutes per week). It is no longer compulsory to obtain a pass in English in the public examinations, and as a result, many pupils see no need to learn English. Although English has been called the second language in education, its status varies from that of being mother tongue for some, the main language of home use for some (especially the English educated and where

the parents have inter-married and do not necessarily know each other's language), the third language after each of their parents' languages, the second or third language learnt in school, the language of functional efficiency for specific purposes, but most of all, a foreign language for the vast majority of rural students.

Concern exists that standards of English have dropped dramatically in the country ("Ministry to check Rot in English" The Star, 12th October, 1985; Rosyatimah Tukimin, "Stemming the decline of English", The Star, 12th May, 1987; "PM: IT'S WORRYING", The Star, 9th March,1991). Awareness of the problem has led to much public debate, and calls for steps to arrest the decline (D.J.Pillai "Decline in standard of English cause for alarm" The Straits Times, 22nd February, 1990), as well as views expressing resentment at what is seen as unnecessary furore over what is to be expected and (by implication) has to be accepted ("Too much emphasis on decline of English standard", New Straits Times, 25th October, 1985; Rustam A. Sani "English is not the only way to success", New Straits Times,16th April, 1990).

One major problem of planners has been the difficulty of specifying goals and levels. Such goals could for example have been set through making passing the English paper in the Form five examinations compulsory, but this would have meant that perhaps as much as eighty per cent of the candidates would fail the examination. The fact that the majority of these students would be rural students, and mainly Malays, has made this an impossible measure to implement, despite numerous calls in newspapers suggesting that this is the most likely way to effect improved standards in English (for example letter by Teacher "Make a Pass in English compulsory", The Star, 6th April, 1987; K.Parkaran, "Make English Compulsory Say Teachers", The Star, 7th March, 1991).

Compulsory English language instruction stops with the fifth form, and does not resume until the students enrol in institutions of higher learning, where the language regulations vary. At the University of Malaya, for example, it is compulsory to learn English, but a failure in English may be compensated by good grades in other academic subjects. At Universiti Sains Malaysia, passing English up to a specified level is required in order to obtain a degree. The aims of teaching English in the universities varies according to needs, from general proficiency to reading comprehension. In general, there is increasing attention being paid to reading comprehension (especially of academic works) in most of the universities since essential and supplementary academic books and journals are in English, and also because translation into Bahasa Malaysia is not likely to catch up with ongoing academic output in the English language around the world.

Most of the institutions tend to produce their own materials, design own courses, and have their own language centres with trained and qualified staff teaching English, Bahasa Malaysia and others such as Japanese, French, German, Mandarin, Tamil, Thai and Arabic. For example, in

1979, the University of Malaya (in collaboration with the University of Birmingham) produced Skills for Learning, a series of books helping learners to extract information from academic texts (Asmah, 1983). In the teacher training colleges, all trainees in the three year programme have to sit for a common Proficiency in English (called Syllabus A) paper, but certification does not depend on passing. The aim of the learners is the mastery of basic comprehension and communication skills in English (Ministry of Education, 1982). English 'optionists' have a more advanced paper (Syllabus B), suitable for their abilities and needs. The aims here include achieving competence in English so as to carry out their tasks as teachers of English, and as a minimum requirement the teacher

> "must be able to express himself clearly and accurately in English within the context of the classroom, be able to get pupils to speak and write correct English sentences, to understand, formulate questions on and explain pupils' reading texts, and identify and correct pupils' errors in English" (Ministry of Education, 1982, p.19).

Syllabus B also provides a variety of activities aimed at enriching the students' experience of English such as wider reading, literature,creative writing, and involvement in plays.

English language teacher education

The training of English language teachers is a continuing process in Malaysia, and the responsibility has been spread between the training colleges, the universities, the Ministry of Education and the Government. In the training colleges, apart from attending common core courses, Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL) optionists are trained in accordance with Syllabus C, which deals with TESL methods including teaching skills, basic linguistics, testing, selecting and planning learning activities and materials and the year's programme. The Syllabus planners hope to produce teachers having some basic understanding of

> "the structure and form of the language [they are] teaching and of the main difficulties [they are] likely to encounter...and which...pupils...encounter in learning English as a foreign language...[They] should also be equipped with materials and techniques...to begin [their] teaching..." (Ministry of Education, 1982, p.42).

The universities tend to vary in approaches, but most tend to have a core component that English 'optionists' share with others, including courses such as Educational Philosophy, Educational Administration, History of Education and Psychology of Education. They then tend to take numerous specialism courses such as Methodology, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Phonetics, Phonology, Discourse Analysis, Literary Analysis, Literature and Materials Production. In some cases, all of these may be offered by a single faculty as in the Faculty of Education in the University of Malaya, or by a combination of schools as in Universiti Sains

Malaysia, where for example, the School of Humanities deals with the academic content, while the School of Education deals with pedagogical aspects. One major problem facing English language teacher education in Malaysia is the less than satisfactory English language abilities of many of the candidates. Unlike in the past when a pass at principal level was required in English at the Higher School Certificate level, institutions of teacher education have to accept candidates on the basis of their English language performance in their Malaysian Certificate of Education examinations because very few schools offer English in sixth form. This is due to not having enough qualified teachers to teach the subject, and also because very few students feel confident enough to take the subject. The result is that the candidates have at least a two year gap between the last time they learnt English and university entrance, and when they do attempt to enrol in the English option, their English language ability is not good enough for purposes of teaching the language.

Reference has already been made to the effect of reverse educational discrimination on some candidates for teacher education. One aspect of this has been that the best rural as well as urban Malay students who are academically better, tend to be better in English as well. Quite often this results in them being channelled into science streams, and often obtaining scholarships to study for professions other than teaching, while those not good enough end up in teaching. The attempt to use quotas to reflect national ethnic ratios has also resulted in efforts to increase the number of English language teachers of Bumiputra descent by channelling many into teacher education as long as they show some ability in English. Asmah (1983) reports that science students have a higher level of English proficiency compared with Arts students. Arts students taking law had higher proficiency than economics and social science students. She also refers to studies in 1975 and 1980 confirming that economics and science students did better on English reading attainment tests than Arts students, and that law students were more competent in English compared to Arts and Social Science and Economics and public Administration students. Comparison of achievement in English at the Malaysian Certificate of Education examination results also showed that only 17 per cent of Arts students had obtained credits in English compared to 51 per cent in the Science and Economics Faculties. English language proficiency courses are therefore quite common in the universities, often incorporated into the academic component. For example, the Oral Communication in English paper in Universiti Sains Malaysia aims to teach the skills of public speaking while working to improve the oral language skills of the students through numerous practical speech work, discussion, video taping of student speeches and critique. Even so, many students graduate with a proficiency level that may be considered less than satisfactory for teachers.

The Ministry of Education in collaboration with Government and non-Government institutions also trains English language teachers by sending many students overseas for training. For example, institutions such as Moray House and Warwick University are part of a British consortium currently training Malaysian teachers for B.Ed. (TESL) degrees. In 1990, a total of

434 students were enrolled in the programme (Anwar Ibrahim, "Ensuring acceptable proficiency in English, New Straits Times, 23rd January, 1990). Many others have been sent to the United States. Reference has already been made to in-service teacher training conducted to increase the efficiency of teachers.

Recent developments and Future Possibilities

If government "activism at one point torpedoed English in Malaysia" (Jay Branegan "Finding a Proper Place for English", Time, 16th September, 1991), the same government seems to have realised the need to make concerted efforts at stemming the decline in the standard of English ("PM: IT'S WORRYING" The Star, 9th March, 1991). This particular realisation and desire has perhaps been forced upon national leaders in the most effective way possible by economic necessity. The then Minister of Education, Anwar Ibrahim, stated that if Malaysia is "to retain its competitive role in the international community, it is vital that we sustain satisfactory academic standards for the English language" (quoted in J.Pillay "Some vital questions in the learning of English", Sunday Times, 14th January, 1991). He has also pointed out that the lack of an adequate knowledge of the language will deny Malaysians their share of "global store of knowledge in the arts and sciences" ("Ensuring acceptable proficiency in English", New Straits Times, 24th January,1990). Faced with increasing competition from neighbouring Thailand and Indonesia (where the wages are lower) for foreign investment and industries, there has been a need to project Malaysia as an advanced country, and English is seen as a source of ideas for advancement (Jay Branegan, "Finding a Proper Place for English" Time, 16th September,1991, p.69). Furthermore, investors have in the past been confident about investing in Malaysia due to the availability of workers with a working knowledge of English, but there have been indications that there has been some doubt among some recent prospective investors. The Prime Minister, Mahathir Mohamad, has stressed the importance of English in earning the respect of the international community, in trade and international relations and in professional development ("English Is Vital : PM", The Star, 26th June, 1990). In 1990, this researcher was approached by the training wing of the Penang State Development Corporation to help design courses in English for factory workers in the state in order to upgrade the standard, and increase industrial efficiency through a better work force able to read and communicate effectively in English. In view of the fact that the Malaysian government sees higher efficiency and productivity of labour and capital to be increasing sources of national economic growth, and the projection that the manufacturing sector is expected to account for 32.4 per cent of Gross Domestic Product by 1995 (Government of Malaysia, 1991, paras.1.37 and 1.38, p. 17 and 19), training has become an important factor in national development (p.177-180). Knowledge of English is increasingly recognised as valuable to this process of development.

The Minister of Education in 1985, Datuk Ahmad Badawi, pointed out the Government was already aware that many students overseas were faring poorly in their studies due to a lack of

proficiency in English ("Why our scholars do badly abroad", The Star, 12th April, 1985). The first indication of the seriousness with which the Government has looked upon declining standards in English came in 1988 when the then Minister of Education, Anwar Ibrahim, announced that the Ministry of Education was seriously considering making a pass in English compulsory at the Lower Certificate and Malaysian certificate of Education examinations, but was aware that the move could not be rushed ("Students may have to get a pass in English", The Star, 7th October, 1988). The fact that there was a substantial decline in the percentage of passes across the vocational, arts and science stream candidates in the 1990 School Certificate of Education examinations (Editorial, "Language - Beauty and Beast", New Straits Times, 9th March, 1991) has prompted the Prime Minister to reiterate the possibility of the English language paper becoming compulsory ("PM: IT'S WORRYING", The Star, 9th March, 1991). There have been others who have felt that this is not necessarily the right move (Dr.H.Gaudart, "A pass in English is not the answer", The Star, 24th March, 1991).

Whatever the outcome, the reassuring point is that the importance of English, as well as the need to stem declining standards, are both being recognised. The publicity given to this matter may perhaps lead to positive developments to rectify a situation created in 1970. Malay nationalists however fear that the new emphasis on English may lead to a reversion to pre-1970 status, and have had to be reassured ("Stress on English won't hurt Bahasa", New Straits Times, 30th April, 1991). The Prime Minister has pointed out that the "true nationalist is not one who merely loves his language but also his nation and wants it to progress" by learning English if that is one of the tools of progress ("A true nationalist 'would want his nation to progress'", Straits Times, 4th September, 1991, p.14). The suggestion, by a Barisan National Member of Parliament (of Indian descent) that English could perhaps be made an official language in order to stem the decline, has rekindled old indignations, and brought forth new assurances on the status of Bahasa Malaysia ("Official language status of Bahasa undisputed: Minister", Straits Times, 16th August, 1991, p.22; "English will not be restored to official status", Straits Times, 22nd July, 1991, p.16).

Measures to improve English.

In recognition of its importance, numerous steps have been planned to arrest the decline in standards of English. One measure has been official public pronouncements on the importance of English by prominent members of government and royalty, who quite often extol the virtues and importance of learning English. The status of English language teaching was affirmed in the Razak Report (1956), and has continued to be restated in various forms by the numerous Malaysia Plans. For example, the "teaching of English as a second language will be given greater importance in order to stem the decline in the standard of English" (Government of Malaysia, 1991, para.5.35, p.170). This kind of official public statements are vital in efforts to preserve English in Malaysia.

The most vigorous efforts to preserve and improve standards of English have been concerned with education. The most significant measure, if implemented, will be the making of a pass in English in the public examinations for schools compulsory. It may well have the desired effect of providing a reason for taking the learning English seriously and increasing motivation, but at the same time it may have the effect of devastating the lives of many school children by making them fail an entire examination because of failing English. There seems to be an undue belief that such a stern measure is bound to be effective, probably because it worked in the case of implementation of Bahasa Malaysia, and the belief that all people can learn a second (in some cases a third or fourth) language well. Such beliefs ignore the environmental and official support given Bahasa Malaysia in its effective implementation, and the real difficulties that people can have in learning languages.

Another significant measure relates to improving teacher education, both quantitatively and qualitatively. Under the Sixth Malaysia Plan, steps are expected to be taken to ensure "a better intake of trainees by tightening the selection criteria, providing improved training facilities and upgrading further the quality of instructors" (Government of Malaysia, 1991, para.5.63, p.176). Inservice education will continue, but efforts are also being made to send secondary teachers to universities (p.176). The building of five new teacher training colleges by 1995, will increase enrolment to 27,300 trainees, an increase of 26.5 per cent over 1990 (Government of Malaysia, 1991, para. 5.65, p.176). Provisions are also being made for increasing the number of qualified English language teachers (Government of Malaysia, 1991, para.5.42. p.171). The present Minister of Education has disclosed that a few hundred teacher trainees may be sent to diploma and degree courses in foreign universities on twinning programmes. Under the scheme, the trainees will divide time between studying locally and overseas. Other measures that he has outlined include the twinning of local teacher training colleges with local universities such as Universiti Malaya and Universiti Sains Malaysia, and enforcing short and intensive inservice courses for practising teachers (Robert Goh, "Foreign stint for teachers of English", New Straits Times, 15th May, 1991). One surprising decision has been to have lecturers in both teacher training institutions and universities undergo similar English courses ("Special English course for lecturers", New Straits Times, 6th May, 1991). A special panel has been set up by the Ministry of Education specifically for the purpose of considering "all ways of improving English language standards, including the training of teachers and finding suitable reading materials", according to the Director General of Education ("Panel set up to improve English usage", Sunday Times, 5th May, 1991). Furthermore, a joint committee has been set up by the Ministry of Education and the British Council to look into possible measures that could help. This has included investigating ways in which the British Council and other British institutions may help Malaysia overcome the problems (Leanne Goh, "Enlisting British Council's Aid to Improve English", The Star, 30th March, 1991).

It will be clear that the role of English has changed in Malaysia, but perhaps its role in education may be completing a full circle. Recognition of its value may lead to increased prominence and status in the education system as a whole, but numerous issues will have to be studied before the necessary measures to achieve this are implemented, and there can be many hindrances along the way.

Apart from questions of teacher supply and teacher quality, there remain questions of resources and administrative and environmental support that will be needed. Furthermore, the planners will need to ask whether:

- all students have the same capacity and aptitude to learn more than one language, especially a foreign language;
- all students need to be taught to achieve the same level of proficiency in all four English skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing);
- all students will need to learn English up to pre-specified levels;
- not learning English at school is necessarily a handicap, especially in terms of employment;
- it is fair to increase prominence to English and thereby increase the learning load on children, especially those whose mother tongues are not English or Malay because often, English is the third language for such children; and
- advancement in science and technology and knowledge in general is necessarily dependent on knowledge of the English language?

Conclusion

In concluding this chapter answers to the questions posed at the beginning will be summarised.

The historical factors that been significant in shaping the present educational and language policies include the :

- creation of a multi-ethnic and plural society in Malaysia (with almost equal proportions of Malays and non-Malays) through the dictates of British colonial and economic practices;
- creation and maintenance of four separate educational systems:
- refusal to allow English education into Malay vernacular schools;
- separation of economic functions according to different ethnic groups;
- growth and activities of communal nationalism;
- inter-racial riots of 1969; and
- decision of the government to implement the goals of the NEP, namely, that there should be eradication of poverty in the whole country and a restructuring of society to eliminate identification of race with function.

These historical factors have led to the creation of a language policy in education that seeks to provide :

- education in Bahasa Malaysia from primary to tertiary levels;
- the teaching of English as a second language in all schools;
- bilingual education in all national schools (Bahasa Malaysia and English);
- the continued provision of vernacular primary education in Chinese and Tamil schools;
- trilingual education in the vernacular primary schools (Bahasa Malaysia, English and Chinese or Tamil) ; and
- the provision for the learning of the children's mother tongues in national schools when more than fifteen parents request for it.

The aims of these policies have been to create national unity, national development, the eradication of poverty as well as identification of race with function.

English remains officially a second language in the national education system. It is recognised as a means of development, as an important tool in academia and a source of vital knowledge in the sciences and arts. Unofficially, however, it has remained a part of elite life, especially in urban areas. It has remained the language of commercial and management entrepreneurship. It is also the language of communication and recreation, especially among the educated. A variety of 'pidgin' Malaysian English with frequent code switching into one of the local languages is often evident in the interactions of mainstream Malaysian life. Numerous measures are being planned and undertaken to arrest the decline in the standard of English in the country, and most of them are related to the field of education. A major aspect of these measures focuses on improving the quantity and quality of teachers through the provision of better training, more opportunities for training and a more supportive environment for the teaching of English.

This chapter has reviewed developments in the way the nation has come to terms with accommodating the 'melting pot' of multi-ethnic, multi-cultural and multi-linguistic claims and pressures. The review shows how post-primary public funded education is in the national language, Bahasa Malaysia, with English as the second language. Other languages are not impeded in the private domain. The chapter traces the history of English in Malaysia in line with Moag's (1982) framework for new language varieties of transportation, indigenization, expansion, institutionalization and restriction. In detailing present concerns with arresting the decline in English language proficiency, the chapter contextualises the research within the history and current goals of the nation as a whole. The proposals contained in this thesis are believed to be timely and relevant in the context of the present concern for improving the teaching of English, and will be specifically relevant not only to the overall education of Malaysian teachers, but also to improving the approaches to English language teaching in teacher education by focusing on English language teaching methodology.

CHAPTER 6

THE METHODOLOGY

OF THE RESEARCH

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Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology of the study. It includes:

- a re-statement of the aims of the study;
- a survey of research options informing the study;
- a description of the institution;
- a description of the history and aims of the institution;
- the academic set-up of the institution;
- a description of the programmes of study within the specific school involved;
- reasons for the choice of institution studied;
- a description of the students;
- a brief description of the instruments of research;
- a description of how the data was analysed;
- descriptions of the steps and procedures involved in the conduct of each lesson.

Aims of the Research

In view of its importance, the aims of the research are repeated here.

General

The general aims of the research are to :

1. Describe an approach to English Language Teacher Education in Malaysia using video-based materials
2. Investigate the effectiveness of the approach and the materials
3. Describe the strengths and weaknesses of the approach and the materials
4. Suggest possible solutions for improving the approach and the materials
5. Recommend areas for further investigation and development.

Specific aims

More specifically, the aims of the research are to:

1. **Describe**

a. the background to, and the development of the Reflections on Classroom Practice project;
b. the rationale behind the project;
c. the aims of the project and the materials;
d. the factors involved in the design of the video component;
e. the factors involved in the design of the support materials;
f. suggested strategies of usage;

2. **Investigate** the effectiveness of

a. factors underlying the design of the video materials;
b. factors underlying the design of the support materials;
c. strategies for exploiting the materials;
d. the materials in increasing reflective abilities;

3. **Analyse** the strengths and weaknesses of

a. the factors underlying the design of the video materials;
b. the factors underlying the design of the support materials;
c. strategies employed in the exploitation of the materials;
d. the materials in increasing reflective abilities;

4. **Suggest** possible improvements to the

a. factors involved in the design of video materials;
b. factors involved in the design of support materials;
c. strategies for utilisation of the materials;
d. strategies for increasing reflective outcomes;

5. **Recommend** areas for future research and development in

a. video materials design;
b. support materials design;
c. teacher education.

A Review of Research Methods

Schon's views

In addressing the issue of the approach taken to this educational research, it is necessary to be reminded of the options available to a researcher. Schon (1983, 1987) suggested that there is a dichotomy between the technical rational approach and the actual knowledge and practices adopted by professionals. Technical rationality is concerned with the application of research-based theory and techniques aimed at providing neat and easy solutions, whereas the world of professional practice is swampy lowland where "...messy, confusing problems defy technical solutions" (Schon, 1987, p.3). For the professional practitioner in the field of education (as much as in other fields) technical rationality cannot provide simple answers to problems. Furthermore, Schon (1983, 1987) suggests that technical rationality tends to address issues that are relatively unimportant, and that

> "the practitioner must choose. Shall he remain on the high ground where he can solve relatively unimportant problems according to prevailing standards of rigor, or shall he descend to the swamp of important problems and non-rigorous inquiry" (1987, p.3).

The problem-solving approach, which forms the basis of technical rationalist approaches, is inadequate not only because there are "indeterminate zones of practice", but also in failing to note that problem-solving is not a neat process. It is an approach in which "...interactively, we name the things to which we attend and frame the contexts in which we will attend to them" (1987, p.40). All these lead to a "crisis" in professional knowledge, matched equally by a "crisis" in professional education because it is

> "rooted in an underlying and largely unexamined epistemology of practice - a model of professional knowledge embedded in curriculum and arrangements for research and practice" (Schon, 1987, p.8).

Implications of Schon's views

The implications of Schon's views need serious consideration by educational researchers who wish to investigate the development of professional expertise, especially with regard to investigating issues which are relevant and important. Furthermore, the very approach to research will need reconsideration in Schon's view. A review of literature on approaches to educational research suggests that there is indeed disenchantment with traditional (technical rational) approaches. The various issues and views arising out of the survey of approaches to research were considered by this researcher in the design of the present study into the value and effects of what may be called an "innovatory programme" after (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972) using

innovative video materials in the context of Malaysia. Reference has already been made to 'reflection as research' in the review of responses to and arising from Schon's views in chapter . The following section will, however, review existing alternatives in the context of educational research in general with a view to informing the design of the present study.

Approaches to educational research

Parlett and Hamilton (1972) point out that evaluation is related to innovation (because of attendant questions relating to politics, ideology, fashion and finance). Evaluation studies sometimes proceed without coherent or agreed frames of reference, particularly with regard to the rôle of evaluation, neutrality of the evaluator, function of formative evaluation, value of classroom observation, value of long-term studies and the use of objectives. It is suggested that two distinct research paradigms (with their own foci, assumptions and strategies) may be observed. They are the dominant 'classical' or 'agriculture-botany' paradigm (utilising hypothetico-deductive methodology based on experimenting traditions) and the 'social anthropology' paradigm.

Basically, the **classical** approach (similar to Wallace's -1991- 'applied science' model) would result in an assessment of the innovation or experience in terms of achievement of pre-specified criteria. Typical of the approach is Tyler (1949) for whom evaluation represents a process determining the extent to which educational objectives are realised by curriculum and instruction, and more specifically, in determining changes in behaviour. In the extreme, Tyler's (1949) approach insisted that evaluation needed stated objectives (Atkin, 1968), which would be concrete enough to help in the selection, planning and evaluation of learning experiences. Evaluation would involve both the full description and the judging of educational programmes (Stake, 1967).

In the field of sociology, research of the 1960s was conducted within a primarily theoretical, functionalist and positivistic methodological framework, aimed at providing accurate objective accounts of the nature of the social world. The inherent belief was that the goal (of providing accounts and explanations of the social world) and methods of social science should be similar to those of the natural sciences. Such methods should aim to produce law-like causal explanations using the hypothetico-deductive model (Reynolds, 1980). The belief was that social laws were there to be discovered without necessary reference to psychological facts and the states of consciousness of individuals, discovering observable and measurable "social facts" (Cuff and Payne, 1979). The result of such studies would usually yield objective numerical data allowing for statistical analysis of that which is 'objective and scientific', rather than subjective and inferential evidence.

Such low-inference studies, however, tend to emphasise frequency (and the assumption that the number of times that a particular behaviour occurs determines its effects) as the important element

in the study of teacher behaviour (Doyle,1977). The basic assumption of such studies relying on measurement (scientific and technological) is that it allows for analysis to reveal the 'true' situation, thus making way for a rational choice of alternatives (Stake, 1972). Although there is no guarantee that the findings are true, scientific approaches promise the reduction of biases arising out of the 'context of valuation' (meaning the basic value slant deriving from the genesis of the evaluation). This has led to such concepts as 'control group' and 'random sampling' (House, 1972).

A number of problems have, however, been identified with the classical approach, and this has led to the exploration of alternate research methods. Atkin (1967-68), like Schon, argued that scientific approaches relying on psychological experimentation and on 'hard' measures of behavioural change tended merely to refine statistical procedures, manipulate insignificant variables and researched that which is trivial and insignificant to classroom practice. Stake (1972) argues that measurement is praised by colleagues, not clients, and that science and technology lead not to enlightenment, but to alienation. The need to randomise in sample selection is not only expensive in terms of time and resources, but also goes against the need for evaluation before large-scale application (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972). The assumption that frequency determines effects also seems to have no empirical or conceptual verification (Doyle, 1977). The need for strict control over educational parameters has not been strictly followed, and when attempted, is sometimes not only unethical, but engages investigators to think in terms of 'parameters' and 'factors' instead of 'individuals' and 'institutions'. The result is that dubious neat results are provided for what is essentially an untidy world (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972).

Cronbach (1975) argues that, rather than make generalisation become the main concern of research, there is a need to reverse priorities and observe a proposition and its effects on practice in a specific setting using both controlled as well as uncontrolled variables. Traditional evaluations impose restrictions on the scope of the research by concentrating on objective quantitative data and ignoring other (perhaps more salient) types of data labelled as subjective or impressionistic. Furthermore, large sampling and the need for generalising tend to ignore local conditions and unusual effects. In fact, atypical (and possibly all-important) results are often lost in averages and not studied in detail (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972). The focus in social science research is often on goals and products, marginalising that which does not fit (often by using such terms as 'side-effects', 'secondary-effects' and 'unanticipated-effects'). As Scriven (1972) argues, the goal of all research should be the study of all effects, especially positive and negative side-effects. The before-and-after research designs for evaluation also assume that innovatory programmes undergo little or no change during the study. The built in premise (often fundamental to the design) constrains researchers from adapting to changing circumstances, often discouraging new redefinitions and new developments (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972), thereby allowing the credibility of such research to be questioned.

At a different level, insistence on educational objectives ignores the fact that teaching often yields outcomes that are far too numerous and complex to be specified in advance as pre-specifications (Eisner,1967; Stenhouse, 1970). Furthermore, the nature of various disciplines puts constraints on specified educational objectives, especially in the arts and other subjects requiring creative responses. The assumption that objectives stated in behavioural and content terms can measure educational outcomes fails when dealing with responses that need qualitative rather than quantitative responses (Eisner, 1967). It is argued that a simple causal view of learning in classrooms may be inappropriate for the simple reason that teaching does not cause learning (Van Lier, 1990); rather, often

> "...learning takes place without teaching, and perhaps equally often, the teaching event is not followed by a learning event. Many years ago, von Humboldt stated that teaching language was not possible, one could only create the conditions for learning to be possible" (p.38).

As Parlett and Hamilton (1972) point out, this is not to suggest that experimental and survey research methods have no place, but rather that the 'agriculture-botany' paradigm has limitations.

The alternative paradigm is the **anthropological** one (similar to Wallace's -1991-'reflective' model). Numerous methods and orientations to research have arisen within this paradigm, reflecting differing stances, foci and interests. Van Lier (1990) points out that case study, descriptive research, action research, ethnography, and classroom discourse analysis are different ways of studying classroom realities. The focus has been on finding out what it is that teachers and learners do, and on finding plausible grounds for judgments regarding the quality of what is done. Such approaches are interpretive rather than normative.

Where sociology of education is concerned, for example, it was suggested that knowledge, truth and objectivity need not be adjudicated against some form of external reality. Rather, adjudication should be conducted in "...relation to the interests and power of those who create and use the knowledge" (Bernbaum, 1977, p.60). The view within the approach, as Barton and Walker (1978) point out, is that people are active participants in the creation and build-up of social reality. The emphasis of such studies should be on the processes by which participants see the everyday world. The

> "central task for sociology of education becomes to reveal what constitutes reality for the participants in a given situation, to explain how the participants came to view reality in this way and to determine what are the social consequences of their interaction" (p.38).

Studies within such an approach have provided information on a range of issues such as teacher and pupil strategies in schools (Woods, 1980), teacher decision-making or strategy formation

(Eggleston,1979), student sub-cultures within school (Woods, 1979), and aspects of classroom interaction (Delamont, 1976). Ethnography (defined by the Longmans Modern English Dictionary as "the description of the races of mankind") has gradually moved on from fieldwork among unknown tribes to urban anthropology, sociology and finally into education where the classroom is treated as an identifiable group with its own cultural characteristics. Van Lier, (1990) suggests that ethnography is a cyclical process, and that there is no starting point for researchers. Rather, they are in the cycle, as members of society, committed to a process of ethnographics (because ethnography cannot be produced quickly as in a conference presentation), all adding new knowledge.

> "A good ethnographer will never claim to have sufficient or even adequate clue to knowledge about the people studied. Every insight generates further questions, and every question suggests further avenues for exploration" (Van Lier, 1990, p.47).

Parlett and Hamilton (1972) proposed the idea of "illuminative evaluation", where the focus is on description and interpretation. It aims to study innovatory programmes within wider contexts, and to address a whole array of complex issues such as educational processes and procedures relating to achievement of desirable results. It also attempts specifically to address issues such as how a programme operates, how the school context affects the programme, what the perceptions of the participants are and how the students are affected. Such an approach would seek to find out and record the experiences and reactions of both teachers and learners in the programme, as well as the features, recurrences and critical processes involved. Illuminative evaluation attempts to take into account the fact that an instructional system does not remain static once adopted, but changes, and explores the fact that the learning milieu is a diverse and complex interplay of cultural and psychological variables attendant on the particular classroom at that point in time. The method is not a standard methodological package, but a general strategy, both adaptable and eclectic. The problem defines the methods used, and not vice-versa, and no method is used exclusively. In a **triangulation** approach, different techniques are combined, allowing for multi-angle viewing of the problem, and cross-checking of tentative findings. The result is a complex situation where evaluators not only differ from one another, but may change the ground rules of their professional work in accordance with the needs of the study (Hamilton et. al.,1977).

Parlett and Hamilton (1972) point out that among the techniques that may be employed by the illuminative evaluator in what is essentially a three-stage phenomenon (of observation, further inquiry, and seeking to explain) are observation, interviews, questionnaires, tests, as well as documentary and background sources. Observation involves building up a continuous record of on-going events and transactions and adding interpretive comments. It also involves recording discussions with and between participants, as well as using codified observation schedules. A diary is useful in this context for reflecting on developments and outcomes. Interviews of students and teachers may establish relevant personal details, and are also crucial to assessing the

impact of innovations, particularly through the language (and embedded values therein) used by the participants. Ideally, all should be interviewed, but as this is usually not possible, sampling is acceptable. Such sampling may be random, or 'theoretical' in the sense that informants may have special worth, such as being representative of specific groups, sexes and abilities. Interviews may also include people who are not directly involved with the project such as administrators, possible clients and curriculum developers. Interviews may be brief and structured, or more open-ended depending on the topics (such as 'reflection') dealt with. Questionnaires, especially of the survey-type, have value in sustaining or qualifying earlier tentative findings. They may be involve either free or fixed-form responses. Tests and similar written responses can reveal levels of achievement and attitude. Documentary and and background information sources serve to contextualise the innovation. They can also provide an historical perspective, and raise issues of interest as well as questions to be addressed.

One aspect that typifies this paradigm is the case study of institutions and individuals, which may be called "the examination of an instance in action" (MacDonald and Walker, 1974, p.181). Case studies are attempts to provide fully documented accounts of individual cases, involving both description (of what happened) and interpretation (of sufficient contextual data). They need, however, to be true, to not omit relevant data, and to be publishable (Simons,1971). While case studies have been accepted in fields such as medicine, law, engineering, psychology and anthropology as a valid basis for generalisation, MacDonald and Walker (1974) point out that problems such as bureaucratic demands for actuarial data which can be manipulated to suit policy, skepticism about its research value, late arrival of skilled case study practitioners, and the style of expression (most commonly associated with the artist) have all delayed the use of this form of research in curriculum evaluation. Case study methods are "rarely spelt out in advance, except in the most general of terms, and apprenticeship is the most usual means of induction into its techniques" (1974, p.183). The case study researcher faces the following problems: becoming personally involved in the issues, events or situation under study; confidentiality of data; competition from different interest groups for access to, and control over the data; reader difficulties in being unable to distinguish between data and its interpretation; and the need to preserve the anonymity of the subjects. MacDonald and Walker (1974) point out that the context continuously

> "generates its own reflective languages. Since the process itself contains its own theoretical, analytical and descriptive constructs. This creates the potential for presenting case studies within the language of those studied" (p.187).

Mac Donald and Walker (1974) further point out that case studies are partial accounts involving selection (because of the constraints of time and resources) at every stage. They rarely provide proof, but aim at increasing understanding of the variables, parameters and dynamics of that

which is investigated. Cross-checking will be the main form of validation and estimation of the reliability of the evidence.

Criticism of non-classical approaches

Valid concern exists not only about the subjective nature of methods that operate within the non-classical paradigm, but also about the scope of such studies. Parlett and Hamilton (1972) argue that worries about the subjective nature of such research arise from the assumption that it is possible to have forms of research that are immune to human error, experimenter bias and prejudice. This assumption is erroneous. Parlett and Hamilton (1972) concede that with illuminative evaluation, greater usage of qualitative data, progressive focusing and open-ended techniques may still lead to bias and partiality. This is usually because evidence collected may be easily manipulated to suit policy-makers and prejudices. However, they suggest that partiality may be reduced by: cross-checking by using outsiders as well as different techniques; getting members to play the devil's advocate; allowing team members to develop their own (possibly different) interpretations; documenting critical research processes; discussing and making explicit the theoretical principles and methodology; spelling out selection criteria and providing quality evidence. Even so, the subjective element remains, and is an accepted part of this form of research. Investigators need to develop technical, intellectual and inter-personal skills, and clarify their roles with regard to integrity and subjects' trust.

Illuminative evaluation can have wide applicability and scope not only by increasing the quantity, but also because the learning milieu shares common characteristics despite the diversity. For example, teachers often encounter similar problems; students share habits, styles, fears and goals; teaching is shackled by similar conventions, subject divisions, and degrees of student participation. While the parameters often overlap, they are difficult to pinpoint, define or describe. Illuminative evaluation contributes to this process, concentrating on information-gathering rather than decision-making in order to provide understanding - to illuminate the complex realities surrounding the innovation.

Reynolds (1980) suggests that '**naturalistic**' methods of social inquiry (for example illuminative evaluation) can be linked to a 1930s "tell-as-it-is" anthropological and sociological tradition of reportage used mostly to present working class social complexity. The methodology of naturalism is

> "usually defined as the study of the social world through the observation of individuals or groups in their natural setting, with minimal interference by the observer" (Reynolds,1980, p.87).

In characterising and criticising naturalistic methods, Reynolds (1980) points that such an approach relies (almost exclusively) on the sense-making perspectives and interpretations that social members use to explain social reality. However, classical Marxists would argue that this is not enough. The intellectual or social scientific class has to be an "arbiter" of these accounts, and expose ways in which peoples' taken-for-granted views may have been ideologically designed to legitimise their subjugation. Furthermore, naturalistic methods focus (almost naively) upon the 'micro-level' interaction within schools and classrooms (almost as if education happens in a social vacuum) rather than how it relates to the wider economic and superstructures it operates in. Marxists hold clear that people can influence their own development and environment at the same time as they are affected by them. Naturalism also seems to have been characterised by avoidance of the explicit assessment of the validity of findings. Much of the studies conducted within the new sociology of education appear not to have described the criteria by which data selection and interpretation are conducted, despite their acknowledged need to do so. Reynolds concludes that this new, unscientific, idealist and micro-sociological approach reflects a temporary disillusionment with conventional modes of scholastic inquiry. In fact,

> "little concern is shown for the need to use empirical insight to generate adequate theoretical constructs of the inter-relationships between different bodies of knowledge" (p.97).

It is possible to conclude, after Van Lier (1990), that interpretive and normative research programmes may sometimes provide the same sort of findings, but that it is more likely to provide different kinds of compatible or contradictory information. It is this diversity that may enrich theoretical and professional knowledge. All of the above perspectives were taken into consideration and informed the approach and design of the instruments used in this research. While an eclectic methodology of data gathering was used, case study traditions in education were particularly important. Before considering actual methodology, the specific content used for research needs to be illuminated. This had a bearing on the choice of research tools used. Such a contextualisation in the illuminative evaluation and case study traditions. Understanding of the research environment allows a deeper sensitivity to the aims, methods and analysis of the results of the research.

Description of the Institution used for Research

The main campus of Science University of Malaysia (Universiti Sains Malaysia) is located in Minden on the island of Penang (or Pulau Pinang). The island itself is about 12 miles long and 9 miles wide, and is about 2 miles off the north-west of West Malaysia. Penang island, together with a strip of land on the mainland called Province Wellesley (or now Seberang Prai) forms a state, the capital of which is Georgetown. Although historically the first, Georgetown is the second city of Malaysia because it is second commercially to the national capital, Kuala Lumpur

(Seward, 1972). At present, Universiti Sains Malaysia has 3 campuses. The main campus remains at Minden in Penang, with the second campus (housing Schools of Engineering) in Bandar Seri Iskandar near Ipoh in Perak, and the Medical Faculty predominating the Kubang Kerian campus in Kelantan on the east coast of West Malaysia. Enrolment exceeds 13,000 students undertaking full-time and off-campus undergraduate, post-graduate, diploma, certificate and matriculation courses (Shukor, 1992).

Historical Development of Universiti Sains Malaysia

Events after Malaya attained Independence in 1957 led to legislation in 1962 creating a University of Malaya in Kuala Lumpur, and a University of Singapore in Singapore. Universiti Sains Malaysia is the second university to be established in Malaysia.

The origins, role, and early objectives of Universiti Sains Malaysia are well documented by Ahmat (1979). As early as the 1950's, the state of Penang expressed an interest in establishing another institution of higher learning, besides the original University of Malaya. This interest grew, and in 1962 the Penang State Legislative Assembly passed a resolution calling for representations to be made to the University of Malaya to establish either a University College or similar institution in status to be affiliated to the University of Malaya. The resolution also suggested that such an institution would ultimately develop into a University of Penang. In 1967, the Report of the Higher Education Planning Committee (under the Chairmanship of the Minister of Education) was published and provided the basic guidelines for the establishment of new universities. One of its recommendations was the setting up of a University College in Penang, which would be ready to admit students by 1970. In 1967 also, the Government made a number of announcements approving the establishment of a University College of Penang and the foundation stone was laid on 7th August 1967.

A Penang University College Working Committee chaired by the Minister of Education was formed to advise the Government on the necessary steps toward the establishment of the University College of Penang. This committee recommended the establishment of a full University in Penang, and the Government agreed to establishing the University of Penang. In April 1969, the Vice-Chancellor Designate was appointed and charged with setting up and running the University of Penang. In June 1969, 57 students matriculated to read courses in the natural sciences, even though the buildings were not ready, and premises had to be loaned from the Malayan Teachers College.

In April 1972, the University was advised by the Government to change its name to Science University of Malaysia (Universiti Sains Malaysia). The official explanation was that this would help focus the main thrust of the new University on scientific knowledge, as well as to make its

contribution not only to Penang, but also to the country as a whole. Unofficially, this was the result of anti-regionalism feelings.

Aims of the University

Ong (1979) points out that the academic planning of the University has been guided by five main considerations:

- quality education;
- relevance of courses to society;
- need for a science and technology bias;
- an interdisciplinary approach, both in teaching and research; and
- avoiding duplication (of what was already available in the country).

The bias towards science and technology was the result of a UNESCO human resources survey and the recommendations of the Report of the Higher Education Planning Committee (1967) which identified a continuing need for graduates in the sciences, but also in the humanities and social sciences (Ahmat, 1979). This perceived need, combined with the idea of an interdisciplinary approach, led to the establishment of a school system as opposed to the traditional multi-departmental Faculty System. The schools that were established during the first 10 years included the school of:

(a) Biological Sciences (1969)
(b) Chemical Sciences (1969)
(c) Physics and Mathematics (1969)
(d) Cultural and Community Studies (1970), which was later changed to School of Humanities
(e) Comparative Social Sciences (1970)
(f) Centre for Educational Services (1970) later changed to School of Educational Studies
(g) Pharmaceutical Sciences (1973)
(h) Applied Sciences (1973) and
(i) Housing, Building and Planning (1973)

Since then the number of schools in the University has grown to 16, including Civil Engineering, Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Industrial Technology, Management, Materials and Mineral Resources Engineering, Mathematical and computer sciences, Mechanical Engineering and Medical Sciences.

Academic Set-up of USM

Ong (1979) points out that in academic planning, the University's thrust has been guided by non-duplication, flexibility and innovation while at the same time avoiding over-specialisation. Hence, core courses (for example in the sciences and humanities) have been retained, while specialisations have been added to these. For example, the Bachelor of Science with Education degree lasts 4 years with an Education component included throughout the 4 years (as compared to 1 year education courses following basic degree courses). In the natural sciences, the Bachelor of Science allows for both double majors (where students are given equal emphasis in any two of the disciplines of biology, physics, mathematics and chemistry) and the more traditional single majors (where however, students are given the chance to study subjects in humanities and social sciences as well). Cross-minoring in humanities, social sciences and mathematics is also available. A further example of innovation in the Malaysian context is the acceptance of students from both Arts and Science backgrounds by the School of Housing, Building and Planning. The School of Humanities has courses grouped under traditional specialisations such as literature, geography, history, English, and Bahasa Malaysia, but the orientations have been different. The School of Social Science (the first to be established in Malaysia) has aimed at dealing with Malaysia's increasing economic, social and political problems through courses in economics, management, sociology, social anthropology and political science.

The examples given above will suffice to show the diversity, flexibility and innovation which has characterised the interdisciplinary nature of education offered by Universiti Sains Malaysia.

The implementation of the academic programmes has involved continuous assessment, meaning that a portion of the final grade comprises course work grades. The examination system involves papers being taken at the end of each semester, and has evolved from a 3 year unitised system into a 4 year unitised system, meaning that students have to achieve stipulated total units by passing the required papers over the 4 years.

Languages in the University

Language policy in U.S.M. has followed national language developments, and Bahasa Malaysia is the official language of education.

Initially, because many of the students were products of the original (predominantly English-oriented) education system, courses were taught mainly in English and Bahasa Malaysia. Since then, the balance has progressively shifted to the use of Bahasa Malaysia in all subjects (including lectures, assignments, tutorials and examinations), except in the study of languages such as English, German, Arabic, Chinese and Thai. As such, all communication (at least officially) is in Bahasa Malaysia except in programmes such as the English Studies Programme, where all

communication is in English. Staff (both Malaysian and non-Malaysian are encouraged to attend Bahasa Malaysia courses provided by the Centre for Languages and Translation. One major problem concerns foreign consultants contracted to teach, and in these cases, there is a little relaxation of such rules. Nevertheless, assignments and examinations are in Bahasa Malaysia. Another problem is that most of the reference material is still available only in English. Efforts are being made nationally, however, to overcome this by increasing reference and academic output (both original and in translation) in Bahasa Malaysia. All students must achieve an acceptable level of proficiency in both Bahasa Malaysia and English for graduation. These levels are defined by achieving passes in LKM 400 or LKM 400X (for Bahasa Malaysia), and English language Level IV courses offered by the Centre for Languages and translation.

The student population generally reflects national educational policies and ethnic ratios. Most of the students would be at least bilingual (understood here to mean simply that they have a degree of proficiency in any two languages), usually in their own mother tongue and one other language. Thus, the Malay student would know Bahasa Malaysia and English. The Chinese and Indians would know their respective mother tongues, Bahasa Malaysia and English, although the levels of proficiency may vary considerably.

In a study of the features of the spoken languages of first year students at Universiti Sains Malaysia, Liew (1986) reports that 76 % of the girls and 56.2% of the boys were educated through Bahasa Malaysia, while 15.2% girls and 31.2 boys through English, and 9% girls and 12.5% boys through Mandarin. None had been educated through Tamil. Most spoke and understood Bahasa Malaysia best, but girls used and understood English more than the boys. Bahasa Malaysia is the language of inter-ethnic group communication, but there is a strong element of code-switching and code-mixing, especially with English. Other local languages such as Hokkien and Tamil are used in intra-group communication.

Long (1986) studied socio-cultural factors affecting the learning of English by students in Universiti Sains Malaysia, and found that Indians represented the ethnic group with the largest number of respondents from an urban background, with the Chinese second, and the Malays third. Long's(1986) Cloze test in English revealed that the Indians were the highest achievers, followed respectively by Chinese and Malay students. She also found that the Indians had the highest exposure to English, used English more, interacted more favourably with speakers of English, had the highest percentage of English-medium education and highest acculturation to the socio-cultural elements of English speakers in Malaysia. They were followed by Chinese and Malays, in that order, on all of the above factors.

In an on-going research project to study English aliteracy, Pandian (1991) studied thirty first year students taking the "Introduction to English Studies" course (a course required if the students intend to major or minor in English) in U.S.M. He found that only 16.7% of the students are

avid readers, while 83.3% are aliterates or reluctant readers (those who can read, but choose not to). Fifty percent (15) of these students have A1 in English in the SPM examination, 30% (9) A2, and 20% (6) a C3. These students can be described as having a good command of the language in the context of present Malaysian universities. They are aware of the inherent value of reading, are willing to read under certain conditions (like examinations and assignments), but do not indulge in reading as a preferred activity.

The School of Educational Studies

The School of Educational Studies, which opened in 1970 as the Centre for Educational Studies, has played a unique role in the academic development of the University. By concentrating on pedagogical aspects, the School has been able to facilitate the professional education of Malaysian teachers in both the sciences and arts. The academic component of the education of these teachers is offered by the Schools of Natural Sciences and School of Humanities. It was the second University institution to be set up in Malaysia for professional teacher education after the Faculty of Education in the University of Malaya. All courses in the School of Education are conducted in Bahasa Malaysia, except for the second and third level English methods courses. Students majoring in English would have passed at least the Level IV English course offered by the Centre for languages and Translation.

Comprising 43 academic staff, the School of Educational Studies is involved in a number of academic programmes. The undergraduate programmes are the:

- Bachelor of Arts (Education) with Honours [B.A. (Ed) Hons.];
- Bachelor of Arts (Education) with Honours [B.A. (Ed.) Hons.] Special Programme;
- Bachelor of Education with Honours [B. Ed. (Hons.)].
- Bachelor of Science (Education) with Honours [B. Sc. (Ed.) Hons.].

The Bachelor of Arts (Education) with Honours includes an academic component offered by the School of Humanities, and a professional component offered by the School of Educational Studies.

Figure 10 below illustrates the structure of the programme, and is followed by details of the Humanities with Education students:

Figure 10: Structure of the B.A. (Humanities with Education) programme

Ordinary Programme	Units	General Studies Programme	Units
Basic	20	Basic	20
Major	40	Major	40
Minor	20	Minor	20
Education	44	Education	44
Bahasa Malaysia & Tatanegara	2	Bahasa Malaysia & Tatanegara	2
English Language	0-8	English Language	0-8
Options/Electives/ Islamic Civilisation/ Co-Curriculum	10-18	Options/Electives/ Islamic Civilisation/ Co-Curriculum	10-18
Total	Minimum 144	Total	Minimum 144

For the academic component, students read at least four introductory courses, and one other course taken from another school at first year level. They are required to major in a single school subject and minor in another subject offered in the same School or under the General Studies Programme (preferably a subject taught in school). Subjects offered by the School of Humanities for the major-minor specialisation include Bahasa Malaysia, English, Geography, Literature, History, Fine Arts, Islamic Studies (minor only) and Performing Arts. For the professional component, student are provided with foundation courses in education as well as given exposure to the methods of teaching in the relevant school subjects. Teaching practice is compulsory.

The Bachelor of Arts (Education) with Honours - Special Programme is a double major involving both an Arts and Science component. The academic part is offered by the relevant Schools of Natural Science and the School of Humanities, and the professional part by the School of Educational Studies.

For the academic component, students read for a double major in the Arts and Science disciplines. For the professional component, students are provided with foundation courses in education as well as given exposure to the methods of teaching in the relevant school subjects. Teaching practice is compulsory. The overall degree structure with its units allocation is shown in Figure 11 which follows.

Figure 11: Overall Degree Structure.

Courses	Units
Science/Mathematics Major	40
Service Mathematics/Elective Mathematics	8-10
Foundation Arts	8
Arts Major	40
Education	44
Bahasa Malaysia & Tatanegara	2
Scientific English	0-8
Islamic Civilization/Co-Curriculum/Options/Electives	4-8
Total	150-156

The Bachelor of Education with Honours programme also comprises an academic component offered by the relevant School of Natural Sciences and School of Humanities, and the professional component being handled by the School of Educational Studies. This programme has been designed to upgrade the professional qualifications and abilities of college trained teachers.

In the academic component, students are required to take courses in the Sciences or the Humanities as well as to study a particular area in a discipline outside the Sciences and Humanities. In the professional component, students are required to read foundation courses in education and to specialise in the area of Curriculum and Instruction for the primary or the secondary school as well as a selection of courses from a broad range of areas related to education. The teaching practice and practicum sub-component is compulsory and it is especially designed for students who wish to pursue this degree.

Admission to most of these courses requires possession of either the Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran, Higher School Certificate, or the Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia Certificates with good grades in the relevant specialisations. The School of Educational Studies also conducts interviews to ascertain the aptitude of candidates.

Figure 12 below illustrates the allocation of units for the B.A.(Ed) programme:

Courses (Science)	Units	Courses (Arts)	Units
Science 1		Academic: Major	
(core)	28	Specialization	28
Science		Academic: Exposure	
II/ III /IV	24	to Disciplines	24
Bahasa Malaysia &		Bahasa Malaysia &	
Tatanegara	2	Tatanegara	2
Professional		Professional	
Component	60	Component	60
English Language		English Language	
	0-8	/Options	0-8
Compulsory/Options	Compulsory/Options		
(including Islamic		(including Islamic	
civilisation and		civilisation and	
Malaysian society		Malaysian society	
Co-curriculum/		Co-curriculum	
/Options)	10-18	/Options)	10-18
Total	Min.140	Total	Min.140

Postgraduate programmes offered by the School of Educational Studies include:

- Doctoral Degree (Ph.D)
- Masters Degree (M. Ed.)
- Diploma in Education (Dip. Ed.)

The Doctoral Programme can be undertaken full or part-time by research, while the Masters programme can be taken part or full-time, either by research or coursework, or a combination of both.

The fields of research/study for these higher degrees include Educational Psychology, Educational Sociology, Educational Development and History, Science Education, Physical Education, Comparative Education, Curriculum Studies, Bahasa Malaysia Education, Educational Technology, Mathematics Education, Testing and Measurement in Education, Basic Education (Pre-School and Primary School Education).

The Diploma in Education, which began in 1988-1989, involves those candidates having a University degree and wishing to become teachers. The programme consists of 44 credits including practice in schools, and is completed through full-time study in the two semesters of the regular academic session, followed by 15 weeks of teaching practice in the third semester.

The overall structure of the Diploma in Education programme with its units allocation is shown in the chart below:

Figure 13: Structure of the Diploma in Education Programme.

Areas	Units
Foundation	20-40
Educational Practice	12
Teaching Practice (Compulsory)	8
Breadth	0-4
Total	44

The description of programmes given above should be sufficient for an understanding of the general thrust of teacher preparation at Universiti Sains Malaysia.

A Sample of Courses Taken by English Language Student Teachers

In view of the fact that the students involved in this study are English Language trainees, the following description of courses taken will be restricted to those offered by the School of Educational Studies and the English Studies Programme of the School of Humanities. The description of the English studies programme should however exemplify the kind of academic input from the various areas of specialisation.

Figure 14: Courses offered by the School of Educational Studies

Course	Units
Introductory Guide to Teaching	4 units
Educational Development in Malaysia	2 units
Educational Psychology I	2 units
Introduction to Educational Technology	2 units
Physical and Health Education	2 units
Introduction to Teaching Methods (Arts or science)	4 & 2 units
Teaching Methods I (in various specialisations like Physics, Chemistry, Bahasa Malaysia, English and so on)	2 units
Classroom innovation	4 units
Educational Psychology II	2 units
Educational Sociology I	2 units
Educational Evaluation	2 units
Guidance and Counselling	2 units
Introduction to Teaching Methods in Physical and Health Education	2 units
Primary School Curriculum	2 units
Academic Exercise	8 units
Teaching Methods II	2 units
Educational Management	4 units
Cognitive Theories of Learning	4 units
Motivation and Learning	4 units
Introductory Educational Research	4 units
Educational Philosophy	2 units
Current Problems and Issues in Education	2 units
School Administration	4 units
Sports and Coaching	4 units
Administration and Management of Sports	4 units
Personality Theories	4 units
Computers and Education	2 units
Educational Publications	4 units
Management of Educational Resources	4 units
Educational Structures and Development	4 units
Students are also involved in 2 periods of Teaching Practice during vacation	
Teaching practice I	3 units
Teaching Practice II	5 units

The academic input from the English studies programme includes necessary courses taken from those in Figure 15.

Figure 15: Other courses required

Course	Units
Introduction to English studies	4 units
Basic Skills in Reading and Writing in English	4 units
Further Skills in Reading and Writing in English	4 units
Introduction to General Linguistics for Teachers	4 units
Phonetics and Phonology of English	4 units
Practical English Usage	4 units
Oral Communication in English	4 units
Critical Reading and Writing	4 units
The Structure of English	4 units
Psycholinguistics	4 units
Oral Interpretation	4 units
Semantics	4 units
Comparative and Contrastive Analysis	4 units
Analysis of the Language of Literature	4 units
English in Contemporary Regional Literature	4 units
Sociolinguistics	4 units
Literature in English for Schools	4 units

Reasons for Choice of Institution for the Study

Conducting a study such as this, involving the continued use of teaching materials over a minimum of 12 weeks imposes a number of restraining conditions. The first of these is the willingness of the institution and the course lecturer to allow usage of the materials in themselves, as well as to allow for the exploring of strategies of usage of these materials. The doubts and fears about the adequacy of the materials as well as the researcher will of course be questioned. As it turned out, the School of Educational Studies was the only institution (out of those approached) which was agreeable. The second reason lies in the rationale underlying the original impetus for the designing of the materials. It was reasoned that there was a need for such materials for teacher education in Malaysia, and these institutions included universities such as Universiti Sains Malaysia, as well as teacher training colleges. As such, this researcher felt that the first place in which the usage of these materials should be studied was at the same University in which they were designed, albeit in a different school. The third reason was that students from Universiti Sains Malaysia involved in the study would be as representative as any students from other universities in Malaysia, given the fact that the entry qualification for all universities is the same. It was thus felt that there would be no advantage gained by conducting the study with a

different sample of students from any other University in Malaysia. Use of a variety of samples across institutions was prohibited by time and the in-depth nature of the evaluation. On the other hand, it was felt that familiarity with the institution and staff would make it easier and more convenient for the conduct of the study. Finally, while recognising that since the materials were designed for Malaysia, it would be best to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the materials in an institution in Malaysia. It was also felt that such an institution should have some standing in the academic world, and as such, Universiti Sains Malaysia was a logical choice. With regard to Universiti Sains Malaysia, Ratnam (1979) has pointed out that

> "...by no reasonable standard can the University - or indeed the Malaysian University system as a whole - be regarded as belonging to the front line of academic or intellectual activity in the world. Only false pride could lead one to believe otherwise. But this does not mean that Universiti Sains or any other University in Malaysia has no cause to hold its head high or take justifiable pride in its achievements. Given its short history, the financial constraints .... and its focus on undergraduate teaching, the standards which the University has achieved are indeed creditable..." (p. 43-44).

Furthermore, Universiti Sains Malaysia probably has the widest array of undergraduate and postgraduate level courses, and produces versatile students better able to serve the nation through the crisscross of interdisciplinary programmes. It is perceived as the foremost educational institution (with the possible exception of engineering) in the country at undergraduate level (Shukor, 1992).

Description of the Students

The total sample consisted of 44 undergraduates and 7 post-graduates.

B.Ed Programme

The undergraduates included three mature students undergoing the B. Ed. programme, ranging from 30 to 33 in age. While two (one male, one female) students had five years of teaching experience, one (female) had taught for ten years. While the first two had received only initial training at a teacher training college, the one with ten years of experience had an extra Diploma in TEFL (from the University of Malaya) after her initial training at a teacher training college. One of the two with five years of experience had taught in Johor (South of West Malaysia), the other in Selangor (central West Malaysia), while the one with ten years experience had taught in Kedah and Penang in North-west Malaysia.

B.A. (Ed) Hons Programmes

The number enrolled for B.A. (Ed) Hons. was 18, while the number involved in the double major B.A. (Ed.) Hons - special programme B was 23. All these students ranged between 22 and 23 years of age, indicating that most would have come straight into University from school, and not have had any lengthy period of employment of any kind. Most of these undergraduates had experienced only 8 weeks of teaching experience gained during their first Teaching Practice schedule between April and June 1991.

Dip. Ed. Programme

The ages of the postgraduate Diploma in Education students ranged from 24 to 29 years. All of them were female, and while a few had experienced a few months of teaching practice, four had had no teaching experience at all. One student however had taught Physical Education and Commerce and Accounting for four years in a private secondary school. Thus, while the postgraduates were generally at least one to two years older than the undergraduates, they did not necessarily have more teaching experience. In fact two of them had had no teaching experience at all.

Ethnic composition

The ethnic ratio of students in the sample is presented in Figure 16:

Figure 16: Ethnic composition of the student sample group

B. Ed.	2 Chinese, 1 Indian,
B. A. (Ed) Hons	9 Chinese,6 Indians,6 Malays, 1 other
B. A. (Ed.) Hons Sp. Prog. B	6 Chinese 6 Indians,5 Malays, 1 other
Dip. Ed.	4 Indians, 3 Malays

Time-table

The student sample was divided into three sessions for both the purposes of time-tabling and keeping the group numbers manageable.

Students formed their own groups following peer and time-tabling considerations. All the students complained of a heavy programme, and the interdisciplinary approach necessitated a negotiation of two hour periods which were acceptable to the students generally. Only Group 4 was made up of the whole group of Diploma in Education students, but even this group shared the teaching sessions with seven undergraduates.

Group 1 comprised 18 students and met on Monday mornings between 11.00 a.m. and 1.00 p.m; Group 2 comprised 19 students and met on Monday afternoons between 3.00 and 5.00 p.m.; Group 3 (undergraduates) and Group 4 (postgraduates) met on Wednesday morning between 9.00 and 11.00 a.m.

The ethnic breakdown of the groups is as follows:

Figure 17: Group ethnic breakdown

Group 1 - 8 Chinese, 5 Malays, 4 Indians and 1 other;
Group 2 - 12 Chinese, 0 Malays, 6 Indians and 1 other;
Group 3 - 0 Chinese, 0 Malays, 7 Indians, 0 others;
Group 4 - 0 Chinese, 3 Malays, 4 Indians 0 others.

Proficiency in English

The following is a breakdown of the performance of the students in the English paper of the S.P.M. examination:

Figure 18: English language proficiency of the students

Group 1 - 12 (A1), 3 (A2), 2 (C3), 1 (C4);
Group 2 - 11 (A1), 6 (A2), 2 (C3);
Group 3 - 4 (A1), 3 (A2);
Group 4 - 2 (A2), 1 (C3), 1 (C4), 1 (C5), 2 (C6).

The interpretation of the various grades in Figures 17 and 18 are as follows:

A1	-	high distinction;
A2	-	low distinction;
C3	-	high credit;
C4	-	credit;
C5	-	low credit;
P7	-	pass;
P8	-	pass;
F9	-	Fail.

Results in English according to ethnic groups

A breakdown of the performance of the students in English according to ethnicity is as follows in Figure 19.

Figure 19: English language proficiency according to ethnicity

Group 1 -	Chinese - 6 (A1), 2 (A2);
	Indians - 2 (A1), 1 (A2), 1 (C3);
	Malays - 3 (A1), 1 (C3), 1 (C4);
	Others - 1 (A1);
Group 2 -	Chinese - 8 (A1), 3 (A2), 1 (C3);
	Indians - 2 (A1), 3 (A2) 1 (A3);
	Malays - 0;
	Others - 0;
Group 3 -	Chinese - 0;
	Indians - 4 (A1), 3 (A2);
	Malays - 0;
	Others - 0;
Group 4 -	Chinese - 0;
	Indians - 2 (A2), 2 (C4);
	Malays - 1 (C5), 2 (C6).

In general, the students may be described as a fair cross section of students wishing to be teachers in Malaysian universities. They came from all over Malaysia, including East Malaysia. Academically all had met the minimum prerequisite for University education. Their ability in English was equivalent to that found in academic institutions in Malaysia, with most students possessing distinctions in the SPM paper. Professionally, most had very little teaching experience prior to University education, and had had their initial exposure during the first scheduled Teaching Practice. Some students had a few months of temporary (attachment) teaching experience. Only the three Bachelor of Education students and one Diploma in Education student had significant teaching experience. This was to be expected as the B.Ed. programme was designed specifically for practising teachers to upgrade their professional qualification. Although not truly reflective of the national population ethnic ratio, the sample is a fair representation of the major ethnic groups in the country, with varied economic backgrounds.

The Instruments of Research

The instruments of the research were the following:

(a) Twelve units of video.

(b) Twelve sets of Worksheets and suggested answers (Leader's Notes to accompany the video units (one example in Appendix 11).

(c) A set of individual lesson questionnaires (Appendices 1 and 2).

(d) A set of overall student summative questionnaires (Appendix 3).

(e) Tape recordings of randomly selected students (one transcript in Appendix 5) and groups (one transcript in Appendix 14).

(f) Tape recordings of experts and senior professionals in English Language Teaching and English Language Teacher Education (one transcript in Appendix 6).

(g) A written essay on the topic "What I see as the challenges facing me as I train to become a teacher of English" (one example in Appendix 10).

(h) Students' personal and academic details form (Appendix 12).

(i) A worksheet designed for Unit 9 (one example in Appendix 13).

(j) A personal diary kept by this researcher (one day's entries in Appendix 7).

Brief Descriptions of the Instruments of Research

(a) **Video**

Twelve units of video which comprise the video component of the Reflections on Classroom Practice package formed one of the main instruments used in the individual teaching lessons.

They were made up of a number of segments showing different teachers teaching school pupils in classroom and studio settings. The units were organised according to the following topics (Figure 20):

Figure 20: Titles and lengths of the Units

Unit 1: Getting Started - 4 segments (18 minutes 12 seconds);
Unit 2: Using Resources - 3 segments (18 minutes);
Unit 3: Vocabulary Work - 4 segments (23 minutes 03 seconds);
Unit 4: Working With Groups - 3 segments (19 minutes 52 seconds);
Unit 5: Getting Pupils to Speak - 5 segments (19 minutes 33 seconds);
Unit 6: Approaching Writing - 2 segments (18 minutes 40 seconds);
Unit 7: Listening Comprehension - 4 segments (20 minutes);
Unit 8: Dealing with Errors - 4 segments (26 minutes 23 seconds);
Unit 9: Using Questions - 2 segments (25 minutes 44 seconds);
Unit 10: Grammar - 3 segments (16 minutes);
Unit 11: Integrated Skills Development - 2 segments (22 minutes 17 seconds);
Unit 12: Moving Onto Projects - 2 segments (22 minutes 17 seconds).

(b) **Worksheets and Leader's Notes**

Except for one unit, all the worksheets followed a format that involved Pre-viewing tasks, tasks to be done while or following viewing tape segments, and Post-viewing tasks. The Pre-viewing tasks tended to be introductory and involved checking student knowledge and attitudes about aspects of teaching or learning the topic of the unit. The Post-viewing tasks generally attempt to ascertain student reactions, views and learning following the viewing of the segments and attempting the worksheet tasks. The tasks related to the individual tape segments included a variety of exercises such as non-verbal responses (ticking a box), observation, identifying, describing, evaluating, reflecting and considering alternative strategies. Appendix 10 shows the worksheets and Leader's Notes for Unit 12. A detailed breakdown of the specific focus of these tasks is provided in Appendix 8.

(c) **Individual Lesson Questionnaire**

The Individual Lesson questionnaires comprised reactions to the video component as well as to the worksheets. They were designed to be administered at the end of viewing segments of the units, and working through the worksheets (see Appendices 1 and 2).

(d) **Overall (Student Summative) Questionnaire**

These were designed to be administered at the end of the study, or usage of the materials in teaching. Ideally, they were to be administered after all 12 units had been worked through, although they could also be administered upon completion of whatever number of units taught (refer to Appendix 3).

(e) **Tape Recordings of Student Interviews**

Individual Tape Recordings:

A number of students were selected randomly from all four groups and interviewed twice individually. The interviews lasted from 35 to 55 minutes each. The first set of interviews were conducted between the 14th and 16th of January, 1992, which was the fifth week in the semester (the fourth week since the materials were used as there was no teaching during the first week of the semester).

The same students were interviewed for a second and final time from the thirteenth week onwards. This was after twelve weeks of using the materials, when all the students had viewed the tapes and worked with the materials.

The exception however were the 2 Diploma in Education students, who were interviewed for a second time on the 27th of February, 1992, after only 9 units had been completed, because the Diploma in Education students disbanded for Teaching Practice after that. A sample transcript of an interview is provided in Appendix 5.

Group Tape Recordings

All four groups were interviewed for collective feedback at the end of viewing all of the units. Groups 1, 2, and 3 were interviewed during the twelfth week and allowed to talk freely about the materials, their usage and the teaching methods employed by this researcher. Group 4 was interviewed on the 26th of February, 1992, but unfortunately, a technical fault led to no recording being made on the tape. The group however agreed to come back for another interview during the twelfth week so as to be able to give their views following three weeks of teaching practice. Unfortunately, only two students came for the replacement interview on the 21st of March, 1992.

During the group interviews, students who had been interviewed individually were excluded so as to not influence or dominate the discussions, and also to reduce redundancy. A sample transcript a group interview is found in Appendix 13.

(f) **Tape Recordings of 'Experts' Interviews**

Tape recordings were made of international and Malaysian 'experts' who were identified following discussions with the researcher's supervisors on the basis of the following criteria:

- expertise in English language teacher education in Malaysia;
- expertise in English language teacher education in South-East Asia;
- awareness of classroom conditions and English language teaching in Malaysia;
- awareness of video usage in teacher education;
- expertise in video materials production and usage;
- being current practitioners.

The following were identified from the local universities and teacher training colleges:

Universities

i. Dr. Hyacinth Gaudart (University of Malaya), Head of Teaching of English as a Second Language author of numerous English Language Teaching books, and the author of a weekly English Language Teaching column in the national STAR newspaper. Interviewed on the 6th February, 1992.

ii. Dr. Mildred Nalliah (Universiti Sains Malaysia) a lecturer in the English Section of the School of Educational Studies, and the author of a number of English Language textbooks for Malaysian school children. She was also the lecturer in charge of the PLG 315 course on English Teaching Methods where the study was conducted. She was present at almost all sessions involving the use of materials. Interviewed on 26th, March, 1992.

iii. Wan Zailena Wan Noordin, a lecturer with English studies section of the School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia. She is the current coordinator of the Reflections on Classroom Practices Project, and was involved in the project from the beginning to the trials and promotion of the materials upon completion. Interviewed on 5th, March, 1992 and 26th, March, 1992.

Teacher training Colleges

iv. Dhanwant Kaur, with 16 years of school experience and 5 years of teacher training experience, and Pavittal Kaur Gill, with 7 years of school experience and 11 years of teacher training experience. Both are from the English Section at the Specialist Teacher Training College (Maktab Perguruan Ilmu Khas) in Kuala Lumpur. This institution is now the foremost college of English Language Teacher education in the country, and is about to begin twinning degree and

other programmes of English Language Teacher education with a consortium of British institutions of higher education (referred to in chapter 3). Interviewed on 7th February, 1992.

v. Mariam Zamani, Head of the TESL Section at the Malaysian Teacher Training College in Penang. She was Head of TESL at another teacher training college before her present posting. At the time of the interview, she had just received her new posting to the Teacher Education Division of the Ministry of Education as the Curriculum Officer. Interviewed on 22nd, March, 1992.

It was felt that personnel from both teacher training colleges as well as universities should be interviewed to get feedback from institutions for whom the materials were designed and produced. Furthermore, it was felt that Penang and Kuala Lumpur were major teacher education centres, representing a fair sample of teacher educators.

International Experts Interviewed

In order to get an international overview of the materials, the following were interviewed:

vi. Rob Heath, who is highly experienced in teacher education and on Malaysian and Singaporean contexts of education. Following a long tenure with the British Council in Singapore, he is presently a freelance consultant. Interviewed on the 2nd of April, 1992.

vii. Linda Hannington, the head of the teacher training section of the British Council, Singapore. Interviewed on the 2nd, March, 1992.

viii. Pat Daniel, Course Director of the PGCE TES / FL course in the School of Education, University College of N.Wales. Interviewed on 10th of September. 1991.

ix. Alan Moore, a former English language consultant to the Teacher Education Division of the Ministry of Education, Malaysia, currently a consultant in Sierra Leone (the Ivory Coast). While being involved with professional development in Malaysia, he was also the coordinator of a successful project which produced a package of listening comprehension materials in English for teacher training colleges in Malaysia His experience of teacher education in developing countries was considered particularly useful. His written response to questions was received on 30-1-93.

A sample transcript of one such interview is provided in Appendix 6.

(g) **Written Essay**

It was felt that a written essay on what students saw as the main personal challenges would reveal interesting personal goals, problems, fears, strategies and levels of thinking and reflections (see Appendix 9).

(h) **Personal Details**

Apart from personal details, this form (see Appendix 11) requested feedback on students' teaching experience, first choice of career and reasons for wanting to become English Language Teachers. This was collected during the second week of the semester.

(i) **Unit 9 Worksheet**

This was designed to ascertain student perceptions of significant incidents in the video segments, as well as to get feedback on students' ability to evaluate lessons (Appendix 12).

(j) **Personal Diary**

A personal diary was kept by the researcher, and entries were attempted almost daily, and especially after the units were completed. It was hoped that this would be as objective a record of events as possible, as well as to allow the researcher opportunities for reflection. An example of one day's entries is included in Appendix 7.

Record of how the materials were used

The general strategy of usage of the materials involved:

(a) distribution of worksheets and student attempts of Pre-viewing Tasks;

(b) individual student responses to Worksheet Tasks following viewing of tape segments;

(c) pair and peer group discussions;

(d) whole class discussions led by this researcher;

(e) completion of uncompleted tasks at home;

(f) filling in of individual lesson questionnaires after each lesson;

(g) handing completed worksheets to researcher.

This researcher was informed that the course being assigned only two units, contact hours with students would only be to be two hours per week. This schedule was also affected by a series of holidays, and required replacement classes being scheduled. In principle, every lesson either began or ended with an half-hour lecture by the course lecturer (in keeping with her pre-course topic schedule handout) on various aspects of English Language Teaching methods. The researcher, in effect, was given only one and a half hours to conduct the trial of the materials.

A record of the conduct of individual lessons is included in the Appendix 4

Method of data analysis

The data collected from the student responses to the questionnaires was analysed by mainframe computer using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-X). Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to explore thoroughly the data and a wide range of interactions between variables.

Conclusion

This chapter has described the methodology of the study. In so doing, it has described the contexts within which the study is placed (research paradigms, the nature of the institution and students, the instruments of research and the procedures adopted). Where possible criteria for selection and problems have been referred to.

A number of limitations need, however, to be pointed out. These limitations are presented in hindsight after the conduct of the study. The major problem that faced the researcher in the use of the materials was the severe limitation of time. Limited contact of two hours a week, and actual teaching by the researcher of only one and a half hours at any one time forced a number of pressures, namely on the pace of the lessons, skip tasks, on discussion time, limiting viewing of the tapes to one occasion, on completion of worksheet tasks and individual lesson questionnaires being conducted out of class. Students similarly found themselves under pressures of work and time, especially as the term developed. They found themselves rushing to complete assignments and tasks. Under such circumstances, they were not willing to over-exert themselves in reflection, nor in coming to the researcher or course lecturer to discuss problems and views in private. The fact that much of their output (especially written) was to contribute to their course-

work grades placed tensions on the students, and possibly on the honesty of their responses.

Two valuable recordings of interviews were not clear because of technical problems. This necessitated re-recording one 'expert' interview (Wan Zailena), and a second group discussion in the case of Group 4, which unfortunately only two students could attend.

The schedule for teaching practice forced trial of only nine units with the Diploma students, as compared with twelve in the case of the others.. The presence of their course lecturer at almost all sessions is likely to have had an effect on researcher-student relationship. Similarly, the researcher's sharing of time with the lecturer must have affected relationship with the students. Interviews of experts was limited by their willingness to be interviewed, and the time they were able to spare not only for the interview, but also in the time they spent trying out and reviewing the materials prior to the interviews. Much of these and other minor shortcomings will be apparent in the course of discussion of the findings of the study in the next chapter. It is to be expected that the shortcomings will affect the outcomes.

CHAPTER 7

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS: FACTORS UNDERLYING THE DESIGN OF THE VIDEO MATERIALS

Introduction

This chapter presents analyses and discussion of findings of the research. In doing this, an attempt is made to consider the significance, implications and possible limitations of the findings.

The following factors are considered :

- authenticity and selection
- interest
- content
- relevance
- theme link
- editing effects
- coherence
- focus
- picture quality
- sound quality and
- length.

Discussion *: Relative importance of the factors*

Before discussing these factors, it is useful to consider the relative importance of the various factors. It is assumed that not all of them are equally important. At the same time, it is likely that many of these factors are inter-dependent, so that one or a number of factors may affect the effectiveness of another. For example, it has been argued earlier that Malaysian student teachers reacted negatively to videos and films that were perceived to be less than satisfactorily authentic of the Malaysian classroom experience. One of the assumptions of this study is that such authenticity would have to take into consideration the selection (of teachers, pupils and classrooms), mannerisms and behaviour (of teachers and pupils), language used and the perceived reality of the lessons shown.

On the other hand, it is very likely that no matter how authentic the materials are, they will not be reacted to positively if the materials are uninteresting. With regard to the question of interest, it is difficult to pin-point what causes video materials to be perceived as interesting or otherwise. It is

likely that interest is a complex combination of numerous elements such as quality (picture, sound and editing), authenticity (of teachers, pupils and contexts of lessons), personalities and mannerism (of teachers and pupils), content (ideas, events, practices, knowledge and experiences), information (traditional and innovative aspects of ELT methodology), length, relevance (for immediate and long-term goals) and even the approach taken in the usage of the video materials.

It is probable that the personalities and mannerisms of teachers and pupils will be of major significance compared to the interest generated by good character roles and acting in television and films. At the same time, the subject matter or content of the videos, in this case, the information transmitted with regard to ELT methodology, will have a significant bearing on how valuable and therefore, interesting the videos are perceived to be. In discussing the content, both the nature of the experiences and the way these experiences are provided are likely to be significant. For example, since the focus of the package is ELT methodology, student teachers will anticipate learning about methodology. Such anticipation might range from learning an effective procedure in some cases, to learning new techniques and methods in others, and in yet others, observing how a familiar technique or method operates in new and different contexts. Such expectations will possibly vary depending on the abilities, motivations and experiences of the learners. In all probability, weaker students would need greater prescription about definitive methods that work, whereas better students, hopefully realising that there are no definitive methods or techniques, will seek to assimilate new and relevant information with their existing stock of knowledge. Such an assumption is as yet unproven, but it represents the kind of assumptions that video designers make in order to satisfy a range of viewers.

Decisions about content are likely to be linked to interest and relevance, as well as decisions about the organisation of the materials, and about how the various lessons and learning experiences are linked together. Thus, one of the assumptions being made in the context of this study is that linking lesson segments under topics or themes will be an effective means of exploring similar elements within different lessons. However, such a decision, and the categorisation of different lessons into discrete topics, being necessarily arbitrary, may distort the value, strengths, weaknesses, and significant elements of individual lessons. At the same time, such decisions may also shift the focus away from what genuinely interests the viewer. Furthermore, linking (and therefore grouping of teachers) also runs the risk of inviting comparison of methods, and by implication, a comparison of teachers. While this may appear to be a necessary risk of observation of teaching, it is unfair in that it does not show the actual strengths and objectives of the individual teacher's lessons, not only because designers select material to fulfil categorisation needs, but also because it distorts by providing only segments and not the whole. On the other hand, linking lessons under themes provides a convenient initial frame of reference for the users (both the teachers and the students), and focuses both attention and expectations (in a way similar to how chapter and sub-headings function in print). No matter what are the limitations of such

grouping, demands of user convenience and organisation suggest that linking is a factor that will remain a feature of video design, not the least because new users will look to the contents page to make initial evaluations of the materials, but also because students usually expect materials to fit in with course syllabuses in the form of a list of the various aspects commonly associated with ELT methodology. Another assumption behind a thematic approach is that it lends itself to sequence and progression, and hence will appeal to the student teachers' interests and, therefore, may enhance learning.

It is suspected that the length of the video segments influences interest. Very rarely will it be possible for a full 40-minute lesson to sustain interest given the 'ups and downs' of teaching, and a potential information overload element. Experienced practitioners know that it is often difficult to sustain pace and dynamism throughout a whole lesson. For viewers, given the limits on memory and powers of concentration, very long segments are likely to lead to periods of mental 'switching-off' and boredom.

Questions pertaining to the interest levels and the learning contained in videos should, in all probability, be linked to the relevance of the materials for viewers. For example, authentic and interesting materials on teaching English to adults may not necessarily be perceived to be of relevance by the majority of the student teachers given the fact that they will be teaching secondary school children. In such cases, it is likely that, except for open-minded and motivated students, there will be reduced learning from (and retention of) educationally significant aspects of the tapes. It is unrealistic to expect average student teachers to realise that it will be possible to learn something from almost any kind of educational experience.

The selection of teachers, pupils and lessons provided in the videos is linked to the interest, relevance and authenticity factors. As the focus of the video package is on the methodology of EL teaching, attention is bound to be on the teachers in the videos. Much of the impact will possibly derive from the impressions formed of the teachers in particular. Such impressions could arise out of factors such as perceived personal appeal, dynamism, effectiveness, control, rapport and knowledge. Pupils shown will probably need to be a representative balance that includes different ages, sexes, abilities, socio-economic and ethnic backgrounds if the materials are to be of wide interest. The lessons shown will probably need to satisfy a range of expectations within the limitations of the time available on the video units, at the same time balancing familiar and unfamiliar learning experiences.

While selection is an important aspect, the focus of recordings will, in all probability, influence whether viewer attention is on learning or teaching. The implication for video design is that a different emphasis may affect the appeal of the materials as far as different viewers are concerned. For example, it was suggested in an earlier chapter that experienced teachers seem to be more interested in learner reactions, while more novice teachers are more interested in methods,

techniques and teacher behaviour. If this were true, such design decisions will have implications for who the users of the video should be. Unfortunately, no matter how scrupulous an attempt is made at providing a balance between teaching and learning, video does not seem to be a medium that can satisfy the need for the whole picture, especially within the limitation of segment lengths.

Given the range of problems that can arise in the design of video materials, decisions made from the perspective of editing underlie and probably affect all of the factors discussed so far. Editing may occur at two levels. One level would be the purely technical, where decisions are made with regards to the editing conventions used and the way one portion of a segment is linked to another. On another level, editing could involve decisions about selection, which parts of the original recording are worth including and where specific sequences begin and end. This second aspect of editing can be a key element in whether there is a coherence to the materials at all levels, whether individual segments, individual units or overall. Such coherence will probably be important to considerations of understanding, interest and learning.

The above discussion should clarify the inter-dependent nature of the factors that have to be taken into consideration when examining the effectiveness of video materials. While that may be so, it is suggested that not all of the factors are equally important, nor is it likely that any one single factor may be considered to be the most important. Even so, there is always the possibility that a single factor may have the power to alter the effectiveness of the videos. For the purposes of this research, the negative reactions of individual student teachers will be treated as not being highly significant. However, it is possible to suggest that focus, picture-quality, sound-quality, length and editing effects (which pertain to the technical aspects of the filming and editing) may be less important than authenticity, selection, content and interest. To illustrate this, one may consider the example of 'less than true professional quality videos' that are often produced by individual teacher educators which often serve to satisfy educational needs. Furthermore, it is likely that the intrinsic merit (or demerit) of the contents of videos will outweigh the technical considerations in importance, in the way that people are prepared to tolerate the viewing of poor copies, as long as the video satisfies the interests of the viewers.

The following section will describe, analyse and discuss the findings of the study with regard to the factors involved in the design of video materials. The selection of teachers and pupils will be considered together with authenticity because they are connected. Similarly, theme link, editing and coherence will be integrated in the discussion.

Analysis

With regard to the following analysis and discussion of the results of the research, the interviews were conducted of student teachers individually and in groups where the former were excluded. Each of the twelve randomly selected students was interviewed once in the fifth week of the

course, and once again around the thirteenth week of the course, when all the twelve units had been completed. 'Interview' discussions with Groups One, Two and Three (all degree students) were conducted upon completion of the twelve units. The exceptions were the Diploma in Education students (Group Four), who had to leave for their first teaching practice after only nine units were completed. Second interviews of the two (who were part of the twelve students) from Group Four were conducted in the tenth week. An 'interview' discussion held with Group Four students in the tenth week was not recorded (due to a fault) and was repeated after three weeks into their teaching practice, with only two students turning up.

Comments from all interviews are referenced by the dates when the interviews were conducted. Later dates (i.e. after January, 1992) indicate the second interview. Students are not named (but referred to as Student 1, Student 2 and so on) in order to keep them anonymous. Comments from others interviewed for their expertise are similarly referenced by interview dates, such as Heath (2-4-92). Group comments are referred to, for example, as Group 1 Discussion (16-3-92). Analysed data obtained from the questionnaires are presented, where relevant, in the form of numbered tables. Each table is introduced with a questionnaire item number such as A1 and C3, followed by a topic heading. In order to avoid confusion, student teachers are referred to as 'students', while school children are referred to as 'pupils', even though all those shown in the videos are secondary school students. References to the researcher's observations and reflections are presented as diary entries with relevant dates.

Authenticity and Selection

It was pointed out earlier that the educational value of video materials may be negated by student teachers' perceptions that the materials are not authentic compared with a real teaching situation. Heath (2-4-92) feels that designers of video materials must be aware of the need for authenticity, because he finds that

> "...teachers start suspicious...they are very ready to find fault...if the class isn't the same size as...their own kind of class...if it's a studio recording...immediately some of them will start...oh...my class hasn't got air-conditioning...or whatever...and somehow or other they seem to want it..to fail...or to be able to say...I couldn't do that because...".

Hannington (2-4-92) suggests, however, that student teachers would validly comment if they were exposed only to materials that showed totally different contexts to those of the students, but would be prepared to accept a mixture of circumstances, provided the reason for the use of such different materials is explained. For Student 8, the value of authenticity is that

> "...when you see something that's realistic...then you know what it's going to be...really

like...you know what you have to deal with...you can prepare yourself better..." (Student 8, interview 1, 14-1-92).

Aspects of such authentic situations would include the lesson (whether it was perceived to be rehearsed or doctored to create specific effects, or whether it appeared natural), the teachers (whether they were genuine teachers or actors, and if they could be identified with), the pupils (whether they were perceived to be representative of Malaysian school children) and the contexts (whether they were real classrooms or created impressions of studio productions).

What this study sought to discover was :

- are the materials perceived to be authentic;
- how authentic the materials are;
- what is the effect of authenticity on the usage of educational video?

The following analyses and discussions are preceded in each case by relevant data in the form of a table.

The table below refers to how authentic the lessons were perceived to be by the students.

Table 2 : A3 - Authenticity of Lessons

3. Video lesson	realistic	little realistic	mixture	mostly unrealistic	unrealistic
	59.9%	9.6%	29.1%	0.9%	0.4%

With regard to the initial question posed above, as the table above shows, 59.9 percent of the students felt that the lessons seen were realistic, while 9.6 percent saw them as being a little realistic. In other words, a total of 69.5 percent responded positively to the authenticity of the materials. On the other hand, only a total of 1.3 percent responded negatively and felt that the materials were not authentic. A fair proportion, 29.1 percent, felt that the materials were a mixture. It would probably be fair to presume that for the large majority, the video lessons were authentic enough for educational purposes, and specifically on the subject of ELT methodology.

It is useful to examine the possible concomitants of these responses. It may be that these statistics were influenced by the researcher's explanatory talk on the project (with regard to its aims, history and nature) given to the students during the first week. The explanation provided details of the process by which schools, teachers and pupils were selected for involvement, as well as the types

of recordings (in classrooms and in studios) that were made. Thus, the students were informed that the project team had no prior knowledge on the nature of each teacher's lesson, except towards the end when teachers were requested to fill in specific gaps in the content. They were also informed that the lessons included teachers teaching their own classes, as well as other teachers' classes (sometimes from other schools). It may well be that this explanation may have influenced the students into accepting the honesty of the researcher, and thus accept in principle that the materials were authentic. On the other hand, the researcher's experience of the class suggests that the student teachers were intelligent enough to draw their own conclusions. Furthermore, almost all the students had had some experience of actual Malaysian school life to be able to recognise elements of the real situation, and to be able to comment if they felt that the lessons were less than authentic.

The fact that percentages of 29.1, 0.9 and 0.4 were obtained for 'mixture', 'mostly unrealistic' and 'unrealistic' respectively seems to suggest that video as a medium, cannot be totally authentic for all viewers. As pointed out at the beginning of this section, too many elements are involved in creating authenticity, and any of them can affect the overall impression. It is also probable that the editing of whole lessons into segments also affected the overall effect.

Where teachers in the video are concerned, a large percentage indicated that they were perceived to be typical (A8), as Table 3 illustrates.

Table 3 : A8 - Authenticity of Teachers

	non-typical	mostly non-typical	mixture	mostly typical	very typical
8. **Teacher**	1.5%	6.9%	40.4%	**45.8%**	5.4%

5.4 percent found the teachers to be 'typical', and 45.8 percent found them to be 'mostly typical'. In comparison, 40.4 percent, found the teachers to be a 'mixture'. Only 1.5 and 6.9 percent found the teachers to be 'non-typical' and 'mostly non-typical' respectively. For about half the students then, the teachers were acceptably typical of their experiences, and as such, it may be safe to assume that for these students, the teachers contributed to the authenticity of the videos.

The fact that 40.4 percent found the teachers to be a 'mixture' is interesting, not the least because it raises the question of what they perceived to be typical. It presumably included aspects of looks, behaviour, mannerism, character, ability, knowledge and approach. It also might have been strongly linked to the idea of the representative English language teacher, and thus to the methods employed in the segments seen. It is possible that for the 40.4 percent, the materials

required an evaluation that took in too many aspects. On the other hand, it maybe the case that there was a mixture of teachers observed The answer to this question may lie in comparing these figures with responses to question A11 to see the degree of correspondence. For example in A11 (see Table 12, p.257), 5.0 percent and 51.8 percent found the teaching methods 'very familiar" and 'mostly familiar' respectively, 37 percent a 'mixture', and 0.7 percent and 5.5 percent 'very unfamiliar'. and 'mostly familiar' respectively. There does seem to be a correspondence between the two responses, implying that teachers were characterised by their approach or use of methods.

A number of reasons or elements featured prominently in perceptions regarding the typicality or non-typicality of the teachers. First, there is the perceived ability of the teachers. For example, Student 5 felt that the teachers were "quite expert" and therefore "above average" (interview 1, 14-1-92). Similarly, Student 1 felt that these teachers were better than most ordinary teachers because from her experience of teaching practice. The average teachers "...used traditional methods...chalk and talk...and just the textbook...and all that", whereas teachers in the videos used a lot of teaching aids (interview 1, 14-1-92). For Student 8, these teachers were "realistic...average teachers" (interview 1, 14-1-92). Second, there is the impression of experience conveyed by the teachers. Student 4, who had more than 5 years of teaching experience, was able to recognise these teachers as being "more experienced" than trainees and other teachers (interview 1, 14-1-92). Such experience is probably linked to the impressions about ability, mannerism and character. The third element is linked to behaviour where, for example, the teacher

> "is really interested to get the message across...he or she really wants the students to know...or...to learn what he's teaching" (Student 1, interview 1, 14-1-92).

On the other hand the teachers are seen to be uncharacteristically "nice" and polite compared to teachers in real teaching contexts, in that

> "...they make the effort...to make sure everything they say is correct...they always smile...because normally teachers...not all teachers are like that" (Student 3, interview 1, 14-1-92).

A fourth reason seems to be linked to language style, and speech in particular, because the teachers "...did sound quite normal...they weren't speaking with British accents...or anything like that..." (Student 3, interview 1, 14-1-92). A fifth reason seems to be linked in the fact there was a variety of teachers represented in the tapes. For example, one student suggested that there were "all kinds of teachers", and that one can

> "...see that they are all different. They can do almost the same thing, but they are different. Example? Well the teachers - Michael and the Indian lady...Mary? Yes (in

segments 1 and 2 of Unit 8)...both correct errors, but are different. One is strict. Actually both are strict. But Mary smiles more. I like her more" (Diary, 21-2-92).

Heath (2-4-92) points out that, in the context of Malaysia and Singapore, there is a need to show all the different races in order to create authenticity. The fact that the tapes did feature the various major races of Malaysia probably increased the realism. For Moore, the strength of videos such as these is that students "see real teachers in action in real classes, coping with real problems, and making split-second decisions" (30-1-93).

Table 4 which follows refers to whether students felt they could identify with the teachers in the videos. 60.4% of the students felt that they could identify themselves with the teachers at most times, while 33.3% felt they could do so sometimes. Only 6.3% felt that they could identify with the teachers occasionally.

Table 4 : C4 - Identification with teachers

4. **Could you identify with the teachers**	at all times	most times	sometimes	occasionally	never
	0.00%	60.4%	33.3%	6.3%	0.00%

For the majority, it seems that the teachers were representative and, perhaps, personable enough to evoke feelings of sympathy, empathy and understanding among the student teachers.

The table below illustrates the reactions of students to the pupils shown in the videos.

Table 5 : A6 - Authenticity of Pupils

6. **Pupils**	non-typical	mostly non-typical	mixture	mostly typical	very typical
	0.7%	6.3%	42.2%	44.6%	6.1%

About half the students, a total of 50.7 percent, found the pupils mostly and very typical. Similar to A8 and A11, 42.2 percent found them a mixture. Only 0.7 percent students found them non-typical or mostly non-typical (6.3%).

Problematic pupil behaviour in the videos seems to have been one of the elements which helps in authenticating 'pupils'. For example, Student 9 pointed out that

"...they are very realistic...you can see...you face class control problems ...children not paying attention...using Bahasa Malaysia instead of English..." (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Other elements providing for authenticity seem to have been the class composition and characteristics of normal classes. Thus for Student 5, the pupils were typical because there were co-educational classes, girls were seen to be covering their hair with a head-cloth (as expected of Muslim schoolgirls), and the pupils were wearing normal school uniforms (interview 1, 15-1-92). Language, and in particular the way the pupils talk and the way English is used, also seem to have helped create the impression that these are typical Malaysian schoolchildren (Student 5, interview 1, 15-1-92). Thus, it would probably be fair to assume that a great deal of realism came out of the contextual behaviour of the people featured in recordings. However, realism also came out of the range of schools (rural and urban) and classes (including mixed sexes, races and abilities in English). For example, Student 6 felt there was variety because "...there were classes...where they...don't quite know...how to read...on Monday...they were all conversing in Bahasa Malaysia...compared to the first one..." (interview 1,16-1-92). For Student 3, there was sufficient variety because there were examples of pupils not paying attention, dreaming and talking among themselves (interview 1, 14-1-92).

While for some students, problematic behaviour helped characterise the pupils as being realistic, for others, the videos did not show enough truly problematic behaviour from the perspectives of discipline and language ability. One student in particular, constantly raised questions pertaining to class control and dealing with disruptive behaviour during most of the lessons conducted by this researcher. It was found that a few student teachers experienced major class control problems during teaching practice which made them look upon disruptive behaviour and below average pupil ability as the worrying aspects of Malaysian classes. For these students, the examples of problematic behaviour shown in the videos are not good enough to make the pupils representative. A common request in questionnaire items A19 and B23 was for more varied examples of pupil behaviour, especially those with poor and below average language abilities and those causing discipline problems. While there seems to have been some instances of dissatisfaction with the range of pupils shown, there does not seem to have been any question of not learning from the videos. For example, Student 6 felt that

"...you should know what you are heading for...and it would be even more enlightening ...to see how a teacher handles a weaker class...because it will teach you...how to handle them" (Interview 1, 16-1-92).

Student 8 similarly suggested that the value of observing realistic classrooms was that "...you then know what its going to be ...really like...you know...what you have to deal with...you can prepare yourself better" (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Another element which affected the realism of the pupils was, as in the case of teachers, that they were too well behaved and "...were extremely quiet...I think they knew that they were being filmed...they're more quiet than usual..." (Student 1, interview 1, 14-1-92). For Student 3 the pupils were not relaxed enough, especially at the beginning of lessons (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Such problems of lack of total authenticity do not seem to have been large enough to interfere with student learning. In fact, observing pupils in realistic settings seems to have allowed for student teacher reflection, undirected personal learning and growth. Student 8 reflected that

> "I've learnt...that...sometimes we take for granted students are...of the same level...but...when you...watch video...you really see...because...the camera goes from one group to a group...you really see that...students are different...sometimes we take for granted they're the same...but they are different..." (interview 1, 14-1-92).

The table below relates to perceptions about the classrooms and other facilities.

Table 6 : A5 - Classrooms and Facilities

5. **Classroom facilities**	realistic	mostly realistic	mixture	mostly unrealistic	unrealistic
	32.5%	30.1%	35.1%	1.7%	0.7%

As Table 6 shows, only 1.7 and 0.7 percent students found the classrooms and facilities 'mostly unrealistic' and 'unrealistic' respectively, while 35.1 percent found them a 'mixture'. The reason suggested for this feeling is that it may have been the influence of the studio recordings. Studio recordings involved a number of differences. Firstly, the furniture was different. Instead of the usual classroom chairs and desks, there were better-padded chairs with swivel boards for writing. Secondly, there was a movable blackboard instead of the fixed boards. Thirdly, the teachers' desk came without the customary chair. Where there should have been windows, there were only walls covered by charts and pictures to create a classroom effect. Finally, the combined effects of the lack of the usual school noises, the presence of cameras and recording crew and wiring, especially those attached to the teachers, must have all affected the realism. It affected the behaviour of the pupils as pointed out earlier.

The important question, however, is how such negative perceptions affect the overall effectiveness of the videos. The data shows that a total of 62.6 percent were prepared to accept the contexts as being realistic enough. This suggests that for these students, either contextual

realism was not important, or that they were not affected. Possibly, students accepted the fact that recordings had been carried out in studios, and given that, the classrooms and facilities are realistic of such settings. It may also have been the case that they may not have paid attention to these aspects because they were looking for other more interesting aspects.

It would perhaps be fair to conclude that for a majority of Malaysian student teachers, the materials were perceived to be satisfactorily authentic in terms of the lessons, teachers, pupils and classrooms. Moore (30-1-92) judges the tapes to be very realistic, conveying a sense of "what really goes on in Malaysian schools". This implies that they should be receptive to learning from exposure to examples of practitioners in action through the medium of video.

In this context, it is possible that the authenticity of educational videos can have a two-fold effect on their marketability. In the first place, it is likely to make them highly relevant to local contexts. On the other hand, such authenticity makes the videos context-bound, and possibly less relevant in other contexts. Moore (30-1-93), in pointing out that conditions in the Ivory Coast are different (for example, classes of a hundred or more pupils are common) from those portrayed in the Malaysian videos, suggests that each country should have similar locally produced materials. He suggests that for a video package "to be convincing and effective in changing people's behaviour, it must be as closely modelled on local conditions as possible".

Interest

It was suggested earlier that the interest factor would be a key issue in how well the video materials were received. In this regard, the researcher was interested in :

- whether the materials were perceived to be interesting overall?
- whether certain segments and units were perceived to be more interesting than others?
- what was considered to be interesting in the materials?
- why they were considered to be interesting? and
- whether the interest level contributed to the effectiveness of the videos?

Table 7 below refers to interest levels of the video lessons. Table 7 shows that 20.7 percent found the video lessons to be 'very interesting'. This result surprises the researcher, because of a belief that Malaysian student teachers are largely conservative and committed to middle paths and avoiding excesses. As such, the researcher believed that there would be a far lower percentage willing to endorse the video lessons as being very interesting. Rather, a greater bunching was expected in the 'mixture' and 'interesting' or 'uninteresting' boxes.

Table 7 : A1 - Interest levels of the video lessons

	very uninteresting	uninteresting	mixture	interesting	very interesting
1. **Video lesson**	2.8%	4.1%	17.7%	**54.8%**	20.7%

54.8 percent indicated that the lessons were 'interesting'. In other words, a total of 75.5 percent reacted positively and found the lessons interesting. Only 4.1 percent found the lessons uninteresting, and 2.8 very uninteresting. It seems generally safe to conclude that, given the conservative nature of students, the lessons were relatively interesting, and for some very interesting, and thus earns an overall positive response by the students.

It is possible that the materials were perceived to be interesting due to a number of interacting factors such as quality, authenticity, selection, content, information, relevance and even the way in which the researcher used the materials during the trials.

Responses for early units are likely to be more positive due to the novelty of the approach. In this regard, 68.1 percent of the students felt that the course was different compared to other courses that they had taken, while 29.8 percent felt that it was very different, as Table 8 shows.

Table 8 : C6 - Comparison of courses

6. Compare the ideas and concepts in these materials with the rest of your university courses. Are they

very different	different	similar	very similar
29.8%	**68.1%**	2.1%	0.0%

The decision to use video materials and how the materials are used are inter-related. This is particularly so where video materials were to be the focus of the approach. What the researcher was interested in was to ascertain student reaction to learning about ELT methodology through a focus on video-based practice. Would such an approach be different compared to the students' current and previous experience of learning, and if different, what would their feelings be about the approach? While 29.8% felt that the course had been 'very different', 68.1% felt it was 'different'. Only 2.1% felt it was similar.

Most courses in the university separate lectures and tutorials, while in the education courses taken by the students, one hour lectures followed by one hour tutorials comprising student presentations, student discussion and a lecturer summary at the end are characteristic. Student 11 revealed that the present course was very different because in other courses

> "they only teach...like you could probably use the discussion method...or...a...lecture method or whatever...but they don't tell you exactly how you conduct it...so when I went for my first teaching practice...I was very lost...didn't know what to do...how to handle my class..." (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Student 6 found the video based course integrated (interview 1, 16-1-92), as did Student 5 who felt there was continuity because lectures and tutorials were combined (interview 1, 15-1-92). Almost all felt that the videos provided realism, relevance and opportunities for learning.

Typical responses to interview questions after about three weeks were that the course was "interesting" and "very interesting" (Diary, 31-12-92). At the end of two weeks of teaching with the videos, the researcher noted that the appeal of the videos and the course seemed due to enjoyment, novelty, learning, relevance and connections with previous personal experiences (Diary, 31-12-92). It was also felt that the enjoyment of the course lay in the relevance of learning experiences provided by the tapes. But overall, it is also likely that the interest factor was closely associated with the approach and the researcher's as well as the course lecturer's personalities.

Students were of the opinion that the value of the materials was linked to the question of who used the materials for purposes of instruction. As Student 11 pointed out,

> "I've got this problem...if a particular lecturer or teacher isn't interesting up to how I want that particular person to be...I can totally shut off...it is partly related to who uses it and how he uses it..." (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Thus, the personalities of the course lecturers, and the researcher in particular, were valued. The course was liked for the way it was presented. Such a presentation was felt to create interest, and provide a relaxed non-threatening atmosphere which was conducive to getting class responses (interview 1: Student 3, 14-1-92; Student 9, 14-1-92). Most students admitted that the researcher's approach was very different compared to most other courses, including the courses in the School of Education. Student 5 pointed out that she felt the course was interesting because the researcher's method of teaching was different, involving inquiry and active learning, whereas other lecturers "were just showing transparencies and...notes" (interview 1, 15-1-92). For Student 4, a mature student, the researcher's approach was valued because time and opportunity were given for students to express themselves and discuss in student groups, and then interact

with the researcher (interview 1, 14-1-92). Student 3 suggested that she liked the course because "of the way it is presented...because we don't feel bored...we all feel at ease...I mean I feel relaxed...so when you ask us a question I don't hesitate to answer..." (interview 1, 14-1-92).

The use of video materials was seen as adding a practical dimension to learning about ELT methodology. Student 8 pointed out that it's

> "not theoretical...It's very practical in a sense that...we see the realistic part of everything"

thereby making the course different and more enjoyable than other courses (interview 1, 14-1-92).

The use of discussion and questions requiring class response was appreciated, and was interpreted as an example of an 'active enquiry-oriented' approach, different from other courses (Student 5, interview 1, 15-1-92). The fact that time was provided for students to "go over and...discuss...questions...", and that the researcher asked questions based on their responses was valued, and contributed to the feeling that this course was different from others (Student 4, interview 1, 14-1-92).

One problem with the way these materials was used was the lack of time to think through the tasks, questions and issues arising in discussions, and to formulate precise answers (Student 8, 14-1-92).

The feeling of enjoyment seems to have decreased as the course progressed, and perhaps as much as sixty percent of the students, it is estimated, actually found the course becoming boring, because of the predictable nature of the approach, especially as experienced in individual lessons. For example, Student 10 , who was enrolled in the Diploma course, and who wanted to learn a lot about ELT methodology, found the approach and the rigid procedure employed by the researcher boring, although she had found the use of video interesting at the beginning (interview 1, 27-2-92). She pointed out

> "...if we feel bored...guess we don't pay attention...so it does affect our learning process...the video was interesting ...actually...but you know...we kind of expect what's coming...we watch and then we have to answer questions...wish we had something different in the later stages..." (interview 2, 24-2-92).

Student 2, who had earlier said that she found the course clear and very interesting after two units (Diary, 31-12-92), similarly felt that the course became very routine and monotonous as it went on "...unless the video is really...different and...sort of a lot of discussion's going on..." (interview 2, 17-3-92). But she also admitted that her other education courses had "...all been the same...".

Possible reasons for these perceptions of monotony are discussed later, in relation to Table 48 later in this chapter.

For students not used to the methodology, it was "a little confusing, especially during the first lesson, when I didn't know what was happening...also we have not done this sort of thing before" (Diary,31-21-91).

While the course was described as being "fun" and "something different" (Diary, 31-12-92), interest seems to have been linked to perceptions of that 'what is valuable'. One student suggested that the course was interesting "...and practical...that is what we need, and have not had in the methodology courses" (Diary, 31-12-92). Another student found the course interesting, practical and something that could be related to her own personal experiences, because she had done some of the things seen on the video segments (Diary, 31-12-92).

Table 9 : C12 - Interest levels of the Units (re-arranged in order of ranking).

12. RANK ANY 5 OF THE FOLLOWING IN ORDER OF THEIR INTEREST TO YOU.

	average level of interest
b. Using Resources	2.04
a. Getting Started	2.21
e. Getting Pupils to Speak	2.87
k. Moving Onto Projects	2.89
i. Grammar	3.00
f. Approaching Writing	3.21
d. Working With Groups	3.29
j. Integrated Skills Development	3.33
h. Dealing With Errors	3.42
g. Listening Comprehension	3.47
c. Using Questions	3.50
h. Vocabulary Work	3.80

Note: The lower the mean 'interest' value, the more interesting the unit. A rank of 2.0=interesting; a rank of 4.0=uninteresting. This pattern is repeated in tables following.

It was found that the interest levels and the perceived benefit levels of four units corresponded, namely the two most and least interesting units, as Tables 9 and 10 show.

The four units which were considered to be the most interesting were 'Using Resources', 'Getting Started', 'Getting Pupils to Speak', and 'Moving onto Projects' (see Table 9). The two units considered to be the least interesting were 'Using Questions'(11th) and 'Vocabulary Work'(last).

Table 10 : C12 - Perceived benefits of the units (rearranged in order of ranking).

12. RANK ANY 5 OF THE FOLLOWING IN ORDER OF THEIR ... BENEFIT TO YOU.

	average level of benefit
b. Using Resources	2.37
a. Getting Started	2.48
h. Dealing With Errors	2.76
g. Listening Comprehension	2.93
k. Moving Onto Projects	3.00
e. Getting Pupils to Speak	3.05
i. Grammar	3.13
d. Working With Groups	3.15
j. Integrated Skills Development	3.21
f. Approaching Writing	3.41
c. Using Questions	3.57
h. Vocabulary Work	4.60

[Note: The lower the mean 'benefit' value, the more beneficial the unit. For example, a rank of 2.0=beneficial; a rank of 5.0=not beneficial.]

Where personal benefit was concerned, Table 10 shows that the two most interesting units were found to be the most beneficial. The two least interesting units were correspondingly found to be the least beneficial. The third most interesting unit ('Getting Pupils to Speak') was sixth in terms of benefits, while the fourth ('Moving onto Projects') was ranked fifth in benefit. 'Dealing with Errors' and 'Listening Comprehension' which were considered ninth and tenth in terms of interest, were deemed to be the third and fourth beneficial units respectively. These results suggest that there is not necessarily a correspondence between perceived interest and benefit levels. It is likely that the students were able to distinguish between how interesting individual segments in units were and their own perceptions of what was valuable for them in terms of learning experiences for professional development.

Content

In examining the content of the videos, it is possible to consider the effect of the various aspects such as teachers, pupils, methods, techniques, approaches, personality, behaviour, classroom processes and language. However, as some of these are considered in analyses of other factors, this section will examine methodological considerations, and specifically the topics represented by the unit titles in the content page of the worksheet book. It is assumed that learning comes about because what is learnt is perceived to be relevant. As such, the relevance of the content of the materials will be discussed in the next section.

With regard to content, the following issues are discussed in this and the following sections. They are what:

- is the reaction of the students to the methodological elements seen?
- is significant about these reactions?
- are the reasons for such reactions?
- is the value of the examples of methodology shown?

With regard to teaching methods, 63.8% felt these were mostly 'clear' (recognisable as part of an approach, method or technique) from the videos (Table 11). 16.6 percent felt that they were very clear, while 17.7 percent felt they were 'partly clear'.

Table 11 : A10 - Clarity of teaching methods

10. **Teaching method**	very clear	mostly clear	partly clear	mostly not clear	not at all clear
	16.6%	63.8%	17.2%	2.4%	0.0%

While the distinction between the terms 'approach', 'method' and 'technique' was explained briefly early in the course by the course lecturer, the researcher feels that it is probable that there would not have been much internalisation of such distinctions. In this respect, Nalliah pointed out that while there is usually a problem with student unwillingness to reflect deeply, this batch of students demonstrated "very little internalisation" (26-3-92). As such, there is a likelihood that the term 'method' was probably taken to mean 'what the teacher was doing'. This appears likely because it is not possible to categorise the various teaching segments into neat approaches or methods since the teachers themselves would not claim to subscribe to or use a specific method.

The design of the materials took the broad view of methodology as 'how teachers approach listening comprehension and deal with errors', rather than as recognised methods such as Grammar-Translation. If it is necessary to categorise the overall guiding principle of the teaching, it would probably be the communicative mode because the philosophy of the syllabus followed is communicative. As Gaudart (14-2-92) pointed out, teachers in Malaysia are essentially eclectic and variable in their approach to English language teaching. As such, it is possible that a combination of student knowledge (both received and experiential), the way the videos were edited and the teaching-learning processes observed contributed to these responses.

Table 12 : A11 - Familiarity of teaching methods

11. **Teaching method / approach**	very unfamiliar	mostly unfamiliar	mixture	mostly familiar	very familiar
	0.7%	5.5%	37.0%	**51.8%**	5.0%

51.8 percent felt that the approach or method that they viewed in the tapes were 'mostly familiar', while 5% felt that they were 'very familiar' (Table 12). As explained with regard to Table 11, it is likely that the students would have been familiar with the communicative syllabus, and the general strategies that teachers use, partly because the students were probably taught English under the communicative syllabus, but also because the lessons were "too typically...run of the mill...what teachers typically do" and not exceptional (Gaudart, 14-2-92). If this were so, then it is likely that the students would have been familiar with the typical approach of average teachers. On the other hand, Heath (2-4-92) felt that the teachers in the tapes illustrated an improvement on much of existing practices in Malaysia and Singapore.

It is likely that familiarity of approach may lead to either enhanced learning or greater boredom. It seems evident the methods were perceived largely to be familiar. Moore (30-1-93) points out that where videos present only 'status quo' teaching, in the sense of what they normally do, the danger is that trainees adopt what they see rather than develop the kinds of teacher behaviour that educators would like; in other words, "mundane teaching gets reinforced".

That 5.5% and 0.7% of the students found them 'mostly unfamiliar' and 'very unfamiliar' respectively, is probably acceptable, especially given that some of the students were minoring in English. Also, the majority of the Diploma students were, except for two, minoring and had not had any English language academic background.

Table 13 below refers to how 'modern' the teaching methods viewed in the tapes were perceived to be.

Table 13 : A12 - Modernity of teaching methods

12. **Teaching method / approach**	very modern	modern	mixture	traditional	very traditional
	0.6%	26.8%	**65.1%**	7.4%	0.2%

Table 13 shows that 65.1% felt that the methods they viewed were a 'mixture', while 26.8% felt they were 'modern'.

The reactions are probably reflective of the various stages of personal and professional development, and awareness of methodology. It is also possibly indicative of the actual range represented given expert reactions such as "run of the mill" (Gaudart, 14-2-92), that the materials represented an advance on many current practices (Heath, 2-4-92) and that there was a mixture (Hannington, 2-4-92).

Table 14 : A13 - Expectations about / reactions to the lessons

13. **Lessons**	completely surprising	mostly surprising	mixed	mostly as expected	exactly as expected
	0.9%	10.9%	**55.6%**	32.3%	0.2%

Students probably came to video viewings with different expectations, anticipations and motivations. It is likely that, as the students' experience of viewing videos increased, an increase in motivation and anticipation to look out for specific things occurred. It is also likely that students enjoyed the segments and the lesson if they were open to new experiences. On the other hand, it is likely that their increased ability to see patterns, anticipate class activities and lecturer routines would lead to predictions about what to expect. It has been pointed out in the discussion with regard to 'interest' that a number of students found the routine monotonous and predictable. Others found out that they could anticipate the kinds of tasks expected of them. All of these may have affected their perceptions. At the same time, it may be possible that student anticipation of what to expect in the videos was based on their knowledge of methodology involved with regard to the content or topic specified by unit titles such as 'Dealing with errors', and 'Getting pupils to speak'.

With regard to methodology and content, while 55.6 % found the lessons a 'mixture', 32.3% felt the lessons were 'mostly as expected' (Table 14). 10.9% felt that they were 'mostly surprising'. It is difficult to classify exactly what aspects the students found surprising or 'according to expectations'. For example, such reactions could have been due to lesson development, content taught, the methods used, teacher or pupil behaviour, classroom processes, language used or learning outcomes. For one student, aspects of methodology made her wish she had thought of such procedures during her teaching practice (Group 2 discussion), while for others, the videos helped in visualising possibilities and enhanced understanding (Group 1 discussion). For Student 3, the variety of approaches and the way individual teachers handled situations were interesting (17-3-92). For Student 4 (a mature student), the example of project work in Unit 12 was a new experience. Not having conducted any language project work in his classes, he was perplexed as to the value of the project because of the effort demanded of pupils and personal risks involved in terms of time, money and welfare as a result of its out-of-school nature. More surprising to him was the fact that the pupils were seen to be capable of successfully carrying out the project (18-3-92). Many others valued the videos for exemplifying classroom reality.

Table 15 shows students' evaluation of the lessons viewed.

Table 15 : A14 - Evaluation of the lessons

	very poor	poor	acceptable	good	very good
14. **Lesson**	0.4%	3.7%	44.1%	**50.2%**	1.7%

It will be recalled that the segments shown were only part of complete lessons, and quite often presented incomplete and unbalanced pictures of the lessons, especially with regard to learning outcomes. As such, this question requiring student evaluation of the segments (Table 15) may be considered as being incomplete, both for the students and the teachers. However, given the belief that viewers inevitably form impressions and judge lessons, the intention of the question was to see how the students would judge what they viewed.

50.2% found the lessons 'good', while 44.1% found them 'acceptable'. 1.7% found them 'very good', while 3.7% thought the lessons were 'poor' and 0.4% 'very poor'.

Relevance to Learning

It was suggested earlier that learning is enhanced by interest in the materials. It has also been suggested that interest will probably be linked to the relevance of the materials. As such, it may be possible to evaluate the relevance of the videos by examining what was learnt, how much was learnt, and what the student reactions were to the value of such learning.

Table 16 : C3 - Learning about Teaching methodology

3. As far as teaching methodology is concerned, did you learn

nothing at all	very little	a fair amount	much	very much
0.00%	0.00%	18.8%	**43.8%**	37.5%

Responses to the question of how much students thought they learnt about English language teaching methodology indicate that all the students acknowledge learning about methods from the materials. A total of 81.3% felt they learnt 'much' and 'very much'. Nobody felt that there had been very little or no learning at all.

It is important to note what the students felt they had learnt as far as teaching methodology is concerned. Table 17 presents a re-arranged list of what the students felt they had learnt from the course and materials. All students felt they had learnt about different approaches. For Student 6, mid-way through the course, the videos showed different methodologies being used by the teachers, which

> "kind of makes us realise...that...oh...you can use the methods too...sometimes you don't think about it...so...it makes you realise that these are the things that you could use and these are the problems..." (interview 1, 16-1-92).

95.8% felt that they had gained knowledge of ELT methods. For Student 5, the tapes showed the reality of classroom teaching in a way that other videos had not (interview 1, 15-1-92). For Student 7, on the other hand, the value of the videos lay in being able to observe different approaches to similar activities (such as group-work), and perceiving that individual teacher approaches were different because of differing contexts (interview 1, 16-1-92).

91.7% felt that they gained an awareness of possible problems in teaching. 87.5% felt they learnt about management problems while 75% felt they had learnt about pupil differences.

Table 17 : C10 - Student perceptions of what they learnt (re-arranged in order of ranking)

10. WHAT DO YOU THINK YOU LEARNT FROM THESE MATERIALS ?
Tick as many or as few of the boxes.

	Percent
d. Examples of different approaches	100.0
a. Knowledge of ELT methods	95.8
i. Awareness of possible problems	91.7
b. Classroom management	87.5
h. Awareness of pupil differences	75.0
j. Evidence of the standard of English in schools	75.0
e. Awareness of possibilities for adaptation	70.8
c. Examples of teacher personality	66.7
g. Need for adaptation	64.6
f. Confidence in your own abilities	45.8

It is interesting to note that 87.5% felt that they had learnt about management, although few instances of management problems were shown. This suggests that much can be learnt about class management from observing teaching. For Student 8, the way teachers approached pupils, how they dealt with pupil problems and enabled the pupils to be productive were the issues of management she looked for (interview 1, 14-1-92). Heath (2-4-92) suggests that one of the limitations of video is that it cannot satisfactorily provide for viewer interest in observing problems, given the natural reluctance of teachers to show problems, and the likelihood that recordings inhibit spontaneous and possibly problematic behaviour.

75% of the students felt that they learnt about the standard of English amongst school children, although it must have been evident to them that the number of schools was not very large as evidenced by the the number of segments which showed different parts of the same lesson in them. It is also surprising that they felt that these tapes were evidence of the general standard, since they were aware that the schools shown were from only one Malaysian state. Did students consider the videos as being definitive? This is a worrying possibility.

For 70.8% of the students, observing the videos suggested possibilities for adaptation. The term as used here refers to the internalisation of approaches, methods and techniques learnt, so that they can be used when necessary, changed and modified to accommodate individual teacher preferences and teaching contexts. For example, Student 4 (interview 1, 14-1-92) felt that the activities shown in the videos stimulated ideas and possibilities for himself, while Student 1 (interview 2, 23-3-92) felt that successful teaching strategies observed in the segments could be

kept in mind for future use when adapted according to her learners' needs. Micro-teaching in the course provided opportunities for such adaptation. Student 5, reflecting on planning for micro-teaching admitted "...we tend to think back to what we viewed...and we try to apply it". In applying "...we adapt it...we don't...copy it directly...the teacher uses Michael Jackson...right...we used Garfield instead" (interview 2, 20-3-92).

Two thirds of the students felt that the materials provided examples of teacher personality differences. While there does not seem to be much specific evidence that the students were looking out for differences in teacher personalities, the students seem to have formed impressions of the teachers viewed; "there are certain teachers...and it's like...their kind of image...their way of carrying out activities...it keeps on staying...I found them very interesting...their enthusiasm and all that" (Student 11, interview 2, 25-3-92). In some cases, teachers who lived up to individual students' expectations of how a teacher should behave were liked and identified with. For example, one teacher and her approach was liked because

> "...you have to have that...the approach where they...still regard you not just...as a teacher but as a friend as well...and when you are teaching...you have to be jovial sometimes...not too strict..." (Student 8, interview 1, 14-1-92).

In other cases, observing teacher differences helped confirm personal preferences and approaches for the future (Student 7, interview 1, 16-1-92; Student 9, interview 2, 17-3-92).

As expected, a smaller proportion (45.8% students) felt that observing the videos created a sense of confidence in their own abilities. Student 7 felt that whereas she had worried for months before her first teaching practice, she was more confident of facing the second teaching practice as a result of the course and the videos. Such confidence was a part result of increased knowledge about 'the proper way to teach' (compared to her past), leading to an awareness that "things can go haywire...I can't stop that...but I will try to change...how to adapt to it...how to handle it..." (interview 2, 19-3-92).

One would assume that observing others performing is not, in itself, necessarily going to increase confidence in one's own abilities to perform similar actions. At the same time, it appears that observation is perhaps a step towards being informed, and hence, may lead to increased self-confidence. Heath (2-4-92) suggests that better teachers react to expertise by comparing such teachers with themselves. In the process of doing this, they either feel they are better teachers than those observed, or that they have done the same activity better. On the other hand, if they sense that the lecturer approves of teachers or activities shown, they often become reassured that they are on the 'right track'. Similarly, practising teachers tend to compare, and either justify their own practices, or the practices of the teachers observed (Zailena, 26-3-92).

With regard to what the students' felt they learnt, Table 18 shows that the units dealing with the use of resources, starting the lesson, dealing with errors, teaching listening comprehension and dealing with projects were the five units perceived to be the most beneficial ones. It may be possible to assume that the students learnt about aspects of methodology in the topics identified by the unit titles. For example, Student 11 pointed out that she had learnt about class control, the idea that pupils could be viewed as 'resources', the need to limit time provided for pupil tasks and how the teacher went about all of these from viewing the segment on Using Resources . From the segment on teaching vocabulary, she learnt about different methods, the principle of moving from the familiar to the unfamiliar and learning that extended beyond classroom boundaries (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Table 18 : C12 - Student perceptions of benefit

12. RANK ANY 5 OF THE FOLLOWING IN ORDER OF THEIR ...
BENEFIT TO YOU.

	Benefit
b. Using Resources	2.37
a. Getting Started	2.48
h. Dealing With Errors	2.76
g. Listening Comprehension	2.93
k. Moving Onto Projects	3.00
e. Getting Pupils to Speak	3.05
i. Grammar	3.13
d. Working With Groups	3.15
j. Integrated Skills Development	3.21
f. Approaching Writing	3.41
c. Using Questions	3.57
h. Vocabulary Work	4.60

[Note: The lower the mean 'benefit' value, the more beneficial the unit. For example, a rank of 2.0=beneficial; a rank of 5.0=not beneficial.]

Table 19, below, shows student ranking of what they saw as the most beneficial aspects of the use of the video materials. The most useful functions were stimuli for discussion and exemplification of good teaching. These were followed (in order) by 'evidence of classroom processes', 'materials for analysis' and 'library resource'.

Table 19 : C1 - Value and usefulness of the videos (re-ranked in order)

1.Rank in order what you think would be the best uses of the video segments.As

c.Good teaching models	**2.57**
e.Stimulus for discussion	**2.57**
d.Evidence of classroom processes	2.62
b.Material for analysis	2.73
a.Library resource	4.24
f.Any other.............	5.00

[Note: The lower the mean 'usefulness' value, the more useful the unit. For example, a rank of 2.0=useful; a rank of 5.0=not useful.]

The fact that the materials were seen to be most useful as a stimulus for discussion implies that the materials were not seen to be essentially useful in themselves. Such a perspective can be construed to represent a mature and sensible attitude towards any materials, in the sense that materials are seen to be useful in contributing to learning. It is also implied that, for these students, the preferred way of learning is discussion. A preference for focused discussion suggests that the students perceive aspects worth discussing, value opportunities to receive and contribute views, respect and value the contributions of group members and feel sufficiently homogeneous with the group to aid contributing their own views. For Student 3, discussions were valued because the researcher provided time for responses in discussions. Furthermore, discussions allowed for the expression of personal views, as well as for receiving other interesting and different views (interview 1, 14-1-92). Hannington (2-4-92) agrees that at pre-service level, when students do not have enough classroom experience to draw on, "you use it as a stimulus...as a focal point...as a way of examining the things you want to put over". Zamani (22-3-92) feels that when students raise doubts about what is seen on video, it allows for discussion.

On the other hand, the perception of the videos as exemplification of good teaching models seems to be a contradiction, in the sense that what is seen is then perceived to be that which their own teaching has to emulate. If what they observe is seen to be the goal of teaching, then it is likely that what is observed on video may not produce much discussion in a critical vein. Rather, discussion is more likely to remain superficial, and amount to mere exchanges of views about matters of organisation and procedure. Teaching becomes defined by what is observed, and it is possible that important considerations such as the reasons, merits and demerits, alternatives to and

implications of teacher behaviour in the videos will not be discussed. In other words, it is possible to assume that if one is impressed enough to take what is seen to be an ideal, then one does not know of a better alternative, nor does one question hidden assumptions in what one observes, and therefore is less likely to be able to make critical contributions.

At the same time, such a view probably reflects the actual stage of the student teachers' professional development. Not having had much teaching experience themselves, they are probably more likely to be impressed by instances of what is perceived to be 'expert' teacher behaviour. Since they do not have much experience, it would perhaps be unrealistic to expect a different reaction from pre-service teachers in general. For example, teachers observed in the videos were seen to represent experience and expertise because they were practising in actual teaching contexts, whereas lecturers, although they may be good at their jobs, may not have had such experience of teaching in secondary school contexts. Such teachers were therefore uniquely qualified to be examples of how to teach (Student 9, interview 1, 14-1-92). At the same time, it should be observed that, while teachers in the videos were perceived to be models, they were not necessarily perceived as correct models on every aspect of the teaching process. For example, it was acknowledged that while a method adopted by a specific teacher in an 'effective' lesson might be useful for duplication in similar contexts, such a method would have to be adapted to the needs of different learners (Student 1, interview 2, 23-3-92).

The possibility that the teachers in the videos are perceived to be models is considered a major problem with videos in general, and with the Reflections on Classroom Practices package specifically. Nalliah (26-3-92) warns that these videos may give the wrong impression of what good teaching should be. Gaudart (6-2-92) suggests that, generally, videos may be useful at the pre-service stage to present 'good models', but she would not use the teachers in these materials as models. When student teachers look upon teachers in the videos as models, there is also a possibility of conflicts arising between what is perceived to be acceptable practice, and 'received wisdom' communicated to the student teachers through the teacher educators. This is so because "...these are trained teachers...and trainees look up to trained teachers...and then they turn around and say...how come trained teachers does this...and is this the best" (Zamani, 22-3-92). Although the materials do not aim to present 'good models', Heath (2-4-92) pointed out that even the least dynamic teachers in these videos "represented an advance for quite a lot of teachers I've had...including very...experienced teachers..." (in terms of years of teaching), but who continue to teach the way they were taught. For teachers such as these, "you have to start where they are and take them onto the next stage", and videos help in the process (Heath, 2-4-92). It is clear that a variety of views exist with regard to the 'model' issue, and this question will be re-addressed in relation to Table 20.

The third ranked value of the videos was in using them to provide evidence of processes that occur in the classroom. As Student 1 pointed out, it is "difficult to visualise how a lesson is going

on in a class...without actually...watching it" (interview 2, 23-3-92), and videos are useful in this process of visualising. Such processes include individual teacher and pupil behaviour, as well as pupil group behaviour, teacher-pupil interactions and pupil-pupil interactions. These processes are, in the context of these videos, linked by an overall production focus on teaching and learning. For student 3, observation of 'live teaching' allowed for the connection between theory and practice to be made. This was valued compared to the lack of such connection in her science and mathematics courses (interview 1, 14-1-92). Furthermore, observing teaching in the videos saved the need for teacher educator explanation, because

> "Now...we just watch what the teacher is doing...so we look out for ourselves...we have the questions there to guide us...but basically...we're actually looking out for ourselves...the things...that we think the teacher shouldn't have done...should have done...could improve on..." (Student 3, interview 1, 14-1-92).

The videos were seen by Student 4 as being useful in showing differences in pupil language abilities, characteristics (active and willing to participate, shy, passive and so on) and language behaviour (using Bahasa Malaysia) (interview 1, 14-1-92). The videos were also seen to show classroom reality. For example, while teacher methodology was noted if it was 'good', the videos were useful because of "...little things that...the other little things that she handles you know...like her classroom control...and how she goes about dividing her class...things like that...I look mostly at how the students react to the teacher...whether they are interested...what is the teacher doing to keep them interested...that kind of things" (Student 11, interview 1, 14-1-92).

The videos were useful for other reasons as well. For Student teacher 4, observing teachers in the videos helped generate his own ideas with regard to specific aspects such as organising and conducting lessons and group work efficiently (interview 1, 14-1-92). For Student 11, the videos provided for self-learning, and reflection;

> "...there's a lot to be picked up...you begin to compare...now that teacher was very interesting...she could hold the pupils' attention...now this one is a little slow...now why is he slow...you begin to question all that...and when you watch that...you can roughly know like what the students want...their needs...things like that that you gather..." (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Such reflection did not occur "...on the spot when I am watching it", but "...when I go back and sit down and think about it" (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Table 20 shows that while 6.3% and 31.3% of the students found the non-inclusion of teacher errors 'acceptable' and 'partly acceptable' respectively, a larger percentage found this not

satisfactory. 8.3% found it 'unacceptable', while 39.6% found it 'partly unacceptable'. Those who were 'not sure' amounted to 14.6%.

Table 20 : C8 - Acceptability of non-inclusion of teacher errors

8. Teacher blunders and errors were not shown. Do you find this

unacceptable	partly unacceptable	not sure	partly acceptable	acceptable
8.3%	39.6%	14.6%	31.3%	6.3%

The need to see errors and blunders seems to be a matter for serious consideration in the design of similar video materials. It seems to be evident that the inclusion of errors may not only add to the overall impression of reality to the videos, but also reveal a truer picture of classroom and teaching processes.

It would be useful to have ascertained the reasons for the desire to see errors. Student 5's reason for wanting "various levels of teachers...so that we can see the mistakes they made" was "so that we can learn not to repeat the same mistakes" . At the same time, however, she saw the videos as providing examples of models (interview 1, 15-1-92). The belief that observing errors will help to avoid making similar errors seems to be the general reason for the desire to view teacher errors. The course lecturer, similarly, saw a need for, and value in providing examples of errors and 'bad teaching' (personal communication). The way in which experienced teachers get over errors is probably valuable, to show that teachers are not perfect, and that errors are a part of the teaching-learning process. Rather, it is interesting "to see good teachers have a stumble...or have silences...get things completely off on the wrong tangent...I suppose the difference between the very good teachers and the others is they know they are doing it and they self-correct..." (Heath, 2-4-92).

Heath's observation about good teachers **self-correcting** raises an important perspective for consideration with regard to teacher errors. It suggests that part of professional expertise involves the ability to recognise problems arising, and to make instinctive self-correction. Such an observation seems similar to Schon's (1983,1987) ideas on 'reflection-in-action', where experts pause in the midst of performance to reflect on problems that occur, and proceed to overcome these with solutions based on their expertise and experience. Schon (1987) suggested that the observation of expert behaviour, and reflective dialogues between teacher and learner were necessary for developing professional expertise amongst learners, especially in the context of professional schools. The implications of these views for video design and research are discussed below.

A number of considerations shaped the design of these video-based materials, and provided direction for this research. Amongst them was the premise that it would be possible to develop professional expertise through the observation of practitioners in action. Another premise was that video provided one avenue for the observation of expertise. A third premise was that there being enough examples of errors in real life teaching, the video materials should maximise benefits by focusing on acceptable, relatively error-free forms of classroom teacher practices as much as possible. While the first two premises seem to be partially validated by this research (see, for example, discussions relating to Tables 16, 17, 18, and 19), the third premise raises some queries.

Firstly, providing only relatively error-free forms of behaviour does not take full note of the need to see both the 'good' and the 'bad' where learning is concerned. For example, it seems possible to agree with Student 5 (interview 1, 15-1-92) that observing mistakes prepares one to avoid making similar mistakes in future. After all, if one assumes that learning occurs when positive procedures are shown, then there does not appear to be any reason to assume that learning will not similarly occur when 'negative' aspects, such as unintended errors, are shown. Secondly, it fails to accommodate the 'self-correction' referred to by Heath (2-4-92) and 'reflection-in-action' proposed by Schon (1983, 1987). In so doing, the materials falls short of providing the kind of behaviour which is suggested to underlie professional expertise, and in that sense, could be considered to have provided only partially towards the development of professional expertise. Thirdly, the provision of errors in the videos might have helped to lessen the overall impression that these teachers constituted expert 'models' for emulation. The editing out of errors probably gives the impression that these teachers did not make mistakes, and therefore must be very good. Keeping mistakes would probably have increased realism, and at the same time, made these teachers appear more normal.

A number of issues, however, mitigate in favour of not including teacher errors. The obvious first issue is designers' dependence on whether teachers will allow errors to be recorded and constantly replayed on video, although they may well be prepared to accept making mistakes in observations of their live teaching demonstrations. Secondly, there is the practical question of whether it would be possible to accumulate enough material within overall 'good' lessons of such teacher self-correction. Thirdly, showing non-acceptable practices may lead to conflicts between what is perceived to be acceptable because it is performed by qualified practitioners, and teacher educator instructions on do's and don't's (Zamani, 22-3-92). Fourth, in the contexts of teacher education where the use of video is not widespread, there is a danger that teacher practices are presumed to be models for emulation precisely because they are shown on video. The assumption exists, especially among officials from the Malaysian Ministry of Education, headmasters and senior teachers that video should only show expert and acceptable practices (Zailena, 26-3-92). The danger exists, therefore, that unless attention is drawn to 'unacceptable' practices, they may be regarded as acceptable norms. Furthermore, when doubts have been raised about using these

materials specifically in case the teachers are mistaken for 'models' (Gaudart, 6-2-92; Zamani, 22-3-92), there is the possibility that showing more instances of unacceptable behaviour may totally inhibit usage of these materials as a whole.

Part of the problem seems to lie in interpretations of the terms 'errors' and 'unacceptable practices'. While errors may range from simple pronunciation errors to more serious errors of judgments and methodology, practices deemed 'unacceptable' may be viewed as practices considered educationally unacceptable, such as meting out physical punishment. The value of problems lies in providing insights on how to avoid making them personally in future, and at the same time learning how experts handle problems. It seems to be clear, as Heath points out, that one would not want a whole lesson on video of indifferent teaching which "goes off on a tangent and never comes back", characterised as it were by a "total lack of direction...and total lack of objectives". Rather, it is little "bits where the teacher has gone off...and self-corrects" that is required (2-4-92).

Given the above, the question that needs to be asked is which is better, videos without errors and unacceptable practices or those including both kinds of examples. It would perhaps be true to say that both types of videos serve separate functions. Videos that are 'clean' (such as those of 'error-free' teaching) are valuable for transmitting approved values and practices. An approach that uses such videos probably takes the view that it is better to show examples of 'perfection' in an 'imperfect world'. Thus, rather than show errors and unacceptable practices (which are probably evidenced frequently in 'status quo' teaching), it is better to show 'good' teaching within the short period available for teacher preparation. Furthermore, there is a danger that 'bad' teaching can acquire respectability in the eyes of student teachers, precisely because it is presented on video, often in the context of an authentic (and perhaps in other regards acceptable) lesson.

The opposite view is that 'good' and 'bad' teaching are relative and that the idea of a 'perfect lesson' is probably a myth. Rather, students have to be informed by observing, analysing, discussing and reflecting on what goes on in classroom teaching in order to develop their own professional expertise. An approach that includes showing 'errors', 'weaknesses' and 'unacceptable practices' is perhaps more valuable in the context of nurturing discussion and reflection. It is more likely that there will be more to discuss because it does not work, thereby allowing exploration of what went wrong, why and what can be done.

It is safe to conclude that apart from examples of 'acceptable practices', where available, examples of <u>unacceptable practices, errors and teacher self-correction are all required</u> to help student teachers develop professional expertise. Unacceptable practices can be shown in order to inform why they are considered 'wrong'. Errors not only provide realism. They show that expert teachers make mistakes, as well as provide opportunities for learning through reflection and discussion. Observing instances of teacher self-correction may provide important input in the

education of student teachers. All of these should, similar to the video materials in the Reflections on Classroom Practice package, supplement options available to teacher educators.

Table 21 : C16 - Use of native speakers of English.

16. Do you think the use of native speaker teachers of English would make for

much improvement	a little improvement	don't know	very little	no improvement at all
10.6%	**38.3%**	17.0%	25.5%	8.5%

As Table 21 above shows, 38.3% of the students felt that the use of native speaker teachers of English would have made for a little improvement to the tapes, while 10.6% thought it would have made for much improvement. On the other hand, 25.5% felt it would have made for very little improvement, 8.5% no improvement at all, and 17% were not sure at all.

The researcher believes that the desire for native speakers is probably the result of having a surfeit of local teachers, some of them repeated in the various segments, thereby contributing to familiarity; native speakers would then provide variety. At the same time, it is also likely that a large number of these students do believe that their inclusion would make for improvement.

Reference has already been made earlier (Chapter 3) to the strong case for inclusion of only non-native speakers. Gaudart (6-2-92) confirms a preference for non-native speakers, not only because of the 'it must be right if native speaker teachers do it' effect, but also because of the overload effect of native speaker dialects. Daniel (10-9-91) suggests that the use of non-native speakers teaching English competently is one of the strengths of the package, not only in the light of current ELT debate, but also for the possibility of language and discourse work that this presents.

Theme links, editing effects and coherence

The three factors of theme links, editing effects and coherence are considered to be inter-related, and hence are discussed together in this section.

In designing these materials, two aspects of the problem of linking had to be considered. First, was the need to decide on how to link different parts of the same recorded lesson into a coherent meaningful segment. Second, decisions had to be made with regard to the question of how to link recordings of different lessons into meaningful 'units'.

It was decided that the use of editing conventions (such as 'fades', 'wipes' and 'slides') would be sufficient in maintaining lesson continuity, coherence, and unity. It was reasoned that consistent

use of such conventions would provide sufficient 'signalling' of what was happening in the segments viewed. As such, when a picture begins to slide away in the tapes, it indicates that a short section has been edited out. When a mosaic or checked pattern appears, it means that a longer section of the lesson has been edited out. The end of the lesson segment is indicated by a swivel away of the last picture frame. It was assumed that viewers would bring sufficient understanding and knowledge of the fact that most lessons have phases of development to the task of viewing and comprehending the lesson segments. Consistent use of the conventions, as well as the showing of teacher 'signals of intention' (for example giving instructions, explanations and requesting) through comments (such as "Now I want you to...") were presumed to be adequate to maintain coherence and unity.

With regard to linking different lessons, it was decided to link different segments by a title at the beginning (such as "Getting Started" and "Dealing with Errors") of each numbered unit on video, followed by a simple narration explaining the topic of the unit, and the name of the teacher conducting the specific lesson. This is followed immediately by the lesson segment. When that segment ends, a brief narration follows, giving the name and purpose of the teacher in the next segment. Thus, different lessons are linked by a title which has a classifying or grouping function, as well as the use of short narratives within each unit.

This research sought to identify whether:

- the consistent use of editing conventions was adequate in ensuring continuity, coherence and unity within segments which comprised linking together different parts of the same lesson;
- any problems arise with comprehending the lessons as a result of the use of such conventions;
- linking different lessons together under the same topic or theme is acceptable; and
- any problems arise as a result of such linking?

The following tables indicate that overall, the videos have been adequate in ensuring the aims of the design.

Table 22 : A2 - Coherence of Lessons

2. **Video lesson**	incoherent	incoherent	partly coherent	mostly coherent	very coherent
	0.9%	1.8%	15.9%	**63.0%**	18.3%

As Table 22 above shows, only 2.7% students found the individual lessons less than satisfactorily coherent. 15.9% found them 'partly coherent', 63% 'mostly coherent' and 18.3% 'mostly very coherent'.

It can be assumed therefore, that the steps taken in the design of the materials to ensure coherence and unity within lessons are satisfactory as far as pre-service students are concerned. It is further likely that in-service teachers may similarly find the lessons satisfactorily coherent, especially given that the in-service teachers can be expected to bring greater understanding and knowledge of the teaching process to the task of viewing.

Hanington (2-4-92), however, felt that attempting to focus on specific points or aspects in the process of editing tends to de-contextualise the segments seen from the whole lesson, especially for viewers not familiar with the specific classroom context. The process of editing and selective focus, while being in general a good principle, leads to the dilemma of losing the sense of the whole lesson. Conversely, when very long unedited portions of (or whole) lessons are shown, she suggests that it leads to passive viewing.

Table 23 : A9 - Clarity of the aims of lessons

9 .**Aim of lesson**	not at all clear	mostly not clear	partly clear	mostly clear	very clear
	1.3%	3.9%	19.2%	**61.2%**	14.4%

With regard to the aims of the individual lessons, only 1.3% and 3.9% found them 'not at all clear' and 'mostly not clear' respectively. 61.2% found them 'mostly clear', and 14.4% found them 'very clear'. However, 19.2% found them only 'partly clear' (Table 23).

That almost a fifth of the students found the aims only partly clear suggests that further attention possibly needs to be paid to enhancing the clarity of the aims of the lessons. This could be attempted by providing specific information in the accompanying print materials. It could also be attempted by paying greater attention to the selection process in editing to ensure clarity of lesson aims, and including more such clarifying parts of the lessons in the video segments. Further research is required with regard to this matter. However, such research will need to ascertain which lessons are not clear in aims, and why. It will also need to ascertain whether students were unclear about the teacher's aims (or goals such as developing comprehension and learning a grammatical rule) in each lesson, or about the overall purpose that such lesson was intended to achieve (such as developing teacher-pupil rapport).

Table 24 : A10 - Clarity of teaching methods in the lessons

10. **Teaching method**	very clear	mostly clear	partly clear	mostly not clear	not at all clear
	16.6%	63.8%	17.2%	2.4%	0.0%

Table 24 shows, that a total of 80.4% were satisfied with the clarity of the teaching method employed in the segments. Only 2.4% found them 'mostly not clear'. 17.2% found them 'partly clear'.

Table 25 : A4 - Clarity of contextual information about pupils

4. **Type of Pupils (age, level, background)**	unclear	mostly unclear	partly clear	mostly clear	clear
	5.2%	10.4%	36.0%	36.2%	12.2%

Table 25 shows that a total of 48.4% found details about the pupils presented 'clearly'. 36% found them 'mostly clear', while a total of 15.6% found them less than satisfactorily clear.

It seems evident that more attention needs to paid to ensuring greater clarity of contextual details about the pupils (e.g. whether from rural or urban backgrounds). These could be attempted through the use of imprints on the video tapes at the beginning of segments, or through narration, or through providing such details in the supporting print materials. These issues will need further research.

Focus

It was pointed in an earlier discussion with regard to the history of the project that one major problem in attempting to capture lessons on video was that the resulting video segments could only remain partial. Not only is it not possible to capture the the numerous teaching, learning and other processes found in any one lesson, but it is also difficult to find a proper balance in camera focus between the teacher 'teaching' and the pupil(s) 'learning'. These materials attempted to provide as much a balance as possible, with a deliberate tilt of focus towards teachers.

What this research was interested to ascertain was whether:

- the camera focus in the recorded segments was deemed to be satisfactory?
- a greater measure of focus on the teachers' actions was satisfactory? and
- the focus affected other aspects examined in this research?

Table 26 : A7 - Camera focus

7. **Camera focus**	very good	good	satisfactory	poor	very poor
	1.8%	45.7%	49.2%	3.3%	0.0%

Table 26 reveals that while no one thought that the focus was 'very poor', 3.3% found it 'poor'. On the other hand, while 45.7% found it 'good', 1.8% found it 'very good'. Almost half the students, 49.2% found it satisfactory. This suggests that, overall, the focus has been satisfactory.

Picture quality

One premise underlying the design of the videos was that, for video lessons to be effective, the quality of the pictures needs to be very good. Much effort was therefore taken to ensure good picture quality. In this regard, what this research sought to discover was whether the:

- picture quality of these videos were acceptable? and
- quality of the pictures contributed toward the effectiveness of the materials?

As Table 27 below shows, a total of 49.6% found the picture quality 'good' and 'very good'. 47.4% of the students found it acceptable. Only 3.1% found it 'poor'.
Daniel (10-9-93) thought the pictures very good (except for Unit 1), while Moore (30-1-93) thought the technical quality excellent.

Table 27 : A17 - Quality of picture

17. **Picture quality**	very good	good	acceptable	poor	very poor
	3.0%	46.5%	47.4%	3.1%	0.0%

These results suggest that, in general, the quality of the pictures in video are at least acceptable. However, it is conceded that given the spread of quality television, designers of video materials for teacher education may need to pay conscious attention to ensuring good picture quality. Studio equipment were used in the design of these materials, which may not always be possible with future designers of such materials because of the costs and administrative details that have to be

attended to. It would therefore be a matter of possible research interest to ascertain tolerance levels for pictures of lesser quality, as well as the effectiveness of such materials in teacher education.

Sound quality

Similar to concerns about the quality of the pictures, the design of these materials deemed that the quality of the sounds in the videos segments is important.

As such, this research was interested in finding out whether the:

- quality of the sounds in the video segments are acceptable? and
- sound quality contributed to the effectiveness of the materials?

Table 28 reveals that 1.7.% found the sound quality 'very good', 38.8% found it 'good', while almost half, 49%, found it acceptable. However, 0.4% found it 'very poor', and a large percentage of 10.2% found it 'poor'.

Table 28 : A18 - Quality of sound

18. **Sound quality**	very poor	poor	acceptable	good	very good
	0.4%	10.2%	**49.0%**	38.8%	1.7 %

These results suggest that even the use of studio quality equipment cannot ensure overall good sound quality to the complete satisfaction of all viewers. Problems of sound include not being able to get clear voice quality of pupils in particular. This is often due to a combination of factors, technical and human. Technical factors include not having microphones powerful or near enough to pick up what is said, or picking up too much external noises, especially in classroom recordings. The human element remains, especially in contexts similar to Malaysia, that pupils naturally speak too softly in formal situations in the presence of figures of authority.

One matter of research interest, similar to picture quality, is to ascertain what is the tolerance level for less than satisfactory sound quality in terms of video effectiveness.

Video length

Reference has been made in earlier discussions to the problem of editing lessons into video segments to satisfy the needs of authenticity, interest, coherence and user convenience. It was ascertained that the average length of each unit should be around twenty minutes, while individual segments would comprise short episodes of varying lengths, depending on the needs mentioned above.

This research was interested in finding out whether:

- the lengths of individual segments and units are acceptable? and
- these lengths contribute to the effectiveness of the materials?

Table 29 shows that 0.9% found the segments 'too short', while 8.1% found them 'a little too short'. 12.4% found them 'a little too long', but none found them 'too long'.

Table 29 : A16 Length of video segments

16. **Video length**	too short	a little too short	just right	a little too long	too long
	0.9%	8.1%	**78.5%**	12.4%	0.0%

78.5% found the segments to be 'just right'. It seems safe to assume that average lengths of about eight minutes are acceptable. In some instances (as in the case of Unit 12) segment lengths of more than ten minutes were present, but did not draw criticism.

Given the numerous elements that may contribute to the interest factor of teaching episodes, it seems difficult to specify optimal segment lengths. For example, a five-minute segment may be deemed to be 'too long' if aspects such as the teacher's personality create boredom. Further research with other materials, and in EFL/ESL teacher education, and other contexts may be able to contribute toward identifying in greater detail optimal lengths (maximal and minimal) for authentic instructional videos.

General

Table 30 : A19 - General Comments regarding the videos

19. Any other comments:

Category Description	Number of Responses	Percentage of sample	Percentage of responses
Blank/Dash/No comment	516	93.0%	not available
Positive to materials	4	0.7%	10.3%
Positive to usage of materials/ Conduct of course	5	0.9%	12.8%
Critical of Materials	9	1.6%	23.1%
Critical of usage of materials/ Conduct of course	2	0.4%	5.1%
Suggestions for improving materials	10	1.8%	25.6%
Reservations about value	0		
General Observation / Comment	9	1.6%	23.1%

Note: The last column refers to percentage figures of those who responded, that is, the 39 valid responses out of a possible total of 555.

Of the 39 responses obtained for this question, ten make suggestions for improving the videos, nine criticise various aspects of the videos seen and nine responses can be classified as general observations or comments. However, a total of 93% did not respond, making respondents in the minority.

The following are typical examples of comments:
Category Number 1 - that the segments were realistic, practical, interesting and valuable;
Category Number 2 - that use of the videos helped learning;
Category Number 3 - that colour was not satisfactory, the focus could be better and background noise distracted;
Category Number 4 - that segments were boring, too long, that teachers and techniques shown were limited and there was a need to re-view segments;
Category Number 5 - that the colour could have been made brighter;
Category Number 6 - that the examples are far too ideal for real practice; and
Category 7 - that videos are interesting for learning and that pupils seen in specific segments seemed to be enjoying themselves.

Conclusion

This chapter has examined the findings of the research with regard to factors involved in the design of the videos. The design of the materials appears to have accommodated the major aspects that need to be considered and the reactions of the students seem to be generally positive toward the videos. It is perhaps to be expected that viewers currently expect a high quality of picture and sound in video tapes, but the overall acceptance of the video segments seems to depend more on the authenticity, interest and relevance of the video segments. If the selection of classes, teachers and pupils is representative, the range seems to satisfy the varied requirements of the student group. Careful editing can focus on the interesting and the valuable and provide coherence. A measure of the viability of this package of materials perhaps lies in the majority of the students feeling that they had learnt new and applicable approaches to English language teaching

In the context of teacher education, the materials seem to have had a novelty effect which created interest, enjoyment and learning through observation and discussion. The video input seems to contribute a sense of practicality to the course. Not all the units were equally valued. Nevertheless, overall, the units seem to have been particularly valuable for contributing knowledge about different approaches, ELT methods, possible problems and class management. The two major uses of these materials for the students seem to be in providing 'effective' teaching models and stimuli for discussions. From the point of view of the teacher educator, videos develop habits of observation, analysis and reflection through the provision of opportunities for 'safe-experimentation'. In particular, videos can capture expert teacher 'self-correction', and thus provide examples in the tradition of Schon's reflection-in-action.

The next chapter will examine the factors involved in the design of the supplementary print, strategies of overall usage and student reflection.

CHAPTER 8

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS: FACTORS OF SUPPLEMENTARY PRINT MATERIALS DESIGN, STRATEGIES OF USAGE AND REFLECTIVE OUTCOMES.

Introduction

While the previous chapter considered data pertaining to the design of the video materials, this chapter will discuss findings with regard to supplementary print materials, usage strategies and students reflection.

The following factors are considered with regard to the print materials:

- simplicity / comprehensiveness,
- variety,
- convenience,
- self-sufficiency and
- relevance.

Discussion

The print materials are dependent on the video materials. As such, it is probable that both positive and negative reactions to the video materials will affect the print materials. In other words, if the first reactions to the videos are negative, such reactions are likely to prejudice reactions to the print materials. At the same time, it is possible that: good supporting print may compensate for poor videos; or good videos may not require print support; or good videos may be able to off-set weak supporting print materials.

In the original design of the <u>print materials</u>, attention was paid to keeping the various parts of the package simple. At the same time, it was felt that the accompanying print materials should be <u>simple</u>, and be <u>comprehensive</u> enough for the purposes of teacher education. The print materials needed to provide a <u>variety</u> of tasks that would help make for comprehensiveness, and avoid being repetitive. It was hoped that the materials would be <u>self-sufficient</u> in the sense that they could be used for self-directed learning. An attempt was also made to cater for user <u>convenience</u> by allowing for worksheet duplication, as well as making the worksheets self-sufficient and convenient for in-class usage by providing space for filling in answers to tasks. Furthermore, it was hoped that the worksheets would be <u>relevant</u> to the needs of the students and teacher educators by providing interesting and varied tasks that help develop student teacher competence through focus on observation and reflection.

Precisely how the materials (both video and print) are used, can have positive or negative outcomes. The idea that good teachers can do wonders with poor materials and that weak teachers can fail to exploit good materials, is probably an appropriate point of departure to use here. Experienced teacher educators can probably make-up for weaknesses in the materials. A slavish reliance on the support materials is not likely to enhance interest or allow for creative teaching. Not using the print materials entirely may, be wasteful because it may ignore potentially useful exercises. A balanced and judicious use of the materials is likely to be the best strategy.

Did the print materials help teacher education by being relevant, and allow for a variety of teaching strategies such as O'Brien's (1981) EROTI model and Cullen's (1991) suggestions for student-generated discussion? In the process, did they allow for the growth of competence by contributing to students' powers of observation, analysis and reflection? This chapter seeks answers to these issues.

General

Moore (30-1-93) suggests that well constructed worksheets allow for the copying of good practice, or the adapting of what students see. In general, the worksheets were seen to be adding to the students' work load (Student 5, interview 1, 15-1-92), but at the same time, were recognised as guides for viewing (interview 1: Student 3, 14-1-92; Student 5, 15-1-92), memory aids (interview 1: Student 3, 14-1-92; Student 5, 15-1-92) and as a way to develop 'deeper thinking' (Student 8, interview 1, 14-1-92). For students who had a practical disposition such as Student 6, the worksheets were of no use if they were not returned to the students. If they were returned, they would help in revision for examinations. There was criticism about the fact that the worksheet responses were to be graded. It was perceived that there was no need to grade them (since they were learning through observation and discussion), and furthermore, the worksheets created tension and had questions which were deemed confusing and 'mind-boggling' (Student 6, interview 1, 16-1-92). If the worksheets were not graded, however, the worksheets were recognised as helping in the observation of specifics, and thinking about that what was relevant (interview 1: Student 6, 16-1-92; Student 4, 14-1-92).

Students who saw themselves as being 'thoughtful', and 'reflective', such as Student 11 ("I think a lot...I reflect a lot on things...both...happy...unhappy things...whatever I study...if I can relate to it very well...then I really ponder about it very well..."), found the 'application' questions useful and valuable "...if you can come out with something interesting" (interview 1, 14-1-92). However, the problem for students such as Student 11 was that while they were learning from the videos, the tasks expected almost immediate application of that knowledge (together with the students' own previous knowledge) either in contexts which relate to the teachers viewed on videos, or contexts which are imagined. As she pointed out, when faced with a question such as

"...would you do anything more to this...and explain and give examples and things like that...", she had to 'crack her head' because

> "... my goodness the teacher has done practically all that I can think of...what else am I going to do...so that becomes a little difficult on my part" (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Simplicity / comprehensiveness

Many of the following tables relate to how simple or comprehensive the worksheets and tasks were perceived to be. For Daniel, the simplicity and brevity of the materials is attractive, and at the same time, there is a good range of satisfactorily balanced topics (10-9-91).

Table 31 : B1 - Difficulty level of the tasks

	too difficult	a little difficult	about right	a little easy	too easy
1. **Tasks**	1.3%	30.9%	**66.7%**	1.1%	0.0%

Almost two-thirds of the students, 66.7%, found the tasks to be 'about right' in terms of difficulty (Table 31). 30.9% found them a 'little difficult', 1.3% found them 'too difficult' and 1.1% found them a 'little easy'. None found the tasks too easy.

Experience was considered a useful element when it came to answering the worksheet tasks. Having had teaching experience, Student 4 felt that the tasks were not too difficult to answer (interview 1, 14-1-92). On the other hand, those who did not have much teaching experience, and for whom the teachers in the video demonstrated expertise that they did not have and were trying to understand, many tasks, especially the reflective type, were problematic (interview 1, Student 6, 16-1-92; Student 11, 14-1-92).

Table 32 : B3 - Clarity of task instructions

	confusing	a little confusing	acceptable	mostly clear	very clear
3. **Task instructions**	1.3%	19.1%	**48.1%**	25.6%	5.9%

While a large group of students, 48.1%, found the tasks acceptably clear, 25.6% found the task instructions 'mostly clear' (Table 32). A significant 19.1% students found them 'a little confusing', while 1.3% found them 'confusing'. For Student 7, it was the provision of options

to be selected in response to tasks that was the main problem. While some questions were considered to be vague about what exactly was required, options for tasks were found to be correct when approached from different perspectives, and hence caused confusion. In particular, the feeling that all the options could and should be ticked as being acceptable posed the problem of how such choices could be justified (interview 1, 16-1-92).

The problems of difficulty and a lack of clarity may be linked, and may have occurred due to a combination of factors. First, the instructions have been vaguely worded. Second, the researcher did not provide sufficient explanation and clarification before the students attempted each worksheet. Third, the decision to provide grades for worksheet assignments created a conflict between the intentions of the designers of the package to provide a non-prescriptive and reflective approach (in which different responses and options could be appropriate depending on different contexts) and tensions arising in students from the need to get good grades by providing the 'correct answers'. On the other hand, it was felt that to inform the students that almost all the options were acceptable depending on the context would not have provided for serious deliberations on the various options, and hence reduced the value of the worksheets. Fourth, the decision to grade worksheet tasks also went against the overall intention of the materials to provide opportunities for reflection, rather than providing instances of right and wrong. While there were observation tasks that have fairly specific details to look out for, and hence provide opportunities for 'right' and 'wrong' responses, there were others which were not obvious. Furthermore, reflective tasks did not allow for the simple assigning of grades. Fifth, the design and trials of the tasks seem to suggest that the materials are to be used repeatedly whenever needed, with discussions, rather than written work, providing the methodological strategy. Written responses on worksheets are meant to stimulate memory and discussions. Sixth, the space provided in the worksheets seems to have become a guide for the length of responses. As such, conflicts arose when, as in the case of Student 7 (interview 1, 16-1-92) above, the lack of space for lengthy justification of all options (for some of the tasks) created confusion.

Table 33 : B2 - Familiarity of tasks

2. **Tasks**	unfamiliar	a little unfamiliar	mixture	a little familiar	familiar
	2.0%	14.0%	**53.9%**	15.5%	14.6%

Table 33 shows that while 2.0% found the tasks 'unfamiliar', 14.0% found them 'a little unfamiliar'. 15.5% found them 'a little familiar', while 14.6% found them 'familiar'. The rest, 53.9%, found them a 'mixture'.

It will be evident that the students were used to what can be described as a characteristic lecture-style approach, with discussions arising out of questions posed by lecturers predominating tutorials. In the courses taken in the School of Education, student presentations were characteristic of tutorials. As such, the approach using video input followed by working with worksheets was a different experience for almost all students (Student 10, interview 1, 15-1-92; interview 2: Student 4, 18-3-92; Student 8, 17-3-92; Student 9, 17-3-92; Discussions: Group 1, 16-3-92; Group 2, 16-3-92; Group 3, 18-3-92). It seems that students would are generally not familiar with the processes and demands arising from the use of worksheets which are dependent on viewing videos. Appendix 9 presents a breakdown of what the tasks in the worksheets attempt to do.

The use of Pre-Viewing and Post-Viewing tasks at every teaching session was also different. Here is an example of a Pre-Viewing task (from Unit Four, p. 23). The worksheets for Unit 12 (Appendix 11) include other examples.

Task 1

Which of these ideas about groupwork do you agree with? *Tick any of the following.*

Groupwork:-

*	is disruptive because of noise and movement	❑
*	allows pupils to waste time	❑
*	calls for too much teacher preparation	❑
*	is enjoyable	❑
*	gets pupils talking	❑
*	makes pupils think	❑
*	allows pupils to correct each other	❑
*	allows pupils to prepare answers	❑
*	leads to the use of Bahasa Malaysia	❑
*	reduces teachers' work	❑

Many of the Pre-Viewing tasks entailed thinking about topic related issues, often posed as dogmatic statements which are aimed at eliciting deep-held (and perhaps prejudicial) views. Such a strategy attempts to provoke discussion, as well as allow for lecturer input in order to raise issues needing consideration with regard to a topic dealt. For example, Unit One, Task 1 required students to characterise features of a good introduction to a lesson by ticking options such as 'involve learners', 'motivate learners', 'identify learner styles', 'check learners' levels of knowledge and proficiency', 'specify lesson aims and objectives', and 'state lesson topic'. Task 1 of Unit Two similarly attempted to get students to take positions (from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree') on views such as 'one picture is worth a thousand words', 'pupils learn by

associating what they hear with what they see', 'teenagers do not really like to play with objects', and 'only young pupils like to sing in class'. Many of these Pre-Viewing tasks tended to have the desired effect of providing for lively discussion (Diary entries, 23-12-91; 27-12-91). Given longer teaching sessions, the Pre-Viewing tasks will probably help to deal with prejudices before getting onto analysis (Heath, 2-4-92).

Post-viewing tasks attempt to get students to reflect on what is viewed, as well as issues raised in the session. Examples of such tasks are:

> - "Too much 'teacher-talk' tends to overwhelm pupils, but at the same time, teachers need to be sure that pupils understand the new material, and what is expected of them. How does a teacher maintain a balance?" (Unit One, Task 13);
> - "If you were asked to advise a fresh teacher on the most important aspect of using resources, what advice would you give?" (Unit Two, Task 11);
> - "In order to use group work effectively in the classroom, what skills do you think you should develop?" (Unit Four, Task 12); and
> - "What details would you, as teacher, have to pay specific attention to in attempting the project you have in mind?" (Unit Twelve, Task 11b).

Here are examples of Post-Viewing tasks (from Unit Four, p.28). More examples can be found in Appendix 11.

Task 10

Which of these views do you agree with? *Tick your choice.*

* groupwork is learning with enjoyment ❑
* Groupwork is too much fun for any real learning to take place ❑

Explain.

____

____

Task 11

Was there anything special, interesting, or problematic that you observed in the tape that was not dealt with in the exercise? Elaborate.

____

____

____

Task 12

In order to use group work effectively in the classroom, what skills do you think you should develop?

____

____

____

It may be evident that in the hands of a sensitive, concerned and knowledgeable lecturer, and given sufficient time to explore student teacher responses, such tasks can allow for effective student teacher reflection and development. In the context of this study, students found the reflective tasks unfamiliar. As one student pointed out, the early lessons were "a bit confusing" (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92), and students found the reflective tasks difficult.

Tasks dealing specifically with segments viewed on tape are generally observational and analytical (see Appendix 11). For example, <u>typical observation tasks</u> include:

- "Name three things that the teacher does to make the role-play as realistic as possible" (Unit Two, Task 4a);

- "List the techniques he uses to explain vocabulary items" (Unit Three, Task 4a);

- "How does the teacher contextualise the teaching of directions and place names?" (Unit Three, Task 6); and

- "Make a note of the stages of the lesson you observe" (Unit Six, Task 3).

Most students found these tasks novel in nature compared to other courses, and easier to attend to than the reflective tasks because they required less thinking (Student 7, interview 2, 19-3-92). At the same time, some students experienced difficulty because it 'put a load on attention and memory' (Student 4, interview 2, 18-3-92). Reflective tasks became more difficult as the course progressed and the videos became more interesting (Student 5, interview 2, 20-3-92). It was suggested that

> "sometimes the video was too long...but it depends...if you are having a ...very...long day...usually Monday...four hours at a stretch...it's difficult to pay attention (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92).

Developing skills of lesson-observation is probably an an-going process (even for experienced teacher educators). Hence, it is probable that the students would not have had much experience in the early stages, and suffered some distress.

Examples of analytical tasks (also see Appendix 11) calling for degrees of reflection include:

- "What are the classroom management problems inherent in organising an activity of this kind?" (Unit Two, Task 5a);

- "Does the teacher address any of these problems and if so, how?" (Unit Two, Task 5b);

- "Why do you think the teacher did not correct the pupil's pronunciation?" (Unit Three, Task 3c); and

- "Would you add any other steps? If so, list them" (Unit Three, Task 5c).

Such tasks, calling for reflection arising out of the stimulus of specific video input was not the norm of student experiences.

Variety

While the worksheet tasks need to be easy to use and comprehensive, they also need to be perceived as catering for a range of needs. Moore (30-1-93) points out that video design which does not engage teacher planning before recording, and when only normal teaching is recorded, the result is often the recording of similar teaching styles, some of which may be the very practices that the educator wants to eliminate. In such cases, one has to fall back to stimuli such as "How else could this be done".

Table 34 : B4 - Variation of tasks

		varied	a little varied	mixed	a little stereo-typed	stereo-typed
4.	**Tasks**	19.0%	18.5%	**54.6%**	6.6%	1.3%

Table 34 shows that 19%, 18.5% and 54.6% found the tasks to be 'varied', 'a little varied' and 'mixed' respectively. However, 6.6% found the tasks 'a little stereo-typed'.

Reference has already been made to the variety of tasks provided in the worksheets in discussion pertaining to Table 33. Furthermore, it will be recalled that early design considerations meant that tasks should attempt to provide variety (as teacher educators could replicate similar context-specific questions for their own purposes). Nalliah (26-3-92), however, was of the opinion that "most of the time it was observation...of what was very clear to see...what and how...very little

on why...". This reflects an earlier reference that she made to the students in class that the materials could be considered to refer to the 'what' of teaching, whereas her input referred to the 'why' of teaching (Diary entry, 15-1-92). On the other hand, Student 1, when asked what she had learnt from the course, felt that it was an inclination to seek reasons,

> "...why the teacher uses this method...and not something else...questions like why why why and not what...or who...when...but...questions like why...basically" (interview 2, 23-3-92).

Convenience

In order to make the print material self-sufficient and convenient to use, the worksheets were designed with the provision of space for the filling in of answers. Moore likes the large and clear format, but reports suggests criticism of the need to write answers in the worksheets. Doing away with this could have reduced that book to about forty pages, thereby reducing costs (30-1-93). In this respect, Daniel (10-9-91), similar to the researcher (Diary entry ,4-1-92), found that the lines provided restrict student responses. Furthermore, they mislead students about how much or how little to write, because the number of lines provided may limit the length of student answers. Leaving a blank space may be a preferable strategy.

Table 35 : B6 - Time required to complete tasks

6. **Time needed to do the 'While-Viewing' Tasks**	very little	little	moderate length	quite a lot	a lot / considerable
	4.4%	25.3%	**61.8%**	7.4%	0.9%

The tasks required a 'moderate length' of time for 61.8% of the students. While 7.4% took 'quite a lot of time' and 0.9% 'a lot', 25.3% and 4.4% claimed it needed 'little' and 'very little' time respectively (Table 35).

This set of results (particularly that only a total of 8.3% took more than moderate lengths of time) surprises the researcher because the lack of time to complete the tasks was a regular informal complaint of many students at various times (for example Diary entry 31-12-91) during the course (Student 10, interview 1, 15-1-92; interview 2: Student 2, 17-3-92; Student 6, 19-3-92). Group One members, for example, felt that they might have been satisfied with attempting fewer tasks, and that, in principle, tasks should be completed in class (Discussion, 16-3-92). The researcher felt severe time constraints in terms of not only the overall requirements of dealing with the numerous aspects of language teaching methodology, but also in attending to the worksheet tasks for each unit (Diary entries 23-12-91; 29-12-91; 5-1-92; 6-1-92; 16-1-92; 17-2-92; 24-2-92). It

may be that 'moderate length' could have been taken to mean 'more than average'. Alternatively, it may have been possible that students did not expend more than what they considered to be a fixed and 'moderate length' of time to answer. Following this, it is possible that they gave up, or guessed, or put down the first thoughts that came to mind (Student 9, interview 2, 17-3-92).

The worksheets were perceived to 'interrupt' the viewing of the videos in the sense that students were required to think of answers to tasks while viewing. This may have interfered with appreciation of the video lessons (Student 5, 15-1-92).

Table 36 : B7 - Number of viewings required/provided for tasks

7. **To answer- 'While-Viewing' tasks**	did not view tape	viewed part of tape	viewed it all once	viewed it twice	viewed it many times
	1.3%	40.0%	**54.6%**	3.3%	0.7%

Table 36 possibly reflects student confusion with the terms viewed 'part of the tape' and 'all once' because of the number of varying segments within each unit. While the original intention of this question was to ascertain the number of viewings required to answer the worksheet tasks, the value of this question is reduced by the fact that shortage of time forced the researcher to play each segment through only once before worksheet tasks or discussions were initiated. At no time was a whole unit (comprising a number of units) played through all together, nor were students required to answer tasks without viewing the relevant tape segments. As such, it is not clear how 1.3% of the students suggested not having viewed the tapes, nor how 0.7% viewed the tapes many times.

Table 37 : B13 - Locating answers to tasks

13. **Answers found in tape for**	all the tasks	most tasks	some tasks	very few	none
	3.9%	41.1%	47.6%	7.2%	0.2%

With regard to the tasks, 7.2% of the students suggested that very few answers could be located in the tapes. 47.6% found answers for some tasks in the tapes, while 41.1% felt answers to most tasks could be found in the tapes. 3.9% felt all answers were evident in the tapes (Table 37).

These figures probably reflect the mixture of task types involving observation, knowledge and reflection found in the worksheets. Answers to the observation tasks would be found in the tapes, while the others require inputs based on the viewers' knowledge, experience and thinking.

For example, the answer to Tasks 5a, "What are the classroom management problems inherent in organising an activity of this kind?" (Unit Two) requires knowledge of pedagogy, classrooms, pupils and management. Task 5b, "Does the teacher address any of these problems and if so, how?" requires observation as well as knowledge, whereas Task 5c, "How do you handle such problems?" requires answers arising out of reflection on experience. While answers to tasks such as 5b are relatively straightforward, and can be found in the tapes, tasks 5a and 5c call for answers (based on knowledge and experience) from outside the tape.

Self-sufficiency

Are the materials adequate for purposes of self-directed learning?

Table 38 : B11 - Purpose of the materials (suitability for self-study)

	very good	good	average	poor	very poor
11. **For self- study**	11.5%	**61.4%**	25.0%	2.2%	0.0%

61.4% and 11.5% of the students thought the materials were 'good' and 'very good' respectively for use in self-study contexts. 25% thought they were 'average' (Table 38).

Many problems may need to be attended to before these materials can be used satisfactorily for self-study purposes. The design of the supplementary materials do not seem to have satisfactorily resolved two issues, namely who is the target audience, and whether the materials are to be teacher educator / leader led, or for self-study purposes.

The design of supplementary materials has not deliberated sufficiently on the amount of classroom experience that is required of viewers. There seems to be an unresolved conflict between producing video materials for student teachers of two levels, those with some classroom experience and those without any. Furthermore, in attempting to accommodate the needs of practising teachers for in-service training, a further lack of focus seems to have arisen. With regard to student teachers, it would be fair to say that the materials assume experience of classroom procedures (for example forming groups), processes (that pupils will resort to other languages, or that one person can dominate during group-work) and teaching methods (for example types of exercises that can be used to approach writing) and alternatives. The following tasks exemplify the assumptions:

"How would you divide your class into groups?" (Unit Four, Task 3);

"Pupils sometimes do not use English when they work in groups? Do you think this is because..." (Unit Four, Task 4);

"One of the things that can happen while working in groups is one person dominating the group discussion. In your opinion, does this call for special attention? Why?" (Unit Four, Task 7);

"List below the various types of exercises that can be employed in approaching a lesson on writing. Then list down the objectives of these exercises" (Unit Six, Task 1).

"What else might she have done?" (Unit Two, Task 4b) and

"How do you handle such problems?" (Unit Two, Task 5c).

The fact that these assumptions are not made explicit can cause problems in user expectations. As Gaudart pointed out, these materials could be used by her only after students have had classroom experience and experimented with teaching (6-2-92). Designers of materials and teacher educators often raise issues or questions that students are not asking (Heath, 2-4-92). It may well be that a separate set of supplementary materials (even videos) may be required for student teachers without experience. Such materials could 'prescribe', based on the idea that students do not know enough yet, and have to be told, shown and asked to learn basic techniques by imitation before they can develop enough expertise to consider appropriateness and alternatives (Gaudart, 6-2-92; Heath, 2-4-92: Nalliah, 26-3-92). Reservations remain that these video materials may not be suitable for students without classroom experience because they might be seen as examples of models, in which case, the teachers are seen to be less than satisfactory (Gaudart, 6-2-92; Zamani, 22-3-92) or methods used, such as the lecturing mode in Unit Nine, Segment 1, may be questionable (Moore, 30-1-93).

It is likely that the materials may best serve practising teachers following in-service courses (Nalliah, interview, 26-3-92), where reflection on one's own and other teachers' practices as well as discussion might lead to development. During trials of these materials at seminars, teachers seem to compare video practices and pick possibilities for later use; " this teacher is doing that...probably I can do that too...I don't do this..." (Zailena, 26-3-92), justify their own practices. Such justification could be in the form of excuses or reasons for not adopting certain practices ("I can't do this because..."), or legitimising teacher practices ("so if they were doing whatever it was that these teachers were doing...it would justify whatever it is that they were doing") (Zailena, 26-3-92). On the other hand, teachers usually come to seminars already aware

of problems (such as the use of Bahasa Malaysia during group-work) raised in packages such as these. What they want is answers, and even prescriptions for solutions, rather than being made aware of problems (Gaudart, 6-2-92).

For purposes of self-study, materials will need clearly designed worksheets, as well as facilities for feedback on tasks. In both these areas, the present package needs revision. First, the worksheets reveal that they are designed to be used in the company of others, either in consultation or discussion. This will be illustrated by the following examples of task instructions:

> "Compare your views with members of your group. Be prepared to defend your other views" (Unit Two, Task 1);
>
> "Compare your list with a partner's and discuss your choices" (Unit Three, Task 1);
>
> "Be ready to explain why you made these choices" (Unit Three, Task 2);
>
> "Discuss your opinion with your group" (Unit Eleven, Task 2); and
>
> "Discuss your choices with a partner. Be prepared to say why you feel the way you do" (Unit Twelve, Task 2).

Second, and more important, it could be argued that the greatest value of video materials such as these lie in their ability to act as catalysts for awareness, introspection or reflection, change and learning through discussion. There could be the danger of reinforcing undesirable teacher behaviour (Moore, 30-1-93), fossilising of established viewer perspectives (as in the case of practising teachers cited above), ignoring other possible perspectives and not getting adequate feedback when the materials are used for self-study as compared to 'in class' use. Hence, the provision of adequate input for feedback is usually built into self-access materials in general.

In this context, the Leader's Notes (see Appendix 11) accompanying the worksheets, which is intended to serve this purpose, falls short of original expectations. It is observed that, answers provided are for tasks where the answers are obvious, in terms of common sense or in terms of being self-evident in the videos, or in combination. For example, the answer to Task 8b (Unit One), "What does the game add to this introduction?" is "The game provides:- 1. A unique experience. 2. An opportunity to practise language without the usual classroom constraints. 3. Fun and liveliness. 4. Motivation". It could be argued that these answers are obvious in terms of logic, and could be the answers to a general question such as "What is the value of games in introductions?" Other similar examples include Unit Three, Task 3b (on the disadvantages of reading aloud), Unit Three, Task 4c iii) (on the disadvantages of using translation) and Unit Five, Task 7 (on when it is appropriate to start a lesson by providing a model).

Some other answers deal with aspects which are quite self-evident from watching the videos. Examples of these include: Unit One, Task 2 (on what the topic of the lesson is); Unit One, Task 4 (on what three other things the teacher does); Unit Two, Task 3b (on what the resources used in the segment are); Unit Four, Task 3c (on how the teacher divides the class into groups); and Unit Six, Task 3 (on what stages the lesson comprises). Some answers can be attempted by a combination of observation and common sense. For example Unit Two, Task 7b (on listing the advantages and disadvantages of the two visual aids used), and Unit Five, Task 8 (on the objectives of having the pupils practising a prepared dialogue) are fairly self-evident tasks for which answers are provided.

The Leader's Notes (see example in Appendix 11), however, do not deal consistently with the relatively more difficult (and perhaps, it could be argued, more valuable) analytical and reflective tasks. The feeling that there are no real right or wrong answers, and the desire to avoid 'prescription' (Zailena, 26-3-92) have resulted in Leader's Notes input which is likened to taking the easy way out, or even a let-down (Daniel, 10-9-91). The varying quality of feedback provided can be ascertained by reference to some examples such as the following, where attempts have been made to attend to aspects of the tasks:

> Unit One, Task 1 - "Which of the following features should a good introduction have?"
> Leader's Notes - "All of these are features of an introduction. An introduction may not reflect all of these features, but several of these would be present at any one time".
>
> Unit One, Task 5 - "Write down as much as you can remember of what the teacher told [the pupils] to do".
> Leader's Notes - "Perceptions of what the teacher does may vary, but the lists will probably include the following activities". (This is followed by a list of seven observations).
>
> Unit Two, Task 9 - "In selecting resources to be used for a language lesson, which of the following criteria do you think should take precedence? Convenient to use, flexible, appropriate for the lesson, easy to obtain, inexpensive, add clarity to the lesson, add enjoyment".
> Leader's Notes - "While all the criteria are relevant and important, it is logical to assume that the over-riding concern should be that whatever is used contributes to and facilitates the learning process".
>
> Unit Two, Task 11 - "If you were asked to advise a fresh new teacher on the most important aspects of using resources, what advice would you give?" Leader's Notes - "This is a difficult task, one would probably have to draw attention to many of the

resources mentioned in Task 3a.

It is, however, suggested that the most important issue is to decide on how to use the resources. There must be a purpose in the use of any teaching aid, and therefore, planning is essential. For example, refer to the various segments in this Unit, and notice how the teachers have all planned the use of the resources in the development of their lessons".

The above may be compared to Leader's Notes for the following tasks from Unit One:

Unit One, Task 12a - "Note down the steps in the lesson so far".

Unit One, Task 12b - How would you start a lesson on a visit to a tourist destination? Why?"

Unit One, Task 13 - "Too much 'teacher talk' tends to overwhelm pupils, but at the same time, teachers need to be sure that pupils understand the new material, and what is expected of them. How does a teacher maintain a balance?

Unit One, Task 14 - "How important is context to the effective presentation of new material?"

Notes - "As tasks 12, 13 & 14 require feedback from the trainees, no suggested answers have been made".

It needs to be observed that similar input is obtained in numerous other instances such as: Unit Three, Tasks 13, 14, 15 and 16; Unit Five, Tasks 2, 3, 13, 14 and 16b; Unit Six, Tasks 2, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, and 13; Unit Eight, Tasks 2, 4e, 6c, 7a and 8. Daniel (10-9-91) sees this lack of adequate suggested answers, and raising of issues and problem areas a major weakness. Further, direction for discussion and references for follow-up work could have been provided.

Such variations in the quality (and lack) of feedback often frustrated the researcher (a co-participant in the initial design of the materials) during the research with the materials, when feedback input was sought (Diary entries, 27-12-91; 16-1-92). Input was often necessitated by a lack of task clarity, need for re-assurance that the researcher was giving the appropriate response and when answers were not evident. This lack of adequate feedback is likely to similarly upset many teacher educator-users of the worksheets. Equally, it is likely that the materials (as they are) will not be found adequate by self-study users.

Table 39 : B12 - Purpose of the materials (suitability for taught lessons)

12. **For a taught lesson**	unacceptable	a little unacceptable	mixture	a little acceptable	very acceptable
	0.4%	3.3%	**40.1%**	29.9%	26.2%

Table 39 reveals that only 3.3% of the students found the materials 'a little unacceptable' for use in taught lessons (as compared to self-access). 29.9% found them 'a little acceptable', 26.2% 'very acceptable' and 40.1% a 'mixture'.

The researcher's feeling is that the materials, in their present form, are best used by teacher educators as part of taught lessons, not only to maximise the effect, but also to monitor students' learning, confusions and problems.

Daniel, however, is of the opinion that these materials can only be used by a

> "confident and skillful teacher educator / language advisor who is able to perceive the theoretical points underpinning the material (both in terms of reflective practice and communicative language teaching), has recourse to additional / complementary / supplementary material...and who can plan for other activities as appropriate..." (10-9-91).

This is partly due, she suggests, to the fact that the materials do not provide theory, preparatory or follow-up reading, and no definite follow-up tasks for practical teaching and research. As such, and also because they are not sufficiently developmental, she does not see the materials as at present being able to stand on their own and form a course.

Table 40 : B8 - Amount of specialised knowledge required for tasks

8. **Tasks need Specialised knowledge**	very much	a lot	moderate amount	very little	none
	0.7%	9.8%	**67.9%**	19.0%	2.6%

In order to answer the tasks, 67.9% felt that a 'moderate amount' of specialised knowledge was required. While 9.8% deemed it necessary to have 'a lot' and 0.7% 'very much', 19.0% and 2.6% felt 'very little' and 'none' were required respectively (Table 40).

The materials appear to reflect the use of a fair amount of terminology relevant to English language teaching. For example, the use of terms such as 'contextualisation' is typical of specialised knowledge required for completing tasks (Unit Three, Task 6), and seems to have been problematic for some students, especially the Diploma in Education students (Student 12, interview 2, 27-2-92). This seems to have resulted from a lack of grounding in educational principles in all the Diploma students. These students were introduced to such courses only with the commencement of the Diploma course. Furthermore, the students for whom English was the

minor methods course seemed to lack grounding in aspects connected with the English language. All these limitations suggest that the materials are not complete.

Relevance

It is useful to establish how relevant the print materials are in developing student teachers' competence through observation, analysis and reflection. Moore (30-1-93) suggests that supporting print help in two ways: analysis of the nature of classroom discourse through transcripts; and learning the basics of classroom observation through videos and worksheets. Furthermore, good worksheets help transform passive viewing into a purposeful and focused activity through the tasks.

Table 41 : B9 - Amount of significant points dealt with

9. **Significant points dealt with**	all	most	some	little	none
	3.9%	**53.8%**	39.5%	2.2%	0.6%

For 53.8% of the students, 'most' significant aspects pertaining to the lessons were dealt with. 39.5% felt that only 'some' significant points were dealt with (Table 41).

It is likely that these figures reflect the varying stages of development among the students in terms of their knowledge concerning the profession, language teaching methodology and their interests. Given that students have various levels of development, maturity and interests (especially among the Bachelor of Education and Diploma in Education students), it is likely that the materials could not satisfy the varied needs. This was compounded by the lack of time to delve deep into various issues satisfactorily.

For Student 3, the value of the tasks, lay in their ability to draw attention to significant issues that otherwise might not have been noticed. Because a task focused on a point and required feedback from the students in terms of what they might have done, the attempt to think out solutions helps remembering for similar contexts in future (interview 1, 14-1-92).

With regard to the suitability of the Unit or lesson title (such as "Dealing with Errors"), 60.4%, 20.6% and 18.0% found them 'acceptable', 'mostly apt' and 'apt' respectively (Table 42).

Table 42 : B10 - Suitability of titles

10. **Lesson title**	unsuitable	mostly unsuitable	acceptable	mostly apt	apt
	0.2%	0.9%	**60.4%**	20.6%	18.0%

It has to be noted, however, that the researcher changed the approach for Unit Nine, "Using Questions". This decision was based on an awareness that the worksheets for the unit are not well designed, and fall far short of desired quality due, it seems, to pressure of package-completion schedules (Zailena, 26-3-92). The researcher decided to change the strategy of usage to avoid personal embarrassment, criticism of the materials and the course (Diary entries 23-2-92; 24-2-92). Only the first of the two video segments in the unit was used (the second was a repeat of a lesson recording already used in two others, Units 3 and 7). A worksheet was specifically designed for use with the segment. It is suspected that student reactions might have been less accepting (Table 30) if trial of the segment had replicated trial with other units in the package. Even so, one student asked at the end of the session as to why there did not seem to be a relevance between the title and the segment (Diary entry, 24-2-92).

Table 43 : B5 - Relevance of the Pre-Viewing tasks

5. **Pre-Viewing Tasks**	irrelevant	a little irrelevant	neither irrelevant nor relevant	a little relevant	relevant
	0.0%	3.0%	1.9%	20.0%	**75.1%**

The majority of students seem to have related positively to the Pre-Viewing tasks (Table 43). 75.1% and 20% found the tasks to be 'relevant' and 'a little relevant' respectively. While 1.9% were undecided, 3% found the tasks to be 'a little irrelevant'.

Table 44 : B16 - Relevance of Post-Viewing tasks

16. **Relevant**	all	almost all	mostly	a few	none
	20.4%	27.0%	**48.8%**	3.7%	0.2%

In general, most of the students seem to have viewed the post-viewing tasks as being relevant (Table 44). While 20.4% of the students thought all the tasks were relevant, 27% and 48.8% found 'almost all' and 'most' tasks respectively relevant.

For Student 5, the Post-Viewing tasks were seen to be impractical, theoretical, and therefore not relevant to the needs of actual classroom application, "where you have to use your head more...". Theory and practice were seen as two different things, similar to the difference between reading and writing a book (interview 1, 15-1-92).

Table 45 : B17 - Difficulty level of Post-viewing tasks

17. **Difficulty level**	very easy	easy	moderate	high	very high
	0.6%	6.0%	**81.4%**	11.3%	0.6%

Overall, 81.4% found the post-viewing tasks to be only moderately difficult (Table 45). This is surprising because there were numerous verbal expressions to the researcher of problems with these post-viewing tasks. 11.3% found the difficulty level 'high' while 6% found the level 'easy'.

It is evident that while most of the post-viewing tasks call for reflection, the difficulty levels of the various tasks are not similar. The following selection of examples provides self-evident illustration of the range of difficulty and skills required:

- "How important is context to the effective presentation of new material?" (Task 14, Unit One);

- "If you were asked to advise a fresh new teacher on the most important aspects of using resources, what advice would you give?" (Task 11, Unit Two);

- "Make a note of three or more ways in which you think you may now change the ways you teach vocabulary". (Task 16, Unit Three);

- "In order to use group-work effectively in the classroom, what skills do you think you should develop?" (Task 12, Unit Four);

- "Look back at the notes you made for Task 1 and 2. Write down three new ways of dealing with these errors". (Task 8, Unit Eight).

Major areas of problems with the Post-viewing tasks were those relating to knowledge and experience. Student 11 felt stressed by efforts to think of new ways of teaching something when she felt that the teacher had done everything Student 11 could think of, and particularly when she was learning from observing the teacher (interview 1, 14-1-92). Some felt they did not

> "have exposure...if we had been teachers...then maybe we'll know...try something different...we do not have any idea of how to go about these questions" (Group 2 Discussion, 16-3-92).

Others felt that it was not a matter of lacking experience, but rather of not knowing whether proposed answers were right and workable. Furthermore, the pressure to answer created tensions because students proposed answers (due to a sense of obligation) that they did not believe in (Group 2 Discussion, 16-3-92). Student 1, however, felt that there was no problem because the reflective tasks called for the application of logic, not experience, and therefore were not problematic (interview 2, 23-3-92). Student 5, similarly, felt that these tasks could be answered using general knowledge (interview 2, 20-3-92).

Table 46 : B18 - Usefulness of Post-Viewing tasks

	very useful	useful	fairly useful	not very useful	not at all useful
18. **Useful**	15.4%	**51.0%**	32.9%	0.6%	0.0%

Whatever difficulties were experienced by the students in attempting these tasks, **almost all** the students seem to have found the tasks useful to varying degrees (Table 46). This implies that, in the main, the students are positive in their reactions to the reflective tasks.

The tasks were valued for a variety of reasons. For Student 2, the tasks allowed for thinking, self-expression and evaluation. Furthermore, such tasks allowed for the cumulative growth of reflective ability (interview 2, 17-3-92). Reflective tasks, being interesting in themselves, also allowed for links to past experience, self-evaluation and analysis. In the process, they helped develop personal viewpoints (interview 2: Student 3, 17-3-92; Student 4, 18-3-92).

Table 47 : B19 - Interest level of Post-Viewing tasks

	very boring	boring	fair	interesting	very interesting
19. **Interesting**	0.4%	5.1%	44.0%	40.9%	9.5%

Forty four percent of the students found the tasks fairly interesting, while 40.9% found them 'interesting'. 9.5% found the tasks very interesting, and 5.1% found them boring (Table 47).

Possible reasons for the students' interest will be evident in discussions that follow with regard to reflective outcomes.

Table 48 : B20 - Specialised knowledge required for Post-Viewing tasks

20. **Dependence on specialised knowledge**	totally	very much	fairly	very little	not at all
	1.0%	10.1%	**70.8%**	16.7%	1.4%

For 70.8% of the students, answering the tasks required a fair amount of specialised knowledge. 10.1% felt very much specialised knowledge was required, while 16.7% felt very little was required (Table 48). While the difficulties posed by the tasks have been discussed with reference to Table 35, it needs to be pointed out that the Diploma in Education students, in particular, felt that many tasks in general required specialised knowledge which they lacked (interview 1: Student 10, 15-1-92; Student 12, 14-1-92).

Strategies of usage

How materials are used depends on the inter-relationship between course aims, teacher educator preferences, and what is perceived to be valuable and relevant in the materials to the specific contexts. In this context, the course aims are described in discussion about reflection later in this chapter. As far as the researcher was concerned, his aim was to help the students toward professional development, as well as to examine the effectiveness of the materials, especially when used straight through a course, at the rate of one video unit per week. The discussion on reflection later in this chapter suggest both aims were apparently realised.

Daniel (10-9-91), Moore (30-1-93), Gaudart (62-92), Zamani (22-3-92) and Nalliah (26-3-92) all suggest that these materials cannot form the basis of a course. The researcher, however, agrees with Heath (2-4-92) that video should be made central in teacher education, especially where there are not enough opportunities to observe other practitioners at work. One problem seems to be constraints of time, as experienced by the researcher (Diary entries: 23-12-91; 27-12-91; 29-12-91; 6-1-92), not only in terms of the actual two contact hours per week, but also the total of fourteen weeks allocated for the course. Another problem is that of student expectation of the

content, conduct and aims of courses. The range of topics found in the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials is wide, and covers a number of key areas of ELT methodology (refer to Table 9). It is hard to see a course not dealing with these areas. The issue seems to be one of finding a balance of activities, and avoiding an over-balance towards telling and lecturing, given only two hours per week.

Moore is of the opinion that

> "in pre-service and in-service we...are trying to show...methods and methods which are new to them but which we would like them to incorporate into their teaching repertoire. We are actually trying to change their behaviour, which as we know is incredibly difficult" (30-1-93).

The problem remains one of deciding how many methods and activities one needs to show students in a course, as well as their entire training programme. In this context, Nalliah (26-3-92) saw as problematic the need to cover areas not dealt with by the package, to equip students with as many techniques as possible, and to explore approaches other than reflection within a relatively short period (Diary entry, 20-12-91).

The materials represent an approach that contrasts with the generally preferred teacher educator strategy of dealing with broad topics first before narrowing down to specifics. Instead, the materials expect the teacher educator to use the specific teaching episode as the basis for reaching out to broader issues. Where the materials lack is in providing adequate linking to broader aspects of ELT methodology theory, thereby placing a heavy load on individual educator ingenuity and ability to link (Diary entry, 22-12-91). This is, perhaps, to be expected in a course designed to be supplementary.

At the same time, it is worth remembering that teacher education is guided by relatively short- and long-term goals. Short-term goals usually seek to address immediate application problems (such as specific context bound techniques, procedures, readings, and theoretical principles), whereas long-term goals address larger issues such as attitudes, disposition to (teaching, knowledge, learners and self-development) and general thinking (such as reflection). Videos can contribute in the short-term context by exemplifying and focusing on specifics, and towards long-term goals by providing data to react to and reflect on. The numerous examples quoted of students learning new techniques illustrate the former. Student 9's experience of being impressed by a colleague's performance during micro-teaching, which confirmed the kind of teacher personality she wanted to develop (interview 2, 17-3-92), and Student 12's realisation of the difficulties involved in teaching (interview 1, 14-1-92: essay) perhaps represent examples of the latter. Similarly, when Moore suggests (above) that we are trying to show the students what is new to them, it is possible

to consider this a short-term goal, whereas the hope that these methods get incorporated into their teaching repertoire represents a long-term goal.

In the context of the use of videos, it is possible to broadly link short-term goals and observation, and long-term goals and reflection. Strategies that lend themselves to dealing with relatively short-term goals will focus on specifics. Thus tasks such as "What were the various stages of the lesson?" and "What did she do?" draw students' attention to whatever is deemed significant. These could be either raised by the educators themselves or through the worksheets. Often, students will identify specific matters and raise these in class, especially during discussions (Heath, 2-4-92; Diary entry, 27-12-92). In this regard, common procedures are to give the observation task either before or after the viewing. When given before, it may involve a specific task such as "Observe what the teacher does to...", or a problem activity such as "The second pupil will answer incorrectly. What caused this?" One problem with giving the task before the viewing is that it dominates the viewing, in the sense that viewing is directed to the specific task, to the exclusion of much else that is significant (Student 12, interview 1, 14-1-92). But not providing the task before the viewing taxes memory. A second viewing may be ideal, but will consume time. In the long term, it may be possible to reduce viewings (to once) as students develop their abilities to observe. Tasks given after the viewing may be verbal or written, or through worksheets; often they will arise out of discussion.

Reflective discussions are valued most by the students, and represent an ideal way to bridge short- and long-term goals, theory and practice. For example, discussion involving specific pupils' errors can lead to discussion of causes of errors, error analysis and dealing with errors for immediate purposes; at the same time, these issues will probably keep re-surfacing in the long-term either in repeated viewings, future discussions or contexts of actual practice. It is likely that many such issues do not resolve easily (Student 12, interview 2, 27-2-92), but form part of continuing student reflection. While discussions are invaluable, it is also likely that the mere observation of teachers on videos offer opportunities for reflection, and the building of a store of images, knowledge and preferences (as students revealed in interviews and class discussions).

In this context, it is worth noting that a number of options are available with regard to the use of video in teacher education. These include using videos to: focus on, exemplify and intensively work through specific issues and techniques; launch discussions; create awareness; develop specific types of behaviour (such as ways of observing lessons, evaluating, or learning specific procedures); and providing a range of educational experiences that viewers may reflect on. It may be that there is value in both broad strategies, one of intensively working through specific teaching episodes, and the other of providing a range of experiences which are less intensively worked upon.

Daniel (10-9-91) suggests that despite being valuable in bringing the classroom into the teacher education institution, videos and worksheets are similar, and need to be balanced by other activities such as peer teaching, visiting schools, working with teaching materials and experiencing certain activities themselves by becoming 'learners'. This is particularly so, because the use of videos and worksheets cannot expect to appeal to all learners equally.

Moore (30-1-93) points out a serious drawback of materials such as these that do not set out to show model teaching; he asks whether educators should tell students that the lessons are typical, and are to be analysed, but at the same time, "I don't want you to copy the teacher's behaviour because it's not what I think is totally desirable" (30-1-93)? Furthermore, if

> "you were teaching someone to drive or play tennis, would the video clips show people displaying normal or average behaviour, or would you try to show them the ideal to which they could aspire if they were to become experts themselves? For example, if you had a clip of a faulty tennis serve, would it be enough to say in the worksheet, 'How else could the player have served the ball?' (30-1-93)".

Cullen (1991) has suggested that letting students choose what they wish to discuss is more fruitful because it is meaningful and relevant. This may well be the effective strategy in the case of in-service teachers (as in his experience and revealed in Zailena's interview, 26-3-92). The researcher is of the opinion that at pre-service levels, there is need for both types of strategies with a bias towards leader-directed discussion. As the students develop, it is likely that their ability to initiate discussion will increase, and it may be possible to allow more autonomous student discussions later in the overall programme. Early on however, it seems prudent to have the teacher educator initiate discussion on 'essentials', and then allow for issues raised by students. In this context, it has to be pointed out that the constraints on time did not allow for full exploration of long-term strategies such as O'Brien's (1981) E-R-O-T-I model for teacher education, and Wallace's (1991) reflective strategy.

Table 49 reveals student perceptions about the feedback given to them in the course. The highlighting of largest percentages for each aspect is to help form an impression of the nature and quality of the feedback.

In general, on the positive side, a total of 86.1% found feedback helpful 'often' and 'always'. A total of 80.5% similarly thought the feedback clear 'often' and 'always', and 87.1% felt it was relevant 'often' and 'always'. 38.8% felt answers were never ambiguous, and 41.3% never confusing. However, 54.4% felt feedback was sometimes ambiguous. 43.1% felt answers given were often obvious. Fifty four percent also felt that the feedback was sometimes confusing.

Table 49 : B21 - Perceptions about the nature and quality of feedback provided for tasks

21. DID YOU FIND THE ANSWERS GIVEN

	Always	**Often**	**Sometimes**	**Never**
Helpful	42.3%	43.8%	13.2%	0.7%
Clear	32.5%	**48.0%**	18.5%	0.2%
Relevant	37.6%	**49.5%**	12.7%	0.2%
Ambiguous	1.7%	5.1%	**54.4%**	38.8%
Obvious	7.3%	43.1%	42.4%	7.3%
Confusing	1.5%	3.2%	**54.0%**	41.3%

It would probably be fair to conclude that students were satisfied with the quality and nature of feedback given to them during the course. The researcher placed a high priority on doing the best for the students (Diary, 28-1-92) despite the severe restraints of time. This probably contributed to the overall impression revealed by the figures in Table 40.

At the same time, it should be noted that the researcher consciously endeavoured to avoid making 'right and wrong' judgments and providing prescriptions. Definite answers were reserved for the observation tasks where confirmation one way or another was possible. The researcher was aware of Dewey's (1933) advice that teachers have to "...preserve a balance between so little showing and telling as to fail to stimulate reflection and so much as to choke thought" (p. 270). This overall strategy probably contributed to some of the less positive reactions revealed in Table 39. Student 7 was of the opinion that the researcher should give the students the kind of prescriptive answers they want (interview 2, 19-3-92). On the other hand some felt that the researcher's approach was good because it was inductive (Student 5, interview 1, 14-1-92), and students would find answers from within themselves, rather than being told (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92). Overall, most students admitted to finding discussions useful, especially when the researcher or 'senior' students contributed viewpoints.

For Student 3, discussion was the most useful way of learning because, otherwise,

> "...you wouldn't know what the others have done...if it's self-taught...you're just answering on your own...that means you think what you are doing is right...but most important...because others may have other views" (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Discussion was seen as 'brain-storming', as a result of which it

> "comes together...it doesn't mean we are right or wrong...there is no right or wrong answer...it is just a matter of opinion...and new points...and sharing ideas" (Student 4, interview 1, 14-1-92).

Using the materials for self-study purposes would require a high degree of motivation. For Student 3, having had previous experience of self-study courses, she realised that she could never use the materials for purposes of her own self-directed learning, because of a preference for guidance in the form of "verbal comments" (14-1-92).

However, it should be noted that the intricacies of the relationship between all involved in the course also contributed to tensions and constraints on the researcher's contributions. Such strains possibly caused negative perceptions about the researcher, and the conduct of the course (Diary entries: 23-12-91; 22-1-92; 29-1-92; 30-1-92; 31-1-92).

Table 50 : C5 - When materials should be used

5. **In which year do you think these materials should be used?** Tick as many boxes as you wish.

first	second	third	fourth
16.7%	**81.3%**	60.4%	39.6%

The second year of the course was considered to be the best time to use these materials by the majority of the students (Table 50). The students' point of view was that they should have been exposed to the videos before they went out on their first teaching practice, for then they would have had preparation for what to expect and what to do. Given that the students ranked the videos as providing first, good teaching models, and second, exemplification of classroom processes (Table 19), the view that the materials would help before teaching practice is understandable. Furthermore, as seen in Table 17, most students felt that they had learnt about different approaches, ELT methods and awareness of possible problems from the videos, and hence felt that the videos would best serve before teaching practice, in the second year.

One teacher educator's view, however, was that the materials should be used after the students had gained some experience of teaching, particularly because students should have personal uncoloured experience of teaching and the opportunity to try out strategies, given the danger that the teachers and their practices could be taken as models for emulation (Gaudart, 6-2-92).

60.4% felt that the third year was appropriate for use of these materials. This was the view of the course lecturer as well (personal communication while arranging the timing of the research). The fact that the materials were used after the initial teaching practice was valued by some for the fact that it allowed for reflection on practice. The demonstration of practices on video coupled with discussion of theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching methodology made Student 9 realise the shortcomings of what she did during teaching practice. For example, lesson planning was done as a routine to be completed quickly, without consideration of appropriate procedures and pedagogy for specific classes and lesson topic (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Other points

A total of 82.6% of the students felt that they would like more materials of the same sort (Table 51). Fourteen percent were not sure. This suggests that students were, in the main, positive to the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials.

Table 51 : B22 - Personal need for similar materials

22. **Would you like more examples of this sort of materials?**		
Yes **82.6%**	Not sure 14.0%	No 3.6%

With regard to the question of whether students perceived a general need for more of similar materials, a total of 81.3% felt that there was need. 16.7% of the students were not sure (Table 52).

Table 52 : C7 - Perceived general need for similar materials

7. **How much of a need is there for more materials like these?**				
no need	little need	not sure	a need	great need
0.0%	2.1%	16.7%	37.5%	43.8%

Considered in context with Table 46, it seems reasonable to conclude that the pre-service students were generally positively oriented towards the video materials, and felt that there was both a personal and general need to have more such materials.

Table 53 : C2 - Evaluation of the materials package

2. **Compared to other video-based teaching materials** did you find these

poor	satisfactory	don't know	good	very good
0.00%	18.8%	4.2%	**58.3%**	18.8%

While it is conceded that most of the students probably did not have much experience of similar locally produced video materials on ELT education, 58.3% and 18.8% of the students felt that these materials were 'good' and 'very good' respectively compared to other materials that they had seen (Table 53).

A number of weaknesses exist (Daniel, 10-9-91; Moore, 30-1-93). Typing and grammatical errors exist; picture quality in Unit One is not good; a number of 'impossible' questions are asked by the teachers in the video, but no evidence is presented of pupils coping with them and there is not enough background and underpinning theoretical information provided, (Daniel, 10-9-91). For Moore (30-1-93), in a package intended to change behaviour, the segments sometimes provide 'less than desirable' classroom teaching (for example lecturing in Unit Nine, segment 1) and normal teaching most of the time, and hardly enough of teachers modelling desirable teaching behaviours. This lack of good models possibly reinforces the 'status quo'. He feels that some segments could be left out or reduced in length. Further, some of the teaching assumes pupil knowledge of English, and often, the outcome of the teaching is not shown (Moore, 30-1-93).

Despite these weaknesses, Moore concludes that the package as a whole is **excellent**; its strengths are the different areas covered, the technical quality of the filming, the sense of reality and the challenging worksheets. As such, "the overriding impression is that this would be an extremely valuable resource for pre- and in-service training in Malaysia" (30-1-92). Daniel (10-9-91) found that when the materials were used with postgraduate native speaker student teachers at the University of Wales, Bangor, the materials were well received and effective for the trainer's purposes. Furthermore, this compared favourably with British Council materials. The strength of the materials lies in the use of non-native speakers of English, not only in the light of current interest and debate in ELT circles, but also because it provides examples of effective teaching by non-native speakers of English, as well as the possibilities it offers for language and discourse work (10-9-91).

Table 54 : B23 - Aspects perceived not to have been dealt with (during individual lessons)

Category Description	Number of Responses	Percentage of sample	Percentage of responses
Blank/Dash/No comment	384	69.2%	not available
Satisfied / All points dealt with	**71**	**12.8%**	**41.5%**
Need for more techniques / methods relating to topic	17	3.1%	9.9%
Queries about issues arising from video unit / segment	19	3.4%	11.1%
Need to know about / see other aspects of same lesson	8	1.4%	4.7%
Need for more varied contexts (lessons, classes, pupils, teachers)	1	0.2%	0.6%
Problematic situations (such as pupils and content)	34	6.1%	19.9%
Background information	5	0.9%	2.9%
Critical of video/ lesson/course	3	0.5%	1.8%
General reflection / observation / comment / suggestion	6	1.1%	3.5%
Not sure	7	1.3%	4.1%

Note: The last column refers to percentage figures of those who responded, that is, the 171 valid responses out of a possible total of 555.

With regard to aspects that students felt were not dealt with, 69.2% of a total of 555 possible entries were blank (Table 54). Out of 171 replies to question B23, 71 or 41.5% seem to have felt that the videos satisfactorily dealt with most aspects. A significant 19.9% (or 34 responses) felt that not enough was shown of how to deal with problematic situations. Nineteen responses (11.1%) seem to have raised queries that arise from use of the video segments. 9.9% of the responses, however, request even more information with regard to techniques and methods of teaching aspects of English

Typical examples of responses are:

Category Number 2 - need to see techniques to correct written work;
Category Number 3 - is it acceptable to conduct a complete lesson by only questions as shown, how to evaluate pupil responses and how to create a truly communicative situation?;
Category Number 4 - that it would have been valuable to see student output and how the lesson concluded;
Category Number 5 - to see more rural classes, or good pupils speaking freely;
Category Number 6 - how to deal with reluctant and linguistically weak pupils;
Category Number 7 - need to know the ages of pupils and which syllabus the teacher was following;
Category 8 - that there was not enough time to answer questions and that one viewing is not enough;
Category Number 9 - that teachers should provide a model for pupils and wondering if time spent preparing teaching aids is worthwhile.

Question B24 attempts to ascertain what the students found significant about the course and the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials. Out of 341 responses (Table 55), 43.4% indicate being attracted by, or learning not only from **viewing the videos**, but also from opportunities for learning arising out of **the use of the videos** (such as attempting the worksheets or through discussions). 27.3% of responses indicate that the students have learnt either **new ways of teaching** the unit topic, or techniques, methods and activities related to the topic. In some cases, the responses suggest having acquired **new insight** into teaching a the topic. 74 responses (21.7%) indicate being **positive to various aspects of the course** as a whole, often because learning was involved.

Selected examples of comments include:

Category Number 1 - such as how to make listening interesting, how to use resources and new ways of teaching vocabulary;
Category Number 2 - how, for example, a map was used or a teacher got pupils to speak English;
Category Number 3 - researcher's discussion and raising of issues such as 'contextual clues' and having 'back-up' plans;
Category Number 4 - that groupwork is valuable, that pupils are capable of producing good language and should not be taken for granted and that they will use specific techniques learnt in the lesson;
Category Number 5 - that the lesson was boring and wondering whether pupils learnt anything.

Table 55 : B24 - Personal significance for students

24. Please explain what you found useful or significant for yourself.

Category Description	**Number of Responses**	**Percentage of sample**	**Percentage of responses**
Blank/Dash/No comment	214	38.6%	not available
Learnt new way/ techniques/methods/activities/ insight regarding topic	93	16.8%	27.3%
Attracted by/ learnt from specific aspects/issues raised by/perceived through video	**148**	**26.7%**	**43.4%**
Positive to/ learnt from aspects of course (materials, its use, approach, researcher)	22	4.0%	6.5%
General reflection / observation / comment / suggestion	74	13.3%	21.7%
Critical, found little of significance/ value	2	0.4%	0.6%
Not sure	2	0.4%	0.6%

Note: The last column refers to percentage figures of those who responded, that is, the 341 valid responses out of a possible total of 555.

Out of the 77 responses for the question asking for any additional comments (Table 56), the largest number of 38 (49.4%) are **positive reflections or comments**. Sixteen responses (20.8%), however, refer to either **criticism** of the course or **suggestions** for improving it. Eleven responses (14.3%) refer to positive reactions.

Table 56: B25 - Additional comments

25. Any other comments?

Category Description	Number of Responses	Percentage of sample	Percentage of responses
Blank/Dash/No comment	478	86.1%	not available
Positive to materials	8	1.4%	10.4%
Positive to Course / lesson (such as usage of materials and researcher input)	11	2.0%	14.3%
General reflection / observation /comment / suggestion (Positive)	**38**	**6.8%**	**49.4%**
Critical of materials	4	0.7%	5.25%
Critical of Course / Suggestions (usage of materials by researcher, approach)	16	2.9%	20.8%

Note: The last column refers to percentage figures of those who responded, that is, the 77 valid responses out of a possible total of 555.

Selected comments include:

Category Number 1 - that the content of the videos was beneficial, useful and that students would like more materials like these;
Category Number 2 - that the specific lesson was valuable, that the materials were well organised and that issues raised were relevant;
Category Number 3 - such as the student will attempt project work at some stage in her career, that teachers should not be too strict, teaching involves applying different kinds of knowledge, that teaching grammar is difficult and that teachers should not interfere with pupil activities;
Category Number 4 - such as the teaching situation portrayed is ideal and that segments are boring;
Category Number 5 - that the lesson format was monotonous, more need was required to complete tasks and that answers provided by the researcher were not specific enough.

Table 57 : C14 - Aspects perceived not to have been dealt with (during course as a whole)

Category Description	Number of Responses	Percentage of sample	Valid Percent
Blank/Dash/No comment	21	38.2%	not available
Unexpected events, mishaps etc.	3	5.5%	8.8%
Management/ pupil problems (discipline,weak language-ability, mixed ability etc.)	4	7.3%	11.8%
Aspects of ELT (such as speech-stress, rhythm, intonation, reading, grammar etc.	9	16.4%	26.5%
Literary elements (poetry, classics, drama)	3	5.5%	8.8%
Other elements (syllabus, evaluation etc.)	4	7.3%	11.85
Not sure	1	1.8%	2.9%
Satisfied (Course/ materials good, covered everything)	10	18.2%	29.4%

Note: The last column refers to percentage figures of those who responded, that is, the 34 valid responses out of a possible total of 55.

Unlike Table 54, which attempted to find out what the students thought was not dealt with in the various individual lessons, question C14 (Table 57) attempted to seek out students' views on whether they were satisfied with what was covered during the course as a whole. Out of 34 responses to this question, ten (or 29.4%) indicate **satisfaction** with the course and the materials

(Table 57). Nine responses (or 26.5%) suggest that **more could have been done** with regard to specific and other aspects of English language teaching in relation to the topic of the video unit. For example, a topic such as 'how to deal with errors' could have been used to deal with aspects of ELT such as, not only how to correct errors in intonation, but also how to teach correct stress and intonation..

Table 58 attempted to find out what aspects the students found displeasing about the course.

Table 58 : C15 - Aspects perceived unsatisfactory / disturbing / unacceptable (during course as a whole)

Category Description	Number of Responses	Percentage of sample	Percentage of responses
Blank/Dash/No comment	34	61.8%	not available
Aspects of video	7	12.7%	33.3%
Aspects of teachers shown	3	5.5%	14.3%
Worksheet tasks	2	3.6%	9.5%
Researcher's and course approach	2	3.6%	9.5%
Satisfied	7	12.7%	33.3%

Note: The last column refers to percentage figures of those who responded, that is, the 21 valid responses out of a possible 55.

Out of 21 responses (Table 58), while seven responses indicate **satisfaction**, another seven (33.3%) suggest **unhappiness with aspects of the videos** seen. In three instances, **dissatisfaction is with either the personalities or actions** of specific teachers observed.

Selected examples of typical comments are:

Category Number 1 - that teachers and pupils seemed to be aware that they were being recorded, that only partial lessons were shown and that pupils were too well behaved;
Category Number 2 - that specific teachers' approaches were not acceptable and that some teachers did not have good English pronunciation;
Category Number 3 - that some tasks were too difficult, that answers were not found in the tapes

and that they required specialised knowledge;
Category Number 4 - that the approach was predictable and monotonous; and
Category Number 5 - satisfied that there was nothing disturbing, and that the materials were beneficial.

Table 59 : C17 - Additional comments about course as a whole

Category Description	Number of Responses	Percentage of sample	Percentage of responses
Blank / Dash / No comment	39	70.9%	not available
Need for native speaker teachers	1	1.8%	6.3%
Dissatisfaction with approach / video usage	1	1.8%	6.3%
General and reflective comment	4	7.3%	25.0%
Positive to course/ approach / materials	10	18.2%	62.5%

Note: The last column refers to percentage figures of those who responded, that is, the 16 valid responses out of a total possible 55.

In answer to whether the students had views about the whole course, ten of the responses (62.5%) indicate **satisfaction** with, or being **positive** to various aspects of the course as a whole (Table 59).

Selected examples of comments are:

Category Number 2 - that there was not enough time to answer questions or that the approach was monotonous;
Category Number 3 - such as that teachers should provide good models for pupils to follow, that local teachers, and not foreigners are best to learn from;
Category Number 4 - that the approach was good and beneficial, that students learnt a lot, had developed confidence for their coming teaching practice and that the course was better than other courses.

REFLECTION

It will be recalled that one of the aims of this research is to examine reflection among pre-service students. In view of the numerous definitions and interpretations associated with the terms 'reflection' and 'reflective ability', and the difficulty of specifying the exact nature of reflection, the following analysis and discussion is shaped by a number of pertinent questions. The questions are:

1. Do students reflect?
2. What type of students reflect?
3. Does a course using video input have any effect on student reflection, and what is the effect of such reflection?
4. When and why do students reflect?
5. What do students reflect on?
6. What are the problems that can be associated with reflection?
7. What is the students' attitude towards reflection?
8. What is the relationship between video materials and reflection?
9. What is the value of reflection and video materials in the context of English Language Teacher education with regard to methodology?
10. What is the relationship between the course, the researcher and reflection?

It is to be noted that the issues discussed with regard to the 'relevance' factor earlier for print materials are also applicable when considering evidence of reflection.

1. Do students reflect?

One general problem with many Malaysian students, as well as the ones involved in the study is their reluctance, or inability to be deliberative and reflective. Nalliah (26-3-92) argues that what is taught does not go beyond the surface, and very little internalisation occurs. Students

> "do not apply themselves actively...in arguing out or deliberating on an issue...they are very quick to take up what is given...and if you tell them this is the way to do it...they just accept it".

Such an attitude in the case of teachers-to-be is worrying in the sense that students can be misled, or worse, do not develop mental self-reliance. Gaudart (6-2-92) suggests that the fault lies not in the students themselves, but in the system of education at the level of schools. It is not fair to expect deliberation, reflection and deep analytical skills without providing training for these skills

in the first place. Arguing that very little provision for "any kind of thinking" is made in schools, she suggests that "throwing them suddenly into a reflective mode...is plunging them into the deep end" because students have not been taught to think (6-2-92). Such a problem may not be particular to Malaysians, since at pre-service level, it is likely that teacher educators are answering questions that students are not asking. It may well be that pre-service teacher education may have to move from a bias for 'awareness raising' before expecting to develop reflection (Heath, 2-4-92). Hanington suggests that at pre-service levels, it may be that reflection develops from observation. This may require the provision of alternative solutions to problems and issues for students to consider and choose from as part of an overall development of awareness (2-4-92). However, it could perhaps be argued that the development of reflection depends upon a willingness to reflect. Often

> "...when you question them...they are lost...mainly because...whatever is shown ends with that session...they don't really take it away with them and chew upon it and...go deeper into it...so things which are obvious...and they are actually doing it..they cannot label...neither can they talk about it sensibly...in justifying what they do..." (Nalliah, 26-3-92).

The issue may well be one of intensity and degree. It is probable that teacher educators expect a level of knowledge and analytical ability that is normally not likely to exist at pre-service level.

Students, however, see themselves as reflecting, although such reflection may not come up to expectations of teacher educators. For example, it was revealed that the effect of the videos was that students " go back and think about it...and at least...learnt something...it gets us to think about what...are happening in class..." (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92). Students **reflect** on lessons which are interesting, and often the effect of observing different methods is self-questioning and self-criticism for not having conceived the methods for themselves. This process was considered valuable (Group 2 Discussion, 16-3-92). The effect of increased input in terms of methodology is greater awareness and knowledge, so much so that "once something is seen...we reflect...upon it...even when...not teaching" (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92). Furthermore, students admit to a **change** in their thinking and attitudes to teaching. They suggest having developed a more **deliberative** attitude, towards "pros and cons...about techniques of teaching", and a commitment before carrying out a method to "...reflect back...think twice about whether it is good or not" (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92).

It would be fair to conclude that students do reflect on issues. It may be that such reflection may not satisfy teacher educator expectations about the outcomes of reflection. While this may be so, evidence that students reflect should provide encouragement for a number of reasons. First, given a system of schooling that has not helped develop deliberation, it is heartening to see evidence of reflection. Second, it may well be that a focus on the process of reflection may be more beneficial

than the outcomes of reflection, at least at an early stage. So, providing opportunities for reflection (such as through video materials) could eventually produce more deliberative or reflective teachers.

2. What type of students reflect?

It is evident that while many students show signs of reflection, **not all** students are so inclined. Student 1, while conceding that reflective tasks are useful because they make one analyse, think and rationalise, admitted that she was a practical person who did not reflect on what she saw in the video (Interview 2, 23-3-92). Student 4 being married, felt that pressure of time did not allow for too much reflection. Seeing himself as a committed Christian, Student 4 aspired to do the best that he could for his pupils. At the same time, he felt a need to improve himself, and saw his future career, not in teaching, but in law. While conceding the value of reflection, he did not have much time to reflect (interview 1, 14-1-92).

The **majority** of students interviewed seem to have reflected on things which interested them, such as teaching methods, classroom processes or teachers. Such reflection usually occurred at different times and for different lengths of time without any great intensity or consistency. Students 10 and 12, however, saw themselves as **basically reflective** in nature, and reflection as a value to be consciously adhered to (Interviews 2, 27-2-92). Student 10, who reflected on most things, found herself thinking about the videos;

> "I always go back home and think...she did a good job...I kind of get an idea of what she's doing...teaching...everything...I thought to myself...when I go to school...I might try her method of...doing it" (interview 1, 15-1-92).

Student 12 (interview 1, 14-1-92) tended to reflect on things which affected her, and reflecting on videos observed led her to realise the difficulties involved in teaching. She felt that studying at a university necessarily obligated students to reflect, especially when things go wrong (interview 2, 27-2-92). Student 7, similarly, thought that the process of reflection should begin during the course as part of preparation for practice, and not begin later, only when things go wrong (interview 2, 19-3-92).

3. Does a course using video input have any effect on student reflection, and what is the effect of such reflection?

As there really is no definite or foolproof way of specifically examining and confirming the effects of courses on participants, answers to this question are sought in the perceptions of the students

to effects, and any changes that they think occurred following the course. In this context, the researcher was interested in finding out if there are mental changes (such as changed attitudes, viewpoints, understanding, values and knowledge), and any development of skills (such as skills in observation).

For students in Group 1, watching others teach is valuable because it leads to better **understanding**, which in turn leads to better **retention** in memory. Further, the videos helped in the process of **reflection** on specific aspects of teaching, such as different ways of starting lessons and the way in which specific teachers used specific methods. The videos are also useful in **providing ideas** for future use. Students admitted, for example, that they had not been aware of predictive activities for developing listening comprehension, and the variety and ways of using resources; "...you just never thought that such an ordinary thing...suddenly...so many methods of using" (Discussion, 16-3-92). The materials, and the way that they were used led to learning through viewing and discussions, and allowed for the development of **thinking** skills (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92).

Students in Group 2 were similarly positive towards videos, because videos gave **clearer pictures** of classroom reality, and hence contributed to learning, and remembering; although lecturers could try explaining

> "... through the video we can actually know...[if] you want peer-correction...how do you pose the question...self-correction...how do you actually do it..." (Discussion, 16-3-92).

The students felt that one effect of watching the teachers teaching, and subsequent discussion of worksheet tasks was an increase in the **ability to analyse and observe** how lessons are planned, pupil reactions and what steps are used and why (16-3-92).

One important effect of the course using the videos is **relating theory to practice** (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92; Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92). The course showed practical aspects and classroom reality compared to other courses, where

> "...what they taught was theory...nothing else...it was only when we went into LM [Teaching Practice]...that we could see the classrooms...and it was a shock to us" (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92).

Videos helped to give a clear picture of classroom reality, thereby **developing students' confidence** for the next teaching practice (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92; Student 10, interview 2, 27-2-92; Student 7, interview 2, 19-3-92). Apart from gaining greater confidence, the videos also contributed to greater knowledge;

"I feel that now I'm going to class...using methods different from what I used to use...not only that...I was very scared because I never really knew any method of teaching...now I feel I know some techniques...methods to teach" (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92).

Videos also caused **changes** regarding attitudes to teaching; as one student pointed out, "...there is definitely a change in the ways I'm thinking...about different ways of teaching...about pros and cons...about techniques of teaching" (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92). Changes of a personal nature came in various ways. For Student 2, the course developed self-confidence for teaching as well as skills in reflection cumulatively, in that

"at the beginning...it was my own knowledge...my own experience...after that...sort of accumulate everything...put the two together...and you reflect on what you have...bigger...now...like...now we know more methods...so if you want to criticise a certain video...we are able to apply what we saw last time...and together with our knowledge...you put it together" (interview 2, 17-3-92).

She felt that she would now look at lessons as a 'whole', whether skills were integrated or not, whether lesson objectives were achieved or not and the appropriateness of methods used.

The approach using the videos allowed for **self-expression** and communication of views, thereby contributing to the growth of thinking and personal views, rather than the passive acceptance of others' views (Student 3, interview 2, 17-3-92). For her, the videos are valuable because they helped her to remember her personal experiences, which in turn led to deeper **analysis and self-reflection** on experience, on received knowledge and on 'rights and wrongs'. Such self-reflection allowed for changes in her understanding and approach to practice, and to see that simple, yet effective techniques exist for use in language teaching. Compared to the uncertainty of what to look out for when watching a lesson at the beginning of the course, Student 3 felt confident in her newly developed ability to observe how a teacher introduces a topic, elaborates on this and develops the lesson, provides examples, what skills are dealt with and whether the approach is student or teacher centred (interview 2, 17-3-92). Student 4 was clear that he would look at different stages of lessons, pupil reactions and responses and teacher-pupil interactions (interview 2, 18-3-92). For Student 4, the videos created a sense of **increasing choices** at his disposal for teaching. This came about through increased awareness of techniques available and **possibilities for future adaptation**. Observing Unit Twelve (Appendix 11), which deals with projects, had the effect of increasing his awareness of school-children's potential, but at the same time genuinely confused him. This was because he is a practical person and could not understand the purpose of the lesson as conducted by the teacher, given the amount of work and the risks involved in the project (interview 2, 18-3-92).

Student 5 felt that she had changed in her **views on teaching**, and teaching English in particular, which she now sees as the most enjoyable subject to teach. Similar to other students, she now felt confident about teaching. Further, at the first interview, Student 5 claimed that she did not see a need for any lecturer input, and that she could learn on her own by observing videos (15-1-92). By the end of the course, she admitted to the importance of interacting with and receiving a lecturer's input in teacher education on methodology (interview 2, 20-3-92). She felt also that what she would **observe** in lessons had changed since the beginning of the course, so that now she would pay attention to the topic, how the lesson develops, what resources are used, the appropriateness of the lesson, how the teacher delivers the lesson and how the pupils respond (interview 2, 20-3-92).

While Student 6 was not aware of any change, Student 7 reflected that the videos and the course had resulted in a number of changes in her **attitudes**. First, the videos increased her knowledge in that she became aware of how different teachers handled different situations. Second, the videos made her re-examine her past practices, especially past mistakes such as always correcting pupil errors immediately. Third, the videos increased her awareness of methodology, and the need to adjust not only to the environment but the whole teaching-learning process as well. Fourth, she became less "critical of their [teachers'] bad points...because I got a chance to look at so many teachers here...teaching...different teachers...different backgrounds.." (interview 2, 19-3-92). Thus, one effect of observing numerous teachers seems to have been a **reduction in the tendency to criticise, and being overly judgmental**. Perhaps the most lasting effect on Student 7 was to create an awareness that teaching is an adaptive process, that "it is very difficult to say now I'll use this...[rather] it will all happen there and then...in the classroom itself".

Both Students 5 (interview 2, 20-3-92) and 7 (interview 2, 19-3-92) suggested that the process of viewing videos, attempting worksheet tasks, discussing and reflecting led to a process of **internalising**, whereby certain things which appealed to the individuals were learnt. These then **influenced** subsequent practice, because ideas were modified and used during micro-teaching sessions; "I think all of the students...who did micro-teaching...are following more or less the same pattern as the video clips" (Student 7, interview 2, 19-3-92).

Student 8, who is naturally confident about her ability to teach, and had a lot of input on teaching from her teacher parents, felt that she had changed some of her dogmatic convictions about teaching, especially in becoming aware that the future often necessitates change and adjustments. For example, "I may stick to one...rigid method only...I'm comfortable with it...if I feel that my students can adapt to it also...maybe a change would...do good for me and do good for my students also" (interview 2, 17-3-92). Such a realisation was partly the result of seeing a variety of teaching methods. While acknowledging an improved ability to observe lessons, Student 8 nevertheless admitted a need for continued guidance in what to look out for.

Student 9 appeared convinced that lecturers were not necessarily correct in advocating various teaching methods which were not practical, and would not work. She was convinced that a commitment to 'doing the best' for the school-children was the most important requirement for a teacher. However, one effect of the course, and observing the various approaches to teaching was to make her change her view. She now realised that proper techniques and methods can make teaching easier, because, as she explained, proper and systematic approaches are more efficient than her previous haphazard approach. Another effect of watching numerous teachers was to confirm the kind of teachers that she liked, and would like to emulate (interview 2, 17-3-92). With regard to the ability to observe, she felt that it had improved from merely forming rough impressions to observing specifics, particularly teacher behaviour and personality.

In general, it seems that the students were affected in many ways by the course, the materials and the way they were used. More importantly, changes and reflection were considered valuable. This is encouraging, given a system of education that does not develop critical thinking (Gaudart, interview, 6-2-92) and students' reluctance to internalise (Nalliah, interview, 26-3-92).

4. When and why do students reflect?

The likely **cause** of student reflection during the period of research was the **worksheet tasks**, especially **the reflective tasks**. The fact that answering the worksheets was deemed to be part of the course-work made sure that students paid attention to worksheet tasks. Even so, students tended to hand them in late, and in the case of Student 11 (who found her interest in the course waning because of the routine), worksheets were handed in very late (Diary, 21-2-92). It transpired that for many students, pressures of time and work-load meant that worksheet tasks assigned as homework had low priority. The grading of worksheets answers was resented (Student 6, interview 1, 16-1-92), and often, answers were produced without too much thought, or conviction (Student 9, interview 2, 17-3-92; Group 2 Discussion, 16-3-92).

Although reflective tasks in the worksheets tended to cause stress because no answers were available (Student 11, interview 1, 14-1-92), such tasks were considered valuable by almost all students (interviews) because they required thinking. Student 5 felt she reflected a lot ("most of the time") on the videos, particularly **significant aspects** (Interview 2, 20-3-92). Student 11, however, felt that although she saw herself as a reflective person, **interest** and an ability to relate to what is being taught was important for reflection; "I reflect on a lot on things...both...happy...unhappy things...whatever I study...if I can relate to it very well" (interview 1, 14-1-92).

For Student 10, reflection occurred **when things went wrong**;

> "if I don't feel good about it...I think I did something wrong...then I do think about...where have I gone wrong...how should I have done it...things like that..." (interview 1, 15-1-92).

Being reflective in nature, **problems** evoke responses such as

> "...why do they come up in the first place...how can I go about solving it...what are the ways of making sure that it does not happen again" (interview 2, 27-2-92).

Similarly, Student 7 (Interview 2, 19-3-92) reflected when things went wrong, prompting an awareness of what should not have been done on the occasions that things did not go as expected. Reflection in the course was a **selective response** to varied issues, based essentially on **interest**. Interesting video clips triggered reflective attempts to connect her analysis of the lessons seen with theoretical input from lectures (interview 2, 27-2-92). Reflection on aspects viewed in the video tapes (especially teaching methods), which kept recurring in the mind, became increasingly significant as teaching practice approached, so "things that attract my attention...I think about it...how good it is...and how I could use it in my class..." (interview 2, 27-2-92).

Student 11 noticed herself **comparing teachers** when she watched the videos, and learning in the process;

> "...now that teacher was interesting...now this one is a little slow...why is he so slow...you begin to question all that...and..you can know roughly...what the students want...their needs" (interview 1, 14-1-92).

Such comparison was "not on-the-spot...when I'm watching it", but "when I go back and sit down and think about it..." (interview 1, 14-1-92). As in the case of Student 10, for Student 11, reflection was triggered by segments that she was able to **relate to** from personal experience, and when there were teachers that she could **identify with**. **Teacher** personality and behaviour was important, because "...their kind of image...their way of carrying out activities...it keeps on staying...you know..I found them very interesting..." (interview 2, 25-3-92). Such teachers were considered interesting because of "the way they were trying to get the students to respond...make them interested in what they were doing...their enthusiasm and all that..." (interview 2, 25-3-92).

Student 12, similarly, found that the tapes were valuable in encouraging reflection;

> "...it really benefited me a lot..like after viewing certain tapes...you reflect on it...you

think like if you are going to handle a class...such a topic...would you have done the same thing....whether you'll be taking the same approach...the same method...or at the same time seeing whether what the teacher has done...is effective...if it's effective...probably I think I'll try..." (interview 2, 27-2-92).

For student 11, reflection was triggered by the ideas that the videos presented, or awoke in her (interview 2, 27-2-92).

5. What do students reflect on?

Reflection may be looked upon as deliberating over matters seen to be important. When asked to identify what the students saw as being the major challenges facing them in their preparations to become teachers of English, a number of issues were common in the students' essays. The following sample refers to issues identified by the students who were interviewed:

1. A need to develop their own personal skills in the English language (Students 4, 5, 7, 8, 10 and 12);
2. A need to develop knowledge of aspects of the English language (Students 3 and 11);
3. A need to keep up with language teaching developments, especially in English (Students 5 and 9);
4. A need to develop their own teaching skills (Students 3, 4, 7, 10, 11 and 12);
5. A concern for arresting the decline in the standard of English in schools nationally through motivating pupil interest in the language (Students 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10 and 12);
6. Worrying about how to cope with possible contextual constraints (such as poor schools which lack facilities, non-English supportive environments, and weak, non-motivated pupils) (Students 1,5 and 6);
7. How to cater for mixed-ability in English classes, as well as individual pupil needs (Students 1, 3, 5, 6, 7 and 8); and
8. Worrying about expectations about their roles and demands of the profession (Students 2, 4 and 11).

The issues identified above suggest areas that worry the students in terms of their own immediate education and long-term professional development.

If reflection is seen in terms of Dewey's interpretation, then occasions for reflection arise out of 'that which can surprise'. In essence, Dewey's reflection is a **problem-solving** activity in the sense that tentative solutions are posed and tested in the face of problems until a satisfactory solution is found.

Some students, especially those who see themselves as being reflective in a deliberative sense, admit to reflecting on important issues and problems that arise. Student 10 admitted that reflection in her case is an after-an-event occurrence, when things go wrong. Reflection for her is both problem-solving and learning by understanding. Reflection is prompted by 'not feeling good', when she perceives having made a mistake, leading her to ask "where have I gone wrong...how should I have done it...things like that" (interview 1, 15-1-92). Such reflective and **problematic occasions** prompt her to ask questions that seek understanding, and solutions for

> "why do they come up in the first place...why am I facing the problem...and how can I go about solving it...what are the ways of making sure it does not happen again" (interview 2, 27-2-92).

For Student 11, reflection followed and involved not only **happy and unhappy events**, but also "whatever I study...if I can relate to it very well..." (interview 1, 14-1-92). For Student 12, being in a university means one should think and question;

> "you don't just accept things...you think for yourself...you become critical...you rationalise...whatever you have seen...you think and reflect on it" (interview 2, 27-2-92).

With regard to the question of what specifically students reflect on or about, it could be argued that people will reflect on whatever is **relevant, interesting and problematic** for them, especially in an immediate context. Thus, students can be expected to reflect on aspects of their knowledge and experience in the context of the course, depending on what it is that triggers such reflection. For example, Students 10, 11 and 12 reveal that reflection is a result of having personal relevance and value, and could be on anything. Given a possibly large range of areas of reflection, this analysis is limited to reflection arising out of the course, and the use of the video materials in particular.

Even so, it seems evident that students reflect on numerous elements, in terms of their value, interest and relevance, noticed for example in earlier discussion on various factors of design. Such reflection could be on aspects of any of the following: the contexts of teaching; the participants involved; the process of teaching and learning; and the content of teaching. Within these, reflection could involve: trying to understand and learn that which is new or different; evaluating, justifying or judging practices observed; comparing personalities and practices; and selecting that which can be of use to oneself.

For students in Group 1, the videos helped in the process of reflecting on specific aspects of ELT (such as different ways of starting a lesson or a particular teacher's way of using a method), and providing ideas that were considered suitable and relevant to future practice (Discussion, 16-3-

92). For students in Group 2, the videos provided awareness, and helped them reflect on reality, on "what really goes on in the classroom...what actually goes wrong...what are the good things" (Discussion, 16-3-92). The attraction of the materials lay in their practicality, and students in Group 2 reflected on practical techniques (such as peer- and self-correction) in teachers' practices (Discussion,16-3-92). Students in Group 3, however, reflected on the rights and wrongs, and pros and cons of what was viewed, and because

> "we can see the pros and cons...before carrying out the method...you can reflect back...about whether it is good or not" (Discussion, 18-3-92).

These students also found themselves thinking back to the videos, and to specific techniques observed, such as the use of dictionary and how to teach listening comprehension and writing.

For Student 1 (Interview 2, 23-3-92), reflection on the worksheet tasks meant that "you need to really analyse...think...rationalise...why you do this...why the teacher does that..what is the advantage of doing that...". Although she did not reflect specifically on the videos, the course had made her more sensitive to causes ("why questions") for things seen. For Student 2 (interview 2, 17-3-92), on the other hand, the tasks made her reflect on her own past experiences and particularly the practices of her own teachers. In the process of undergoing the course, watching the videos and attempting the worksheet tasks, she learnt about different aspects of ELT such as different methods and approaches, and how to conduct specific lessons and projects. Reflection on practices observed often led to the selection of techniques and adapting (changing) these for use in her micro-teaching session (interview 2, 17-3-92).

Reflection for Student 3 involved analysing things in depth, learning different aspects of language teaching approaches, 'self-reflection' on previous experiences, 'received knowledge' from lecturers and 'rights and wrongs' (interview 2, 17-3-92). For Student 4, on the other hand, the course increased choices available to him (and others) because the videos provided a broad range of techniques to reflect on and internalise. In viewing the tapes, what interested him most was pupil responses and reactions, and their interaction with teachers. In the process, Student 4 became aware of new perspectives, especially with regard to pupils' abilities which exceeded his expectations (interview 2, 18-3-92). Student 5 felt that the videos were good enough to keep reviewing, particularly for the examples of teaching methods. Further, the videos led to the habit of comparing and evaluation of teachers ("whether the teacher is good or bad"), which had one benefit;

> "...in another way...it also helps because when you are evaluating someone...it also reflects on oneself...how would you start to plan...what would you do... and so on..." (interview 2, 20-3-92).

Student 7 (interview 2, 19-3-92) reflected on the process of teaching, individual teachers, and the causes for teachers' abilities and problems, all of which had the effect of making her a more tolerant and less critical person.

The following example illustrates reflection arising out of specific contexts. Student 10, who was enrolled in the Diploma course and felt she had not had sufficient classroom teaching experience, nor knowledge of ELT content, was interested in aspects of ELT. When faced with difficulties in maintaining discipline during her first Teaching Practice, she was acutely interested in management practices. Such interest led to her reflect, especially on how to control the students. She spent much time during her Teaching Practice thinking of "new ways of controlling them...new ways of punishing them...", but found that she could get no help on these matters from the videos, because they did not seem to deal specifically with these (Group 4 Discussion, 21-3-92).

6. What are the problems that can be associated with reflection?

One major problem that Schon (1983, 1987) drew attention to with regard to reflection was the 'Meno' paradox, whereby students are expected to demonstrate expertise that they have not acquired, and cannot acquire without performing it. When applied to teacher education, it refers to the demonstration of competence in student teachers that often comes only after many years of classroom teaching. It is useful to remember that teaching competence can include gaining mastery over theoretical elements such as subject content, pedagogy, psychology, and sociology. It also involves mastery of elements of practice such as broad approaches and specific techniques. In the case of student teachers, it also involves learning about themselves, their fears, weaknesses and strengths. Compared to the relative 'safety' of Schon's example of designing in architecture, classroom teaching is likely to be more stressful, less predictable and more difficult.

In this context, the major issue was whether the students had enough **experience and knowledge** in order to be able to reflect fruitfully. Some students felt that they or their course-mates did not have enough experience to be able to reflect (interviews: Student 6, 19-3-92; Student 9, 17-3-92; Student 10, 15-1-92, 27-2-92). Student 11 pointed out that the lack of exposure to teaching, and experience of teaching, meant "I sometimes have to sit for hours...cracking...how would I carry it out" (interview 2, 25-2-92). While conceding that it was possible to reflect with the experience that one possesses, Student 10 realised that she would have been able to get much more out of the videos and the course after her experience of Teaching Practice (interview 2, 27-2-92).

Other students felt that this was not necessarily the case, and that students in the study did have enough experience of the teaching-learning process. Such experience included their own teaching

practice sessions, their memory of teachers who had taught them and their own schooling (interviews: Student 1, 23-3-92; Student 2, 17-3-92; Student 3, 17-3-92; Student 4, 18-3-92; Student 5, 20-3-92; Student 7, 19-3-92).

In the context of the course, and usage of the materials, a number of problems were referred to. One complaint was that there was not enough time to attempt the tasks, especially the reflective ones (Student 2, interview 2, 17-3-92; Student 6, 19-3-92). Where there was pressure of time, students questioned the need for numerous worksheet tasks, and indicated a preference for fewer questions in total, which could be done (preferably orally) in class (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92). Further, for many of the tasks (especially reflective ones), answers were not to be found in the tapes. Where there were answers in the tapes, these were forgotten if not attempted immediately (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92). Reflection, and reflective tasks are difficult because of the thinking and analysis required (interviews: Student 1, 23-3-92; Student 7, 19-3-92; Student 9, 17-3-92). Where the reflective tasks were found to be difficult, the cause was often lack of knowledge or exposure to the different methods or techniques referred to by the tasks (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92; and interviews: Student 9, 17-3-92; Student 11, 25-3-92). In such cases, lack of exposure to the methods meant that many of the tasks were not valuable, because they did not mean very much (Student 6, interview 2, 19-3-92). Then, there is no real reflection or deliberation. Instead, students experienced a sense of being lost, and put down whatever came to mind (Student 9, Interview 2, 17-3-92). Often, answers were put down, without the necessary belief or conviction in their validity; "we fear that bits might go wrong...so...we dare not attempt it...but we'll put it down in the worksheets...doesn't mean...we'll practise it" (Group 2 Discussion, 16-3-92).

At a more general level, teacher educators point out that problems involved in using these materials and developing student competence through reflection include: the materials being more suitable for in-service teacher education (Gaudart, 6-2-92; Nalliah 26-3-92); the need to build awareness (Hanington, 2-4-92); the need among many Malaysian students and teachers to be told and prescribed solutions (Gaudart, 6-2-92); the general reluctance of students to delve deeply into issues (Nalliah, 26-3-92); the idea that reflection and development is long-term (Heath, 2-4-92); the need for knowledge and experience before reflection is fruitful (Gaudart, 6-2-92); the danger that student reflection on their teachers perpetuates 'teaching as they were taught' (Gaudart, 6-2-92).

7. What is the students' attitude towards reflection?

Perhaps the most significant detail to arise out of the research is the finding that most of the students **value reflection**. For many students the approach using videos was enjoyable and motivating, because it was their first exposure to such an approach. Part of the appeal of the approach lay in the course being perceived as less theoretical (and therefore more practical)

compared to other courses (Group 2 Discussion, 16-3-92). The course was considered to be the only one to allow for reflection on practical aspects of teaching and classroom reality, and so "it's a very good method...we see actually ...what goes on in the school...a clear picture...so it gives us more confidence..." (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92).

It was suggested that the reflective approach **should continue** to be used. Group 1 students felt that

> "this is the way to train...teachers...because it all comes down to the class situation...it is a there and then thing...there is no correct answer to is this the correct method of teaching...this is what you should do...it all comes down to experimenting...and one experiment may not work for another class...so you have to readapt...so teaching will really be a re-adapting process..." (16-3-92).

The approach was valued because of an awareness that there really is no prescription for successful teaching, and that efficiency in teacher education comes from nurturing individual teacher development. Thus, the researcher's attempts to steer clear of prescription, as well as his attempts to encourage thinking, analysis and reflection on video based experiences of ELT methodology were found acceptable. So the approach was appreciated because "...it's inductive...teaching...we'll find the answers in ourselves...not by you telling us" (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92).

Student 6 (interview 2, 19-3-92), who felt that the monotony of the course approach had a 'switch-off' effect on her, admitted, however, that the reflective approach, being a new experience, is valuable, and should, now that it has begun, be continued. For Student 10,

> "because it kind of prepares us ahead...it makes you think...I think that's good...if you don't have such videos...reflective thinking and all..we'll get a shock when we go for teaching practice...have difficulty in adapting...I think it's good that we see videos" (interview 2, 27-2-92).

8. *What is the relationship between video materials and reflection?*

Video materials were seen to present aspects of **practical teaching, and classroom reality** (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92). This was important and useful because of its relevance, compared to courses which were perceived to present only theory. The numerous examples of teaching methodology all helped,

> "because what we see is...so much more...so once something is seen...we reflect upon it...even when you [the researcher] are not teaching" (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92).

Furthermore, observing teaching in the videos and discussions that followed meant

> "we can see the pros and cons...and so...before carrying out the method...you can reflect back...I'll think...about whether it is good or not..." (Group 3 Discussion, 18-3-92).

Viewing videos provided the **stimulus** for thinking, analysis, discussions and learning. In particular, reflective tasks were preferred to observation tasks because one had to think, and discussions allowed for the contribution of one's own views and evaluate ideas; "what are the negative points...what are the positive points...how you can improve it yourself..." (Student 2, interview 2, 17-3-92). Discussion of the worksheet tasks following the viewing saw

> "everyone put in their own opinion...it was both observation and reflection...I ...consider that valuable...because things I don't think about...others will come up with..." (Student 2, interview 2, 17-3-92).

Most of the students felt (during interviews) that the **discussions** following video viewing were the most valuable part of the course, allowing for self-expression, learning new perspectives, and analysis.

The videos were particularly useful in providing **ideas** on many aspects of teaching. Often, such ideas were considered valuable to store and keep for future practice. For example, after viewing Unit Twelve, Student 3 resolved that she would attempt project work with her pupils "at least once" in her future teaching career (interview 2, 17-3-92). However, on occasions, ideas obtained from the videos had immediate value in the sense that they could be reflected upon and modified for use in the micro-teaching sessions of the course; "I think...most of us tried to use whatever we saw...we learnt...in our micro-teaching as well" (Student 8, interview 2, 17-3-92). For example, Student 2 decided to use an exercise involving the description of faces in pictures. However, she decided to modify the nature and purpose of the activity; she cut pictures to form a jig-saw puzzle, so that pupils could perform an activity as a pre-lesson entry activity, as compared to the direct 'use whatever language you have to describe the faces given to you' exercise that the original video lesson presented (interview 2, 17-3-92). Student 5, similarly, modified the use of the Michael Jackson poster by substituting Garfield for her group's micro-teaching presentation (interview 2, 20-3-92).

Student 3's experience with her mathematics course was that many instances and situations were often only vaguely imagined as a result of lecturer explanation. Videos, however, informed through **helping to visualise** such vague pictures (interview 2, 17-3-92). For example, when it came to group-work,

"...before seeing the videos...before listening to your lectures...had very vague ideas about what group-work was all about...when you really see it in practice...you not only see how it is really being done...see what problems you might face...perhaps whether you can really use it..." (Student 8, interview 2, 17-3-92).

She also pointed out that such a process helped **form opinions** about activities and problems, but at the same time, because the activities and methods were seen, they were better remembered. The videos were useful for the reason that often they triggered **memory** of personal experiences, and in the process, allowed for **self-reflection** (interviews: Student 3, 17-3-92; Student 7, 19-3-92; Student 9, 17-3-92). The fact that many of the video lessons were segments, and therefore incomplete, meant that students had to think and **analyse** what was omitted and what would have followed. Such reflection was valued, particularly when it led to self-realisation and **awareness** of past mistakes (Student 9, interview 2, 17-3-92). For Student 3, thinking through issues helped develop **confidence** that she could perform difficult teaching procedures (interview 2, 17-3-92). Student 4, who considered himself an experienced teacher, found that the videos were 'refreshing' in that they provided new **insights**, not only about methods, but also pupils (interview 2, 18-3-92). Most students, like Student 7, admitted that the videos provided useful examples of teacher practices and ELT methodology (interview 2, 19-3-92). Student 7 felt that the videos and the way they had been used allowed for **reflection and changes** to long held views and attitudes (19-3-92).

Examining other people's practices can often lead to **criticism** of aspects of the practices seen. However, the worksheet tasks accompanying the videos also offer opportunities for self-analysis and self-awareness;

"So...I understand now...better...what is my stand...my principles...sometimes you know...when we just read...and teach...kind of don't think back...what is our principle in...teaching a lesson...when you ask us a question to think back...it makes us think..." (Student 10, interview 1, 15-1-92).

Videos help in the process of reflection because interesting segments of teaching are remembered for some time after the viewing, allowing for deliberation over the issues raised;

"when I see the fat teacher teaching...things like that...I always go back home and think...she did a very good job...I might try her method of...doing it" (Student 10, interview 1, 15-1-92).

Such reflection, which occurred when lessons were deemed interesting and valuable, led to **connections** being made between practices observed and input received from lectures, thereby developing skills of analysis (Student 10, interview 2, 27-2-92). Reflective tasks accompanying

the videos were seen as a way of developing professional skills because they **anticipate** problems, and help **prepare** for them;

> "yes it is the same thing like we do in management...they give us hypothetical problem-solving cases...you are not in that situation...but you try to solve it...ahead...it's the same...we watch something on video...we see what are the problems they face...then we kind of try...think of ways to solve it...maybe we can use it later...maybe we can't...but it kind of prepares us...for what we might face later on" (Student 10, interview 2, 27-2-92).

To summarise, in the context of the course, the videos, the worksheet tasks, class discussion and reflection are inter-linked. Students' perceptions as shown above, reveal how the videos provide important stimulus for the process of reflection, and learning.

9. What is the value of reflection and video materials in the context of English Language Teacher education with regard to methodology?

Given that students are generally positive toward reflection, and that the videos seem to have stimulated the process of reflection, it may be useful to consider the value and place of video materials in ELT teacher education in Malaysia.

In order to provide a clearer picture, alternative positions taken by various 'experts' in the context emerging out of the study are summarised here.

They are:

regarding videos in general

- that video as a medium does not lend itself to dealing with the breakdown of discipline, class management and teaching writing (Heath, 2-4-92);
- that videos compensate for lack of personal experience and ideas (Hanington, 2-4-92);
- that videos are valuable because they can show a range of competence and styles catering for the varying appeals of student teachers (Heath, 2-4-92);
- by providing a balance between 'high-fliers' and ordinary teachers, videos allow students to identify the stage that they are at, and 'take-off' (Heath, 2-4-92);
- the strength of video is being able to show examples of success such as quiet teachers achieving, good teachers showing what can be done with indifferent materials and 'workable methods' working (Heath, 2-4-92);
- videos can show expert teacher self-correction (Heath, 2-4-92);
- that videos should be central in teacher education, as point of 'take-off', and to provide variety and rest from lectures (Heath, 2-4-92);

- videos can help encourage desirable teaching behaviour, but at the same time, by showing 'status quo' teaching, videos may reinforce less desirable teaching behaviour (Moore, 30-1-93);

regarding the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials

- that there is a danger that the materials may be seen to provide models of teaching (Nalliah, 26-3-92; Gaudart, 6-2-92; Hanington, 2-4-92; Zamani, 22-3-92);
- that the videos raise issues (Zailena, 26-3-92);
- that many of the lessons are 'run-of-the-mill', better replaced by lessons that 'jerk' and show that which is possible (Gaudart, 6-2-92);
- that the materials represent an advance on many existing practices (Heath, 2-4-92);
- that the utility of the materials is limited to secondary school student teachers (Zamani, 22-3-92);
- that as an 'en-bloc' approach, the materials are time consuming, restrictive and discordant with other priorities (Nalliah, 26-3-92);
- that the materials assume a level of knowledge and experience more suitable for in-service education (Gaudart, 6-2-92; Nalliah, 26-3-92);
- that overall, the "view-react-reflect" approach using videos in the course is a viable alternative to the "talk-demonstrate-do" approach students are accustomed to (Nalliah, Diary Entry, 4-1-92);
- that the videos allow for reflection (Zailena, 26-3-92);
- that developing reflection calls for providing alternatives (Hanington, 2-4-92);
- that the materials do not provide enough alternatives (Gaudart, 6-2-92);
- that the materials are over reflective, and need to be balanced by some 'prescriptions' (Gaudart, 6-2-92);
- that the videos do not address themselves to strategies for coping and providing solutions (Gaudart, 6-2-92);
- that the materials provide a range of locally relevant contexts (such as pupils, teachers and classrooms) (Hanington, 2-4-92);
- that the videos allow for looking into what actually happens in classrooms (Zailena, 26-3-92);
- that the videos allow for the observation of what teachers actually do (Zailena, 26-3-92);
- that the videos help develop confidence (Zailena, 26-3-92);

The range of positions listed above highlights various perspectives that are important in the evaluation of videos in general, and these materials in particular. One initial impetus in the preparation of these materials was the desire to explore Schon's (1983, 1987) alternative to

Technical Rationality which is reflection. Schon proposed that reflection arises out of 'knowing-in-action' and 'reflection-in-action' in the 'indeterminate zones of practice', so being 'coached' by an expert would lead to the development of professional expertise. Such a process would be best conducted in a 'community of practitioners'. It could be argued much of the practices shown in the videos represented such 'zones of practice', both familiar and unfamiliar. While students on the course provided a 'community of learners', the video tapes provide a "community of practitioners" to react to. Schon suggested that through problem-framing and problem-setting, the practitioner is able to see the present problem

> "... as something actually present in his repertoire. To see this site as that is...to the see the unfamiliar, unique situation as both similar to and different from the familiar one..." (Schon 1983, p 138).

This experimental and ongoing process leads to a "web of moves, discovered consequences, implications, appreciations and further moves." (Schon, 1983, p. 131) and a 'reflective conversation' where

> "...the practitioner's efforts to solve the reframed problem yield new discoveries which call for new reflection-in-action. The process spirals through stages of appreciation, action, action and re-appreciation. The unique and uncertain situation comes to be understood through the attempt to change it, and changed through the attempt to understand it" (Schon 1983, p.132).

It may well be that the students efforts to make sense of the numerous issues arising out of the video tapes provide opportunities for such "appreciation, action, action and re-appreciation" (Schon, 1983, p.132), as evidenced, for example, in students' deliberations and efforts to modify techniques observed in the videos. Although the videos probably provide 'secondary' experiences of reality, they nevertheless do provide glimpses of reality which help to build confidence, as this study suggests. It is also likely that the videos build the students' stock of knowledge, in what can be seen as an on-going spiralling process in the development of professional expertise, and in the merging of theory and practice.

It may be useful to make **general evaluation of the course**, in order to ascertain what was achieved. In this context, it is worth noting that the institutional aim of the School of Education is to provide developmental training through reflection,

> "...to make...trainees...be aware of...what is within themselves...their potential...to...discover...reflect on...what is available...",

which then leads to a

> "...process of self-empowerment...and internalisation...[whereby] they come to realise that...they themselves must have the final say..." (Nalliah, interview, 26-3-92).

Nalliah suggests that in the specific context of the course, what was expected was answers to questions such as

> "are they able...to apply theory to practice...have they recognised what actually are the qualities of an effective teacher...are they able to identify what is a successful language lesson..." (26-3-92)

Such course expectations arose in part because the students had been watching the video tapes, performing as teachers themselves, evaluating others and examining themselves. It was also hoped that the students would, through the process of attending the course, develop a set of criteria for their professional careers, and have a ready repertoire of techniques and activities for future use.

Reference has been made to students' (generally positive) reactions to the course and the researcher's contribution. Nalliah suggests that the students showed signs of development towards empowerment. Self-direction

> "comes up in their micro-teaching...[and]at the end of it all..we can see that they have arrived at some position...that there has been some internalisation...although it could be more...the elements of process are there..." (26-3-92).

She was very encouraged by the micro-teaching sessions, because the students had "done a good job...sincerely put in a lot of effort", which while not being perfect, indicated that "they are well on their way" (interview , 26-3-92).

One student was, in attending the course, becoming a student for the third time, having previously undergone training at a teacher training college, as well as a one year Diploma in TESL course at the University of Malaya. Her reactions to the course and its outcomes are probably a fair and valid student assessment of the Malaysian context.

She pointed out that in comparison to the two other courses,

> "my reaction to this whole session has been...thank God...somebody has finally seen the sense...to bridge the gap between...theory and practice...what I've got from the other two...everybody just gives you theory...theory...theory...all the...papers...nobody takes the trouble to bridge theory with the practice" (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92).

The present course was considered by her to present the best of both theory and practice. There was general agreement in the group with her observation that

> "this is the way to train...teachers..I think because...it all comes down to the class situation...it is a there and then thing...it all comes down to experimenting...and one experiment may not work for another class..you have to re-adapt...so teaching will really be a re-adapting process" (Group 1 Discussion, 16-3-92).

Moore (30-1-93) suggests that materials such as this package

> "are of inestimable value in rendering theory practical. It's much better to start with what actually goes on in the classroom, then analyse it, and then move on to more varied, stimulating and enjoyable ways of achieving the same ends".

It may well be that the use of videos increases awareness of reality, possibilities and potential in teaching. Such awareness, given opportunity for analysis through worksheet tasks, interaction with other students and thinking about other viewpoints in the course of discussions, allows for reflection and growth in the process towards professional expertise. Perhaps a case could be made for the systematic use of videos, and other means of stimulating reflection to become more widespread in teacher education courses.

10. What is the relationship between the course, the course teacher and reflection?

Given that the research has been concerned with the effects of the materials on students, another valid question requires an answer. This important question pertains to whether teaching the course using the materials has any effect, especially in terms of reflection, on the course teacher.

Reflection appears to be a natural accompaniment to teaching. It is likely that materials such as these enhance reflection. The following discussion will examine briefly, why reflection took place, what kind of reflection occurred, and what was reflected upon.

The obvious reason for the course teacher's reflection arose out of the habit of keeping a diary.

The process of keeping a diary (for purposes of the research) made the author realise how difficult it is to reflect. Often

> "it appears to be a totally contrived exercise, like suddenly deciding one wants to write a poem there and then..." (Diary entry, 31-1-92, p.37).

Reflective writing was unlike the relatively easier task of merely keeping a record of events and activities. The author sometimes found it difficult to decide what is significant and what is not. Further, it also "seems a pretentious activity...for a person like me, who though given to thinking about things that go wrong, am not necessarily good at verbalising my emotions" (Diary entry, 31-1-92). Reflection was difficult because the author's preferred approach in life was recourse to prayer, rather than dispassionate reflection. It was also difficult to decide on what to reflect on (especially because of the implied wilful selection of topic for reflection), deciding on what is significant and what are the criteria for significance (Diary entry, 31-1-92). Reflection has not been a habitual way of thinking for the author in the way that Dewey proposed, but rather a habit occasioned by things going wrong, involving more a 'brooding introspection' rather than Dewey's 'problem-solving'. The clearest example of such reflection is evidenced by entries recorded on occasions when relationships between all involved in the course underwent stress (Diary entries: 23-12-91; 22-1-92; 29-1-92; 30-1-92; 31-1-92). Thinking back on events, especially when writing in the diary, often led to reflection (for example Diary entries: 30-12-91; 31-12-91; 4-1-92). The process of planning future lessons also involved reflection (Diary entries: 23-12-91; 39-12-91; 3-1-92; 24-1-92).

A number of different types of reflection seem to have occurred. Most frequent was reflection occasioned by thinking back on events, both successful (Diary entry, 23-12-91) and problematic (Diary entries: 29-1-92; 30-1-92; 31-1-92). Such reflection did not necessarily seek solutions to problems, but served to record (Diary entries: 22-1-92, 19-2-92). Reflection also occurred when things went wrong. On such occasions, reflection was attempted to understand the situation (Diary entry, 30-1-92), plan future action (Diary entry, 29-1-92), or seek solutions (Diary entries: 29-12-91; 4-1-92). Reflection occurred, as pointed out above, in planning future lessons (Diary entries: 1-3-92; 23-2-92). Such reflection attempted to take stock of developments and plan appropriate strategies. Reflection of a different sort was evidenced in the course of actual teaching (Diary entry 31-1-92), when tentative assessments were made by the researcher about such matters as the progress of the lesson, student understanding, student interests and the general atmosphere of the lesson. Such reflection often resulted in immediate and unplanned action (Diary entry, 24-2-92). Such reflection may perhaps be compared to Schon's 'reflection-in-action'.

With regard to the question of what was reflected upon, diary entries record a range of topics. At one end was reflection that involved personal matters. One entry relates to the author's reflection following the final interview with Student 12, who had been taught by the author previously. She

revealed students' perceptions about the researcher's character, professional conduct and changes observed by her;

> "You have changed. We used to be relieved every time your class and our speeches were over - even though we learnt most from your course" (Diary entry 27-2-92).

Another topic related to relationships between those involved in the course (Diary entries: 23-12-91; 22-1-92; 29-1-92; 30-1-92; 31-1-92), especially students (Diary entries: 31-12-91; 29-1-92; 16-1-92). Matters pertaining to the research as a whole were also reflected upon (Diary entries 22-12-91; 29-12-91; 12-1-92; 29-1-92). In this context, much of the deliberation, evaluation and reflection involved the package of materials, especially individual video units (most diary entries) and worksheets (Diary entry 4-1-92).

Conclusion

This chapter has examined the findings of the research into issues concerning the design of video-based EL teacher education materials, and its application. In the process, the chapter has highlighted problems as well as strengths.

The strength of the print materials seem to lie in balanced construction which avoids excesses in any direction. Thus, students felt that there was a mixture between the familiar and the unfamiliar, between the obvious and the less obvious, between variety and monotony and between teacher educator-directed and self-directed learning. Similarly, answers to tasks were not always found on the tapes. The strategy of using Pre-Viewing and Post-Viewing tasks to accompany tasks designed for the specific segments appears to have provided tasks found to be acceptable, interesting, useful and moderately difficult. The processes of answering worksheet tasks and discussing the answers are seen to lead to student reflection and learning. Combing the use of worksheets and discussions on video segments seems to have contributed to increased skills of observation, analysis and reflection, leading to increased understanding of theory and confidence to apply these in the contexts of practice. The course and the materials were found to be valuable for bringing about change through reflection and through bridging theory and practice.

The problem with the materials is that they have to cater for different expectations. Often students wish to see problem cases of learning, language or discipline, for which the medium of video in teacher education is perhaps not ideal. Students value the videos for showing expert 'models', but educators worry that such a view is a negative element because it stifles student creativity, maintains the 'status quo' and often produces less than desirable teachers. Paradoxically, while the support materials are valued for being able to develop reflection, the process by which the tasks develop such reflection often calls for reflection on experience which may not be present.

Overall, the design and usage of the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials seem to have found general acceptance, with students suggesting that the materials will be useful in the second and third years of teacher education in Malaysia. Student reactions suggest that more similar materials are needed.

The next chapter will present an integrating over-view of videos in teacher education, and make proposals for teacher education in view of the findings of this research.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

Chapter nine concludes this thesis on research into the pre-service education of English language teachers in Malaysia. The conclusion attempts to knit together the various threads of perspectives, problems, findings and issues related to the conduct of the study. This is done in order to provide an overall coherence, as well as to consider the implications of the findings of the study for teacher education generally, and in Malaysia in particular. This chapter comprises:

1. A reminder of the rationale and aims of the research.
2. Discussion of the 'state of affairs' prior to the conduct of the study with regard to video applications specifically, and teacher education generally.
3. Discussion of the relevance of the findings of the research in the context of the state of affairs with regard to videos and teacher education.
4. Suggestions for future research.
5. Recommendations for teacher education in Malaysia in the context of the implications of the findings of the study.

Rationale for the project

The "Reflections on Classroom Practice" project which began in 1987 in Universiti Sains Malaysia in Penang, Malaysia, was completed in 1991. In its entirety, the project can be conceived of as a study of the factors involved in the design and use of video-based materials for teacher education in Malaysia.

The rationale for the project arose out of a number of perspectives. The first was an awareness that there did not (and still does not) exist any convenient local package of supplementary video materials for English language teacher education in Malaysia. The second was the realisation that there was a need for such materials. The third perspective that influenced the development of the project was the awareness that videos have a significant rôle to play in the development of student teachers. It was realised that such videos would provide data in the form of segments of authentic Malaysian classroom experiences in the context of English language teaching. Furthermore, the videos provide invaluable insight into actual classroom teacher practices. Such insight is different in comparison to the observation of live classroom teaching, and is not meant to substitute live observation. Rather, it presents different, but equally valuable opportunities for viewing and re-viewing classroom experiences. Thus,

student teachers can observe what actually goes on in classrooms, how pupils behave at various times, realise how teachers behave, be aware of different teacher styles and approaches, and be aware of possibilities and problems. In the process, students can reflect on their observations in order that they grow in self-awareness in terms of their likes, dislikes, prejudices, preferences, abilities and knowledge. In this way, student teachers begin the process of gauging their present state of development, and charting the course of their desired future development.

Such a process, it has been argued, fulfils a need in teacher education for the provision of opportunities for safe-experimentation, similar to those provided by other professions (such as working with models in architecture). It is argued that while micro-teaching and peer-teaching provide such safe opportunities for practice, there is, nevertheless, tension and fear created by the 'public' nature of such practices, since they are often performed in front of audiences, and sometimes involve being evaluated. Observing videos of classroom phenomena helps develop awareness, creates confidence, and informs the knowledge bases of the student teachers without creating mental and emotional crises. Such observation works quietly and efficiently to prepare the student teachers privately for the more public aspects of teaching practice. The worksheets that accompany the videos, on the other hand, allow for 'public' (in-class) group and teacher educator-led focus on critical issues pertaining to the process of teaching and learning.

Reference has also been made to the need for reflection in teacher education. It has been suggested that reflection is an ongoing process in a reflective cycle, whereby received and experiential knowledge are brought to bear on practice, and reflection adds to the knowledge bases for future contexts of practice. This reflective cycle develops levels of professional competence. Such reflection, it has been suggested, also allows for replication of the ways in which experts behave in the contexts of practice, particularly when faced by problems. Observing videos allows student teachers to reflect on various aspects of the classroom experience from comparative safety, thereby adding to their stock of experiential and received knowledge.

A number of assumptions went into the design of the materials that comprise the Reflections on Classroom Practices project. These assumptions have ranged from those concerning the need for such materials, to those concerning the design of the materials and the effectiveness of the materials. In this context, the project represents an interest in the investigation of the **effects** of the assumptions underlying the production and use of video-based materials in teacher education, both in a specific context, and in general. This study by the researcher represents such research, with the video tapes providing data, input and stimuli in the specific context of a third year education course at Universiti Sains Malaysia.

At another level, the project has aimed at providing a convenient non-didactic video-based package of supplementary materials of good quality for use by teacher educators involved primarily in the training of English Language pre-service secondary school (pupils 11 years of

age onwards) teachers in Malaysia. In doing so, the project fulfils a need for local teacher education resources. At the time of the research, numerous teacher education colleges in Malaysia had purchased the materials. Others had made enquiries, and a centre was being created to secure renewed funding, deal with further production and distribution of the materials.

Aims of the study

The specific aims of the study are to :

1. Describe

a. the background to, and the development of the Reflections on Classroom Practice project
b. the rationale behind the project
c. the aims of the project and the materials
d. the factors involved in the design of the video component
e. the factors involved in the design of the support materials
f. suggested strategies of usage .

2. Investigate the effectiveness of

a. factors underlying the design of the video materials
b. factors underlying the design of the support materials
c. strategies for exploiting the materials
d. the materials in increasing reflective abilities.

3. Analyse the strengths and weaknesses of

a. the factors underlying the design of the video materials
b. the factors underlying the design of the support materials
c. strategies employed in the exploitation of the materials
d. the materials in increasing reflective abilities.

4. Suggest possible improvements to the

a. factors involved in the design of video materials
b. factors involved in the design of support materials
c. strategies for utilisation of the materials
d. strategies for increasing reflective outcomes.

5. Recommend areas for future research and development in

a. video materials design

b. support materials design
c. teacher education.

Following the discussion of the rationale and aims of the research project, the chapter summarises developments with regard to the use of videos in teacher education in the next section in order to contextualise the study.

Developments in the use of videos in Teacher Education prior to this research

This section integrates significant aspects of issues relevant in the context of this research. An overview of chapter one focuses on developments prior to this research in order that the merits of research findings can be better understood. The developments may be examined separately as those pertaining to the design and use of video materials, as well as developments in teacher education, especially in the process of teacher reflection.

Video

Most educationists do not question the value of videos in teacher education. It is generally recognised that videos can help to: bring classrooms into the training context; show the teaching-learning process; focus on the contexts of learning and teaching; highlight teacher and learner behaviour; introduce techniques, methods and approaches to teaching; show expert teacher actions, especially problem-solving strategies; model required student teacher behaviour; illustrate classroom language, especially 'teacher and learner talk'; identify and classify data pertaining to classroom interaction; establish common understanding of the meanings of the terminology of the disciplines involved in language teaching; develop habits of observation; record student teaching in peer, micro and actual teaching contexts; allow student teachers examine their own teaching performance; evaluate student teacher performance; provide for safe student teacher experimentation and allow for reflection.

However, while it is generally argued that video can and does perform these functions, little research evidence seems to exist to back up many of these claims. It is useful to know if video does help in the ways claimed, whether all or only some benefits occur, under what conditions the benefits occur, how long the benefits last, who are likely to benefit most, and what problems are likely to occur. Furthermore, it is also useful to know what kinds of video are valuable, in what ways they are valuable, whether there are certain features that are important for their effectiveness and in what ways particular strategies are valuable. Unfortunately, not much research evidence seems to exist to authenticate the above.

Research conducted in media studies reveals a number of interesting findings. It has been suggested that strategies of learning are personal to individual learners, and that there is a need to either limit information, or code it in such a way that it becomes easier to assimilate. Furthermore, using more different exemplars is better than training with lesser exemplars, and that in most learning situations, positive examples result in greatest learning. With regard to

the question of ideal length of video segments, the findings of research do not shed much light. It has been found that the amount of aural information retained declined sharply over a half hour transmission, and from this it has been derived that the optimum maximum time for native speakers is six to seven minutes, while for ESL / EFL students, retentive ability may in fact be shorter. Where both aural and visual channels are used in the presentation of information, the visual mode seems to be more dominant. Furthermore, the visual medium is deemed to be ambiguous, partial and open to interpretation, so that there will be differences, between what any two people perceive in the same visual evidence.

Most studies investigating the durability, generalisation and transfer of skills learned in the microteaching laboratory find no superiority of micro teaching over conventional methods where inexperienced student teachers are concerned. One study reported limited degrees of success with skill durability and transfer. Another found microteaching (with video feedback) superior with two out of eleven skills after one year. Long term gains have been claimed for microteaching and transfer over three years. It has been suggested that cueing and focusing are important as compensatory measures when training student teachers to learn skills from modelling materials. The use of expert models has failed with student teachers suggesting that the standard set may have been seen to be either unrealistic or unattainable. Characteristics such as friendliness, self-assuredness and confidence portrayed in models have been valued by adult viewers. One finding (Bandura and Menlove, 1968) suggests that a variety of models is likely to result in greater acceptance and identification with models.

A comparison of a 'high variety modelling film' (a moderate number of exemplars on different topics) and a 'low variety modelling film' (exemplars drawn from one topic) on promoting generalisation and transfer in pre-service teachers found that film variety was a weak variable. The results indicate that adults do not necessarily benefit from the viewing of film mediated models displaying reasonably complex skills. Hence, low variety films may suffice for training contexts due to ease and lower costs of production (Cornford, 1991).

In the matter of the design of video tapes, it is observable in the explication and demonstration of the concepts that there is a change in the way the roles of the presenter and viewer teachers are perceived. From an early position where explication is direct, explicit, formal and almost didactic in tone, and explication and demonstration are seen as two events, explication and demonstration are seen as two stages of one event in later materials, establishing an intrinsic relationship between the two. While the explication maybe direct (in addressing the viewer teacher), and explicit (in explaining the concepts under discussion), the tone is neither formal nor didactic. Originally, explication was seen as the theory, and demonstration was merely an activity at the level of application. A difference, however, is later noted in the rôle of the teacher by an alteration of the relationship between explication and demonstration. Explication by an external authority, and demonstration (suggesting a lower level function) by a teacher which at times goes wrong, is replaced in later materials with explication and demonstration being intrinsically related, and the teacher emerging as a reflective practitioner (Jadeja, 1986).

Where different segments are put together, it has been suggested that a standard system of editing conventions, used often and consistently, has the effect of representing certain kinds of information and functions (Chakravarthy and Wallace, 1989). Further, expert opinion has it that transcripts are almost mandatory features of video packages (Lonergan, 1991).

Strategies of Usage

Where usage is concerned, it is believed that video materials lend themselves to a cycle of observation leading to reflection and then to integration. Alternatively, they may be seen to serve as in the E-R-O-T-I model, which seeks to bring together Experience, Rationale, Observation, Trial and Integration as a natural and coherent cycle in teacher education. Printed materials should, ideally, contribute to the cycle of observation, reflection and integration, through a range of Pre-viewing, while-viewing and post-viewing activities. However, it has been suggested that the use of worksheets implies trainer direction. Therefore, a semi-directed approach, where the trainees themselves decide what they wish to focus upon and discuss is better because such an approach relates more closely to the student teachers' concerns.

In general, video materials are useful in a number of ways in group discussions. First, they can serve to stimulate discussion. Second, they can be the focus of the group activity. Third, they can help in training to observe. Fourth, they can help establish a common set of criteria for the group's subsequent actions. Fifth, they can help establish common criteria for evaluation. Sixth, they can help to focus on and learn the metalanguage of education. In lectures, they can serve to exemplify. Video-taped materials are thus valuable sources for exemplification, observation and evaluation.

Developments in Teacher Education prior to this Research

The central issue in teacher education is developing **teacher expertise**. A review of 'novice-expert' research suggests that experience seems to lead to differences not only in what is perceived, but also in the quantity and quality of what is perceived. Expert teachers are able to demonstrate greater 'if-then' thinking, sensitivity to subtle characteristics of tasks and identification of the important features of a task than novices and postulants (people interested in, but without training or experience in teaching). Expert secondary and mathematics and science teachers demonstrate an ability to plan lessons more quickly and efficiently than novices. A comparison of student teachers' and first year teachers' and experienced teachers' responses to their perceptions of a video tape of a first grade language arts lesson revealed that experienced teachers showed a greater understanding of the connected nature of classroom events, while few differences were found between the student and first year teachers.

Experienced teachers were able to: elaborate more on upon their assessment of lessons; display greater understanding of alternative practices and logical and temporal sequences within lessons; and deeper understanding of the complexity of teaching. Thus, it has been suggested that the value of observing teachers at work is questionable if there is no proper student teacher

preparation for the task. Experts have a richer repertoire for reporting on organising and managing instruction, as well as guiding routines and action strategies for taking over someone else's class. Experts tended to be more interested than novices in signs of pupils working, viewed classroom scenes as "typical" and "untypical". Once the teachers classified a lesson as typical, they were no longer interested in that lesson, but paid attention to that perceived to be atypical. Experienced teachers also had a greater ability to recall significant classroom events, as well as more complex understandings.

Four recurrent themes in one study (Jackson, 1968) with outstanding teachers were immediacy (teachers looked out for immediate and spontaneous signs of how well things were going in class), informality (in their relationships with pupils, and their distrust of formal tests as true measures of teaching ability), autonomy (their dislike of curricular constraints and administrative intrusions), and individuality (seeing individual pupil's progress). The teachers' language and thinking was conceptually simple with an intuitive approach predominating during the "interactive" phase of actual teaching. Another study suggests that teachers do not consider lesson planning as very important. Findings from other studies indicate that the greater proportion of planning time was spent on the content to be taught, followed by instructional processes, and finally by objectives. Teacher planning seems to influence opportunity to learn, class grouping, classroom processes and content coverage. However, once teaching begins, the teachers' plan moves to the background and interactive decision-making becomes more important.

On the other hand, few student teachers have substantive understanding of underlying key principles of their subject, and of pupil diversity with regard to specific contexts. A study (Amarel and Feiman-Nemser's, 1988) showed that student teachers were primarily interested in managing, and feeling at ease in front of pupils. Student teachers were more concerned about gaining practical experience rather than gain knowledge of student learning, or subject knowledge. 'Stronger' novice teachers engaged in more complex planning activities than 'weaker' ones, and generally better anticipated possible problems and solutions. Beginning student teachers believe that they already know quite a lot about teaching, and were already confident that they could deal with problems of teaching in the classrooms, though they were aware that even experienced teachers tend to have problems. Student teachers who coped successfully with classroom problems seemed to have developed cognitive strategies which made it possible for them to understand what was happening in their classrooms. Beginning teachers are more concerned about survival and self-oriented concerns at first, then second, about the teaching situation, before reaching the stage where they worry about pupils. Another study (Wilson et al., 1987) suggests that beginning teachers do worry about how to communicate subject matter knowledge to pupils, and tend to draw on various kinds of knowledge through 'pedagogical reasoning'.

Teachers' practical knowledge may be studied in terms of personal practical knowledge and implicit theories, classroom structures and comprehension, and how knowledge is used to plan and carry out instruction, or in terms of self, mileau of teaching, subject matter, curriculum

development and instruction, in order to reveal the characteristics of teachers' knowledge, rather than what teachers know. Such knowledge is organised according to three levels, namely rules of practice, practical principles and images. Metaphors in teachers' thinking, it is suggested, are a further useful way of finding out how teachers view problems and solutions to these problems, as well as to the types of knowledge that teachers have. Images may be looked upon as a type of knowledge that link past and future into a personally meaningful present experience, revealed quite often in teacher narratives. Ecological studies of teachers' knowledge reveal that successful teachers as managers tend to design (plan) appropriate work systems, communicate these clearly to students, and monitor progress.

Generally, more experienced teachers have a greater range of specialised and personally developed systems of practical knowledge and strategies to cope with classroom complexities, that do not seem to be available for the beginners. Yet one study (Berliner, 1987) shows that greater experience is not a guarantee of greater expertise commensurate with the experience, nor that the lack of experience necessarily means that novices do not have capabilities to develop expertise.

Training

It was found that there was no difference in reflective ability between the control and experimental groups in a programme designed primarily to produce reflective teachers (Wubbels and Korthagen, 1990). Students from the reflective course did have a better relationship with pupils (as perceived by the pupils) than those who had not undergone such a course. No significant difference was found in the teachers' own perceptions of their relationships with pupils. Teachers who had undergone the reflective course seemed to have greater job satisfaction. It is suggested that reflective goals may be unsuccessful with students who are not inclined to reflect, and that future research should examine a possible link between the quality of teachers and their reflective attitude, and the characteristics of courses where there were reflective outcomes. From another course (Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989) it was suggested that evaluation of reflective outcomes may adequately focus on single issues or problems, but evaluation of extended periods of teaching require long term and short term strategies. Furthermore, there are problems in getting students to be open-minded when tutors themselves possess personal values (which may be strongly held), and group compositions change (thereby affecting collaborative enquiry and within group confidence and trust). This goal is also difficult where there is an unequal distribution of power in school experience. Another study (Wildman and Niles, 1987) confirmed that there is a need to develop student teachers' ability to describe and analyse what goes on in classrooms because teachers' understandings were utilitarian and not analytical enough for the development of reflection. The goal of 'reflective practitioner' is viable, but requires strong and reliable support systems (emotional and technical) systems for the students so that there can be insight sharing and collaborative problem solving. It was found through a research-based teacher education course that in order to develop systematic reflection and a disposition to enquiry as "habits of mind", there is a need to act on what students perceive to be relevant. Furthermore, educators have to

be aware of the students' vulnerability in the face of being confronted by new things and situations recurrently.

It has been found (Ross, 1987) that: only 22 percent of the course papers demonstrated the required high level of reflection, but almost all students showed an ability to reflect at a high level, at least part of the time; the level of reflection demonstrated by the students did not change or increase over time; the nature of topics did not influence the students' level of reflection. However, in some aspects, students did demonstrate thinking about issues of central importance. Students' ability to recognise elements of good performance suggests consistency with Schon's (1987) view that the first step in the development of reflective competence is being able to recognise elements of competent performance. It was noted however that future research will have to focus on understanding of students' reflective abilities and the means for evaluating these reflective abilities. Attention will also have to be paid to the development of instructor insight and abilities.

Despite efforts to structure an early field learning experience component, students reportedly (Calderhead, 1988a) underwent qualitatively different types of learning experiences. These ranged from a modelling experience, an accumulation of practical tips, opportunity to reflect critically on one's own and others' practice, opportunity for self discovery and an occasion for strengthening of existing attitudes towards teaching and teachers. What students did value were the variety of lessons, classroom involvement with both teachers and pupils, and the efforts of supervisors and teachers who were supportive. The early field experience also confirmed that there are different student expectations for the experience. While some wanted to observe a variety of practices in order to develop their own style, others wanted guidance and structuring from teachers, while yet others wanted to learn from a trial and error approach.

A study of the effects of field experiences on student primary teachers' professional learning (Calderhead, 1988b) reveals shallow levels of analysis of both their own and supervising teachers' practices. The students learnt about managing children, curriculum materials, classroom procedures and classroom "realities" through their own experiences of difficulty. The students were not oriented to learning from their experiences, and did not know what could be analysed. Significantly, student teachers perceived the whole experience as a kind of 'driving test' which they had to pass by demonstrating their competence through 'model' lessons. Such model lessons were based on their own and cooperating teachers' perceptions of tutor expectations. Further impediments to learning included: confusion over expectations, perceived inconsistencies of college demands, and beliefs that tutors themselves were confused about objectives. Tutor feedback was dismissed because the students could not understand the tutors' more sophisticated interpretations, plus the fact that many of the issues dealt with by tutors had not been noticed by the students, so much so that they believed that the tutors were being unduly fussy. The supervising teacher, rather than the tutor was seen to be more realistic and valuable. The supporting teacher was also valued as a model.

A number of studies (Zeichner and Liston, 1987) on one programme reveal that it achieves some but not all of its goals. It was found that students' perspectives remained essentially unchanged by the time they left, that student teachers' views on pupil-control ideology remained unchanged by the end of the course, and that the orientations of the cooperating teacher had very little effect on the students' views. One PGCE course claims (Furlong et al., 1988) that the habit of reflective awareness had definitely influenced the practices of probationers.

It is admitted that a number of factors work against stated enquiry / reflective programme goals. These include: the view that student teaching is apprenticeship; student teachers' feelings that time spent on reflection is time taken away from the more valuable tasks of learning and demonstrating skills and knowledge; work and time constraints on supervisors; structural constraints on cooperating teachers and university faculty; and the existing dominant view that sees teachers as technicians who should merely implement decisions made elsewhere (Zeichner and Liston, 1987).

The findings of one study (Jackson, 1968) that teachers in fact approach their jobs intuitively raises doubts about the possibility of training reflective teachers, especially at the pre-service level. The possible effectiveness of reflective teachers in the classrooms is questioned, given the disorganised, demanding and unpredictable nature of teaching young children.

Little is known about the types of interpretive frameworks that teachers use, or the kinds of analyses and evaluations that they make (Calderhead, 1987). Student teachers' general quality of reflection tended to be shallow, rarely considering in detail the origins, purposes and contexts of their actions. Even when the students were engaged in experimentation, their reflection was perceived as inadequate. Similar kinds of finding are reported from other courses which aim explicitly to inculcate reflection. Reflection in the general sense of being able to evaluate one's own work may require confidence, competence, knowledge and skills, and may be developed only after basic mastery and a sense of comfort has been achieved.

It is suggested (Korthagen, 1988) that the learning orientation of students is important in order to develop critical ability, and that those with an internal orientation could objectively evaluate their own performances, while those with an external orientation had greater difficulty in doing this, tending instead, to rely on modelling other teachers, and depending on tutors for guidance.

Contexts

Studies of training (Veal et al., 1989) contexts suggest that administrators are vital to the process of reflection, and that successful collaboration requires a pattern of successful work experience.

In a study (Hayes and Ross, 1989) of the impact of two contrasting school contexts on reflection, it was found that a leadership built on being supportive, reflective and trusting encourages reflection. The organisation of the school, the type of resources provided, and time provided for reflection can affect the development of reflection. School environments that support reflection are led by strong supportive administrators, and by those who value teacher decision-making and continuous development. Reflection is more likely to occur if teachers are provided the time for reflection, allowed to dissent and be encouraged to experiment.

The contexts of training often conflict with reflective goals by devaluing the need for analysis, reflection and evaluation of practice and emphasising established achievement criteria to " pass the test" (Calderhead, 1987b, 1989). Attempts to define the goals of teacher education in terms of self-evaluative goals have apparently failed (Zeichner and Liston, 1987), and often cooperating teachers who performed as teacher educators or supervisors (Boothroyd, 1979; Grimmett and Ratzlaff, 1986),and the socialising pressures of the field sites (Seperson and Joyce, 1973) amounted to negative influences. Within two weeks, cooperating teachers became more valued than the student teachers' pedagogical instructors (Richardson-Koehler, 1988). Often, the perceptions and expectations of the student teacher, college supervisor and cooperating teacher have been in conflict, thereby affecting reflective outcomes (Beswick et al.,1980.; Gettone, 1980)

Studies of field experiences reveal that student teachers are frequently involved in only a narrow range of classroom activities over which they have little control. Their interactions with their pupils are brief, usually related to the task at hand, while their teaching is routine, and mechanical, taking the children through prescribed lessons within given periods of time (Tabachnik, 1979). Student teaching tended to be similar in all settings regardless of whether it was university or public school (O'Neal et al., 1986). Several studies consistently indicate (Zeichner, 1981-1982) that field-based experiences contribute to the development of "utilitarian teaching perspectives" where teaching is separated from its ethical and political dimensions, and the technique of teaching becomes an end in itself. Consequently, student teachers accept the practices they observe in field placements as the upper and outer limits of what is possible.

One explanation given for the lack of reflection is based on ideas of teacher development. Thus, at different stages, student teachers are likely to have different concerns, with pragmatic survival an early phase activity, and reflection being a later stage activity. Further, the lack of a reflective stance is an adaptive response and a natural consequence of the fast paced and unpredictable nature of classroom life. It is suggested that three to five years may be normally required before teachers become mature enough to reflect

Strategies

The training programme known as Reflective Teaching, seems to have been effective, with reflection resulting in higher order thinking about teaching (Cruickshank et al., 1981b). There

is, however, the likelihood that the training strategy may have to be modified. Training studies generally suggest that though microteaching is popular, it is not easy to modify the behavioural repertoire of pre-service and inservice teachers to develop the so-called microteaching skills (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990). Microteaching efforts may be enhanced when educators use modelling more suitably, and when it allows learners to see cooperating teachers using particular skills (MacLeod, 1987; Copeland ,1977, 1986). It has been found (Wagner, 1973) that cognitive-discrimination training (in which student teachers learned *when* specific skills were appropriate) had greater effects on classroom performance than microteaching (where students learned *how* to perform the teaching skills). Teaching skills, when learned as concepts without practice, led to an increased use of such skills in classrooms. Such use increased with greater concept mastery (Gliessman et al., 1979) . However, despite all of the above MacLeod (1987) suggests that there are few definite conclusions which can be drawn about the effectiveness of microteaching.

Studies conducted on the use of protocols, suggest that people trained through the use of protocols find the experience pleasurable, and do learn target concepts. However, they are able to show only some of the concepts in their teaching, and they gain greatest benefits when such training includes both concept acquisition and practice (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990). In general, while simulation has been used to recreate real classroom life, usually through visual images, focus on the effectiveness of the strategy has been scant, and claims have to be accepted with caution. Studies report that simulation need not have one to one correspondence with reality in order to allow subjects to be trained to reproduce appropriate behaviour. Students find such simulations believable, and are perceived to have less classroom problems following their training (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1990)

Conferences, which refer to the formal discussions between student teacher and cooperating teacher or college supervisor following student teaching, and usually focusing on an episode of the observed teaching, are not a frequent occurrence, and are usually clustered more at the end of student teaching experience. Student teaching experiences during conferences, seminars and workshops reveal that the students assumed a passive rôle in their interactions with cooperating teacher supervisors, who tended to focus on directions, procedural issues and classroom management rather than reflection and analysis of teaching. Furthermore, conferences involving college supervisors also emphasised teaching techniques and classroom management rather than the stated goals of reflection amongst others (Tabachnik et al.,1979; Richardson-Koehler, 1988). One study suggests that the higher the student teachers' conceptual level, the higher the reflective discourse, implying that the supervisors adjusted their discourse to the students' level (Zeichner and Liston, 1985a).

Seminars, like conferences, tend to encourage an emphasis on mastery of technique and classroom management, rather than theory and reflection (Lanier and Little, 1986). They are not usually issue oriented, and do not facilitate critical thought, analysis, and reflection (Tabachnik et al., 1979). College supervisors claimed to use seminars to raise broader

educational issues, but most focused on concrete teaching incidents (Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1982).

Supervision is a key factor in most teacher preparation programmes, and has been significant for approaches influenced by Schon's (1983, 1987) suggestions on coaching. Supervisors in an enquiry oriented programme tended to implement the programme goals in different ways ranging from technical-instrumental, personal-growth and critical orientations. It was also found that every supervisor utilised aspects of all three orientations in their supervision (Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1983, 1987). When cooperating teachers were prepared for reflective or enquiry-oriented supervision, student teachers seemed less inclined towards conservatism (Zeichner and Liston, 1985b). Educating supervisors seems to have improved the communication between cooperating teachers and student teachers (Painter and Brown, 1979). The use of the clinical supervision model has lead to positive outcomes such as improved supervision, positive self assessment, improved teaching and attitude to teaching and the generation of preferred behaviours (Guyton and McIntyre, 1990). Horizontal evaluation facilitated student teacher analysis and reflection. A reflective teaching supervision model led to more complex analyses of teaching and a more favourable attitude toward teaching.

Reflective teaching

What is evident from a review of literature is that there is no clear agreement as to what exactly reflection is. Recent approaches to reflective teacher education have been influenced by one of the following :

- -Dewey's mental processes and reasoning (whereby education attempts to instil positive values and a mental attitude of responsible problem solving);
- -Schon (whereby teachers' practical knowledge and teacher research becomes the focus of emphasis);
- -technical orientations (emphasising the way problems are solved);
- -interpretive orientations (emphasising exploration and interpretation of contexts and personally held views); and
- -moral orientations.

Moral orientations (Valli, 1990) may include the deliberative (deliberating on questions of right and wrong in order to solve problems), relational (emphasising an ethical ideal of caring), or critical (leading to informed action arising out of ethical, political and moral stances). Calderhead (1987) suggests that it may be possible to categorise reflection according to the content of reflection (for instance societal values, teachers' own values, the goals of education), or prerequisites for reflection (the practicum, qualities for reflection), the goals of reflection (emancipation, the reflective teacher, empowerment), or the processes for achieving reflection (reflection-in-action, the testing of proposed solutions). Tom (1985), for example, argues that it is possible to classify reflection found in enquiry oriented approaches to teacher education according to "arenas of the problematic" (ranging from very narrow ones to those

which are comprehensive and attempt to include ethical, political and contextual elements as problematic), the ontological status of educational phenomena (whether these are seen as natural and lawlike or as more socially constructed), and the models of enquiry adopted (according to the rigour or the goals of the enquiry).

It has been suggested that reflective teaching is not so much a programmatic emphasis as a generic professional disposition. This view best sums up current opinion among educationists (Feiman-Nemser's, 1990). Many of the approaches seem to have been built upon pragmatism, prevailing ideologies, and the moral convictions of proposing individuals and institutions. As a result, approaches have sometimes tried to accommodate numerous educational elements (in the form of course content) as well as aspects of different approaches. Such combinations have included, for example, Dewey's reflection as well as critical reflection (Armaline and Hoover, 1989), Dewey's, Schon's, and Zeichner and Liston's (1987) views (Ross, 1989), or Dewey's reflection and moral as well as critical perspectives (Zeichner and Liston, 1987). This implies that numerous approaches represent preferred moral positions to ideal teacher education based on loosely defined and quite often conflicting positions. The approaches are all united though, by a common lack of empirical findings to support the positions advocated.

While Dewey's views on reflection and enquiry are tacitly embedded in teacher education, Schon's (1983, 1987, 1988) however have drawn substantial criticism out of considerations of problems of school and college administration (time, funds, structures, and leadership), and context (time, workload, classrooms, school realities and problems of supervision). Schon's (1983, 1987, 1988) contribution lies in drawing attention to the fact that experts or professionals have a kind of knowledge built up cumulatively in the contexts of practice and that such development of professional expertise has, somehow, to be addressed and incorporated in the education of teachers.

The review of research findings seems to indicate that most claims for reflection have little empirical basis for optimism. At most, there are indications of partial reflective gains (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Calderhead, 1988b; Ross, 1989; Wubbels and Korthagen, 1990). More significantly, student abilities, including their dispositions toward reflection and existing reflective abilities, seem to exert an influence on further reflective gains (Zeichner and Liston, 1985a; Korthagen, 1988; Wubbels and Korthagen, 1990). In other words, the implication is that if students already have reflective dispositions, reflective courses benefit them most. In view of the findings that student perspectives remain generally unchanged at the end of courses (Tabachnik and Zeichner, 1984) and that students have utilitarian perspectives (Zeichner 1981 /1982; Calderhead, 1988b) especially in view of certification requirements, it seems likely that students will often be able to produce (Calderhead, 1988b) or even "fake" the kind of expected behaviour, including reflective behaviour, in order to merely satisfy tutors. Thus it may well be that even reported positive outcomes ascribed to reflective courses may not give the true picture. A basic issue connected to the above is the problem of how to recognise (Munby and Russell, 1989) and to evaluate (Ross, 1989) reflective ability. In other words, how does one recognise a truly reflective orientation as compared to utilitarian stances adopted by students,

and how does one assign value (in coursework and tests) to the various elements that make up reflection? How will one differentiate between or assess two students if, for example, one student is extremely capable (in the technical sense), while the other is committed to reflection (in whatever orientation) but is perhaps slow to act because of the tendency to deliberate?

Summary of the findings of this research

The findings of this research have to be contextualised against a background of the various perspectives and findings outlined above. The study attempts to bring together two possibly different areas of study, that is, considerations of video materials design and considerations of usage, in the context of attempting to develop student teacher professional expertise through reflection. The discussion that follows will focus on what effects the Reflections on Classroom Practice materials, as designed and used, have on student teachers. In particular, the discussion focuses on student perceptions of the value of the materials, while enumerating the various problems that arise. Before discussing the significance of the findings, a summary of the findings (chapters eight and nine) is presented here.

The students seem to have found the videos mostly interesting and coherent. They also found the teachers, pupils, classrooms and lessons mainly realistic. The aims of the lessons and the teaching methods shown were considered to be mostly clear, mostly familiar, and a mixture of the traditional and the modern. The students considered the lessons shown to be mainly a mixture of the surprising and the expected, and ranging from acceptable to good quality. Picture and sound qualities were similarly found to be acceptable, and the focus satisfactory. While 58.8% felt that they would sometimes follow the approaches shown, 30.1% felt they would often follow the approaches. In general, the length of the videos were found to be just right. When requested to comment freely, there was equal distribution between suggestions for improving the videos, criticism of various aspects of the videos seen, general observations or comments and satisfaction with the materials and their usage.

Where the individual lessons were concerned, tasks were found to be a mixture of the familiar and unfamiliar, about right in difficulty, acceptably clear, balanced with regard to variety and stereo-typing, required a moderate knowledge of specialised knowledge and were valuable for purposes of self-directed learning. The majority view was that answers to some tasks could not be found on the tapes. Pre-Viewing tasks were found to be relevant. 'While-Viewing' tasks required a moderate length of time to answer, and were answered mainly after one viewing. Post-Viewing tasks were found to be mainly relevant, moderately difficult to answer, generally useful, fairly interesting, and fairly dependent on familiarity with specialised knowledge. Answers given to these tasks were found to be mainly helpful, clear, relevant, obvious, and sometimes ambiguous. There was a balance of responses suggesting the answers were 'sometimes' as well as 'never' confusing. Most students felt they would like more similar materials, and almost half felt that there was a great need for similar materials.

Compared to other similar materials, these were considered to be good, and the majority preference was for them to be used in the second and third years. While 41.5% seem to have felt that the videos satisfactorily dealt with most aspects, a significant 19.9% felt that not enough was shown of how to deal with problematic situations. 43.4% seem to indicate being attracted by, or learning from the videos themselves, and also the use of the videos (such as with worksheets or through discussions). 27.3% indicated that the students had learnt either new ways of teaching the unit topic, or techniques, methods and activities related to the topic. In some cases, the responses suggest having acquired new insight into and about teaching the topic, while 21.7% indicated being positive to various aspects of the course as a whole, often because learning was involved. Teachers shown could be identified with most of the time. Students admitted learning about different approaches, ELT methods, awareness of problems, classroom management, and pupil differences (in that order). The materials helped create a lot of interest in ELT, as well as provide much awareness and understanding of ELT methods. Students were also generally positive that the materials helped increase awareness of class conditions, respect for local teachers and understanding of ideas and readings in the course. The materials were seen to provide, in the following rank order, good teaching materials, stimulus for discussion, evidence of classroom processes and materials for analysis.

Asked for additional comments, 49.4% gave positive reflections or comments, 20.8% giving either criticism of the course or suggestions for improving it and 14.3% being generally positive. 29.4% indicated satisfaction with the course and the materials, but 26.5% felt that more could have been done with regard to specific aspects of English language teaching in connection with the specific unit topic. While a third of the students were happy with most aspects of the videos, another third were unhappy with some aspects of the videos seen.

Reflection

The research indicates that students do reflect on issues. It may be that such reflection may not satisfy teacher educator expectations about the outcomes of reflection. While many students show signs of reflection, not all students are so inclined. Some, who saw themselves as being practical, and those who could not find time, did not reflect on the videos. The <u>majority</u> of students interviewed seem to have reflected on things which <u>interested</u> them, such as teaching methods, classroom processes or teachers. Such reflection usually occurred at different times and for different lengths of time without any great intensity or consistency. For those who saw themselves as basically <u>reflective in nature</u>, reflection was a value to be consciously adhered to. They reflected on most things, especially things which affected them, and thought often about the videos.

In general, it seems that the students were affected in many ways by the course, the materials and the way they were used. More importantly, changes and reflection were considered valuable. Videos provided <u>clearer pictures</u> of classroom reality, and hence contributed to learning and better <u>retention</u> in memory. Further, the videos and subsequent discussion helped

develop observation and analysis skills through reflection on specific aspects of teaching, such as different ways of starting lessons and the ways in which specific teachers used specific methods. Videos also provided ideas for future use. The materials, and the way that they were used led to learning through viewing and discussions, and allowed for the development of thinking skills. As a result, whatever appealed was internalised and influenced subsequent practice.

The course and the videos helped to bridge theory and practice. The course showed practical aspects and classroom reality compared to other courses, thereby developing students' confidence for the next teaching practice. Apart from gaining greater confidence, the videos also contributed to greater knowledge. Videos also caused changes regarding attitudes to teaching (such as choice of preferred teaching subject, dogmatic views, the value of knowing about methods and need to adapt), as well as changes in attitude of a personal nature.

The approach allowed for self-expression and expression of views, thereby contributing to the growth of thinking and personal views. The videos were valuable because they helped to remember personal experiences, which in turn led to deep analysis and self-reflection on experience, received knowledge and 'rights and wrongs'. Such self-reflection has allowed for changes in understanding and approaching practice, and to see that simple, yet effective techniques exist for use in language teaching. There was also a perceived improvement in the ability to observe classroom teaching. At the same time, the videos had the effect of increasing choice through awareness of techniques available and possibilities for future adaptation.

The obvious cause of student reflection during the period of research was the worksheet tasks, especially the reflective tasks, although pressures of time and work-load meant that worksheet tasks assigned as homework had low priority. Reflective tasks in the worksheets were considered valuable by almost all students because they required thinking. Students reflected on the videos, particularly significant aspects. Interest, as well as an ability to relate to what was being taught, was important for reflection

Reflection occurred when things went wrong, usually after the event when sitting and thinking about events. Reflection was a selective response to varied stimuli based essentially on interest. Reflection on aspects viewed on the video tapes (especially teaching methods), became increasingly significant as teaching practice approached, and sometimes led to the comparing of teachers. Reflection was triggered by segments a student was able to relate to from personal experience and when there were teachers that could be identified with.

Students reflected on many things, depending on their value, interest and relevance. Such reflection could be on aspects of any of the following: the contexts of teaching; the participants involved; the process of teaching and learning; and the content of teaching. Within these, reflection could involve: trying to understand and learn something which is new or different; evaluating, justifying or judging practices observed; comparing personalities and practices; and selecting a pattern of use to oneself. At a personal level, students were concerned about their

English skills and knowledge, keeping up with language teaching developments, developing their own teaching skills, arresting the decline in the standard of English in schools, coping with possible contextual constraints, catering for mixed-ability in English classes, as well as individual pupil needs.

Students reflected on specific aspects of ELT (such as different ways of starting a lesson or a particular teacher's way of using a method), ideas that were considered suitable and relevant to future practice. The videos provided awareness, and helped students reflect on reality, on practical techniques and on the rights and wrongs, and pros and cons of what was viewed. Students also found themselves thinking back to the videos, and to specific techniques observed. The worksheet tasks and the course made one student more sensitive to causes, and another to reflect on her own past experiences and what her teachers had. Reflection also meant analysing things, learning different aspects of language teaching approaches, 'self-reflection' on previous experiences, on 'received knowledge' from lecturers and on 'rights and wrongs'.

The major problem was whether the students had enough experience and knowledge in order to be able to reflect fruitfully. Some students felt that they did not have enough experience to be able to reflect. Other students, however, felt that this view was not necessarily the case because of their own teaching practice sessions, their memory of teachers who had taught them and their own schooling.

There was not enough time to attempt the tasks, especially the reflective ones. Where there was pressure of time, students questioned the need for numerous worksheet tasks, and indicated a preference for fewer questions in total, which could be completed (preferably orally) in class. Further, for many of the tasks (especially reflective ones), answers were not to be found on the tapes. Where there were answers on the tapes, these were forgotten if not attempted immediately. Reflection, and reflective tasks are difficult because of the discipline of thinking and analysis required, and often because of lack of knowledge or exposure to the different methods or techniques referred to by the tasks. In such cases, lack of exposure to the methods meant that many of the tasks were not valuable, because they did not mean very much. Instead, students experienced a sense of being lost, and put down whatever came to mind, without the necessary belief or conviction in their validity.

At a more general level, teacher educators pointed out that problems involved in using these materials and developing student competence through reflection include: the materials being more suitable for in-service teacher education; the need to build awareness overtime; the expectation among many Malaysian students and teachers to be told and prescribed solutions; the general reluctance of students to delve deeply into issues; the idea that reflection and development is long-term; the need for knowledge and experience before reflection is fruitful; the danger that student reflection on their teaching perpetuates 'teaching as they were taught'.

Perhaps the most significant detail to arise out of the research is the finding that most of the students value reflection. For many students the approach using videos was enjoyable and motivating, because it was their first exposure to such an approach. Part of the appeal of the approach lay in the course being perceived as being less theoretical (and therefore more practical) compared to other courses. The course was considered to be the only one to allow for reflection on practical aspects of teaching and classroom reality, and so was valuable.

It was suggested that the reflective approach was valuable and should continue to be used. The approach was valued because it was inductive and because of an awareness that there really is no prescription for successful teaching, and that efficiency in teacher education comes from nurturing individual teacher development. The researcher's approach was appreciated, because it was seen as preparation for practice.

Video materials were seen to present aspects of practical teaching, and classroom reality, allowed for consideration of pros and cons and stimulated thinking, analysis, discussions and learning. In particular, reflective tasks were preferred to observation tasks thinking was needed, and discussions allowed for the contribution of one's own views and evaluate ideas. Most of the students felt that the discussions following video viewing were the most valuable part of the course, allowing for the learning of new perspectives, self-expression and analysis.

The videos were particularly useful in providing ideas, helping to visualise vague pictures, form opinions and remember. The videos were useful for the reason that often they triggered memory of personal experiences, and in the process, allowed for self-reflection, thinking and analysing and awareness of past mistakes. Thinking through issues helped develop confidence, and provided new insights and self-awareness as a result of deliberation over the issues raised. Reflective tasks accompanying the videos were seen as a way of developing professional skills because they anticipate problems, and help prepare for them.

To summarise, in the context of the course, the videos, the worksheet tasks, class discussion and reflection are inter-linked. Students' perceptions as shown above, reveal how the videos provide important stimulus for the process of reflection, learning and self-development, especially towards professional expertise.

Discussion: The relevance of the findings

Any discussion of research has to be contextualised against a number of basic considerations. These are the input, context, process and output considerations of education that help define the limits of generalisation of this piece of research. Input refers to the people involved, while context includes the time, place and other relevant details. Process refers not only to the educational materials used, but also the techniques, methods and approach used to develop the students during the course. Changes in any of the three elements can affect the output. It is therefore worth remembering that the findings of this research represent output in a specific context.

The input here comprised third year undergraduate as well as post-graduate students at Universiti Sains Malaysia being taught by two people, one being the course lecturer, and the other being the researcher (see chapter six). The research took place between December 1991 and April 1992 in the School of Education audio-visual room usually. Relationships and rôles were hierarchical with the course lecturer being in charge overall, assisted by the researcher, who was dependent on approval from the lecturer for research arrangements. Once the conduct of the research was approved, the lecturer sat in on classes and did not interfere with the conduct of individual lessons. Students acknowledged the authority of the lecturer and researcher, and the intricacies of the relationships meant that various components of the course handled by the lecturer and the researcher were kept separate. The relationships were amicable and satisfactory despite being subjected to stresses and tensions that usually arise as courses develop, such as pressures of time and workload. The student teachers were representative of those who enrol in Malaysian universities, and included a number with teaching experience. They were generally committed to becoming good teachers, and previous to this, had little experience of a video-based approach. They were enthusiastic about the course, especially at the beginning. The room in which classes were conducted allowed for the viewing of tapes, pair work and lecturing. Group work required some manipulation of furniture, and as such was kept minimal. The greatest constraint was shortage of time, and as the course progressed, heavy workloads as well as routine of the approach seemed to increase stress. Contact between the researcher and the students was limited to two hours per week except by appointment for interviews and when students came to hand in assignments.

Where the processes involved in the course are concerned, it would be fair to say that the students had a number of different experiences during the semester. They usually spent one and a half hours working with the videos followed by a half hour of lectures by the course lecturer. Micro-teaching sessions were scheduled from the second half of the semester onwards, and course assignments involved completing the worksheets and completing one essay. The novelty of the approach using the videos was the main element in their experience of the course, involving an in-class **'view-react-reflect'** approach, which was different to the **'talk-demonstrate-do'** approach that they were accustomed to. More importantly, the discussions provided opportunities to focus on what the students knew (both 'received' and 'experiential') as well as what they observed (i.e. the practices on tape). Such a focus and the exchange of views in discussions was valued, and provided stimuli for reflection.

In general, the findings suggest that design decisions made at the beginning of the project were satisfactory. The **technical** decisions related to those concerning the quality of the picture and sound in the video tapes, the focus of the camera, the ideal length of video segments and the way in which different parts of the same lesson as well as different lessons were linked. Student responses reveal satisfaction with the tapes which were produced to almost broadcast quality. It would presumably be possible to look upon this kind of quality as a prerequisite for courses structured around usage of videos. Lesser quality may be more acceptable, and

perhaps be equally effective in circumstances of occasional usage. With regard to focus, the basic strategy in the editing was to favour a slight bias towards the teachers, given that the package aimed at focusing on teacher methodological strategies. Viewers seem to have accepted such a bias in focus. The student teachers also seemed to find acceptable the lengths of the various video segments shown, although a few segments were considered a little too long.

It is, however, in the area of segment and unit linkage that the materials may be considered to have broken new ground with regard to explication and demonstration. While early materials seemed to have a behaviourist approach, with demonstration and explication being expert-driven, later materials moved away from these to a more cognitive psychological position, and having a participant teacher demonstrator, who is seen as a reflective practitioner rather than a didactic expert. In this case, explication and demonstration are seen to be intrinsically related aspects of the same event (Jadeja, 1986).

The materials in the research package move away from the concepts of on-screen explication and demonstration. Rather than have demonstrations of desired teacher behaviour and theoretical explication of these either by experts or the performing teachers, materials in the Reflections on Classroom Practice project change the perspective to one of **viewing practising teacher behaviour**, with **explication arising from outside** of the tapes. As such, there are no narrators or experts analysing, discussing or recommending practice derived from theory. Neither are there reflective practitioners taking the viewers through lesson aims, problems and solutions. Instead, the package provides a collection of varied practices by different teachers. Theoretical elements arise, if attended to, from the supporting print materials in the Pre-Viewing, While-Viewing and Post-Viewing activities. No specific stated aim exists of changing student teacher behaviour towards specified and desired ends in these materials. Rather, change is hoped for in the long term, arising out of reflection on actual teacher practices and on oneself, rather than through focused prescription. While the results of the research do not focus specifically on this lack of explication and expert-demonstration, they do indicate overall satisfaction with the approach which focuses on actual teacher practices.

It could be argued that what these materials do is to extend the way video materials have been developed and used in order that student teachers better relate theory and practice. Such learning becomes less obvious, less explicit and less rigid. Instead, what the package does is to relinquish control and prescription, and to free learning outcomes into the inclinations, needs and experiences of participants in the contexts of learning. As such, learning becomes a voluntary activity at both individual or group levels, and thereby **invites the viewers to become reflective practitioners**. Student responses suggest numerous benefits arising from the video-based activities, particularly where reflection is concerned. These results seem to recommend the approach taken to video design and usage as one possible way of developing habits of observation and reflection in student teachers in the course of building their professional expertise.

With regard to the **content** of the video package, major decisions related to providing authentic English language lessons in Malaysian classrooms. Authenticity in this case related to aspects of the teachers, pupils, classrooms and the lessons. In the process, the package explores, focuses and highlights aspects of English Language Teaching methodology through: the selective focus of the camera with a bias to teachers, classifying lesson segments under methodological unit titles and the accompanying print materials. Student responses overall indicate satisfaction with the authenticity of the content of the various segments. The fact that most of the units were found to be interesting, relevant and valuable implies that authenticity is possibly one condition for viewer receptivity of the content. The previous chapter has discussed in detail the numerous benefits students felt that the materials and their usage provided, especially with regard to reflection, and with regard to linking theory and practice. It is significant that most students felt they would like more similar materials, although many felt that not enough was shown of how to deal with problematic situations.

Related to the issue of the content is the way the package is utilised. It is perhaps significant that the results obtained in this research represent the first trial of the video materials in a straight 'unit-by-unit-from-beginning-to-end' approach without variation, which often attempted to complete most individual tasks within units. It is likely that the restrictive and monotonous nature of the approach will negatively affect student teacher responses to the materials and the course. In this regard, the generally positive reactions seem to advocate increased usage of similar videos in less restrictive fashion, especially in the hands of experienced and enthusiastic teacher educators. While reactions to the design of the support materials have been generally positive, it will probably be useful and interesting to explore cycles other than the **'observe-reflect-integrate'** emphasis in the accompanying worksheet tasks. Other avenues for similar investigation may include, for example, selective usage for specific purposes, O'Brien's (1981) model which seeks to bring together Experience, Rationale, Observation, Trial and Integration as a natural and coherent cycle, as well as the five levels of reflection reflected in cycles of action, observation, analysis, evaluation and planning proposed by Griffiths and Tann (1992). In so doing, future studies will add to the contributions of this research to the areas of need identified by O'Brien (1986) (see chapter one) with regard to the usage of video.

Perhaps the most significant detail to arise out of the research is the finding that most of the students value **reflection**. While many students show signs of reflection on the contexts of teaching, the participants involved, the process of teaching and learning and the content of teaching, not all students are so inclined. Reflection involves trying to understand and learn that which is new or different, evaluating, justifying or judging practices observed, comparing personalities and practices, and selecting what can be of use to oneself. Part of the appeal of the approach lay in the course being perceived as being less theoretical (and therefore more practical) compared to other courses. The videos provided awareness, and helped them reflect on reality, on practical techniques and on the rights and wrongs, and pros and cons of what was viewed. The videos were useful for the reason that often they triggered memory of personal experiences, and in the process, allowed for self-reflection, thinking and analysing

and becoming aware of past mistakes. Thinking through issues helped develop confidence, and provided new insights and self-awareness as a result of deliberation over the issues raised. Reflective tasks accompanying the videos were seen as a way of developing professional skills because they anticipate problems, and help prepare for them.

It seems the case that where television and video materials of good quality are available, students come to expect a high standard of quality. However, it also seems likely that students will tolerate less than professional quality for short spells of time, especially if the materials fulfil a need. Student responses seem to suggest that the important element is the content of the videos. If the content is interesting, varied, informative and relevant, student teachers are favourably disposed, and will presumably tolerate some loss of quality.

This research suggests that there is a **need** for students to **observe others teaching**. The benefits arising out of the observation of teaching have already been referred to above. In many ways, the process of observation of teaching seems to mirror and support claims made for its value by enthusiasts (Hook, 1981; Murphy O'Dwyer, 1985; Fanselow, 1990; Gebhard et al., 1990). At the same time, observation represents one of the many activities and procedures considered important in the overall education of student teachers (Day, 1990; Ellis, 1990; Wright, 1990). It is argued and perhaps affirmed that observation represents one of the vital awareness-raising activities, which together with experiential activities, encourages complete teacher education (Ellis, 1990). The observation of other teachers' lessons also provides opportunities for self-learning, and understanding 'action systems' (Day, 1990). The responses of many students confirm positive reactions to the videos. These responses suggest that the videos **bridge the gulf between theory and practice** in ways which perhaps overcome the 'top-down' limitations in pre-service teacher education courses (Wright, 1990), although Cullen (1991) would prefer students to decide their own topics of interest and relevance for discussion and analysis.

Suggestions for further research

The findings of this study suggest a number of possibilities for future research. They include possibilities for research into the major areas of content, design, usage strategies and outcomes. With regard to the content, further explorations could include examining reactions to: semi-authentic teaching episodes; a mix of native and non-native speaker teachers; a larger range of topics taught by a few teachers; fewer topics with a greater range of teachers; prescriptive local teacher videos; varying video camera foci on learners and teachers; examples of lessons going wrong; expert self-correction; dealing with pupil problems of language weakness, lack of motivation and disruptive behaviour. With regard to design, the following issues merit studying: varying segment lengths; varying levels of voice and picture quality; varieties of linkage, exposition and explication; and varying levels of contextual information. With regard to usage, cyclical models discussed above are obvious areas for investigation. Further areas include experimenting with a larger and more focused range, as well as more open-ended tasks, and evaluating discussions arising out of student teacher interests. Where

outcomes are concerned, further research is required to map types of reflective outcomes, length of gains, the exact nature of reflection, strategies that aid reflection, the quality of reflection and its relationship with language.

Recommendations for Teacher Education in Malaysia

The following recommendations arise out of the positive outcomes of this research, and are made as suggestions for ongoing implementation, refinement and modifications from experience and reflection. In essence, they relate back to an old debate, that of finding the right balance between theory and practice, given that the rationale for this research lay in exploring reflection as an alternative model to the generally prevalent applied science model.

Student responses seem to confirm that the preferred approach in most courses, and particularly teacher education, was more in the mould of the applied science model rather than the reflective model. Courses were judged to be much too theoretical, and comprised an essentially 'teacher-centred' lecture approach. The positive response to discussions in this course, and the value attached to opportunities for self-expression imply the lack of such opportunities in other courses in the Science University of Malaysia. Students felt that the course was important in the sense of being more practice and thinking-oriented. In comparison to other courses, this one was judged to have shown classroom reality, made students reflect, and in the process, made them more confident of facing classroom situations. Similarly, the use of videos to show examples of classroom reality was greeted with enthusiasm, and considered to be a new experience for most students. While the novelty of watching classroom reality through video may explain in part, it cannot wholly account for the generally favourable reaction to the materials and the course. There must be some intrinsic merit to both. Perhaps in view of the avowed inclination of the School of Education to lean towards reflection and student development through self-empowerment, greater emphasis could be placed on discussion, self-expression and classroom observation as mainstream strategies.

It would seem that there could be improvement as teaching staff re-examine and gain consensus about choice between: a linear or cyclical course; being teacher or learner-centred; being product or process-orientated, aimed at training or educating; and deciding between a technical or reflective philosophy. Such re-examination of present courses needs to include specific content, materials, types and instructional approaches to the courses. In the process of re-examination, and if there is affirmation of a desire towards reflective outcomes, there will need to be common understanding of the requirements for developing such reflective abilities, and student self-empowerment. At a general level, it does seem that there could be an overall increase in opportunities for student discussion, observation and reflection. The researcher's feeling is that greater attention could be paid to individual student teacher problems, preferences, knowledge and values. Perhaps greater attention could be paid to staff teacher-centred research into student personal theories as gateways to possible change and growth. More important, this research has identified the importance that students attach to examining the various contexts of practice, and their belief that there is an over-emphasis on theory. There

should therefore be a re-examination of the theory-practice balance in the context of course philosophy, goals, aims, and the time and resources available. However, these will have to consider student needs (such as values, teaching preferences, assumptions and reasons for choosing teaching as a profession). Even so, an increase in opportunities for observing a variety of teachers of varying experiences and abilities, as well as practising different techniques and methods of teaching is likely to satisfy student needs and enhance their professional preparation.

And finally, it needs to be remembered that good research, like a candle flame, provides illumination in areas of darkness. As the strength and size of the flame increases, the area of darkness illuminated increases. So too with valuable research. The stronger it is, the more light it sheds...

And yet, as the flame and the illumination increases, so too does the peripheral area of darkness, and not knowing. Good research in providing more answers, also raises many more areas needing investigation. As the flame of understanding grows, so too does awareness of the limits of illumination. Research and reflection are continuously needed to lighten our darkness.

APPENDICES

AND

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. INDIVIDUAL LESSON QUESTIONNAIRE VIDEO COMPONENT

PLEASE TICK ONE BOX ON EACH AND EVERY LINE..

1. **Video lesson**	very uninteresting ❑	uninteresting ❑	mixture ❑	interesting ❑	very interesting ❑
2. **Video lesson**	incoherent ❑	mostly incoherent ❑	partly coherent ❑	mostly coherent ❑	very coherent ❑
3. **Video lesson**	realistic ❑	little realistic ❑	mixture ❑	mostly unrealistic ❑	unrealistic ❑
4. **Type of Pupils (age, level, background)**	unclear ❑	mostly unclear ❑	partly clear ❑	mostly clear ❑	clear ❑
5. **Classroom facilities**	realistic ❑	mostly realistic ❑	mixture ❑	mostly unrealistic ❑	unrealistic ❑
6. **Pupils**	non-typical ❑	mostly non-typical ❑	mixture ❑	mostly typical ❑	very typical ❑
7. **Camera focus**	very good ❑	good ❑	satisfactory ❑	poor ❑	very poor ❑
8. **Teacher**	non-typical ❑	mostly non-typical ❑	mixture ❑	mostly typical ❑	very typical ❑
9. **Aim of lesson**	not at all clear ❑	mostly not clear ❑	partly clear ❑	mostly clear ❑	very clear ❑
10. **Teaching method**	very clear ❑	mostly clear ❑	partly clear ❑	mostly not clear ❑	not at all clear ❑

11. **Teaching method / approach**	very unfamiliar ❑	mostly unfamiliar ❑	mixture ❑	mostly familiar ❑	very familiar ❑
12. **Teaching method / approach**	very modern ❑	modern ❑	mixture ❑	traditional ❑	very traditional ❑
13. **Lesson**	completely surprising ❑	mostly surprising ❑	mixed ❑	mostly as expected ❑	exactly as expected ❑
14. **Lesson**	very poor ❑	poor ❑	acceptable ❑	good ❑	very good ❑
15. **Approach**	I'll always follow ❑	I'll often follow ❑	I'll sometimes follow ❑	I'll rarely follow ❑	I'll never follow ❑
16. **Video length**	too short ❑	a little too short ❑	just right ❑	a little too long ❑	too long ❑
17. **Picture quality**	very good ❑	good ❑	acceptable ❑	poor ❑	very poor ❑
18. **Sound quality**	very poor ❑	poor ❑	acceptable ❑	good ❑	very good ❑

19. Any other comments :

Please tick and fill in:

University UM ❑ USM❑ UKM ❑ UPM❑ .

Year / Level 1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4 ❑

Group ....

B. INDIVIDUAL LESSON QUESTIONNAIRE PRINTED COMPONENT

PLEASE TICK ONE BOX IN EACH AND EVERY LINE.

1. **Tasks**	too difficult ❑	a little difficult ❑	about right ❑	a little easy ❑	too easy ❑
2. **Tasks**	unfamiliar ❑	a little unfamiliar ❑	mixture ❑	a little familiar ❑	familiar ❑
3. **Task instructions**	confusing ❑	a little confusing ❑	acceptable ❑	mostly clear ❑	very clear ❑
4. **Tasks**	varied ❑	a little varied ❑	mixed ❑	a little stereo-typed ❑	stereo-typed ❑
5. **Pre-Viewing Tasks**	irrelevant ❑	a little irrelevant ❑	neither irrelevant nor relevant ❑	a little relevant ❑	relevant ❑
6. **Time needed to do the 'While-Viewing' Tasks**	very little ❑	little ❑	moderate length ❑	quite a lot ❑	a lot / considerable ❑
7. **To answer- 'While-Viewing' tasks**	did not view tape ❑	viewed part of tape ❑	viewed it all once ❑	viewed it twice ❑	viewed it many times ❑
8. **Tasks need Specialised knowledge**	very much ❑	a lot ❑	moderate amount ❑	very little ❑	none ❑
9. **Significant points dealt with**	all ❑	most ❑	some ❑	little ❑	none ❑
10. **Lesson title**	unsuitable ❑	mostly unsuitable ❑	acceptable ❑	mostly apt ❑	apt ❑

11. **For self- study**	very good	good	average	poor	very poor
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

12. **For a taught lesson**	unaccept- able	a little unacceptable	mixture	a little acceptable	very acceptable
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

13. **Answers found in tape for**	all the tasks	most tasks	some tasks	very few	none
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

THE POST-VIEWING TASKS

16. **Relevant**	all	almost all	mostly	a few	none
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

17. **Difficulty level**	very easy	easy	moderate	high	very high
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

18. **Useful**	very useful	useful	fairly useful	not very useful	not at all useful
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

19. **Interesting**	very boring	boring	fair	interesting	very interesting
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

20. **Dependence on specialised knowledge**	totally	very much	fairly	very little	not at all
	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

21. DID YOU FIND THE ANSWERS GIVEN

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Helpful	❑	❑	❑	❑
Clear	❑	❑	❑	❑
Relevant	❑	❑	❑	❑
Ambiguous	❑	❑	❑	❑
Obvious	❑	❑	❑	❑
Confusing	❑	❑	❑	❑

22. Would you like more examples of this sort of materials?

Yes ❑ Not sure ❑ No ❑

23. Were there any significant points not dealt with ? Please explain:

----

24. Please explain what you found useful or new or significant for yourself.

----

25. Any other comments ?

Please tick and fill in:

University UM ❑ USM❑ UKM ❑ UPM❑ .

Year / Level 1❑ 2❑ 3❑ 4 ❑

Group ....

C. OVERALL QUESTIONNAIRE(Summative) **APPENDIX 3**

1.Rank in order what you think would be the best uses of the video segments.As

a.Library resource ❑ d.Evidence of classroom processes ❑

b.Material for analysis ❑ e.Stimulus for discussion ❑

c.Good teaching models ❑ f.Any other........................ ❑

2.Compared to other video-based teaching materials did you find these

poor	satisfactory	don't know	good	very good
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

3. As far as teaching methodology is concerned, did you learn

nothing at all	very little	a fair amount	much	very much
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

4. Could you identify with the teachers

at all times	most times	sometimes	occasionally	never
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

5. In which year do you think these materials should be used? Tick as many boxes as you wish.

first	second	third	fourth
❑	❑	❑	❑

6. Compare the ideas and concepts in these materials compared with the rest of your university courses. Are they

very different	different	similar	very similar
❑	❑	❑	❑

7. How much of a need is there for more materials like these?

no need	little need	not sure	a need	great need
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

8. Teacher blunders and errors were not shown. Do you find this

unacceptable	partly unacceptable	not sure	partly acceptable	acceptable
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

9. FOR YOU, DID WORKING WITH THESE MATERIALS INCREASE

	VERY MUCH	QUITE A LOT	A LITTLE	NOT AT ALL
a. **Interest in ELT**	❑	❑	❑	❑
b. **Awareness of ELT methods**	❑	❑	❑	❑
c. **Understanding of ELT methods**	❑	❑	❑	❑
d. **Awareness of class conditions**	❑	❑	❑	❑
e. **Understanding of course readings**	❑	❑	❑	❑
f. **Understanding of ideas conveyed in lectures**	❑	❑	❑	❑
g. **Respect for local teachers**	❑	❑	❑	❑

10. WHAT DO YOU THINK YOU LEARNT FROM THESE MATERIALS ?
Tick as many or as few of the boxes.

a. Knowledge of ELT methods ❑
b. Classroom management ❑
c. Examples of teacher personality ❑
d. Examples of different approaches ❑
e. Awareness of possibilities for adaptation ❑
f. Confidence in your own abilities ❑
g. Need for adaptation ❑
h. Awareness of pupil differences ❑
i. Awareness of possible problems ❑
j. Evidence of the standard of English in schools ❑

11. HOW EFFECTIVE OR INEFFECTIVE WERE THE FOLLOWING UNITS ?
Tick as many as you wish.

	Effective	A little effective	A little ineffective	Ineffective
a. Getting Started	❑	❑	❑	❑
b. Using Resources	❑	❑	❑	❑
c. Using Questions	❑	❑	❑	❑
d. Working With Groups	❑	❑	❑	❑
e. Getting Pupils to Speak	❑	❑	❑	❑
f. Approaching Writing	❑	❑	❑	❑
g. Listening Comprehension	❑	❑	❑	❑
h. Dealing With Errors	❑	❑	❑	❑
h. Vocabulary Work	❑	❑	❑	❑
i. Grammar	❑	❑	❑	❑
j. Integrated Skills Development	❑	❑	❑	❑
k. Moving Onto Projects	❑	❑	❑	❑

12. RANK ANY 5 OF THE FOLLOWING IN ORDER OF THEIR INTEREST AND BENEFIT TO YOU.

	interest	benefit
a. Getting Started	❑	❑
b. Using Resources	❑	❑
c. Using Questions	❑	❑
d. Working With Groups	❑	❑
e. Getting Pupils to Speak	❑	❑
f. Approaching Writing	❑	❑
g. Listening Comprehension	❑	❑
h. Dealing With Errors	❑	❑
h. Vocabulary Work	❑	❑
i. Grammar	❑	❑
j. Integrated Skills Development	❑	❑
k. Moving Onto Projects	❑	❑

13. WHAT ARE YOUR VIEWS ON THE FOLLOWING ?

Malaysian EL teachers are

	very	mostly	sometimes	a little	not at all
Efficient	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Hard working	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Willing to learn	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Authoritarian	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Positive in attitude to work	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Docile	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Fearful of authority	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Salary conscious	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

14. Were there topics or aspects not dealt with? Please give details.

----

15. Please explain if there were any aspects of these materials, or their use, that you found disturbing, unsatisfactory, or unacceptable to you.

----

16. Do you think the use of native speaker teachers of English would make for

much improvement	a little improvement	don't know	very little	no improvement at all
❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

17. Any other comments ?

- **Please tick and fill in :**

Name of University	UM ❑	USM ❑	UKM ❑	UPM ❑
Group	....			
Year / Level	1 ❑	2 ❑	3 ❑	4 ❑

APPENDIX 4

RECORD OF HOW THE MATERIALS WERE USED

The general strategy of usage of the materials involved:

(a) distribution of worksheets and student attempts of Pre-viewing Tasks;
(b) individual student responses to Worksheet Tasks following viewing of tape segment;
(c) pair and peer group discussions;
(d) whole class discussions led by this researcher;
(e) completion of uncompleted tasks at home;
(f) filling in of individual lesson questionnaires after each lesson;
(g) handing up of completed worksheets to researcher.

While this was the general strategy, variations of these were made in response to researcher and student preferences, and particularly due to the constraints of time. This researcher was informed that the course being assigned only 2 units, contact hours with students was only to be 2 hours per week. This schedule was also affected by a series of holidays, and required replacement classes being scheduled. In principle, every lesson either began or ended with an half-hour lecture by the course lecturer (in keeping with her pre-course topic schedule handout) on various aspects of English Language Teaching methods. The researcher, in effect, was given only one and a half hours to conduct the trial of the materials.

Record of Individual Lessons

Unit 1

1. First 10 minutes spent on attendance and administrative matters.
2. Worksheets handed out, and students attempted Pre-viewing Task 1 individually.
3. Students discussed Task 1 in pairs and peer-groups.
4. Class discussion of Task 1 led by researcher.
5. Students viewed segment 1 after taking note of segment 1 tasks.
6. Students attempted all segment 1 tasks individually, then discussed their responses in pairs or peer groups.

Note:
Due to time restraint, the tape segments were not replayed (though the worksheets suggested that the tape be reviewed).

7. Class discussion of segment 1 tasks led by researcher.

8. Students viewed segment 2 without taking note of what the segment 2 worksheet tasks were about (so as to attempt not to stifle or guide their perceptions).
9. Students attempted Task 3 individually.
10. Due to time restraint, went straight onto class discussion of Task 3, led by researcher.
11. This time, students looked over and took note of Tasks 8 and 9 for segment 3, and then viewed segment 3.
12. Students attempted segment 3 tasks individually, and then these tasks were discussed as a class, led by researcher.
13. Very little time was left, hence segment 4 was not done.
14. Students were told to attempt the Post-viewing Tasks 13 and 14 individually on their own.
15. Individual lesson questionnaires were then administered and collected.
16. The worksheets were also collected.
17. Students were told that the next week's topic was "Using Resources", while [course lecturer] gave a reading assignment (Halmer, J. - chapter 5) and gave them the following coursework details:

Students coursework marks of 40% would include:

a. Micro teaching

b. Worksheets

c. An essay on the topic "What I see as the challenges facing me as I train to be an English Language Teacher", in not more than 1000 words.

Note:

i. With Group 2, the same approach was used as with Group 1.
ii. With Group 3 and 4, students were told to attempt all tasks which required the students' own reflective output (such as Task 3, 7b, 7c, 9b and 9c) at home after thinking carefully about their own responses, and to hand up the worksheets on Monday.

This was done due to the fact that [course lecturer] wanted the last half hour for herself, and also because it was found that students in Groups 1 and 2 did not have time to complete the tasks properly in class. Furthermore, it was felt that some of these tasks required reflection, and should not be hurried.

iii. Questionnaires were however administered in class and collected immediately. This however led to many students not filling in the responses for Post-viewing tasks in the Questionnaire (B) because they had not attempted the Post-viewing tasks by the time the questionnaire was administered.

Unit 2

1. Worksheets were given out and students attempted Pre-viewing Tasks 1 and 2 individually, then discussed them in pairs or peer groups.
2. Class discussion of Tasks 1 and 2 led by researcher.
3. Students were told to look over and take note of segment 1 tasks as well as anything they thought significant about the video, and then viewed segment 1.
4. Students attempted segment 1 tasks on their own.

Note:
Unlike with Unit 1, the students were told to attempt reflective tasks requiring responses based on the students' personal experiences and preferences (such as 2c, 4b, 5c, 5d and 6d) at home.

5. A different strategy was then taken, with students not discussing the segment 1 tasks in pairs or peer groups. Rather, the researcher went straight on to whole class discussion of these tasks, led by researcher.
6. Students took note of segment 2 tasks and then viewed segment 2.
7. After students attempted segment 2 tasks individually, there was whole class discussion of these tasks led by the researcher.
8. Students took note of segment 3 tasks, and then viewed segment 3.
9. After students attempted the segment 3 tasks individually, there was whole class discussion of these tasks led by researcher.
10. Worksheets were to be completed at home and returned the next day.
11. Questionnaires administered and collected.

Note:

The lessons generally finished about 10 minutes early, probably
due to time saved from not having student group discussions.

Unit 3

1. Worksheets handed out, and students attempted Pre-viewing Task 1 individually, then discussed their responses in pairs or peer groups.
2. Whole class discussion of Task 1 led by researcher.
3. Students were told to take note of Task 2 and attempt answering it at home, because the task is not what can essentially be called a "Pre-viewing" task, and also because it relates to all the segments.
4. Students took note of segment 1 tasks, and then viewed segment 1.

5. Students were told to attempt tasks 4b and 4c at home.
6. Class discussion of segment 1 tasks led by researcher.
7. Students noted segment 2 tasks, then viewed segment 2.
8. Whole class discussion of segment 2 tasks, led by researcher.
9. Students noted segment 3 tasks and then viewed segment 3.
10. Students were told to attempt Tasks 7b, 8b, 8c, 9c, 10b and 10c at home.
11. Class discussion of remaining segment 3 tasks led by researcher.
12. Segment 4 was not done. Students were told to hand up worksheets after completion the next day.
13. Questionnaires were administered and collected.
14. Worksheets for Unit 4 were given out, and students were told to complete Task 1 at home before coming to class the next week.

Unit 4

1. Researcher checked to see if Task 1 had been attempted by the students (as homework). Most had.
2. A different strategy was adopted this time, with students being told that Task 1 would not be discussed specifically, but would be referred back to in the course of the lesson. (This was done because it was felt that there would not be much purpose in discussing the options generally, when it would be possible to discuss these in the specific contexts of the video segments).
3. Students were not given time to look over the tasks (due to the assumption that they would have done so at home). Instead, students viewed segment 1, and then attempted the Tasks individually.
4. It was decided to skip tasks 3a and 3b.
5. Whole class discussion of Tasks 2a, 3c, 5a and 6 followed led by researcher.
6. Task 4 was discussed in class as a whole (led by researcher), but with students being told to ignore the worksheet and to explain in their own words as to why the pupils used Bahasa Malaysia. (In this way, through the use of "why" questions, researcher was able to evoke each of Task 1 options).
7. Students were told to complete tasks 3a, 3b, 5b, 7, and Post-viewing tasks 10, 11 and 12 at home.
8. Students viewed segment 2, and then segment 3 soon after students' had had a little time to note their views on segment 2.
9. Whole class discussion of Tasks 8 and 9 led by researcher.
10. Students were told to complete worksheets at home and hand them up the next day.
11. Questionnaires were administered and collected.

Unit 5

1. Worksheets were given out and students attempted Pre-viewing Tasks 1 and 2 individually.
2. Students discussed Tasks 1 and 2 in pairs and peer groups.
3. Class discussion of Tasks 1 and 2 led by researcher.
4. Students attempted Task 3 individually, then discussed in pairs.
5. No class discussion of Task 3. Students were told to think about Task 3 and revise if necessary at home.
6. Students looked over segment 1 tasks, and then viewed segment 1.
7. Students attempted Tasks 4, 5a and 5b individually, then discussed them in pairs.
8. Class discussion of Tasks 4, 5a and 5b led by researcher.
9. Students were told to attempt Talk 5c at home.
10. Students looked over Tasks 6 - 8 (told to attempt Task 9 at home), then viewed segment 2.
11. Students attempted Tasks 6, 7 and 8 individually and then discussed them in pairs.
12. Class discussion of Tasks 6, 7 and 8 led by researcher.
13. Students looked over segment 3 tasks, then viewed segment 3.
14. Students attempted Tasks 10, 11 and 12 individually.
15. Class discussion of Tasks 10, 11 and 12 led by researcher.
16. Students looked over segment 4 tasks and then viewed segment 4.
17. Class discussion of Tasks 13 and 14 led by researcher (due to lack of time).
18. Segment 5 not done(due to lack of time).
19. Questionnaires given out to be completed at home and returned with worksheets the next day.

Unit 6

1. Worksheets given out, and students attempted Pre-viewing tasks individually.
2. Students discussed the Pre-viewing tasks in pairs or peer-groups.
3. Class discussion of Pre-viewing tasks led by researcher.
4. Students looked over segment 1 tasks, and then viewed segment 1.
5. Students attempted tasks 3 and 4 individually, and then discussed them in pairs.
6. Class discussion of Tasks 3 and 4 led by researcher.
7. Students were told to attempt Tasks 5, 6, 8, 10, 11 and 12 at home.
8. Students looked over segment 2 tasks, and then viewed segment 2.
9. Students attempted Task 7 individually, and then discussed the answers in pairs.
10. Class discussion of Task 7 led by researcher.
11. Questionnaires were given out and students were told to return the questionnaire and worksheet the next day after completing them at home.

Unit 7

1. Worksheets were given out.
2. Students attempted Pre-viewing tasks 1 and 2 individually.
3. Students discussed the Pre-viewing tasks in pairs and peer groups.
4. Class discussion of Pre-viewing tasks led by researcher.
5. Students looked over segment 1 tasks, and then viewed segment 1.
6. Students completed Task 3 as they viewed the video segment.
7. Students attempted the other segment 1 tasks individually.
8. Class discussion of segment 1 tasks led by researcher.
9. Students looked over segment 2 tasks, and then viewed segment 2 and attempted Task 6a as they viewed the video segment.
10. Students attempted Tasks 7a, 7b individually, then discussed Tasks 6 and 7 in pairs and peer groups.
11. Class discussion of Tasks 6 and 7 led by researcher.
12. Students told to attempt Tasks 7c, 7d, Task 8, 9 and Task 11 at home.
13. Students looked over segment 3 tasks, and then viewed segment 3.
14. Students attempted Task 10 individually, then discussed it as a class led by researcher.
15. Students looked over segment 4 tasks, and then viewed segment 4.
16. Students were told to attempt only Task 14 individually in class, and do Tasks 12, 13, 15 and 16 at home.
17. Class discussion of Task 14 led by researcher.
18. Questionnaires were given out and students were told to return both the worksheet and the questionnaire after completing them at home.

Unit 8

1. Worksheets were given out.
2. Students attempted Pre-viewing tasks 1 and 2 on their own, then discussed these in pairs or peer groups.
3. Class discussion of the Pre-viewing tasks led by researcher.
4. Students looked over segment 1 tasks and then viewed segment 1 from the video.
5. Students attempted segment 1 tasks individually.
6. Class discussion of segment 1 tasks led by researcher.
7. Students looked over segment 2 tasks and then viewed segment 2.
8. Students attempted segment 2 tasks individually.
9. Class discussion of segment 2 tasks led by researcher.
10. Students looked over segment 3 tasks and then viewed segment 3.
11. Students attempted segment 3 tasks individually.
12. Class discussion of segment 3 tasks led by researcher.

13. Students were told to complete any unfinished tasks at home.
14. Segment 4 was not attempted due to lack of time.
15. Questionnaires were administered and students were told to complete these after finishing the worksheets.

Unit 9

This was the one unit where a different strategy was used to trial the materials.

1. Students were told that we would be doing something different.
2. Students given the researcher-designed worksheet and the tasks were explained to ensure student understanding.
3. Students viewed segment 1.
4. Students attempted the worksheet task individually.
5. Students then discussed Task 1 in pairs or peer groups.
6. Class discussion of Task 1 led by researcher. A long discussion followed.
7. Students attempted Task 2 individually.
8. Unit 9 worksheet was given out.
9. Students attempted Tasks 1 to 9 individually.
10. Class discussion of Tasks 1 to 3 led by researcher.
11. Students were told to complete any unfinished tasks at home and then hand up both sets of worksheets the next day.
12. Questionnaires were given out and students were told to complete these at home and hand up next day.

Unit 10

1. Worksheets given out.
2. Students attempted Task 1 individually, then in pairs or peer groups. Some referred to the syllabus.
3. Class discussion of Task 1 led by researcher.
4. Students looked over segment 1 Tasks.
5. Students viewed segment 1.
6. Students attempted Task 2 individually, then discussed in peer or pair groups.
7. Class discussion of Task 2 led by researcher.
8. Students looked over segment 2 tasks.
9. Students viewed segment 2.
10. Students attempted segment 2 tasks individually.
11. Class discussion of segment 2 tasks led by researcher.
12. Students were told to complete unfinished worksheet tasks at home.

13. Questionnaires were given out, but students were told to complete these at home after completing the worksheets, and hand up next day.

Note:

With Group 1, class discussion of segment 2 tasks started with researcher asking a broad question "Do you have any comments to make?" which led to a lot of discussion, leaving little time for discussion of individual segment 2 tasks.
With Groups 2 and 3, no such general question was posed, but instead there was a straight discussion on the specific tasks.

The time spent on each discussion topic varied depending on student interest and the kind of points and responses raised.

Unit 11:

Note: About 7 Group 2 students asked to join in with Group 1 because of rain, and because they had just finished a micro-teaching session between 9.00 and 10.00 a.m. This meant they did not have to return in the afternoon. They were allowed to do so.

1. Worksheets handed out.
2. Students worked individually on Pre-viewing Tasks, and then discussed them in pairs and peer groups.
3. Class discussion of Pre-viewing Tasks 1, 2 and 3 led by researcher.
4. Students were told to think about Task 3b at home before answering.
5. Students looked over segment 1 tasks, and then viewed segment 1.
6. Students attempted segment 1 tasks individually, then discussed these in pairs or peer groups.
7. Class discussion of tasks 4 and 5 led by researcher.
8. Students told to think about Task 6 in greater detail at home before answering.
9. Students looked over segment 2 tasks, and then viewed segment 2.
10. Students discussed answers in pairs for a short while (very little time left for individual work, or for class discussion).
11. Questionnaires were given out to be filled at home and returned the next day together with completed worksheets.

Note:

With groups 2 and 3, this researcher decided to vary the approach slightly, partly because the tape segments were long, and to add to the in-depth observation.

Segment 1 was played a second time after step 9 above, but this time the researcher interrupted the viewing by using the "pause" button and asked questions such as:

(a) What skills are the pupils practising, and in what sequence?
(b) Does this match the gradation of skills that we discussed in Task 1?
(c) Does this create any problems?
(d) Is there a problem with this role playing dialogue?
(e) Would you call this a communication situation, and why?

Each question generated a fair amount of discussion.

Unit 12

1. Worksheets were given out and student attempted Pre-viewing tasks 1 and 2 on their own.
2. Class discussion of Task 1 led by researcher, beginning with the following broad questions:

    i. have any of you taught/done any project work in your classes?
    ii. if you haven't taught it, have you taken part in projects? What?
    iii. could the projects that you did/taught be made into English language projects?
    iv. did you enjoy teaching/taking part in the projects? Why?
    v. in view of all that we have heard, what then is an English language project? Define.

3. Task 2 was skipped as it was reflective.
4. Students took note of segment 1 tasks, then viewed segment 1.
5. Students attempted Tasks 3, 4 and 5 individually, then discussed answers as a class, led by researcher.
6. Students looked over segment 2 tasks, then viewed segment 2.
7. Students were told to attempt Tasks 6c, 6d and Post-viewing Tasks 9, 10, and 11 at home.
8. Students attempted Tasks 6, 7 and 8 individually, and then discussed these in class, led by researcher.
9. Researcher talked for about 5 minutes giving personal anecdotes, advice, strategies and techniques for class management and general English language teaching based on his experience.
10. Both individual lesson and overall questionnaires administered and collected.
11. Students scheduled for 2nd personal (individual) interviews told to leave.
12. Class discussion of the course and materials led by researcher. These were tape recorded.
13. Students were told to return worksheets promptly the next day due to lack of time.

Procedure of research. It should be noted that due to complexities in the questionnaires administered, an explanation and clarification of questions was attempted by the researcher before the first individual lesson questionnaire was filled in by the student teachers. (Spelling errors were also pointed out during this session). The following were addressed:

Questionnaire A : Individual Lesson Questionnaire - Video Component (hereafter referred to as Questionnaire A, and specific Questions as A1, A2 and so on).

1. That A1 to A4, A8 to A18 all referred in plural to all the segments comprising the unit ; in other words they referred to all segments seen during the individual lesson taught by the researcher using the materials. For example, A1 to A3 thus refer to 'Video Lessons', A8 to 'Teachers' and A9 to 'Aims of Lessons' and so on.
2. That the word 'lesson' printed at the top of the Questionnaires A and B refer to the lesson taught by the researcher using the video and supplementary materials, and did not refer to the lecture component handled by the course lecturer.
3.That the word 'typical' in A6 and A8 could also be interpreted as 'representative'.
4. That A5 referred to 'Classrooms and facilities'.
5. That A10 to A12 refer to 'Teaching methods' employed by the teachers in the various video segments.
6. That A13 and A14 refer to the lessons in the video unit.
7. That A15 refers to the approaches seen on video.
8. That A19 refers specifically to the video.

Questionnaire B : Individual Lesson Questionnaire - Printed Component (hereafter referred to as Questionnaire B, and specific questions as B1, B2, B3 and so on).
1. That the word 'lesson' in the title referred to the lesson taught by the researcher using the materials.
2.That the questionnaire again referred to all the relevant worksheets for each of the segments dealt with in each lesson.
3. That B21 referred to the answers and explanations given by the researcher to worksheet tasks and other questions raised in the course of the individual lesson.

TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW OF STUDENT 3 (14-1-92)

Researcher: Just to start...can you just perhaps...tell me your name...you know...something about your background...your family...
Student 3:..okay...my name is [Student 3]...daughter of[P.K]...I'm from Johor Bahru... Johor.
Researcher: : ...you're from Johor...are you...she's also from...Johor.
Student 3: ...no...she's from Pahang...my father's a retired teacher.
Researcher: ...oh...another teacher...
Student 3: ...yes...my mother's a housewife...I have 2 brothers...and...one sister...one brother's a ...teacher...the other's...a Human Resources Manager.... and my sister'... still schooling...
Researcher: ...ah...where did you get educated...
Student 3: JB...
Researcher: Which school was this...
Student 3: First...in I.J...Convent School...and...then...Sultan Ibrahim Girls' School.
Researcher: ...OK...so you didn't go through a Co-ed...education...
Student 3: no.
Researcher:...OK...did you enjoy your schooling
Student 3: ...yes...very much.
Researcher:...very much
Student 3: ...yes...except...except...the early primary school years...because...I was very...shy when I was young...and...I think until I was in...Std. 5...I was very afraid to...approach teachers and so on...but when I was in Std. 5...it was ...ok.....after that...
Researcher: ...when you come to primary 5
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ...but after that...you enjoyed secondary life...
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ...what...did you enjoy about...secondary school...
Student 3: ...most important thing...was activities...because I like to be involved in activities...I mean...to be part...of something other than just...education...even now in...USM...I like to be in charge of things...not really in charge in the sense of...being right...right...at right...at the top... but being part of functions and so on...
Researcher: ...so for example English Language Society...that sort of thing.
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ...have you always been involved in that sort of thing...
Student 3: ...yes...I always...I mean...I try my best...if just as a helper at first...then maybe later on as...take a post or something...
Researcher:......ok.....that's very interesting...you speak very good English...how come...can you give a reason
Student 3: ...I...I don't know...maybe...because in Convent school...we always spoke in English...because I was born in Mersing...so when I was in primary 1 and primary 2...I went to a Malay school...I mean I got good results...for English papers...but I couldn't speak English... and at home we spoke...B.M...and my mother tongue...Malayalam...that's it...we never spoke English at home.
Researcher: ...you spoke Bahasa Malaysia at home...was it
Student 3: ...ya...Bahasa...because everyone in Mersing spoke...B.M. see...it's like the whole community...just full of Malay people...you see...so you just tend to follow them...and I enjoy speaking in B.M...even now.
Researcher: ...so you reckon your fluency in English etc.... was it also at home...did you speak in English
Student 3: ...at home .... now ... sometimes...to my sister...my brother.
Researcher: ...now...when you were young...you didn't
Student 3:no.
Researcher: ...it was really...Bahasa Malaysia

Student 3: ...Bahasa Malaysia...yes.
Researcher: Oh ....strange isn't it...so you reckon it's the...first 2 years of your...of your primary schooling which...helped improve your English
Student 3: ...first 2 years ...
Researcher: ...no...when...what do you think...made you...gave you to contribute...towards your proficiency in English
Student 3:...it could be through reading...because at first...when I was young...I don't remember reading...books...I mean...I liked reading but...I never took the trouble to get books and...read...then my brother...my eldest brother...he loves reading...he used to go to the library ...all the time...bring home books...and I got...you know I got used to reading...his books and then...I got taken by reading...so now... I love reading.
Researcher: ...is that...is that...something that happened in...secondary school or ...
Student 3: ...no...no...since when I was in primary school...late primary school...
Researcher: ...so it was really your brother...sort of getting...you interested in reading.
Student 3: yes.
Researcher: ...reading in English
Student 3: yes.
Researcher: I see...I see...right...now......ok.....so why have you chosen to major in English
Student 3:...in English...because as I note in the Personal Details...at first...it was really because I...felt comfortable in English...when I first came to campus...I mean I...got the course where you have to...major in one arts subject...and one science subject...so I thought...arts subject...which subject can I major in...I didn't really mind...any subject because I thought... after all...I wanted to be a teacher...I want to be a good teacher...it doesn't matter...which subject I'll be teaching...you see...but I felt comfortable...in English...so I thought I'll try...English...and after taking it....I realised I really enjoyed it...
Researcher: ...you enjoyed it
Student 3: ...yes...especially phonetics...
Researcher:...phonetics
Student 3: ...yes
Researcher:...oh...that's...why...I mean...you know
Student 3: I don't know...because...because it's...something...it's not abstract...like some of the other courses...you have to...maybe like critical reading...I enjoy it also...especially Puan Maznoor...the way she delivers her lectures...and all that...it's very interesting...and phonetics...I mean...you learn how sound is produced and so on....I don't know...I just like it.
Researcher: ...so you're going to be a...senior phonetician...
Student 3: [laughs]...no.
Researcher:......ok.....so you've always wanted to be a teacher...have you
Student 3: yes...but I never sort of made it known because my father...always wanted me to be a teacher...I mean...he wanted all his children to be a teacher.
Researcher: ...really
Student 3: ...because you see...he thought that...was the most safe job...you work with the government...you work half a day...and you get your pay and...you're happy-something like that...but I always rebelled....I always said...you know...you can go also...you know...go into some other line and all that...although deep down...I always wanted to be teacher...I didn't want
Researcher :...yes
Student 3: Yes...because his view is different...the reason he wanted me to become a teacher was because I'm a girl...so...as a girl...I should become a teacher because...that's the only job suitable for a girl...see his views were different...but I wanted to be a teacher because I enjoyed teaching.
Researcher: hmm...how did you know that you enjoyed teaching...did you have any experience of teaching
Student 3: hmm.... no...not really experienced...more of teaching my sister at home and so on...so...I mean...I used to enjoy explaining and if they didn't understand...I like to explain again and so on...then my mother used to tell me...you know...you have that patience to explain things...and so on...

Researcher: ......ok......so..having decided to be a teacher...I presume you want to be a...good teacher...
Student 3:..yes...
Researcher: ...what do you think is a good teacher...
Student 3: ...good teacher...most importantly... must have good rapport with students...even during teaching practice....I believe if you want to teach well...first of all the students must respect you...must feel comfortable with you...because I.... even through experience...some of my teachers...most of us didn't feel with some of them...because they just come...you know...it's their duty...they come in...they teach and they leave...so you don't feel anything...but when you get to know the teacher and you like the teacher...you respect the teacher...you pay attention...so first thing...even during teaching practice...that is what I try to do...first when I went to class...I wanted the class to...respect me...to want to study...not just think of me as just another...teacher when comes...in and leaves...you know...so whenever I have the chance in between lessons...I try to talk to them...you know....
Researcher: ...do you find that... erm...did you find that working...were you able to achieve this
Student 3: ...yes...yes...because they were treating me as part of them...you know...part of their friends...some of the times...but of course...there's a limit...
Researcher: ...you were able to draw line...between those 2 things
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ..ah ...do you see establishing rapport...is one important thing...is there any other thing that...you see as characteristic of a good teacher
Student 3: ...maybe...er... preparing the lesson...and all those things that we learn...in PLG...
Researcher: ...right......ok.....now...that leads us nicely...perhaps to the question... erm...are you enjoying your university education
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ..yes
Student 3: ...yes...more of the arts part...the science part not too much...because I'm majoring in Maths also...and Maths it...it's quite a chore for me...I don't really enjoy it...but English is different...I enjoy English. ..no matter what grades I get...like Public Speaking...I enjoyed it so much.
Researcher: ....did you
Student 3: ...yes...we had so much fun...I mean...you know...it was hard work...every week you have to stay up...you know...lack of sleep and everything to prepare...but once you go up there and...you present...you feel good.
Researcher: ...you think that was the reaction of all the other students also
Student 3: ...no.... some of them hated...Public...Speaking...but I like it.
Researcher: ......ok.....that was actually the course I was teaching about 2 years ago...
Student 3: ..oh...I see.
Researcher: ...but anyway...ah... what about School of Education...I mean...do you find that what...is happening in the...School of Education...as a whole...ah...do you feel that it's useful the...way ...is it helping you...develop to become a teacher
Student 3: ...yes...very useful.
Researcher: ...are there any particular papers...any particular courses you find very...very useful...you've found useful so far
Student 3:...useful....well I can't specify any particular course...but all the courses...they seem to be linked...even the English courses...and the PLG causes...they all seem to be quite linked...you see towards what you're going to teach...because...like for my science part...I...I can't find any link...see...what we're doing now...we're doing the same Maths...papers that the Maths majors do...the science students...so we're just doing it for the sake of...getting through and...getting a degree...but once you go out...there's no connection...they don't teach us different methods of teaching...Maths...I mean the different ways of solving problems...that we will be teaching.
Researcher: Hmm....generally... when you look at the School of Education...for example...and you take our course...the way we do it...is it different...what we're doing now...what all the other courses...you attended...is there any difference at all...

Student 3: ...yes...the difference now is...now we're using...the new technique...video and so... previously...I don't think we had video lesson before...for any of our courses...even if we had...we just watched something for knowledge sake...you see...but now we're connecting...we're actually seeing live teaching...so we get the chance to see actual teaching in progress...and we get to...really get pointers and so on...
Researcher: ...have you not...actually viewed video before
Student 3: ...of teaching
Researcher: ...of teaching context
Student 3: ...no.
Researcher:...no experience all
Student 3: ...no.
Researcher: ...have you seen even fellow...your own classmates...for example video taped teaching something...
Student 3: ...no.
Researcher: ...hmm.....so you're not seen...for example...real teachers teaching elsewhere
Student 3: ...no...I mean...real teachers meaning...I er ... teachers in school itself...not in video tape.
Researcher: ...not on video tape...but you have seen teachers teaching
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ...have you sat in on their classes o...is it that when you were a student...your experience of your teachers
Student 3: ...as a student...I used to watch my father teaching...also when I was young....sometimes I just follow him for extra classes...and so on...I used to sit in and just watch...and ah ... after Form 6...I taught in a kindergarten and er ...that's all.
Researcher: ...ok....hmm....when you watched your father teaching...do you ever get to talk about the teaching at all...
Student 3: ...yes...because I used to tell him...that sometimes he seemed a little lazy because...he used to give them work and then...er ... just sit down and so...so at that time I thought it was ......ok.....so now when I look back...you...I tell him now...you know...we're not supposed to sit...we're supposed to stand all the while...we're supposed walk...we're supposed to give them work...always think of new ways of teaching...you had it easy...you know ...
Researcher: ...so...it's something you're able to so now...but you didn't really talk with him like that then did you
Student 3: ..no...that time I was very young...when I was only about...6...7...8 years old...I used to follow him...when we were in Mersing...because there it's quite informal...I feel it's ...ok... for you to follow your father...while he's teaching...then once we came to JB...you know...so we didn't have time for all time.
Researcher: ...more of an urban area...hmm
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher:...right...do you think using video for a methodology course...and for teacher training...do you think...that's...would you support it...would you say that it should be done...do you see any value in using the video
Student 3:...yes...because you see...if we didn't have the video...we probably have...probably have you explaining to us the methods...what the teacher might have done...do you think the teacher can do this...cannot do this...what is right for the teacher to do this...I mean...a lot of time will be wasted on explaining what the teacher might have done... what the teacher shouldn't have done and so on...now we just sit there... we just watch what the teacher is doing... so we look out for ourselves...we have the questions there to guide us...but basically... we're actually looking out for ourselves... the things that we think the teacher shouldn't have done... should have done... could improve on and so on.
Researcher: ...ah ... but I notice...you in fact raised the point of the work sheets.
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher:...yo... the way we've approaching it... we're saying... use the video... use the worksheets...do you find this acceptable...is this...ok....to use worksheets and to use video... in your opinion...

Student 3: .....yes.
Researcher: Yes...
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ah .....the tasks given to you...in the worksheets... do you find that acceptable...I mean in other words... are they too difficult... are they too easy... is there enough variety...
Student 3: ...no...it's just nice...because...I like it because certain parts... you view the index and you get the answers/responses from the video...and there is place/column for us to give our own views...and I like those parts also because... if it's just basically based on the video... then you don't get a chance to put forward you views so since they do allow...is your opinion...what would you say....and all these things... it gives us a chance to give our views.
Researcher: ...oh...is that important...
Student 3: ..yes... very important.
Researcher: ...oh... you think students should be given a chance to speak up and give their views...
Student 3: ...yes... yes.
Researcher: ...oh ...ok..in that sense...what do you think is the most valuable between using the worksheets and the video...what do you think has been the most reliable thing about this approach...
Student 3: I think it's more of the discussion we have...normally we view something and then we discuss...you give us time to answer...then we discuss as a class...see sometimes we have different views coming from different students...so it's interesting...because sometimes...I don't even think of some of the views that they bring forward...then I think....Oh yeah....why didn't I think of that.....and yet at other times...when they say something...I tell myself...I don't agree with that...you see... so it gives me a chance to look at different views and so on.
Researcher:...so really...you would say that... when you had a chance to discuss... you found that the most useful...
Student 3: ...yes... because without discussion you wouldn't know...what the others have done...it'll be just us and the... like there's one part where we're asked about self taught... er ....that I don't think will be very useful also not as much as having a discussion...if it's self taught... you're just answering on your own... that means you think what you're doing is right... but most important thing is to discuss... because others may have other views.
Researcher: ...ok... It may not be a useful... but do you think for example... let's say I wasn't present and I gave you the worksheets... and I say... ...right... here's the tape... you play it... watch it and do it....do you think you would've still learned...
Student 3: ...learned... maybe... but not as much as through discussion...and maybe it might be a bit boring also... just sitting there all alone... answering.
Researcher: ...ok...what....the reason I'm asking you is this...we're also...when we designed the materials...we also though of people who are not in universities... who are not attending courses... but who would perhaps... be interested in learning..so we try to do that... so the only thing we could do was... you've seen me carrying that book... haven't you...
Student 3: ...yes... yes.
Researcher: ..at the back there... we have some suggested answers...so in other words... if we gave you that book... the answers might be there...do you think that would also .....
Student 3: Ya...but you see that's in a different context...you see those people...they were motivated in the first place and they want to do it... so definitely they would sit there and they would do it...they'll have the motivation to do it but if you ask me... I can never work without someone there...even when I was in secondary school... my father used to order from ADABI Gaya Pos [ADABI correspondence course] and all that... but I could never do it... I mean... to just sit at home and answer questions when you have no teacher; no one there to guide you and you send it to them and they mark and give you back. I'd rather hear verbal comments and so on.
Researcher: right...
Student 3: ...to me that's more effective.
Researcher: ...ok...that's very useful...thanks...coming back to the question about videos... erm ... you have seen... er... actually you have seen now something like almost the 12 segments of the ...you have seen the pupils and you have seen the teachers...do you feel that what you've seen

on the video is...realistic...is it....is it realistic...
Student 3: ...Er.... not... not very.
Researcher: ...not very.
Student 3: ...Er. because students especially... because they seem kind of not very relaxed... towards the beginning of the lesson normally... you know it seems as though... it looks as though they are aware of all the camera and everything... even the teachers.
Researcher: Yes.
Student 3: ...Er...they seem... they are conscious of the fact that they are being filmed... so they take the effort... make the effort to make sure everything they say is correct...they always smile and because normally... teachers... not all teachers are like that...so teachers just come in and they are ...you know .
Researcher: ...ok..but ...ok....it's...I think you are right... because normally... what we've found is... if you go into... into any classroom and you bring the camera in... in fact if there is an outsider sitting in on the class... it's not realistic.
Student 3: ...yes.
Researcher: ...but if we forget that aspect... you know... of that tension... the fact that there's somebody down there looking out - if you forget that... do you think generally that is is a true... a realistic picture of what goes on in Malaysia classrooms..what you've seen in the videos...
Student 3: ...in Malaysian classrooms...I don't know...depends on the schools... depends on the students I think....because even during my teaching practice... I taught 3 classes and all 3 were very different...I mean at different times... they're very different and then when the lecturer is in the class they're different... so some are affected by the lecturers... you know... they try to behave themselves... they sit down quietly...others... the normally quiet ones... they make trouble when the lecturer is in... just to get attention.
Researcher: right... but what I'm saying is... did you find enough variety of this kind of thing... you know... the pupils that were given to you in different classes...
Student 3: yeah... there was variety because there was once also one of the segments... we saw a few students... although the camera was there... they were still not paying attention...that means like... for them maybe that it their normal behaviour; during discussion someone was reading and the boys were talking... looking at each other... looking in the air... like dreaming.
Researcher: ah... I think what had also happened was we had gone to certain classrooms... we had done a lot of recording. ..so after a while... they get used to it.
Student 3: Hmm....
Researcher: ...what about the teachers themselves...did you find them... apart from... you know the students... you were not .. ... what about the teachers themselves...do you feel... er... they're a fair representation of Malaysian teachers...the selection of teachers that we had...or would you say that they're tremendously strange... brilliant characters...
Student 3: ...no... no... I won't say they're brilliant characters because they did sound quite normal...I mean they weren't speaking with British accents or any thing like that...American accents... all that...it was generally fair I think... except in terms of their approach towards students.they seemed too nice... too good to them...may be in real life... you don't know... some teachers may... may not be that good.
Researcher: you're a suspicious woman... aren't you...
Student 3: no.
Researcher: ...ok...one of the things we did with the video unit was to approach things in terms of themes...Getting started...the next one we dealt with was ...Using Resources... and so on. Erm.....what are your views on this...I mean... you think this... is this good...have you found any advantages to this so far...having this kind of a thematic approach....so in other words... one week we start off by just looking at introductions. ..what's your reaction to that...
Student 3: Yeah... that is interesting because we get to look at different teachers having different introductions and so on instead of just cramming everything in one lesson....that means... if in one lesson we're gonna talk about how to start about using resources... development and everything... and then we're gonna have to answer those sheets... it's going to be very difficult...because there won't be enough time to cover everything... and then the coming week we've going to do again... another set... so you see... in this sense... when we do ..how to start

a lesson....so we can try to cover and discuss about most of the things that's involved in that topic.
Researcher: hmm....so you're saying basically... it provides a focus... doesn't it...
Student 3: Yes.
Researcher: the work sheet... in that sense... you know the kind of the tasks that have gone into that... erm... they tend to focus on certain things and so on... isn't it...do you find that upsetting...
Student 3: No.
Researcher: Erm ..do you find... what value did you find to the tasks... I mean... was there any benefit to the tasks given to you...in doing those tasks...I mean... you said you liked certain parts where the questions said... what are your views....how would you do it.... etc.
Student 3: Yes.
Researcher: But the other questions...did you find any value to the other questions..for example... say yesterday's lesson... where we talked about ...describe the various steps/stages involved...... do you find any value to that kind of a question...
Student 3: Yes... because if we watched the video... we may not have realised that there were actually certain different steps coming... one after the other...we would have just taken it for granted. But because there was a question... what we'll try to think about it and to put them in order...then... as we put them in order... we remember....so next time... we can always use it.
Researcher: ...so you feel... you're saying that actually... the tasks help you to notice things...
Student 3: Yes... that's why... as I said earlier... it's a guide to help you understand what's going on... and so on.
Researcher: ...ok...and the tasks themselves...have you found them varied...I mean..is there variety...
Student 3: Yes... some are very easy... I mean kind of straight forward... and for some... you have to think.
Researcher: ...ok...erm...generally... have you found the course interesting so far...
Student 3: so far... yes.
Researcher: yes...
Student 3: yes.
Researcher: the question... the other question I'm asking now is... do you think these materials... the tapes plus the worksheets... can form in your opinion... you may ... and you think that at other times... should this form the basis of a course...in other words... do you feel that using the video and the worksheets is a good way of approaching the training in methodology...and can form the basis of a full course...
Student 3: yes... maybe for metho ...
Researcher: methodology...
Student 3: ...methodology...not for other courses.
Researcher: ...ok... erm... ... I think ... we've covered most of the questions that I want to ask...is there anything that you would like to add... is there something that you've seen... that you've like or something that you don't like about the course...do you feel that there's any way that you could improve... erm... what suggestions you can make to improve on the materials we've using at the moment...
Student 3: Hmm...
Researcher: ...or you haven't though about it...
Student 3: No.
Researcher: ...ok...you're happy with my contribution...
Student 3: yes...the thing I like about the course... I like the way it's presented...because we don't feel bored... we all feel at ease... I know I feel that way... I mean I feel relaxed...so when you ask us a question... I don't hesitate to answer...because I've had courses before where... you know... you feel nervous... you feel... you hesitate to answer because you get the negative response from the lecturers...in this course so far... we're all received positive responses...from [course lecturer] and from you.
Researcher: ...ok...well... thanks a lot [Student 3]
Student 3: ...ok...

Researcher: ...we did this recording today on the 14th of January 1992....thanks a lot then - thanks for your time.
Student 3: ...ok...

TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW OF AN EXPERT (R. Heath, 2-4-92)

RH: yeah...it does point out something about video that I can't crack...and that is that...teachers start suspicious...and they...they are ready to find fault...so the maker of teacher training videos has to be aware that if the class isn't the same size as...their own kind of class...if it is a studio recording...em...immediately some of them will start...oh...my class hasn't got air-conditioning...or...whatever...and somehow or other they seem to want it to fail...or to be able to be able to say...I couldn't do that because...and...and...in the making of these...you've got to be aware of that...
Researcher: hmm...how would you overcome that...I mean...what would you actually have to take into account...
RH: well..the first thing is I...and it was an early mistake if you like...I made videos of myself...er...teaching...now here's an ego thing here you think...well obviously the best teacher is someone who teachers like I do...that is a view I now have come to...[laughs]...substantially modify...yeah...the first thing you gotta do is deflate yourself...well...the more teachers you see and the more you realise that the quiet...not so articulate teachers...are actually in the Asian situation getting more out of the kids...particularly in the elicitation skills......the lack of fear of silence and so on...I think that is something crucial to catch on...on...video so the non...the not so dynamic teacher who doesn't intimidate kids is very important...one...because it is good teaching anyway...and the whole non-threatening environment...but with teachers who are suspicious of video...er...immediately warm to that sort of person...some even say...that teachers was very good...I mean she got the kids doing good things...but I think I can do better than that...now that is when I thought I am getting somewhere...so...I...I...completely change the kind of material that I was getting...I deliberately chose the non-threatening...non-flamboyant teacher who was still doing everything right...
Researcher: yes...
RH: well that is right in inverted commas...you know...but the methodology was fine...the...not over-correcting and stifling the kids and that sort of thing...the quiet correctors...I found that came over very well on tele...on...video
Researcher: were these the people that identified with these kinds of teachers...
RH: I think so...and just in terms of numbers...this is where you have to aim...it's very interesting...the reaction of extremely good teachers to...video...and...that's by no means negative...they tend to be looking for different things...as far...as methods and so on concerned...done that...done that...can even do better than that...I got a better game than she did...than she had there...but they are very...they're often very interested in teachers who do the things that they do...if you as the leader trainer praise them...then they think...good...I'm on the right track...in fact I'm doing a bit better...so actually they react very positively...but in terms of economies of numbers...we can't aim at them...the very weak...who can be extremely negative...are...actually this may sound a bit brutal...we just have to forget that group...in any teacher training situation...there's going to be a certain core at the bottom...not too competent...maybe shouldn't be in teaching...I've concluded nothing can be done for them...except by bureaucracies to say go and find another job...so...we...we are looking at the middle...and this is where your selection of teachers...situation...the real...the not too artificial has to be very carefully done...
Researcher: tell me...do you see any value to this kind of...inputs...you know...showing teachers...live classroom teachers...for trainees...
RH: yes...I certainly do...now...frankly...I wouldn't dream of being involved in any course where I didn't have access to ...either ready made material...such as you have shown me...or a situation where I could make a lot...so if I was posted to Bangladesh tomorrow...and they didn't have any...I don't know...I would get my own video camera and I'd go out and and I'd just start canning lessons immediately so...value...I think actually it should be the core...I would base a training course round it...rather than the other way...of thinking I've got my training programme...and then...occasionally I'll bring in a video to demonstrate a point...I would...I am a sufficient enthusiast to say I'd make it central...and use that as the take-off point to do other things...for instance in the teaching of writing...there's an awful lot to be done outside of what can be done on a video...but ...as a blast-off...this is great...but

then...you get teachers working on texts and looking for suitable...em...factual writing texts to do something with...there's lots of work you'd do outside of it...but I would actually use...the material you have shown me as a blast-off...
Researcher: don't you think there is a danger that your whole approach would become repetitive...and perhaps repetitive...
RH: I suppose that danger is there anyway...but...what else do you have...if you have the old teacher training lecture...I mean that was boring almost before it started ...quite...quite frankly...so I think you have to look...in terms of reaction against the lecture...I was all staggered without...getting down to any sort of slander to see teachers tottering off to a two hour lecture with one manila folder underneath their hand...and I thought...boy...that looks like some boring stuff coming up...you know...I mean...fundamentally...you wouldn't arrive at a teacher training situation without materials...without videos...without demonstration stuff...without things for them to do...without getting them involved doing things...even old fashioned things like dictation...well it's come back now...my session for dictation would go something like this...a video input of someone doing it in a certain way...then we would discuss with the teachers...how that differs from the way they would do it...or whether they would do it at all...I would then give a bit of theoretical stuff...and look at a few texts...but then you get to the activities...where are you going to put the breaks in the bits you dictate...then I get them to dictate to each other in groups and so on...so the activity session...the word lecture should be banned...today...I would call them sessions...em...what do you call the people who do it...sessioners not lecturers [laughter]...but I mean the teacher training session has got to be broken up the way a lesson has...and...and one of the curses of all teacher training is the hypocrisy thing...you know...we tell...the students break up your lesson...don't do one activity too long...and boring...and then some go in for two hours with a manila folder and ten pages of notes and read them out aloud...I think it is scandalous...and the students are not stupid...they pick this up...so video would...I would make it the basis...it would be one of the many things we did...give them a break from the lecturer's voice...different voices...different...different teachers...so to react to one of the things you were discussing earlier should you not have ...a couple of teachers...going through many stages...I really think there is terrific value...in seeing a huge variety of competen=nce if you like...but of style...of the ordinary teacher making things work...I really think that's very valuable...because I found when I've shown...where we have seen six or seven teachers...erm...when I listen in on the coffee afterwards...which is far better evaluation than the formal one...when I listen in afterwards...very interesting to hear then say...that third guy...you know the Chinese teacher with the all girls class...wasn't she...and then you go into another group and...didn't like the teacher with the all girls class but I thought so and so...so it seems different teachers and styles strike different chords with different recipients...
Researcher: yeah...
RH: so...I think that ...that makes the case for having a really large number...and in a situation like Singapore...Malaysia...you...you need to see Indian teachers...Malay teachers...Chinese teachers...so you've gotta have three for start...so that's one of the realities...
Researcher: what will they get out of it actually...
RH: I mean...one of the things is that...many teachers...quietly would like to do some of these things...they have a terrific fear of chaos...and...and they are quite right to have this fear...and to see ordinary teachers doing things like groupwork...which doesn't erupt into chaos...or doesn't dissolve entirely into kids using Bahasa Malaysia...or Chinese...or Tamil...or whatever...I think is extremely reassuring...to see ordinary competent people...structuring a lesson sensibly...being sensitive...and knowing when to move onto the next stage ...this is good...but there is a paradox here...if you show a whole lesson of 40 minutes...inevitably bits are going to be boring...and if they are not...frankly there is something wrong...because you can't have 40 minutes of dynamism...if you edit it...and compress it...it gives an unrealistic picture...and I can't resolve that...
Researcher: well...what you have seen is about seven minutes...eight minutes segments...what's your reaction been to that...
RH: well I like them...but then I'm making all the allowances from my experience...I sometimes wonder what a not-so-experienced teacher gets out of that...is he filling in those gaps...the probable answer is no...but I don't have a quick answer to that...there's time constraints on your course...but...you don't want to show the boring bits going on for a long

time...when you set the kids working...and say now write...do you want a video of ten minutes of kids writing...just scratch scratch scratch pens..do you want it...and yet when you take it out...you get that lack of balance thing
Researcher: somebody I spoke to suggested inspirational stuff...not the ordinary person...not this sort of stuff which anybody else could have done...
RH: yes...I have seen all your segments...but everything that I saw...would have represented an advance for quite a lot of teachers that I've had...including very adv...experienced teachers...in the sense that they have a lot of years...many...teach the way they were...and nothing has been around to challenge that...so i think fundamentally...as with all sorts of sorts of skills learning you have to start where they are and take them onto the next stage...and...em...even the least dynamic teacher that I saw in your materials...was doing an advance for some of the teachers...right...but I would strongly resist...cos I've been through this one and have the negative reactions to this one...I'd strongly resist the selection of whiz kids...the top people...the sole selection...I think because you are gonna have mixed groups in a...a...selection of 7 to 10 teachers...one really outstanding...natural teacher...flamboyant and so on...to challenge the people at that level...but everyone's got to find something at a level that they can say...that that will take me onto the next stage..I think...that sounds idealistic maybe...I don't know...
Researcher: would these teachers be models then...
RH: yes...I...I tend to resist the phrase model teacher...but there certainly are teachers we can learn from...it's always very interesting to see very good teachers break down...occasionally...that is one of the interesting things to see...the teacher who is an outstanding elicitor strike a situation where the kids are frozen...
Researcher: yeah
RH: yeah...how do they deal with it...and one of the problems with video is that you can't capture some of the problems that teachers have...how are you gonna capture discipline breakdown...if it is the teacher wouldn't want it shown...and if it isn't...some teachers will say if it hasn't broken down...well this isn't my situation...so you have to accept from the outset that there are certain things that you cannot show...but it is very interesting to see very good teachers have a stumble...have a kid who...em...or have silences...em...get things completely off on the wrong tangent...I suppose the difference between the very good teachers and the others is they know they are doing it ...and they self-correct...
Researcher: yes
RH: [laughs]...the weak teacher goes off on a tangent and never comes back...that I don't know whether you can show on video...but...
Researcher: or whether you want to...
RH: or whether you want to...you just have to accept...one of the features of very indifferent teaching I think is a total lack of direction...and total lack of objectives...now...you wouldn't want on video a lesson like that...but you can get bits where the teacher's gone off and self-corrects...I didn't see it on your video materials...but that is quite an interesting thing...because it's all ...it's a consciousness raising exercise...it's an awareness thing...very interesting to see the greats...do these things as well...have these faults...
Researcher: what should materials like these focus on...methods...personality...teacher control...in EL teacher training...
RH: yes...certainly years ago I would have said methods...this is what teachers need...I still think that...I am by no means an anti-methods person...but what is very clear is that a different teacher can make a shocking mess of the best method...I'm quite interested in what a teacher can do with indifferent material...if you go to a school and they have got what you consider to be a rotten text book...one of the differences between a good teacher and a bad teacher is that a good teacher can still rise above it...you can use a dreary old textbook in interesting way...you know...but no...I would like a balance...for the teachers who are already there in terms of methods...or they think they are...then they will be looking for different things...style...personality...elicitation techniques...and whatever...but the great middle are..in my opinion...very impressed to see a workable method working...I would want for the teacher who is most of the way there...I'd actually see it as a small part of it...it would mainly be workable things...how do you get kids to speak more...and better...the teacher who...having heard a pupil speak for...a little while...waits for a bit...and then says...could you say something more...
Researcher: hmm...

RH: ...and there's another gap and then the kid does it and I found ordinary teachers say...wow...that really got the kid speaking didn't it...and they are very impressed with that...and so am I...
Researcher: you mean materials produced by you
RH: ah...but I'm looking at the materials you got there...where...now let me think...which teacher...can't remember now...
Researcher: was it the groupwork
RH: was it the groupwork one...
Researcher: a Malay lady...
RH: yes...who had a quiet mannerism...and she came around...and...she encouraged...this is what a lot of the teachers need...what is the function of the teacher...in groupwork...is an area that they are very insecure about...am being lazy...am I doing my job...when I'm doing groupwork...yes it is very hard work...but she moved around quietly...and she got the kids to do things...and in the end when they got up and spoke their little bits...a little bit stilted but...an advance on many kids...many teachers...because the curse of teaching in South East Asia generally is the one-word answer...
Researcher: yes
RH: is the style of teaching that which elicits a one word answer...and teachers have even evolved their own style of speaking to elicit it...I call it the scoop...and then he went to the market and bought 'sooomme'...and the kids know to say fish...I'm eliciting they say...you know...they said ten words in forty minutes...nine were fish...so many teachers are at that level...quite small things are an amazing advance on ...like elicitation techniques...like...can you tell me some more...could you say something about......to get teachers to use words like tell...technically you cannot tell in one word...these are the ares...I'm looking at...where teachers are at...the one word response...the chorus chant...and so on...particularly in the rural areas in Malaysia...I've travelled around and seen teachers in Sabah and whatever...relatively minor things are quite a major advance...
Researcher: what do you see as the major problems in teacher education...
RH ...the universal one...people teach the way they were taught...and we have to recognise that we gotta move on from that...and secondly...there is the breaking down...the automatic ...it won't work here...even before they started on the task...the video clip...the worksheet...the thing...the sort of it won't work here..I don't know...people here are not negative...enormously enthusiastic...why are those same people...hesitant and negative in a teacher training situation...that's got to be attacked immediately...thirdly...a fairly consistent underestimate of the pupils...there's a certain amount of hocus-pocus about Asians are not shy and don't speak at all...it's amazing...how a small change of methodology...students who appear to be shy...inarticulate...given the right stuff...will open up...laugh and so on...when you use praise...you see the inarticulate kid becoming more articulate...and if I'd shot hundreds of hours of video...and I was looking for chunks...I'd really be looking for the successful use of praise and no-threat...and that's something the very experienced teacher can get something out of...because sometimes they get so confident with...methods actually dominating the lesson so much...another one...this obsession with writing
Researcher: can I bring you back to this...you have had a look at this...what do you think of the range of topics...the units
RH: well I'm very impressed with it...to the point where I said...if...I was in the situation where I had this ...I would personally use it as a foundation for a course...I would see some lecturers wanting to just spot it...why not...you put it in their hand...in the end it is how people use it...I'm rather dismayed at how unsystematic many people's courses are...I mean here you have got a...nicely structured series of units...which seem to be balanced...it isn't everything...there are areas you can't show on video...areas of classroom management and discipline which are part of English...that you can't cover in this way...I've mentioned already...there's a lot of work on the teaching of writing which you can only do so far in video...after that they've got to be working on texts and doing a lot of...doing a lot of other things.
Researcher: Because you can take them up to the point of writing...can't you...but you can't show them the real writing.
RH: You can't show them the real thing...and in the end...the only test of a good writing programme is what the kids write...so...I...I've seen brilliant lessons...to motivate kids writing...and in the end what they come up with was garbage...I'm sorry to say.

Researcher: um.
RH: So...you know...we can't say...we've got all the answers here...but looking at the balance of things here...it does address the areas a lot...where teachers...er...timid...need more work...and whatever...looking at headings like working with groups...getting pupils to speak...the teaching of listening and so on...probably new ways of dealing with errors...questioning...I...I would have...if I had been doing it...I would have had a whole unit called elicitation or...maybe that's getting pupils to speak...but there's more than just that...how do you get language out of pupils...but it seems...looks to me to have a good balance in addressing...the needs in Malaysia...you know a lot more than I do...that I've seen...yeah
Researcher: ...and...if I gave you the materials...how would you use them...if I gave you a set of videos and you also had other videos.
RH: um.
Researcher: how would you use them.
RH: well because I'm very experienced...I've got my own programme...when I say I'll base it on it...I think probably a new lecturer...someone...relatively new...to...to...this...and...and a Malaysian...not an expert flown in from outer space...I think...would be well advised to...to...use it...in the sequence that is here...until the person developed their own set of...of things...so...I'm...I'm thinking aloud as I'm talking here...I...because I've already got a lot of already prepared material...would...would...er...substantially plunder and spot...bits...erm...there might be whole sections I might want to use...I like to spend a lot of time on dealing with errors...because its...I find teachers very receptive there...
Researcher: Yes
RH: because they...everybody deals with errors in some way...am...having said that...I've seen a couple of teachers who weren't and I had to get on to them (laughs) and say to them...go on (laughs)...something's gone wrong with your cultural upbringing...yeah...I think that is a very good area so I...I would probably use whole sections...other bits...as I say...I've been in the game a long time...I might just spot it...but you're probably looking At training relatively...new lecturers in teacher training...this is a very major area...
Researcher: we tried to work in two kind of tasks...one pure observation...then what I would call a reflective kind...what do you think of this...how would you have done it...
RH: I agree absolutely with the Pre-tasks...particularly I was looking at the one on groupwork...do you agree or disagree with these things...I think its very important to get that sort of pre-viewing...in the mind...dealing with prejudices right from the start...as far as the analytical stuff afterwards...I have to get mentally prepared for an incredible variety of responses...teachers who watch a video lesson...some saw 22...some saw seven...some never saw any stages...I don't know what it is...highly educated articulate teachers...often cannot analyse...and see segments...you know...you'd have to have your eyes closed not to see...but some teachers...
Researcher: tell me...do you think pre-service teachers can answer the reflective type of question...what would you have done...what's your view...is it worth asking in the first place...
RH: that's a tricky one ...I keep getting reminded...when I'm with pre-service teachers...that the assumptions we are making...they don't know what they would have done...to a great extent..we are answering questions that they are not asking...what would have been a better way to do this...they never thought to do it in the first place...let alone a better one...I think at the risk of using a dismal platitude...pre-service has got to be consciousness raising stuff...without a phenomenal amount of detail...I'm inclined to think...a series of almost one off solutions to problems...but the last thing they can cope with is ten different ways of doing the same thing...I don't want five...I want one...to some extent I think pre-service need a bit of that...this is the way to get children to ask a question...I actually think we overwhelm them with variety...but later...mid-service...inservice...er...I mean is a major distinction
Researcher: yes
RH: staggeringly...we find teachers who are mid-service who are making the mistakes of pre-service...but...I'd never give up...I've seen teachers change for the better
Researcher: we are charging a hundred and fifty Malaysian ringgit in Malaysia...outside...I'm afraid in Singapore...you'll be charged £150...what do you

think...value for money
RH: what's that four hundred and fifty dollars...I'm not very good...but incredible value in Malaysia
Researcher: ok...thanks

APPENDIX 7

ONE DAY'S ENTRIES IN RESEARCHER'S DIARY

NO. 25 **DATE: 16/1/92 [Thursday]**

1. Interviewed 2 more students today.

   i. [Student 6] - BA with Ed. - shows interest.

   ii. [Student 7] - BA with Ed. - from Sarawak contributes to discussion.

2. Once again, generally favourable feedback, but the worksheets tasks were considered in some cases to be useful, vague in others and confusing in some cases. Discussion, and my input was valued. [Student 6] feels worksheets should not be graded. They all want their worksheets back.

3. Have just tried Unit 5 with Group 2 as replacement class. It went alright, but a number of issues came up (from students) for which I tried to answer as best as possible:

   i. Do principles and theory really matter in real teaching?

   ii. Do they really matter in Teaching Practice?

   iii. If they try out techniques and they fail, should they be penalised by poor grades during TP?

   iv. How are they to react when they follow one supervisor's comments and try them out (i.e. follow his suggestions) and another supervisor comes along and disagrees with what they are doing?

4. In discussing possible approaches to these issues, almost 45 minutes were taken up.

   i. I tried to explain the value of theory and principles with examples of cooking and the difference between an `engineer and a mechanic'.

   ii. I tried to teach the value of life long education.

   iii. That `recipes' do not always work - that if you knew principles, you can always create recipes.

   iv. That there are no correct techniques and that a list of these can easily be collected from their readings.

   v. That they could show the 2nd supervisor their Record Book with the first lecturer's comments as justification for what they are doing.

   vi. That they should not worry about grades. For example, if 12 worksheets were evaluated for 20 marks, surely each worksheet will perhaps only be worth 1 mark each, and the essay 8! Could they not get 1 mark from each worksheet?

5. Ran out of time. Could only view 4 out of 5 segments even though[course lecturer] was not present.

6. I am shocked to find out that in the School of Education, they do not replace lectures on tutorials lost through public holidays. Replacement with 2 class sessions was called an `inefficient way of replacing when 1 class (i.e.for all groups) would be enough as replacement'. [Course lecturer] was not able to attend.

7. The questions that came up in the Group 2 class arose when I asked the question "What principle does starting a lesson with reading aloud a text either support or disagree with?"
I intended pointing out that it violates the `teach before testing' principle (i.e. reading aloud by pupils is really a testing device based on individual pupil's performance), and that it may support the traditional `listening, speaking, reading, writing' progression principle. This was when a student (the mature one) asked why bother with principles and theory that have no relevance for the `realities of teaching' when `techniques that work will be more useful'.

8. I spent some time showing / telling how reading aloud.

i. has to be taught.

ii. can be made into a genuine listening task given a prelistening task like "Look out for answers to the following questions".

iii. can be pleasurable and taught with teacher providing a good model.

iv. can be taught by getting pupils to repeat rhythm groups in chorus.

v. can then lead to dictation, or reading, comprehension etc. before being returned to at the end of the lesson.

9. Once again I notice that the Unit does not seem to deal with the topic in detail. For example, it lacks tasks which link "preparation for speaking", "activities preceding speaking", "oral activities" and techniques.

10. Some of the answers given in reader's notes are **cop-outs**.

Having asked questions, there has been a standard "As this question requires feedback, no answers have been given" strategy. Some of these questions are vague, and sometimes refer to specific sources of knowledge that may not be shared by the lecturer or leader.
The basic answers such as "Given such and such a context it is likely that such and such will occur. But if not, it maybe possible that ...." should I feel have been provided.

For example Task 2a and 2b surely could have designer input. Task 13 and 14 could also provide answers. Also Task 16b.
Task 7 should read "When would you" I think. Even this requires some feedback from the designers.

APPENDIX 8

BREAKDOWN OF WORKSHEET TASKS

1. **Basic Format**

Previewing - worksheet
While Viewing - worksheet and discussion
Post Viewing - worksheet and discussion

2. **Number of Viewings** - to vary

3. **Contents**

Unit 1 - Getting Started

Segment 1 - features of introduction

topic of lesson

ways of introducing topic

observation of teacher activities

information overload in instructions

identifying original features in specific episode

Segments 2 - use of Bahasa Malaysia in introduction

Segments 3 - clarification of terminology

language game

ways of getting pupils to use English

Segments 4 - specifying aim of lesson

explaining terms, vocabulary

Post -Viewing how to balance Teacher-talk and Pupil comprehension

Unit 2 - Using Resources (Teacher aids)

Previewing - value and implications of "resources"

Segment 1 - kinds of resources available (general)

specifically in the episode

role play and realism

ways of creating realism

problems of management

how to handle such problems

Segment 2 - teaching tenses

identification of resources

other ways of teaching these and resources to be used

Segment 3 - advantages and disadvantages of visual aids

using posters

Post Viewing - criteria for choosing aids

selecting "valuable" aids

general principles of using resources

Unit 3 - Vocabulary Work

Previewing - some ways of teaching vocabulary

preferred ways

exploring possible places for using pictures

Segment 1 - reading aloud (advantages/disadvantages)

non correction of pupils' pronunciation

techniques used to explain vocabulary

how to explain words like "indigenous"

using Bahasa Malaysia/translation

Segment 2 - how differences are explained

possible additions to these

teacher's objective

analysing effectiveness of lesson

Segment 3 - contextualization

teacher's steps to achieve comprehension

spellings and word

using dictionaries

organising the use of dictionaries

dictionaries - in English and in translation

evaluating Pupil responses

other possible ways of answering

similarities/dissimilarities in treatment

difficult words and specialised terms (value/function)

Segment 4 - teaching objective

teachers techniques and the objective

inferencing

Unit 4 - Groupwork

Previewing - factors in groupwork

Segment 1 - stages of lesson (judging)

how classes can be divided into groups

use of Bahasa Malaysia in discussion

encouraging use of English

teachers-role in groupwork

Segment 2 - individuals in groups (roles)

Segment 3 - teacher role - teacher help

how pupils help each other

Post Viewing - individual attitudes to groupwork

personal observation

personal skill

Unit 5 - Speaking

Previewing - reasons for pupil reluctance to speak

accuracy and fluency

aspects of oral work

Segment 1 - reading aloud (advantages/disadvantages)

steps to encourage pupils to speak

controlled to free expression

possible alternatives

Segment 2 - language functions

dialogue models

dialogue practice

Segment 3 - steps to encourage pupils to speak

encouraging pupil interaction and participation

error correction

Segment 4 - pupil prepared dialogues

teacher role and error correction

Segment 5 - introducing new language

planning pupil participation

the role of the game in leading to free expression

triggering early pupil participation

the use of models

Unit 6 - Writing

Previewing - identifying writing tasks

personal preferences

Segment 1 - stages of lesson

evaluating lesson objectives

alternative methods of creating stories

personal choice

Segment 2 - objectives and stages

alternative strategies

techniques for variety

Post- Viewing steps to achieve skill integration

when written work should be done

personal attitude to the value of writing

Unit 7 - Listening

Previewing - evaluating the 4 skills

pupil opportunities for listening

what strategies could be used in class

Segment 1 - doing a listening comprehension exercise

why pupil made an error

two activities using the same material

Segment 2 - doing a picture dictation

discussing difficulties that arise

anticipating problems

exploiting speaking skills from same materials

Segment 3 - story telling (advantage/disadvantage)

texts and reading aloud (simplified readers)

prediction skills

evaluating pupil enjoyment

Segment 4 - using taped material (advantage/disadvantage)

listening time - tape length

listening - how often?

phases in listening lessons

steps in each phase

Post Viewing - listing language activities

personal preferences

Unit 8 - Dealing With Errors

Previewing - common language errors

possible causes of language errors

Segment 1 - identifying pupil error types

Segment 2 - listing errors

observing error correction

correction and confusion

evaluating pupil learning

other ways of handling errors

Segment 3 - self correction

identifying possible causes of pupil errors

teacher correction technique

Segment 4 - error correction activity

steps to improve the activity

Post- Viewing- noting preferred ways of error correction

Unit 9 - Using Questions

Previewing - question types

how to teach these types

anticipating pupil problems

Segment 1 - introducing the topics

stages in lesson development

analysing aspects of the lesson

problems with answers

overcoming problems of vagueness

how to elicit answers

Segment 2 - tag - questions

techniques to teach question-tags

prediction

Unit 10 - Grammar

Previewing - grammatical items and difficulty

grammatical problems

Segment 1 - identifying structures

evaluating the value of the structure taught

evaluating the function of the structure

use of songs

Segment 2 - using definitions and examples (verb)

teaching knowledge and teacher skills

possible alternatives

correcting errors

explaining differences in abilities (pupil's)

catering for different abilities

evaluating pupil response

ways to differentiate nouns and verbs

teacher urgency in class

Segment 3 - handouts and reading aloud (modeling)

teacher error - and self correction

overcoming pupil errors/difficulties

Post-Viewing teaching tenses

grammar and giving rules

Unit 11 - Integrating Skills

Previewing - 4 language skills

interdependence of skills

receptive and productive skills

Segment 1 - identifying skills practised

listing different ways of practising each skill

identifying the most useful and most interesting skills/techniques

ways to practice spoken and written skills

Segment 2 - an exercise in identifying how the skills were used

evaluating pupil's opportunition for equal skills practice

how to use texts

Post Viewing text and topic based lessons

the value of planning, not planning

value of integrating skills

Unit 12 - Projects

Previewing - features of projects

personal attitudes to projects

Segment 1 - identifying lesson stages

reasons/factors for success

anticipating difficulties

Segment 2 - identifying emphasis of lesson

evaluating the emphases

evaluating the pupil abilities and tasks

project length

identifying tasks and evaluating difficulties

Post- Viewing value of project work

alternative projects

planning projects

skills required

What I see as the challenges facing me as I prepare to be an English Language teacher.

It is generally felt that the standard of English in our schools has steadily declined over the years with the implementation of Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction. However, of late, the situation has worsened as shown by last year's SPM English results and this is certainly cause for concern among the educational fraternity. "Why did this happen?" and "Who is to be blamed?" are some of the questions we keep asking ourselves. Before we start pointing accusing fingers at any particular group, be they students, teachers, parents, society or the educational system, let us, in all honesty, ask ourselves what are the steps we have taken or are going to take in order to rectify and improve the current situation before the standard of English among our students continue to go down the drain.

Having been an English teacher for the past 5½ years and will still be one after graduating next year, I feel that the role of the English Language teacher is undeniably important because the teacher is the one who is instrumental in guiding, motivating, developing and building up the students confidence and proficiency in the language.

Sometime ago, I remember reading about an English teacher, Azimah Aziz, who was sent to teach English in a Felda Scheme secondary school in Pahang. While serving there, she managed to chalk up an amazing 44 % pass rate from a near zero pass rate in the subject in the SRP examination. Certainly, she is one teacher who has proven to us that good teachers can make a world of difference, especially in a situation where students feel that they have no reason to learn a language they have little or no use for.

What therefore are the challenges that lies ahead of me in preparing to be an efficient and dedicated English Language teacher? To me, the most important challenge would be to help arrest the continual decline of the standard of English in

our schools. In order to meet this challenge, as a teacher, I need to have the right and positive attitude in me. Without this kind of attitude, a teacher will never be effective in her teaching. Therefore, every teacher of English, first of all, need to have a liking for the subject. For example, if I were sent to a school where the students are uninterested in English, what should I do ? "Should I give up on them since they possess that lackadaisical attitude?" or "Should I continue to guide them to the best of my ability to make sure they understand all that has been taught?" This is where the question of attitude arises. I can equip myself with the best knowledge in English yet cannot produce the desired result simply because I do not have the right attitude in carrying out my duties. So it does not really matter where I am sent to, be it an urban or rural school, a good or poor class, a keenly interested or totally uninterested group of students. My job is to guide and help them to comprehend all that has been taught and to improve their level of proficiency in the language.

The next challenge would be to find ways to encourage my students to have a liking for the subject. A good teacher, as I see it, is one who is able to motivate a group of uninterested students to become keenly interested to learn. Once I managed to build up their interest, the job of teaching them would be much easier. When they are motivated, the desire to learn the language will spur them to work harder. Thus, slowly but surely, improvements will be seen over the years.

The third challenge for me would be to be proficient in the language myself. Having the right attitude and the ability to motivate would not suffice if I do not equip myself with the necessary knowledge to teach effectively. It is therfore, important for me to be well versed in the subject before I can impart the knowledge to my students. Being more proficien in the language also helps to build up my confidence and credibility as a teacher of English.

However, equipping myself with all the knowledge in the subject will not necessary make me a good teacher unless and until I have mastered the art of teaching which brings me to the fourth challenge. This would be the ability to use the right approach and suitable method and to incorporate a mixture of techniques, activities and resources in a lesson plan so that teaching the language can be carried out effectively. Thus, it means that I should know how to plan a lesson well by following the two principles : variety and flexibility. By variety, I mean having different types of activities so that learning will be fun and interesting instead of dull and monotonous. By varying the use of resources, I will be able to enliven the class, making students to be more responsive and attentive. By flexibility, I mean the ability to use different techniques in teaching different levels of proficiency of my students. I should create an atmosphere where learning is stimulating and interesting. In short, planning a lesson well involves a combination of techniques, activities and resources that will be suitable for a particular class.

The above are the four main challenges I have to face as I prepare myself to be an English Language teacher. If I am able to meet these challenges and overcome them, I believe I will be a good English Language teacher.

In line with our Prime Minister's aspiration to see a developed nation by the year 2020, I hope all English teachers would play their part in improving the standard of English among our younger generations as I believe that English has and will continue to be an important tool in the progress and development of this nation whether socially, economically or politically.

UNIT TWELVE
MOVING ON TO PROJECTS

Pre-viewing

Task 1

Which of the following points would you use to define language project work? *Tick the box.*

A language project is language work:-

- based on a theme or topic ☐
- involving pupils moving about and doing things ☐
- done outside the class ☐
- involving more than one lesson to complete ☐
- involving a considerable length of time ☐
- requiring individual or group activity ☐
- that leads to a finished product as a result of extended work ☐
- which involves using all of the language skills ☐
- which encourages pupils to use English freely to communicate ☐

Task 2

Which of the statements below describes the way you feel about carrying out projects work in class? *Tick the box.*

- I use project work in class ☐
- I like using project work ☐
- I think project work is useful,

  but
  - I haven't the time ☐
  - I haven't any resources ☐
  - my pupils wouldn't be able to do it ☐
  - I don't quite know what to do ☐
  - I'm a bit nervous about it ☐
- I don't think project work is useful

  because
  - pupils waste time ☐
  - not everyone speaks English ☐
  - they require so much organisation ☐

Discuss your choices with a partner. Be prepared to say why you feel the way you do.

SEGMENT 1

Look at Segment 1.

Task 3

Describe the various stages of the lesson.

____

____

____

____

____

____

Now look at Segment 1 again and fully complete Task 3. When you have finished, compare your list with a partner's.

Task 4

a. Read the points below. If you think they contribute to the success of the lesson, tick the boxes; otherwise leave them blank.

- the teacher chose a project with a product in mind, namely, a brochure ☐
- the theme is motivating ☐
- some of the pupils are quite good at English ☐
- the stages of the lesson are very carefully planned ☐
- the teacher brings sample brochures into the class ☐
- the pupils themselves plan the topics to work on ☐
- each group chooses its own topic ☐

- the pupils have to do some work outside the classroom ☐
- the teacher supervises the group discussions/planning ☐

Now look at Segment 1 again and complete Task 4 a.

b. When you have finished, select the three points which you consider the most important. Discuss your choices with your working group.

Task 5

Dealing with longer tasks like project work can present unexpected difficulties.

What specific steps does the teacher take to anticipate and limit such possible problems?

Describe any two (2).

1. ____

____

2. ____

____

SEGMENT 2

Look at Segment 2.

Task 6

a. Which of the following aspects does the teacher place emphasis upon? *Tick the box.*

- English language work ☐
- checking on work done ☐
- evaluating pupils' output ☐
- planning the next phase of the project ☐
- assigning further duties ☐

b. What do you think were her reasons for emphasizing those aspects?

____

____

c. Would you include any other assignment at this stage? If so, what would it be?

____

____

d. Why would you include it?

____

____

Task 7

Is there any evidence that the pupils in this class intend to complete the project? Give three (3) examples.

1. ____
2. ____
3. ____

Task 8

a. From the teacher's instructions, how many more lessons do you think the project will involve?

____

b. What activities do you think remain to be completed during the lessons to come?

____

____

____

Post-viewing

Task 9

Which of the following do you agree with? *Tick the box.*

- lessons built around project work are motivating ☐
- project work cannot really be called "work" in the English language ☐
- project work allows for non-obvious language enrichment ☐
- work on projects is too demanding to be really beneficial ☐
- project work must provide some benefit, and is therefore worth attempting ☐

Task 10

Go back to the notes you made in Tasks 1 and 2. If your choices have changed in any way as a result of working on this unit, note the changes here.

____

____

____

Discuss the changes in your choices with a partner.

Task 11

a. Can you think of a project you would like to attempt with a class? Describe it briefly.

____

____

c. What details would you, as teacher, have to pay specific attention to in attempting the project you have in mind?

____

____

____

d. What kinds of language skills do you think the pupils will need in order to complete the project?

____

____

____

UNIT TWELVE
MOVING ON TO PROJECTS

Pre viewing

Task 1

There are many ways of looking at projects, and very often these are determined by the subject - e.g. in a geography lesson, the building of a relief model of an area. Language projects, however, have a number of characteristics like :-

- work involving some length of time (sometimes two or three days of work)
- free use of language (as compared to the controlled use of language in a role-play and simple communication activities like information-gap games, shopping, giving directions, etc.)
- a theme or topic (like "dangers to health", "types of crimes", "spending habits" and so on)
- individual or group work both in and out of the classroom, or in school

It may be useful for you to think of the following classifications:-

- bridging-activities (which are not longer than simple class exercises)
- mini-projects (e.g. a survey of classmates' parents' occupations)
- full-scale projects like the one you will see in this unit

Task 2

This task requires input from the viewer and will probably elicit many varying opinions.

SEGMENT 1

Task 3

The various stages of the lesson are as follows:-

- the teacher explains the rationale and context of the work the pupils are to do.
- she shows an example of the finished product.
- she elicits pupils' choices of topics to be dealt with, and limits the choices.
- she gives clear instructions about the formation of groups, and the selection of topics.
- pupils form groups and pick their choices.
- the teacher explains what the groups have to do.
- pupils discuss and plan their strategy while the teacher walks around monitoring and guiding the discussions.
- the teacher finishes the lesson by explaining what has to be done and when the homework is to be completed.

Task 4

Task 4 a and b requires discussion and input from the viewers. No suggestions have been made.

Task 5

A teacher can do a number of things. Here are a few examples.

- She limits the groupwork choices to specific topics so that the work is manageable.
- She provides examples of the finished product so that pupils know what is expected of them.

- she controls the group discussions so that pupils stick to the tasks at hand. She also guides the groups on what to do, and what problems have to be anticipated.

- she gives clear instructions about what to do for the lesson, and what has to be done for homework.

- she provides a clear time frame for the work. She insists that each pupil knows exactly what he has to do, and, when and where he is going to do it.

SEGMENT 2

Task 6

a. One notices that very little English language work (in the traditional sense) is done. Rather, language work is incidental, and arises out of the activity. In this lesson, the teacher seems more concerned with checking on what has been done, and assigning further duties.

b. In Segment 1, the teacher has already explained that group leaders are to edit the information and that she would edit only the finished (i.e., pre-printing) product/material.

   Futhermore, her attitude indicates that she has confidence in the groups fulfilling/completing their tasks. As such, she seems not to want to interfere.

   It is important that she checks on work done, and suggest solutions to problems that might arise in order that the next phase of the work can proceed smoothly.

Questions c & d require input from the viewers, opinions elicited will probably vary.

Task 7

1. Firstly, the pupils show that they have completed duties assigned to them.

2. Secondly, we can see that the pupils have assigned duties to those who can perform the tasks within their own groups.

3. Thirdly, one pupil shows that he has tackled the very difficult task of raising money. Would you go ahead and spend $1,000.00 on the strength of his report?

4. Finally, we notice that the pupils, and some leaders have used their judgements and made decisions. For example, decisions about the size of the brochure, and where to display them, and how much to charge.

Task 8

a. There will be at least one more lesson, possibly two (2). Notice that she talks about "coming together and working as a class".

b. Some of these include:-

1. editing of the information
2. planning the layout
3. discussing the final drafts as a class
4. collecting the money promised to them by the hotels
5. getting the brochures edited by the teacher
6. getting them printed
7. marketing the brochures
8. paying the bills

Some of these activities will obviously take place outside the class.

Tasks 9, 10 & 11

Tasks 9, 10 & 11 require deliberation and discussion by the viewers. Opinions will vary.

Personal Details

1. Name: ______________________________

2. Matric No.: __________

3. Age: __________

4. Year/Level: __________

5. Degree Course: ____________________

6. Address in Penang: ______________________________

7. Telephone No.: ______________

8. PPIK (English Section) Courses taken so far:

Year	Course	Grade/Marks

9. PPIP courses taken so far:

Year	Course	Grade/Marks

10. English grade at SPM or equivalent (state): ______________

at STPM or equivalent (state): ______________

11. Teaching Experience:

<u>Length/Period</u> <u>Where</u> <u>Subjects</u> Taught

12. Is teaching your 1st choice of career (delete): Yes/No

13. If you answered "No" to 12, state your 1st choice:

____

____

14. Please explain why you have chosen to be a teacher of English.

____

____

____

____

EXAMPLE OF ONE STUDENT'S RESPONSES TO SPECIAL WORKSHEET 9

NAME: [Student 1] Unit 9

Group: 1 Date:24-2-92

In this session, we will deal with the video segment in a different way.
By now, you have been exposed to a number of lessons and topics dealing with classroom teaching. You have also been discussing a number of issues, problems, techniques and methods arising from the lessons.

TASK 1

After viewing Segment 1, note down here whatever you found significant, or interesting, or problematic, and why. This could be on any aspect(s) of the lesson (such as the topic, teacher, pupil (s), learning-teaching process, method etc.) that you wish to discuss in class.

In this lesson, the teacher is trying to teach the class on how to protect themselves against crime. I feel that the teacher hasn't actually taught the meaning of the word 'crime'. All he did was to elicit examples of crime from the students. He assumes that the students understand the meaning of the word 'crime'. He has given no definition of it. It is good though, to tap the learner's own knowledge by asking examples from them and not giving them examples that they cannot comprehend.

The pupils were rather passive and I find that it is the teacher who gives most of the answers. The teacher was controlling the lesson in the sense that the lesson was lead from start to finish by the teacher and that some responses were his own. Some questions were structured vaguely because some students were unable to give an answer. The students' reluctance to give response may be understandable as they may be just average students who are not familiar with the teacher. I do not seem to be able to find the purpose of this lesson, that is where the lesson is leading to, whether a written exercise is to follow it or the lesson just serves as an introduction to a text which is used for comprehension activities.

TASK 2

What is your evaluation of this lesson, and why?

This lesson seems more like a brainstorming session with teacher's guidance. The reason I say this is that at the beginning of the lesson, the teacher asks students to come up with examples of crimes and ways of protecting ourselves from crime. In my opinion, this lesson is gearing the students toward a written activity, namely a composition on how to protect ourselves from crime.

APPENDIX 13

EXAMPLE OF GROUP DISCUSSION TRANSCRIPT
GROUP 1 (16-3-92).

Student 1: ...very helpful..I think its very useful...
Student 2: ...interesting...
Student 3: ...very monotonous...
Researcher: oh...sorry...

Student 3: ...very monotonous...
Researcher: very monotonous..tell me more...why...

Student 3: ...because we are doing the same thing each lesson...day after day...we are not looking forward...what are we going to do...ok...watching video...same thing every lesson...
Student 4: ...but at least we learn something...though it is the same method...at least we learn...er...different topics every week...
Student 5: ...I think what [Student 4] is...trying to say is...on our part...we are sort of doing a routine job...
Student 6: ...yes...true...especially the final questionnaire...its getting a bit...[laughter]
Student 7: ...I think I agree with [Student 6]...its like monotonous...er...after a few lessons...I was getting bored with...but later...certain video shows were very interesting...and it really...I didn't mind doing the questionnaire and all that...but in between I think around the fourth or third one...was getting boring...
Student 6: ...and I think...it...effects our ability to...catch...because once we are bored...a bit difficult to pay attention to...
Researcher: what were you bored with...

Student 6: ...sometimes the video was too long...but it depends on the day...you see...[laughter]...depends on the day...if you are having every...long day...usually Monday...we tend to have...microteaching...until one o'clock...four hours at a stretch...lots of times...its difficult to pay attention...
Student 2: ...but on the whole...Mr. Gitu...the approach that PLG 315 is using is totally different from any other Kaedah Mengajar [Teaching Methodology] course...
General: ...yes...
Student 2: ...in a way...I find this very interesting...totally different approach...and I learnt a lot...
Researcher: you learnt a lot...is that the general reaction...for [Student 3]...it was boring...but...

Student 3: ...it was boring in the sense that it is the same thing...but...the method...the approach used is different...we are exposed to something...and we can see for ourselves...what really happened and what we can do...
Researcher: can I ask...what is it that you feel...you have learnt...does anybody...

Student 8: ...the teaching methods...used by the teachers...different...the real classroom situations...

Student 6: ...different possible methods...in the sense...that usually in other classes...they just tell...oh you can do this...you can do that...you don't see it you see...but here you can see it...the possible ways...and you can really see how it works...in the class...not just verbally...you can do this...this method...that method...possible...here after suggesting...we really see the product...

Researcher: is there any importance at all to seeing...

General: ...yes...

Researcher: why...

Student 1: ...I understand better...it stays in my mind and...it really...helps me...

Researcher: have you found yourselves thinking about what you have seen...

General: ...yes...

Researcher: yes...what sort of things...any examples...remembered...or thought about...

Student 4: ...for example...the different ways of starting a lesson...where...by viewing it...we...can...during our practical...we can use that...and we can practise it...

Researcher: that's one example...anybody else...

Student 1: ...one lesson conducted by...Miss Lucille Dass...I think...she asked the students to write...she asked questions and asked them to write down...where I went...and Michael Jackson came out...I think that was very interesting to me...and I was...when I went back I was thinking about it...how am I going to do it in my class...

Researcher: is that the kind of general reaction...pick up things...

General: ...yes...

Researcher: any specific things...

Student 5: ...I like the part about ...the listening comprehension very much...I was fascinated by how he conducted it...where he got his students to predict what the outcome would be...I've never done that...that was something...a positive point for me...

Researcher: any other views...

Student 7: ...the using resources...different types of resources...sometimes you never thought that...such an ordinary thing...you can use...suddenly...so many methods of using it...

Researcher: there was one comment by one of you...in the questionnaire feedback...her point was...I don't think I'm learning anything new...because there is no lecturer input...I feel there should be a lot more lecturer input...what's your reaction to that...there should be a lot

more straight talking...explaining...teaching...

Student 2: ...maybe at the beginning...because we come in...we look at the videos...and do the questionnaires...and we don't know what the theory behind it is...what are we supposed to do...learn...be aware of after we watch the video...
Researcher: but you feel that has changed since

Student 4: ...maybe because we are not used to it...so we don't really know what's going on in the class...as for me...I go back and think about it...and at least I learnt something...the first few lessons yes...was a bit confusing...after that...it gets us to think about what...are really happening in class...
Student 6: ...depends on the individual...I find I learn more...not only by watching...but also by discussing
Researcher: what would you rate the most useful...

General: ...the discussions...
Student 3: ...then the videos...
Researcher: the video...so that came second...

Student 6: ...I think it comes together...we won't discuss without the video...
General: ...yes...
Researcher: what has been the value of the videos...source of discussion...

General: ...yes...
Researcher: what else...

Student 5: ...shows us things to analyse...
Researcher: surely we could have done that without using videos...I could have told you...imagine you are going to do a project...

Student 5: ...that wouldn't have...[laughter]...
Researcher: why...

Student 2: ...because you can't see the student's reactions...
Student 8: ...you see methods...you saw what the students give back...their response...
Student : ...real class situation...
Researcher: ok...I've taken what can be called a reflective approach...I've left it to you all...I've not said yes or no...you must not do this...you must do that...especially in the questions which talk about...what do you think...what's been your reaction to that...

Student 6: ...very good...I think it's been a very good technique...in the sense that it is inductive...teaching...we'll find the answer in ourselves...not by you just telling us...
Researcher: were you able to find answers...

General: ...sometimes...sometimes not...

Student 1: ...maybe with this kind of approach...you didn't tell us that this is the right way...because it depends on the class we are going to get...what kind of students...we have to adapt to the classroom...so by giving us yes or no...this is right...this is wrong...I think it will sort of influence us...so...next time...we'll think twice before we use this kind of method...yes or no should be avoided...

Researcher: avoided...eh...so you think the reflective approach should be maintained...

General: ...yes...

Researcher: [Student 9]...any reactions...from an experienced person...

Student 9: ...yeah...definitely...this is the way to train teachers...I think...because there is no method to a teaching method...a correct teaching method...as [Student 1] correctly said...it all comes to the class situation...it is a there and then thing...there is no correct answer to is this the correct teaching method...and this is what you should do...it all comes to experimenting...you know...and one experiment may not work for another class...so you have to re-adapt...so teaching will really be a...re-adapting process...so from my experience...if the teacher were to say use this method...and not this method...really does not know the work...and I think this is the third time I'm sitting in a language classroom...as a student and learning...my first experience was as a trainee teacher in a college...my second experience was when i was doing a Diploma course in MU [University of Malaya]...and this is my third time to attend...and my reaction to this whole session has been...thank God...somebody has finally seen the sense...to bridge the gap between...theory and practice...what I've got from the other two...my own learning experiences...everybody just gives us theory theory theory...like our Kaedah [methodology] papers...nobody takes the trouble to bridge the theory with the practice...and then we have somebody sensible like Mr.Gitu...

General: ...[laughter]...

Student 9: ...who seems to have at least reflected on this...major problem in training teachers...to sort of bridge the gap between theory and practice...it gives a sample...a taste of what practice...you know...and some theory...in the second week...I was talking to Dr. [course lecturer]...and I said that...as practised...as experienced teacher...that I've enough input from my own training...but that might not be your case...as fresh students...they will be left without any theoretical foundation because they lack that...and I said I think it's a good idea to bridge both...to have both..yes that is good...it exposes the student...but also give a bit of theoretical foundations...so that was after the third week...I don't know if she already planned it...or I talked to her and she started...coming into the lectures...to lecture...but from the feedback from the previous students our seniors...they only say that PLG 315 was boring...because two hours of theory...blah..blah...blah...just kaedah [methodology]...what we use to get in other courses...and believe me...it will bore you to death...and you don't get much...but with this...we are getting the best of both worlds...

Researcher: thank you [Student 9]...does anybody want to add to that...

Student 2: ...I think that [Student 9] said it all...
General: ...[laughter]...
Researcher: there is one point though...since you raise the point...this lecturer said..your approach is nonsense...because if they haven't got any experience...how are they going to reflect...

Student 7: we have our own experience as students...sometimes when I watch...I think about what my teacher did...like the second question...compare...
Student 5: when I watched some of the segments...I did remember...that was what I did in class...you know...
General: ...yeah...[laughter]...
Student 5: ...sometimes the negative ones also...in the segments...not all positive...some negative things...I did it in class [laughs]...and some positive ones...so it was a sort of evaluation for me...
Student 9: ...feedback...
Researcher: what about the tasks themselves...the worksheets to accompany the tapes...I know your complaints...we know...we come in and watch...do the worksheets...would it have been better if we didn't have the worksheets...

General: ...no...
Student 6: worksheets have to accompany...but maybe...
General: ...[laughter]...
Student 2: ...less questions...
Researcher: less questions...

Student 10: ...some of the questions...we had to crack our heads...
General: ...[laughter]...
Researcher: was that good or bad...

Student 10: ...good...but at that time...to think...when we go back and work...it's difficult to remember back...what we have seen in the class...especially...when we have a lot of work to do...we won't be able to remember as we pass on...that's why we take a few weeks to pass up...
General: ...[laughter]...
Student 6: ...sometimes if we do not have the time to do the questionnaire...then we...then its difficult to record...[laughs]...
Student 11: ...I think it's better...to let us finish in class...not too many questions...
Student 2: ...less questions...
Researcher: could you pare it down and throw away a lot of the questions...

Student 6: perhaps like this suggestions part...why would you have...done this...this...maybe these kinds of questions can be done...other times...when you are doing discussions...

Student 7: ...for example...in this unit twelve......I think task eight...we can discuss it just like that...you don't have to write it down...you tell them how many lessons...and what...remain to be completed next lesson and all that...I don't think we need to write it down...we can just discuss it verbally...

Researcher: general feeling...that I ask you questions and you discuss it in class...

general: ...no...not all questions...

Researcher: why do you think I gave you worksheets...

Student 7: ...reinforcement...

Researcher: yes...when the worksheets come back...hopefully you'll be able to remember the various aspects...and because you have written...hopefully you'll be able to to think about those things...anyway...thanks for everything

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