You have downloaded a document from
RE-BUŚ
repository of the University of Silesia in Katowice

Title: Reflectivity in pre-service teacher education a survey of theory and practice

Author: Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Citation style: Gabryś-Barker Danuta. (2012). Reflectivity in pre-service teacher education a survey of theory and practice. Katowice : Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Uznanie autorstwa - Użycie niekomercyjne - Bez utworów zależnych Polska - Licencja ta zezwala na rozpowszechnianie, przedstawianie i wykonywanie utworu jedynie w celach niekomercyjnych oraz pod warunkiem zachowania go w oryginalnej postaci (nie tworzenia utworów zależnych).

UNIWERSYTET ŚLĄSKI W KATOWICACH

Biblioteka Uniwersytetu Śląskiego

Ministerstwo Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego

Danuta Gabryś-Barker

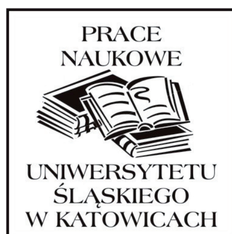
Reflectivity in Pre-Service Teacher Education A Survey of Theory and Practice

WYDAWNICTWO
Uniwersytetu Śląskiego

Reflectivity in Pre-Service Teacher Education
A Survey of Theory and Practice

To all my former students
who are now teachers of English

To Tony



NR 2908

Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Reflectivity in Pre-Service Teacher Education
A Survey of Theory and Practice

Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego Katowice 2012

Editor of the Series: Językoznawstwo Neofilologiczne
Maria Wysocka

Referee
Hanna Komorowska

After this edition runs out, the book will be available online

Śląska Biblioteka Cyfrowa
www.sbc.org.pl

LIST OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements 9
Preface 11

Chapter 1
Teachers as a professional group 15
1.1 Introduction 15
1.2 Stages in teacher professional and career development 16
1.3 Motivation to teach 19
1.3.1 Defining motivation to teach and its components 19
1.3.2 A sample study of pre-service teachers' motivations 25
1.4 Individual differences and systems of beliefs 30
1.4.1 Teachers' beliefs about teaching 30
1.4.2 Self-concept and teacher identity 32
Defining the concepts 32
The process of professional identity development 36
1.4.3 Pre-service teachers' sense of the teaching profession 41
Metaphors of teaching in teachers' narratives 41
A sample study of pre-service teachers' metaphoric categorisation of teaching . 42
Pre-service vs in-service teachers' professional identities 48
1.5 Pre-service teachers' initial development 51
1.5.1 Challenges faced and thematic concerns expressed 51
1.5.2 A sample study of pre-service teachers' challenges and areas of concerns . 53
The study group 53
The thematic areas of concerns 53
The pre-service teachers' comments on project theme choices 57
1.6 Pre-service teachers in the period of school placement 58
1.6.1 Teaching practice: its functions and learning dimensions 58
1.6.2 A sample study of trainees' evaluation of school-based experiences . . . 64

1.7 Summary: The profile of a pre-service teacher . . . 68

Chapter 2
Reflectivity in teacher development . . . 71
2.1 Introduction . . . 71
2.2 Reflection and reflectivity . . . 74
2.2.1 Defining reflectivity (an overview of different perspectives) . . . 74
2.2.2 Different levels of reflection . . . 75
2.2.3 Teachers in action: levels of reflection . . . 78
2.2.4 Reflection in teaching . . . 79
2.2.5 Domains in teachers' reflectivity (empirical data) . . . 80
2.3 Teaching as a knowledge-constructing process . . . 84
2.3.1 Knowledge construction as a process . . . 84
2.3.2 Expert vs novice knowledge . . . 86
2.3.3 Critical thinking and problem solving as attributes of knowledge construction . 87
2.3.4 Experiential learning as learning about teaching . . . 90
2.4 Reflective practice in learning to teach . . . 93
2.4.1 Defining reflective practice and its characteristics . . . 93
2.4.2 Diagnosing pre-service teachers' reflectivity (empirical data) . . . 98
2.5 Pre-service teachers' training in reflective teaching . . . 99
2.5.1 Areas and focus of reflection development . . . 99
2.5.2 Classroom research as a form of reflectivity development . . . 102
Action research as reflection on FL teaching and learning . . . 102
The stages of AR projects . . . 105
Difficulties in carrying out AR projects at the pre-service level . . . 108
2.6 Summary: Creating a new reflective practitioner . . . 109

Chapter 3
From critical incidents to critical events in classroom practice . . . 112
3.1 Introduction . . . 112
3.2 The nature of attention and consciousness . . . 114
3.3 Teacher presence and classroom awareness . . . 117
3.4 Critical incidents (CIs) . . . 119
3.4.1 Defining a critical incident . . . 119
3.4.2 Identifying, describing and analysing critical incidents . . . 126
3.4.3 Studies of critical incidents in teaching . . . 131
An experienced vs a novice teacher (a case study on CIs) . . . 131
The impact of critical incidents . . . 132
Affect-triggering occurences as critical incidents . . . 134
"Seeking satisfaction" . . . 135
"Bumpy moments" in teaching . . . 137

3.5 The cognitive focus of CI analysis: thinking skills 139
3.6 The affective focus of CI analysis: appraisal systems in teaching 140
3.6.1 The nature of appraisal values 140
3.6.2 Tools of appraisal measurement 143
3.6.3 A sample study of appraisal systems in teaching 144
3.7 Summary: From a critical incident to a critical event 148

Chapter 4
Diary studies in developing teachers' reflectivity 151
4.1 Introduction 151
4.2 Teacher narratives as a way of constructing professional knowledge 152
4.3 Teacher diaries (journals) as tools of professional development 158
4.3.1 Functionalities of diaries 158
4.3.2 Characteristics of diaries 160
4.3.3 How to write a diary 162
General guidelines 162
Structuring and analysing a diary entry (an example) 164
Pre-service teachers' diary writing 166
4.4 Sample studies 167
4.4.1 The thematic concerns of diaries: an overview of focus areas 167
4.4.2 Stages in teacher development 168
4.4.3 Journal writing as a way of developing reflective thinking 171
4.4.4 The major diary concerns of pre-service teachers 172
4.4.5 Emotional and cognitive dissonance in L2 teachers' development 174
4.4.6 Affectivity in language learning experiences 178
4.4.7 Diary as a self-assessment tool 179
4.4.8 Teacher learning – student learning 181
4.4.9 Pre-service teachers' perceptions of diary writing 183
4.5 Summary: Teacher stories in diaries 186

Chapter 5
A study of pre-service teachers' development through diary use 190
5.1 Introduction 190
5.2 Project design 193
5.2.1 Research focus 193
5.2.2 Pre-service teachers as a study sample and the teaching context 195
5.2.3 Data collection tools 197
The one-year teacher diary 197
Narrative text 199
5.2.4 Procedures 200
5.3 Data presentation and analysis 201

5.3.1 Narrative texts on perceptions of oneself as a pre-service teacher 201
5.3.2 Identification of CIs and their topic focus 204
Topic concerns of pre-service teachers 204
My beginnings 208
In the middle 210
Towards the end 211
Shifts in concerns: a comparison 212
5.3.3 Analysing critical incidents 214
Ways of reflecting 214
Examples of the trainees' diary entries and their own analysis 215
My beginnings 215
In the middle 219
Towards the end 223
A comment on trainees' ways of reflecting across the three stages . . . 226
5.3.4 Self-evaluation: successes and failures 228
My beginnings 228
In the middle 232
Towards the end 236
Success vs failure rate at different stages: a comparison 239
5.3.5 *My year at school* – trainees' final evaluation of themselves 240
Conceptualising teaching 240
Self-evaluation: strong and weak points 241
A way forward 244
5.4 Summary: Becoming reflective as an evolving process 245

Epilogue: On improving teacher training paradigms 250

Appendix: Unedited sample diary entries 263

References 271

Index of names 293

Subject index 301

Streszczenie 307
Zusammenfassung 308

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This book grew out of enthusiasm for working with my pre-service teachers of English, teacher training college and university students who have demonstrated great dedication to their professional development and who freely contributed to the studies that this book reports on. I would like to acknowledge them all but, alas, they are too numerous. These pre-service teachers were students at the English Teacher Training College in my hometown Gliwice and at the Institute of English, University of Silesia during the academic years 2007-2008–2009-2010.

Finally, I would like to point out that although enthusiasm may be the driving force in teaching and researching teaching, it is not enough. I would like to thank my husband Tony for his careful proofreading of the text in preparation. His patience and attention have been invaluable. Whatever deficiencies may still remain in the expression and argument of this book are, however, my full responsibility.

PREFACE

Motivation is at the heart of everything we do. It drives us to do things and determines how we should go about doing them. It determines our involvement and its intensity in certain actions, and thus brings about success or failure to perform adequately. The motivation I felt to write this book was to develop a new sensitivity towards teacher training at the pre-service level. Pre-service teachers are often referred to as "a special needs group", and as such require special treatment.

Teaching is a learning process and insofar as it is a process it is longitudinal. The narratives presented here give evidence of this. They show how trainees learn from experience, how they reflect on their actions during and after they occur and how these reflections affect their future actions. All the verbal reports and narratives used in this volume are presented in their original unedited form. The decision not to edit the texts was dictated by the utility of showing not only the state of professional awareness of the trainees but also their language competence and ability to reflect in their L2. It is assumed that reflectivity is an important attribute of a good teacher (Russell, 2005). The trainees' reflections are often very descriptive in nature and not productive. Thus one of the major points of focus in the discussion presented in this book is on the nature of reflection and on ways of developing it at the pre-service stage of teaching experience. All the subjects who participated in individual studies conducted by me and reported on in this volume constitute a fairly homogenous sample of trainees. They mostly came from towns, big and small, they did not for the most part come from economically disadvantaged backgrounds and their language learning histories as well as the teacher training programmes they followed were generally uniform.

This book was greatly inspired by Joachim Appel's *Diary of a Language Teacher* (1995), which in the form of unstructured diary entries and thorough academic analyses of their contents presents the EFL teacher's (the author's

own) development throughout his years of school teaching experience. It is an invaluable source of knowledge based on experience, but also on the literature resources the author supports his analyses with. Additionally, it constitutes a very good read for teachers, who can easily identify with the classroom events (and their consequences) described in the diary entries by Appel, a teacher himself. These events were often critical incidents, which are the major object of study of this book.

This book attempts to offer comprehensive coverage of the issues discussed in it, such as the nature of productive reflection and thinking, critical incidents themselves and appraisal systems. It also aims to make the reader think about his/her own teaching experiences, be they at the beginning of a teaching career, connected with the insecurity and threat felt in the classroom by pre-service and novice teachers, or during the later stages of teaching. Simultaneously, the book hopes to bring back the enthusiasm for and passion connected with teaching, especially for experienced teachers who may be going through a period of professional burnout. Hopefully, the material it presents (especially in its empirical diary part) will be of interest to teachers of all levels, at different stages of their professional career and working in different educational settings. Although the empirical part (Chapter 5) reports on EFL pre-service teachers, the experiences reflected upon are not unique to this group of teachers but will be generally familiar to teachers working in other subject areas and on other types of course.

The opening chapter (Chapter 1) looks at teachers as a professional group. It discusses the important issue of teacher motivation, attitudes and beliefs which bear upon their presence in the classroom. The chapter considers the influence of teachers' biographies on their professional development at different stages of their lives. However, the main focus is on pre-service teachers as a group, which is presented on the basis of selected literature and the studies conducted with my own trainee-teachers. Chapter 2 lays out a more theoretical approach, as it sets out to present, illustrate and discuss the key concepts in teacher professional development. Those concepts relate to the understanding of the construct of reflectivity and its different forms, focusing on productive reflectivity and ways of developing it in teacher training programmes, but also by teachers themselves through implementation of action research projects in their own classrooms. Reflectivity is seen here as the key component of teacher knowledge and the major characteristic of a teaching process in the adapted paradigm of teacher training. Chapter 3 introduces theory behind the concept of the critical incident (CI), which is the focus of the empirical part of the book. In it, the principal characteristics and difficulties in identification and categorisation of critical incidents are defined and commented on. The chapter discusses their impact on teachers' perceptions of themselves in the teaching process. The theory is

illustrated with selected examples from published empirical studies investigating critical incidents in different teaching contexts. Chapter 3 therefore constitutes a thorough grounding allowing the reader to come to grips with the study data presented later in the book.

The overall intention of this book is to show how instruction in reflective teaching can be implemented in a teacher training programme by the introduction of diaries as a form of teacher reflection. Chapter 4 presents the teacher diary as a research tool for teachers, by showing examples of its use in various educational projects. It additionally reflects upon the experience of diary writing of the pre-service teachers used in the main study on critical incidents. The data here was collected by means of questionnaires on diary writing administered on completion of the diaries by the subjects. Chapter 5 discusses diary entries collected over a period of one academic year, in which 279 critical incidents were identified and analysed by the trainee-teachers themselves. The anonymity of the answers collected by me from the subjects was strictly maintained in the studies reported on in Chapters 1 to 4 to avoid any bias of interpretation, however one exception was made. That one exception was the diary study of critical incidents (Chapter 5) in which the trainees were sharing their entries with both the researcher and their peers in open discussion sessions organised systematically as feedback. This made the whole study more individually grounded and at the same time demonstrated the extent to which the problems encountered by individual trainees were actually shared by other teachers, which itself offered the subjects some degree of security and comfort.

The final part of the book (Epilogue) recapitulates some of the best ways to develop productive reflectivity in teacher training programmes by introducing classroom-based research and focused diary writing. It comments on the importance of individual involvement and personalised approach to teacher development, and on the role of affectivity in this process.

CHAPTER 1

TEACHERS AS A PROFESSIONAL GROUP

1.1 Introduction

This chapter serves to describe teachers as a professional group, focusing on pre-service teachers during their practice and induction period. I start with a presentation of various models of teacher development looked at from different perspectives, as found in the literature on the subject. When observing teachers over their whole careers, clear developmental stages can be distinguished. Although the major objective of this book is to look at pre-service teachers, commentary is also offered more generally on the follow-up stages, and later phases in teachers' professional lives are delineated by different models.

Next, teacher motivation as a factor of major significance for teacher involvement – first in their own development at the initial training stage but also later on in the years to come – is discussed in this chapter. It must be fairly obvious that trainee-teachers who face their classrooms for the first time do not enter them empty-handed. They hold beliefs which have various origins and possess different degrees of sustainability over time according to the experiences encountered by individual teachers. These are discussed both theoretically and with the aid of illustrative studies.

Personality as a major factor in belief-systems and teacher presence in the classroom, in a more general sense contribute to building teacher identity throughout the whole period of becoming and functioning as a teacher. This process is developmental in nature and undergoes fluctuations. The issue is treated here quite comprehensively, as I believe teacher self-identity and self-conception make for the success and/or failure, the enthusiasm and/or burnout, of every individual teacher, irrespective of his/her teaching context, as it fulfils the felt need of every human to achieve some degree of self-realisation.

1.2 Stages in teacher professional and career development

As in the case of all our life histories, progress is seen as a process which is "successive, linear, hierarchical and progressive, with higher stages being more advanced than lower stages" (Mok, 2005: 56). These characteristics of life change as reflected in professional stages of development will be highly idiosyncratic both in terms of time periods and transitions from one stage to another, as well as in the individual teacher's approach to them. So the criterion of time and involvement in teaching in terms of years does not necessarily correspond to the stages, but it is one's approach to teaching, one's role in it and the major concerns of the teacher (and their thematic focus) that will delineate different phases of every individual teacher's development (Mok, 2005: 56).

The traditional understanding of the stages of teacher development, as expressed in Fuller's model (1969), uses the criterion of concern as the major variable for transition from one stage to another in teachers' professional growth observed over the years of teaching. This model sees teacher development as a three-stage process:

> [...] the self is most concerned in the first stage of survival. Teachers have anxiety about their adequacy, class control and the evaluative opinions of students and colleagues. At the second stage of mastery, task is the largest concern. Teachers are concerned about the performance of their teaching tasks and they are therefore concerned about managing of the features of the teaching situations such as students, time, resources, etc. At the third stage, the impact of their teaching upon students is most concerned. The impact concerns relate to the social and learning needs of pupils, discipline method, curriculum choices, etc. (Mok, 2005: 55)

This description corresponds to the study results of Mok (2005), where the teacher sample of 402 teachers described their professional life in three stages:

- stage one: from 1–5 years of teaching
- stage two: from 6–10 years of school career
- stage three: from 11–24 years in the teaching profession.

The statistical analysis of the data showed that there were ten concerns the teachers expressed about their teaching and that they differed for different stages of their career development.

Table 1.1 Teachers' concerns at different stages (adapted from Mok, 2005: 67–68)

Stage	Concerns (in ranking order)
Stage one	1. Students' discipline and relationship with students. 2. Students' learning and performance. 3. Avoidance of conflict. 4. Teaching efficiency. 5. Personal teaching style. 6. Teaching ability. 7. Evaluation and criticism. 8. Aspirations in education. 9. Job prospects.
Stage two	1. Students' discipline and relationship with students. 2. Teaching for students' learning and performance. 3. Students' social and non-academic needs. 4. Personal teaching style and achievement in school. 5. Avoidance of conflict. 6. Teaching performance. 7. Initiating changes in school. 8. Prospects in teaching. 9. The education system. 10. Non-teaching motives.
Stage three	1. Students' learning and performance. 2. Teaching performance. 3. Personal teaching style and students' non-academic aspects. 4. Teaching efficiency. 5. Avoidance of conflict. 6. Student discipline and relationship with colleagues. 7. Aspirations in education. 8. Job prospects.

An interesting personal account of the first six years of teaching is given by Appel (1995), in which he defines the transition periods between the stages of his teaching career as *survival, change* and *routine*. Teaching experiences are presented in the form of a personal diary and the analysis of its entries from the longitudinal perspective of those six years of teaching English as a foreign language in a German school. The *survival stage* is defined by Appel as the phase of solving immediate problems encountered in the classroom. Primarily these problems relate to class discipline and teaching strains in school contexts, such as staff relationships, control and uncertainty about teaching, etc. Stage two is, as Appel himself says, "no longer about coping with the classroom situation, but about influencing it as well. It describes what were, for me, new perceptions and new methods" (Appel, 1995: xvi). The third stage embraces experiences of how changes previously experimented with can be implemented on a more regular

basis to contribute to more humanistic, and at the same time, easier to control classroom situations.

In a similar vein, using the criterion of teacher concerns, the stages of teacher development have been described by Katz (1979) as *survival, consolidation, renewal, maturity* and by Burden (1980) as *survival, adjustment, mature*. Other theories look at the way teachers approach their development from the initial induction to their in-service experiences and what needs and interests they exhibit (for example, Fessler & Christensen, 1992). This development and perception of its phases are directly linked with the career stages of a given teacher (Table 1.2).

Table 1.2 Stages of a teacher career (based on Fessler & Christensen, 1992)

Stage in teacher's career	Description
Pre-service	• training to become a teacher (a variety of paths) • re-training (in the case of a change of job or subject taught)
Induction	• the initial period of teaching in a given school adapting to its norms and regulations • moving on to a different school age or level of teaching
Competency building	• professional development through personal investment in developing one's skills • establishing one's own methods and techniques of teaching
Enthusiastic and growing	• being skilled and competent but motivated to develop further
Career frustration	• the stage of teacher burnout: lack of enthusiasm • lack of job satisfaction and disillusionment
Career stability	• the feeling of plateau • routine in teaching, no development and stagnation
Career wind-down	• ready to retire • reflecting on the previous stages of his/her teaching career
Career exit	• retirement on the grounds of age • change of a profession/job

Another perspective on teacher development is described in the work of Berliner (1994), who assumes the centrality of teachers' thinking about their job, conceptualised by the type of cognitive processes involved in different phases of teacher development, which is seen as development of teaching expertise. Berliner sees teacher expertise development as a five-stage process (Table 1.3).

As was discussed above, consecutive stages of a teacher's career are marked by fairly clear-cut concerns and themes, but it also needs to be acknowledged that attitude and motivation towards the job constitute a significant factor in the developmental process of teachers' growth. This aspect is discussed next.

Table 1.3 Stages of teacher development: teaching expertise (based on Bartell, 2005: 27)

Level of development	Cognitive approach	Description
Stage 1 Novice	"deliberate"	• learning the theoretical basis for teaching • non-contextualised knowledge • novice's perception of the importance of teaching practice
Stage 2 Advanced beginner	"insighful"	• gathering first experiences • forming perceptions of individual cases as patterns • modifying behaviour according to experience
Stage 3 Competent	"rational"	• make their own decisions and set goals • ability to plan accordingly • awareness of a hierarchy of importance
Stage 4 Proficient	"intuitive"	• have informed intuitions about what works and what does not • holistic perception of the teaching context and learners • quite extensive experiential knowledge
Stage 5 Expert	"arational"	• expertise deriving from extensive knowledge and experience • ability to respond to a variety of situations *fluidly and effortlessly*

1.3 Motivation to teach

1.3.1 Defining motivation to teach and its components

Studies on motivation constitute an extensive body of research on language learning as, unquestionably, personal motivation has proven to be the most significant factor in becoming a successful learner. However, learning cannot be separated from teaching and thus, it would seem that research should also flourish in the area of motivation for teaching, pointing up the need for teacher motivation as a no less important variable in the success of one's students. However, this is not the case. As Dörnyei (2001) writes, there has been a lot of interest in researching teacher job satisfaction and certain phenomena connected with the profession of teacher (such as burnout syndrome, for example), but not much has been reported on the motivation to teach and specifically, its contribution to learners' success. This is all the more surprising as

> the teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that affect the learners' motivation to learn. Broadly speaking, if

> a teacher is motivated to teach, there is a good chance that his or her students will be motivated to learn. (Dörnyei, 2001: 156)

Trying to define motivation to teach, Dörnyei (2001: 156) initially points out that it is a concept that does not depart from the general understanding of what it might mean: a drive to perform an action, based on the value we attach to the outcome of our actions, our goals and expectations, and how determined we are in our behaviour. It can be looked at from the perspective of how much one is ready to commit oneself to the job. On the other hand, it can also be a way of fulfilling one's human needs, as defined by Maslow. Maslow's perception of a human being rests upon the belief that there are different levels of need that have to be satisfied to become fully realised in one's life. They are organised hierarchically – from the primary needs for food and shelter, through emotional needs of friendship and love to higher levels of being creative, successful and realising one's own potential to the full. This hierarchy of needs clearly constitutes a motivational drive at its various levels. It is expressed by the degree of satisfaction one gets from one's actions, which is an important aspect of any job. However, it is especially significant in the case of teachers' work. Nias (1989: 211) says:

> […] it is easy to see how the pressures of the classroom and staffroom life stimulate in teachers, at different times, a felt-need to experience: the sensation of belonging; self-esteem; a feeling of control, or of influence over others; or a sense of fulfillment arising from self-expression and personal development.

Nias also expands a need of fulfillment by adding the factor of degree of effort as significant in teacher motivation. In search of reward, the amount of effort put into work and the pay-off for so doing, is reflected in teaching success and will have the power to either motivate the teacher or will have the opposite effect, making one's motivation decrease if failure occurs, irrespective of how much effort is put into work.

Dörnyei (2001) identifies four major and, at the same time, specific features of motivation to teach: an intrinsic component, contextual factors, its fluctuating character and its fragility.

As statistics show, teacher dropout from the profession is really high, which may be assumed to result from the above-mentioned negative influences the teachers are unable to cope with. That is why the teacher training and induction period needs to address these issues frankly. It is also personal circumstances which make the teacher work in a given school, its location being a significant factor. But if the school does not offer the prospect of promotion

– either in terms of professional advancement or salary increase – the teacher may consider leaving it, or even changing his/her job for some other.

Table 1.4 Specific features of motivation to teach (based on Dörnyei, 2001: 156–165)

Specific components of teacher motivation	Descriptive characteristics
The intrinsic component	• teaching seen as vocation • intrinsic rewards (teaching and working with young people, the subject taught and value of continuous expansion of knowledge, inner job satisfaction): personal efficacy • fulfilling one's psychological needs of being autonomous, relatedness with others, competence (being successful in accomplishing the goal): teaching efficacy
The external (social context) component	• macro-level: value attached to the profession by the society, politicians, parents, etc. • micro-level: a particular institutional structure, standards and norms, climate, cooperation, degree of independence, etc.
The temporal component (fluctuating)	• pursuing a professional development: a planned career • choosing a contingent path (steps and stages in a career, hierarchy steps) • external motives (e.g. power, money, approval, etc.) • internal motives (development of knowledge, interest, success)
The fragility component (negative influences, motivational crisis)	• stress • impediment of independence and autonomy • lack of success (insufficient self-efficacy) • perception of intellectual stagnation • inadequate career structure (limited options)

Job dissatisfaction causes a significant drop out rate in the teaching profession. Rhodes *et al.* (2004) describe a study looking at the reasons for teacher dissatisfaction. They come up with the following variables, presented in a ranking order of importance:

Increase in administration and work load
Poor pupil discipline and behavioral issues
Worsening balance between work and home life
Constant change and initiative overload
Poor pay
Decrease of time in planning and preparation
Low status attributed to teaching by society
Not being valued by managers and other staff in school
Increased control of education by central government
Lack of support from parents in their children's education

Performance management procedures at school
Stress and other health issues
(Rhodes *et al.*, 2004: 75)

Of lesser importance are poor resources for teaching or opportunities for professional development. The reasons enumerated are external and not controllable by teachers. On the other hand, the teachers questioned admitted that what would keep them in the profession would be:

Higher pay
Feeling valued by stakeholders in education
Desire to help children work
Less administration
More non-contact time for planning and preparation
More support with pupil discipline issues
A reduction in overall work load
Good working relations with managers and other staff
Good prospects of career advancement
Smaller class sizes
Better resources for learning and teaching
Support for professional development
(Rhodes *et al.*, 2004: 75)

The picture that emerges from the above data is fairly homogenous and demonstrates that there is a high degree of consistency in what it is that keeps teachers in their profession and what tends to make them quit it. It also shows that different school environments create very different conditions and put different demands on the teachers, for example, in terms of the amount of administrative work or degree of autonomy given to teachers, which will also be contributive factors in teachers' deriving satisfaction from their jobs.

A prolonged dissatisfaction with the teaching profession and a reaction to stressful experience caused by the factors described above, as in the case of other jobs, may lead to what is described in the literature as "burnout". According to Travers and Cooper (1996: 30) burnout can be understood as

> [...] a person's feelings of physical depletion, helplessness, hopelessness, depressions, detachment and especially disillusionment. It has been said that burnout most often occurs as a final step in a progression of unsuccessful attempts by an individual to cope with a variety of conditions that are perceived to be threatening. It is often identified as resulting from distress over a period of time when an individual is not receiving outside support from caring persons.

In their discussion of burnout, Travers and Cooper (1996: 30) relate it directly to the stress teachers experience in their jobs; however, they emphasise that stress does not necessarily lead to burnout:

> *Stress* can be positive or negative depending on the individual's perceptions. It can be of short or long duration. When negative, it throws the person into a state of disequilibrium intellectually, emotionally and physically.
> *Burnout* is the result of unmet needs and unfulfilled expectations and occurs gradually over a period of time. It affects self-esteem. It is characterized by progressive disillusionment. (Travers & Cooper, 1996: 44)

In more detail, burnout can be conceptualised as a three-component phenomenon (Chan, 2006: 1043):

> [...] emotional exhaustion: the feelings of being emotionally drained by the intense contact with other people [...] depersonalization: a negative attitude or callous responses toward people [...] reduced personal accomplishment: decline in one's sense of competence and of successful achievement in working with people.

Such an understanding of burnout and its symptoms demonstrates that it is very much an idiosyncratic phenomenon and not every teacher will be prone to experiencing it in the course of his/her career. However, awareness of its symptoms may constitute a preventive measure against its onset or occurrence. Also, as discussed earlier, positive teacher motivation, seen as a major driving force and a determination to achieve established goals will act as a force decreasing the probability of teacher failure and that which results from repeated instances of it, burnout.

As emphasised earlier, one of the visible manifestations of a teacher's being motivated is his/her enthusiasm in teaching, which often triggers the enthusiasm of learners – as teaching and learning are interactive processes, requiring personal investment and commitment. As Dörnyei (2001: 180) aptly puts it:

> [...] the available research evidence and theorizing suggest that teachers' values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour, as well as general commitment towards the students, their learning and subject matter, constitute some of the most prevailing influences on student motivation.

At the pre-service level of teacher education, various studies demonstrate the hierarchy of factors that influence students' decisions to take the course of training to become teachers. Kniveton (2004) reports on the study carried out

on a group of 384 students from various courses to determine the main reasons for pursuing a chosen career. It was assumed that the choices would be based on a person's sense of his/her ability to cope with the job, gender and family influences. The data showed that:

> The primary motivations to work are instant gratification such as money and liking for the job, then altruistic rewards, then the use of the job to provide status, and, finally, longer-term goals, including pension provision. […] Long-term motivations such as career development, self-esteem and pensions rank low in importance. (Kniveton, 2004: 57–58)

How do these results compare with a more focused sample of novice teachers and their motivations for entering this profession? A study of 400 novice teachers carried out by Goldberg and Proctor (2000, quoted in Bartell, 2005: 10) indicates that the motivations here are much more altruistic and relate to needs of a higher order, such as job satisfaction and its importance. The following were the motives enumerated by the teachers:

- Desire to work with children.
- Love of subject matter.
- Influence of a teacher.
- Belief in the importance of teaching. (Goldberg & Proctor, 2000: 10)

Younger *et al*. (2004), in their study of teacher trainees, come up with similar results in their survey. Commenting on the results obtained, they say:

> At this stage of their proposed career trainees construct their career choice not in terms of career progression […] nor in terms of salary opportunities […], but in terms of intellectual challenge and a commitment to transforming opportunities for children, both in the classroom and in the wider societal context. Trainees are strongly motivated towards a career in teaching and have sustained this despite strong discouragement both from within and outside the profession; in so doing they frequently draw on a strongly moralistic positioning in order to withstand this discouragement. (Younger *et al*., 2004: 258)

Another study of students focusing on the reasons for the choice of a teacher training module in their studies to give them qualifications to teach, Jarvis and Woodrow (2005: 30) provide a quantitative summary of the results. They categorised the answers into five groups, members of which:

1. Want a challenging/stable/rewarding career (45 per cent).
2. Enjoy the subject/want to pass on love of the subject (16 per cent).
3. Love of children/want to work with children/want to inspire young people (12 per cent).
4. Always wanted to teach (6 per cent).
5. Change in career (4 per cent).

What proves to be very interesting is that the reasons for choosing the profession of teacher are different for trainees on different courses. Psychological preferences such as the need to listen and communicate, create enthusiasm and excitement are given in the case of humanities trainees (among them FL instruction) which require so-called facilitative teaching. At the same time, the transmission model of teaching is represented in the motives for choosing teaching sciences, where knowledge, clarity and cohesion are seen as prevailing features (Jarvis & Woodrow, 2005).

Tabor (2008) looks at motivation to become a teacher more holistically. She argues that it is the biography of an individual which is determining. It has to be seen as not just a collection of individual life episodes but as a whole, constituting a larger process of becoming, in which every present stage is deeply rooted in past experience and influenced by the anticipation of events to come in the future. Through the qualitative analysis of a selected group of teachers and their life stories, Tabor (2008) establishes different models for teacher biographies and their impact on the creation and evolution of their beliefs about teaching and how they adapt to specific models of teaching. Her major interest lies in describing the role of interactive patterns within a family, the peer context and professional environment at the stage of adulthood and stabilisation in teachers' lives. She also points out what are the critical events experienced in life and the role of significant persons as variables in becoming a specific type of teacher. In her qualitative analysis of motives for taking up a teaching job, Tabor points to the initial influences of one's family at the earliest stages of life, identification with one's own teacher(s) and early teaching experiences. On the basis of her data, Tabor concludes that although motives were very diverse, some could be understood as more conducive to success in a teaching career than others. However, as the selected teacher's biographies show, this is not always the case. For the process of becoming a teacher is also a process of undergoing changes of motivation – in type and intensity, and often registering the instability of one's beliefs.

1.3.2 A sample study of pre-service teachers' motivations

A study carried out by me (Gabryś-Barker, 2010) on a group of 15 pre-service teachers of EFL demonstrates trainees' reflections on their attitudes and

motivations to teach and on their first classroom experiences. The data was collected from reflective narratives in which the subjects were asked to define their motives for becoming EFL teachers and analyse the most significant factors that contributed to their decisions to enter this job.

The decision to become a FL teacher in the case of most of the students was not immediate. It required re-analysing one's attitude to English, with its culture, their learning experiences, later on their first teaching experiences and less significantly external influences, such as those of family or material benefits:

The decision to become a teacher was not made in a day […].*

First, my motivation was fluctuating wildly: from confidence and fascination with the English language to total lack of believe in my abilities […]. *I was in two minds thinking about future. I was successful.* […]. *I observed a change in my motivation. I would describe it as intrinsic and integrative. I try to make my teaching more personal (learners' needs). Factors: fascination with English, dedication and encouragement from my parents.*

I assume that initial failures and difficulties had an impact on my attitude, self-esteem and the way I perceive myself as a teacher now. I am strong and self-conscious person.

The idea of teaching would not even cross my mind […] *I knew I was well prepared for it, but I would never have guessed that it would give me so much satisfaction. Having control was really exciting. Nonetheless, the best thing was that the others though that I was actually good at it. Together with the thought that I was not as good as I initially assumed my motivation was getting lower and lower. Fortunately there were also nice moments.* […].

A decision was not immediate. I had to mature to it. Factors changing over time, depending on the experience. [First] *all I wanted was travelling all over the world and making the most of my life.*

In the great majority of answers given, intrinsic motivation seems to feature most strongly. The students talk of the need for personal fulfilment:

One has to be mainly motivated intrinsically […] *one has to enjoy working with people and have vocation for teaching* […] *I think that throughout my educational*

* All the quotations in italics are presented in their unedited form (see Preface).

career I was unconsciously preparing myself to become a teacher […] *I managed to pour knowledge into my friends' minds.*

[…] *helping others will give me satisfaction* […] *intrinsic rewards: when I can observe the fruit of my work, when I see students' progress and their growing interest in the subject. I like being autonomous and creative and a job of a teacher gives such an opportunity* […].

The best motivational factor is when you see that what you are doing is successful and important. I feel satisfied when I see that I helped someone to acquire knowledge […].

In particular, those subjects who like challenges and trying themselves out consider becoming a teacher as the best opportunity to test themselves in life:

[…] *teaching is a very challenging and responsible job. I am a person who is willing to take risks and I am not afraid of possible failures. Challenges boost my involvement. Intrinsically motivated and has its roots in my personal features.*

Also their earliest learning experiences exerted a strong impact on the decision to become a teacher. These are understood as both positive and negative experiences:

When I was a child, I used to teach my friends from the block of flats. First of all, I thought it was just a play, now I know that I gained great experience.

To begin with, English used to be a subject that I was not that willing to participate in. Several reasons: perception of language – difficulties, bad teachers. […]. *All of that have contributed to quite negative feelings in me, but it started to change as I was becoming older. Surprisingly, I found myself to be more determined. Seeing that* […] *English plays an essential role in the life of a successful man, overcoming bad impact of my teachers on my perception of English, I put as lot of effort to learn it* […]. *I thought there might be students who perceive English in the same way as me when I was younger. If you are taught by someone who has or had familiar feelings to yours, then he or she is more sensitive and empathetic.*

The initial desire to become fluent in a language, which is considered to be an important factor in personal life success, and admiration for the culture(s) of that language also feature strongly in their reflections:

My growing fascination with English started when I was 6 or 7, when I developed a positive attitude towards the language and culture […]. *First contact through TV cartoons* […]. *My interest in the English-speaking countries gradually rose (music and literature). I became fluent in English and quite comfortable with using it and I developed a belief that I could be successful if I pursued a career somehow connected with L2.* […].

Since I was a child, I have always wanted to be a teacher. When I was in the primary school, my mother used to tell me that this occupation is suitable for women […] *I realized I was pretty good at speaking foreign languages. English and German were the only subjects which I learnt with pleasure.*

The trainees express their preferences and personal satisfaction from working with some age groups (children and teenagers) and see this as a motivating factor:

Children are very special to me. I want to become a teacher in order to help the learners achieve the best that can and take the hard times in their life and learn how to overcome difficult times. […] *to convey the enjoyment of discovery to my students.* […] *the rewards of teaching are immeasurable. You get the satisfaction when the students' eyes light up and when they are thankful to you. I do not want to be just a teacher, I desire to be the best teacher, the one who not only supports and inspires but also the one who encourages and believes in them. I believe that each of my learners can bring something valuable from our thriving world. This motivates me to become a teacher.*

Working with teenagers appears to me very encouraging and stimulating […] *accepted me and cooperated willingly. The positive attitude towards me made me feel confident and relaxed as well as encouraged me to prepare various types of activities* […] *I was surprised and previously afraid.* […] *I enjoy teaching pupils individually, as I get to know them better.* […] *fulfilment and a sense of significance* […] *recognition of efforts by the students and parents stimulate me to put more energy into teaching.*

One of the strongest variables in building motivation to teach is the prior perception of teachers, their authority and professional involvement and expertise, which appear in a substantial number of comments:

I have wanted to become a teacher ever since I was in the elementary school. I always adored my teachers, they were the world to me. They always had open arms, they always seemed to make me smile and they were ready to listen to every

word one said. I felt that I was someone special and successful because of their love, knowledge and support they gave me. […] *wonderful teachers who inspired me* […], *motivated me to make the decision to become a teacher and I thank them with my whole heart.*

Since I was a child, I have always been attached to teachers. I always admired teachers […]. *Thanks to them I learnt and discovered so many things. Along with my growth and the shaping of my views and value system, I was able to state consciously that gaining and sharing knowledge are very high in my hierarchy.* […]. *They have always impressed me and it has been surprising for me to discover how they influenced me, inspired me, changed me and made me want to be a better person.* […].

The often felt anxiety about one's ability to cope with classroom challenges is tested during teaching practice, which in many cases becomes a strong motivating factor for the trainees. It allows the students to become more confident in their first classroom encounters, but also gives them a taste of what it means to be a teacher, both in the positive and satisfactory sense but also in the negative stressful sense:

My motivation to be a FL teacher is very strong and results from the experience that I gained during my teaching practice. This practice allowed me to discover the essence of this profession […]. *First, I wanted to acquire English proficiency.* […]. *Social aspect of teaching. Working with teenagers appears to me very encouraging and stimulating* […] *accepted me and cooperated willingly. The positive attitude towards me made me feel confident and relaxed as well as encouraged me to prepare various types of activities* […] *I was surprised and previously afraid.* […] *I enjoy teaching pupils individually, as I get to know them better.*
[…] *fulfilment and a sense of significance* […] *recognition of efforts by the students and parents stimulate me to put more energy into teaching.*

It must be emphasised, however, that the subjects also demonstrate instrumental motivation expressed as the perceived benefits of being a teacher, but in most of the cases these factors are secondary and seen as compensating for the stress and challenges that a teacher experiences on a daily basis in his/her classroom:

In the college I derived great pleasure from learning E. and teaching it to others. I became tired and disappointed when I encountered the [school] *reality. I decided to turn to someone more experienced. As a consolation think about the positive sides of the profession (salary, bonuses, holidays). Now my motivation*

still balances between the internal and external one, depending on the day, and day experience.

I realized that being a teacher I could earn a respectively good salary without any additional job. Moreover this job provides free weekends and two months' holidays […]. *One should also look for benefits and advantages of this profession. Otherwise, it may be really stressful and depressing to deal with all the problems teachers usually have in the classroom and outside it.*

Results of the studies on trainees and their motivations for choosing this career seem pretty consistent with the way they conceptualise teaching as a vocation and a mission, which is further commented on in the next part of this chapter. (For more detailed studies on teacher motivation, see Dörnyei, 2001 and Bartell, 2005).

1.4 Individual differences and systems of beliefs

1.4.1 Teachers' beliefs about teaching

As Hargreaves (1993: 51) puts it in his discussion of individualism and individuality in the educational context, "A school should have a mission or a sense of mission […]. Missions mitigate uncertainties of teaching by forging common beliefs and purposes among the teaching community." But teachers are individuals, with their own motivations and their own missions. Pre-service and novice teachers do not come empty-handed to their classrooms. They come from certain contexts (educational, personal, social), they have different values and beliefs. They are different on the personal, educational and experiential levels. What they bring is temporary; it fluctuates and evolves over time to finally reach a stage of relative stability. Also, for the pre-service teachers, who are still language learners in the process of completing their professional qualifications, their individual differences and what they bring with themselves to their new classrooms must be seen as important variables in how they set themselves up in the role of teacher at the beginning of this professional journey. It may be assumed, as Kubler LaBoskey (1993: 23) puts it, that

> novices do not enter teacher education programs as blank slates. After many years in classrooms they have ideas about what teachers do. But these ideas are derived from a student perspective, not a teacher perspective, and thus, they are very likely to be inaccurate, inappropriate or incomplete. Such misconceptions

> may distort or block any new information presented in the teacher education program. Consequently, teacher educators need to consider the potential influence of student preconceptions on the reflective activities and programs they design and implement.

The fact that students have varied learning experiences will also make them have very different systems of belief and values in relation to their own performance in a classroom:

> Not all prospective teachers enter teacher education program with the same views. Students vary in their pre-intervention beliefs, particularly in the degree of orientation toward growth and inquiry. (Kubler LaBoskey, 1993: 23)

I would therefore like to discuss now pre-service teachers' beliefs about their role and position in a FL classroom and how they interpret these beliefs in the light of all the factors that have contributed to their formation. A lot has been written about the belief systems of teachers and the values they hold; these are very comprehensively presented by Richards and Lockhart (1994). Just to recapitulate, the authors classify the sources of these beliefs into the following groups:

- teacher's individual experiences as foreign language learners
- teacher's own experience of successfully (or unsuccessfully) applied techniques of teaching in one's own context
- preferred teaching practices and routines in a given institution (*established practice*)
- personally driven preferences (e.g. preferences for more interactive techniques)
- knowledge relating to theories of learning/teaching acquired in the course of training or recently encountered (*educationally-based* or *research-based principles*)
- acceptance of a certain approach or method in teaching (*principles derived from an approach or method*, e.g. belief in communicative language teaching as the best way to develop communicative skills of learners). (Richards & Lockhart, 1994: 30–31)

Different sources of beliefs and/or their combination will undoubtedly contribute to a system of convictions held by any individual teacher in relation to:

- the language taught
- the specificity of a FL learning process
- FL teaching as a process

- the program and syllabus implemented
- FL teaching as a profession. (Richards & Lockhart, 1994: 32–41)

Also learners involved in the process of teaching as passive "receivers" (but also these days seen more as active participants and decision-making agents in it) become significant sources for the beliefs their teachers hold. To make the whole dynamics of beliefs even more complex, learners' convictions and their sources clearly have a contributive power to the way classroom processes unfold. These beliefs relate to some of the same areas as the teachers' systems but will often be of a more indeterminate and misconceived nature, lacking in expertise and awareness in some cases. These beliefs will be formed by the:

- perception of the language learnt and how difficult it is
- attitude to the TL speakers (positive and negative images and stereotypes)
- nature of language learning in its different areas of competence (skills and different aspects of language knowledge)
- learning experiences of the past at different stages of education
- attitude and perception of oneself as a person and as a learner
- the individual goals learners strive for in their language learning. (Richards & Lockhart, 1994: 52–57)

1.4.2 Self-concept and teacher identity

Defining the concepts

The concepts of self-identity in general and teacher identity in particular are fundamental to our understanding of the tensions and conflicts teachers experience at different stages of their professional career, but most vividly at the initial stages of becoming teachers.

Generally, the modern concept of identity rests upon four major assumptions, (Rodgers & Scott, 2008: 733):

1. that identity is dependent upon and formed within multiple *contexts* which bring social, cultural, political and historical forces to bear upon that formation;
2. that identity is formed in *relationship* with others and involves *emotions*;
3. that identity is *shifting, unstable and multiple*; and
4. that identity involves construction and reconstruction of meaning through *stories* over time.

In the teaching profession, *contexts* (assumption 1) are very complex and relate to schools themselves, teaching curricula, educational policies, developmental and study groups, pupils, families – the teacher's own and pupils' families, among many others. Multiple *relationships* and interactions (assumption 2) are formed between teachers and pupils, colleagues, mentors, school authorities, and beyond these, parents – just to mention the most fundamental and inevitable. The (to a certain extent) *unstable* identity (assumption 3) undergoes changes under the influence of multiple external factors, based on changing contexts and the people involved in interactions and relationships. This changing character however must lead to the point where an individual teacher feels sufficiently safe and comfortable in his/her professional position at the level of self and of achieving professional competence to reinterpret his/her initial self, through experiences and reflection upon them in his/her own *stories* (assumption 4).

In their overview of various perspectives on self-perceptions, Beane and Lipka (1996: 4) describe the concept of self:

> The concept of self has a central place in personality, acting as a source of unity and as a guide to behaviour.
>
> Self-perceptions are multidimensional and hierarchical, although at one level they tend to blend into a general sense of one.
>
> Self-perceptions tend to seek stability, consistency and enhancement.
>
> Self-perceptions may be based on roles played by an individual, as well as attributes one believes he or she possesses.
>
> While the self may be an "initiator", self-perceptions arise mainly in a social context, influenced largely by feedback from "significant others".

Taking the above into account, we may assume that self-concept as a way one views oneself can and should be enhanced insofar as it contributes to one's self-esteem, understood as "the relative value one attaches to the self concept or the degree to which one is satisfied with it" (Beane & Lipka, 1996: 9). The enhancement of self-concept first of all requires a person to develop an ability to explicitly reflect upon his or her own self's qualities and their origins and influences exerted on their development or its impediment. Self-esteem, as it is directly related to self-concept, expresses the sense of self-worth, which can be enhanced by positive thinking about oneself, but also by examining the system of values the self-concept is based on.

Self-perceptions function at different levels (Beane & Lipka, 1996: 10–11):

- *the specific situation level* – daily functioning and activities performed, interacting with others and receiving feedback from them, which become (or not) a part of our self-perception
- *the categorical level* – may result from feedback from others (we see ourselves as others see us) or it may result from *attribute self-perception,* in other words, we imagine what others think about ourselves. It relates to the roles we perform
- *the general sense level* – it is a compilation of the specific and categorical levels and forms a holistic picture we have of ourselves. This level is generally assumed to be "resistant to change" as it usually results from a chain of situations and events, and feedback (either positive or negative) received in this period.

So a general sense about oneself (that is, one's identity) derives from one's attributes (personality), and interaction with external feedback. In conceptualising the constructs of personality and identity in the Vygotskyan tradition, it is understood that personality plays a deterministic role in the development of identity. But personality is not seen by Vygotsky as an inborn set of qualities in an individual:

> The formation of the personality is based on a process of involvement with public cultural meanings that individuals, in the process of their participation, transform into personal sense. In this process, the specifics of the individual play an important part, causing the personality to be a uniquely individual psychological structure. Through being invested with personal sense, human needs achieve the character of sense-providing motives, which are the chief determinants of a person's action choices and make up the core of the personality. (Van Huitzen *et al.*, 2005: 272–273)

Van Huitzen *et al.* (2005: 273) emphasise that "personality development runs parallel to the creation of personal identity" and leads to professional identity which is seen as one's profile based on a fairly stable course of decision-making influencing one's professional actions. In this ongoing process, a significant role is assigned to both cognitive and affective experiences which are basic to thinking and thus, final decision taking. They assume that "personality and identity development involve an integration of intellectual, emotional and volitional elements" (p. 275).

Zembylas (2003: 213) in his comment on teacher identity also points to the evolving character of teacher identity as a characteristic of

> constantly becoming in a context embedded in power relations, ideology and culture. […] construction of teacher identity is at the bottom affective, and

is dependent upon power and agency, i.e. power is understood as forming the identity and providing the very condition of its trajectory.

Agency is understood here as the teacher's ability to reflect on and mediate his/her actions through this reflection. But also irrespective of its social grounding (interaction, group identity, identification with the group), teacher identity derives from his/her knowledge about the self. This knowledge allows an individual to understand himself/herself and his/her motives but to attain the ability to reconstruct his/her identity with a view to adapting, improving, creating and succeeding in a given professional context, it needs to be explicit. The term "self-concept clarity" is used by Thomas and Gadbois (2007) in their description of student-learners but I believe it can also be used as a term qualifying teachers' (and trainees') self-knowledge.

Self-knowledge embraces a wide range of qualities, one of them being emotionality. This component of self-knowledge is called by Goleman (1995) Emotional Intelligence (EI). Wojtynek-Musik (2001), in discussing the need to develop awareness of one's identity and affective self-knowledge in particular, points to the different aspects of EI, which are:

- awareness of one's own emotions, deriving from an observation of one's mental state and an ability to apply them to optimal decision making;
- coping with emotions, in other words identifying their intensity and influencing them to overcome critical situations and return to normality;
- an ability to motivate oneself synonymous with concentration on goals, perseverance in achieving them, despite disappointments and not being distracted by short-term desires;
- an ability to recognise emotions of others leading to empathetic and altruistic behaviours […];
- being more aware of relationships and social actions of caring and sharing;
- commencing and maintaining relationships with others, directly related to being able to understand the mentions of others and using them to their advantage and matters to be addressed and solved. (Wojtynek-Musik, 2001: 35–36, *translation mine*)

There is quite a substantial body of research on measuring emotional intelligence. For example, Duran *et al.* (2004) use the *Trait-Meta-Mood Scale*, as a tool for measuring perceptions of one's EI. It consists of three dimensions:

Attention to Feelings (attention paid to one's emotional states)
Emotional Clarity (understanding of one's emotional states)

> Repair to Moods (the ability to regulate one's emotional states)
> (Duran *et al.*, 2004: 387)

Different aspects of EI constitute a significant part of one's identity but in particular have to be considered as essential for teachers whose actions are based on interaction and relationships. They constitute the basis for being effective in classrooms, schools, many other educational and non-educational contexts. Teachers' competence in "perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions […] might render teachers less vulnerable to teacher burnout" (Chan, 2006: 1043). Also, as research shows (discussed in Duran *et al.*, 2004), emotional intelligence has a direct correspondence with the affective dimension of one's functioning on the level of self-esteem, anxiety and reactions to stress. It is also directly linked to the cognitive dimension at the level of intellectual achievement and the social one, expressed in terms of the types of interpersonal relations one achieves with others.

Clandinin and Connelly (1995: 102), when discussing beginning teachers, use teacher narratives – which they call "stories of position and positioning, on the landscape". They make a valid assumption based on the life stories of their selected teachers that an initial job assignment – be it a full-time job or the position of a supplementary teacher – affects in a dramatic way the forming of identity and professional self-confidence. For example, a stable position in a particular school allowed the beginning teacher Tim to

> solve a dilemma between the demands of the classroom and the demands outside it. These out-of-classroom demands of the professional knowledge landscape were encased in a healthy-school story that defined the moral horizons for creating a sense of teacher identity in his school. […] Because Tim made the school story his own, he became confirmed in his identity as a teacher. (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995: 107)

Another story, that of Benita, a substitute teacher, on the other hand, demonstrates a certain disequilibrium, as she "experienced a dilemma between the classroom teacher she wanted to be and the classroom teacher she believed she had to be in order to be successful in her changing classroom assignments" (Clandinin & Connelly, 1995: 107–108). This situation left her with feelings of insecurity and "unease" about her professional identity.

The process of professional identity development

Rodgers and Scott (2008: 751) see the development of teacher identity as an evolving process of construction:

> We define self to subsume teacher identities and to be an evolving, yet, coherent being that consciously and unconsciously constructs and is constructed, reconstructs and is reconstructed in interaction with cultural contexts, institutions, and people with which the self lives, learns, and functions.

In general, it is believed that the development of one's identity correlates with age, following Eriksson's theory of personality development. Discussing the identity development of teachers, we should therefore consider the stage of adulthood and its affective, cognitive and social characteristics as determinants of identity. Beane and Lipka (1996: 26) characterise adulthood in the following way:

> In adulthood, self-perceptions are characterized by seeking stability; that is the individual views himself or herself and is seen by others as consistent in expected situations. The stability we envision comes from two related sources. The first of these is a progression through social roles and social states. […] Second, the self-perceptions stimulated by these roles and states will be constructed, changed, and/or evaluated as the result of the accumulation of experiences.

Thus in teacher development, it is important to take into consideration the situations teachers experience in their professional lives right from the start, from the pre-service level when the first perceptions of oneself are constructed on the basis of the individual beliefs held and also their experiential dimension. From Vygotsky's perspective, teacher training programmes and education in general have one major aim, which is the development of an individual's professional identity (Van Huitzen, 2005: 274–276). Following on from this line of reasoning, Vygotsky concentrates on the factors conducive to the development of teacher identity:

- Participation in a social practice (teacher training).
- Aiming to achieve the ideal (Vygotsky's zone of proximal development).
- Developing awareness of one's own motives and needs as teachers (public standards *versus* individual needs).
- The correlation between clearly stated goals and actual practice.
- Development of one's identity as a guided and supervised process.
- The emotional experiences of teachers as fundamental to their identity development.

Kegan (1982, 1994) sees this seeking for identity or rather formation of a teacher's identity as a well-defined five-stage developmental process, observed as teachers create their own stories over time. Rodgers and Scott (2008) discuss

stages 2–4 which are relevant for teacher identity formation, excluding stage 1, which is described as "the latency age child" and stage 5, a developmental achievement that goes beyond middle age (Rodgers & Scott, 2008: 752).

Table 1.5 Development of teacher identity (based on Rodgers & Scott, 2008: 740–741)

Stages of teacher identity development	How does the teacher make sense of social, political, and historical forces?	How does he/she make sense of her relationships with others?	How does he/she construct/ reconstruct meaning though stories?
Stage 2 *The instrumental knower* (*The Imperial Balance*)	• concrete states outside himself/ herself	• teacher role concept formed • rule-based interactions with others • lack of perspective on those relations	• superficial understanding of experiences • black and white perceptions of situations
Stage 3 *The socialising knower* (*The Interpersonal Balance*)	• conforming to the external forces and identification with them • also threatened with those he/she does not identify with • no individual perspective as yet	• importance of the opinions and expectations of other people • empathy for others and sympathy for oneself • not accepting criticism (an instance of offence)	• focused on emotions and feelings, reflecting upon them • importance of relationships at different levels (teacher-pupil, teacher-school) • narration "coloured" by affective reflections, lack of perspective • stories influenced by what the teacher thinks is expected of him/her
Stage 4 *The self-authoring knower* (*The Institutional Balance*)	• awareness of external forces and their influence • one's own perspective on the world and himself/herself • able to define himself/herself and her position	• clear sense of identity, responsibility and affectivity • formation of one's own standards and values, reflecting upon criticism constructively • aware of contradictions and able to cope with them • cooperation with others (value of mutual support)	• able to self-reflect on the basis of individual experiences • seeing the impact of relationships on teaching, able to control them

Reporting on his experiences over years as a teacher of English in a German school, Appel (1995) sketches out an evolution he had undergone in his approach to the profession of a teacher and the formation of his identity. As in other areas of professionalism, a shift in perceptions in teaching can also be observed. Appel supports his view with a quotation from Schön (1987):

> The glamour of professionalism in our society has faded away over the last two decades, because "experts" are no longer seen as providing relevant answers to the world's problems. [...] the professions (be they medicine, architecture, management, law or teaching) have defined the relationship between their academic source disciplines and practice as one in which rigorous professional practitioners are instrumental problem solvers who select technical means best suited to particular purposes. Rigorous professional practitioners solve well-formed instrumental problems by applying theory and technique derived from systematic, preferably scientific knowledge. (Schön, 1987 quoted in Appel, 1995: xii)

This tendency is also reflected in classroom practices as advocated and promoted by modern methodologies, in which the teacher is no longer an expert, or at least this may not be his or her major role. A high degree of autonomy given to learners allows a teacher still to remain a relevant source of knowledge among other sources, like, for instance, the learners themselves. However, the teacher is more often seen as a guide, facilitator, and monitor. Training programmes in teacher education fully promote this approach to the teaching profession.

Brown (2006: 682) sees the development of teacher identity as an ongoing integration of social interaction on the one hand and "unconscious psychological processes, internal narratives of disturbance [...]" on the other. On the basis of a case study carried out among pre-service and novice teachers, he concludes:

> Students' perceptions of volition were related to the dynamic interplay of intrapersonal forces. The ability to take responsibility for one's actions, to make decisions and to challenge the decisions of others, was shaped to some extent by students' own perceptions of their historical, current and future identity. Agency is determined reflexively through one's inner identifications with the actor who wishes to act. (Brown, 2006: 682)

Even nowadays, pre-service teachers often come from very traditional teaching contexts (definitely the case in the Polish educational system) and there may be a certain confusion of perception as to the roles they are confronted with as

learners at schools and learners at teacher training institutions. In the reality of a classroom situation they may experience a certain destabilisation, which for a novice may be highly threatening. This loss of equilibrium may result from the dilemma of choosing between what kind of teacher a trainee would like to be and the perceived reality of the classroom and school, which may impose certain roles on the teacher.

There is a whole array of reasons for this feeling of disequilibrium experienced by the trainees and novice teachers. It will most obviously result from perceptions of oneself in relation to:

- the person I am
- the person I want to remain
- the person I hate to be
- the teacher I fear to be
- the teacher I want to be. (Brown, 2006: 677)

In his longitudinal study of trainees and novice teachers, based entirely on student voices, on intrapersonal comments (an extended student-written narrative) and interpersonal comments (in-depth personal interviews) made by a trainee student, Brown (2006: 676) describes a case study of Merryn, a novice teacher, the development of whose teacher identity he observed over a period of time. He says:

> Merryn is threatened by the emergence of multiple identities, and the difficulties this multiplicity invites. The disequilibrium comes from the inability to use the emergence of multiple identities as opportunities to extend the range of choice of action. Instead, the multiple identities associated with the different aspects of the teacher's role are experienced as threats to identificatory coherence […] Becoming a teacher is experienced as becoming an increasingly fragmented person.

But this will not always be the case. For many students, disequilibrium can contribute to personal and professional growth if seen as not threatening but rather as "leading to an expanded, integrated self, more diverse and richer in the possibilities for action that multiple identities afford" (Brown, 2006: 676). Brown sees a mentor teacher (a trainer) as "the significant other" that can influence a trainee in personal and professional growth by consciously monitoring this experience of disequilibrium a novice inevitably faces in the initial stages of a professional career.

1.4.3 Pre-service teachers' sense of the teaching profession

Metaphors of teaching in teachers' narratives

When discussing the novices and trainees' perceptions of themselves as teachers, Nias (1989) points out that the overwhelming majority of her students feel like teachers and she says that only 8 of her 50 interviewees did not see themselves as teachers. The remaining ones, in describing the relation of their selves to the professional self, believe that being a teacher means: "Being yourself", "Being whole", "Being natural", "Establishing relationships with children", "Control" and "Responsibility and concern" (Nias, 1989: 182–191). But on the other hand it also means: "Living with tension, dilemma and contradiction" and "Living with paradox" (pp. 191–197). Being a teacher is also seen as "Craftsmanship and artistry" (pp. 197–200).

This understanding of what it means to be a teacher and what it means to teach can be conceptualised in a figurative way through metaphors. This perspective derives from linguistic description of language and our cognition of the world and our position in it. In other words, the main assumptions adapted here are those of Lakoff and Johnson (1980), who argue that:

> Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought in action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. (p. 3)

In other words, metaphors give us a framework for thinking and reflect the way we experience, understand and interact with the world around us. Oxford *et al*. (1998) believe a metaphor to be an instrument of teacher awareness for as they argue:

> Metaphor has the power to enhance the subject's understanding of educational problems and thus increase perspective-consciousness. Diverse instructional styles and curriculum theories can be simplified by showing, through metaphor, the relationship between abstract concepts and something that is more familiar, concrete and visible. (p. 5)

In their study of metaphoric perceptions on education, Oxford *et al.* (1998: 5) quote archetypes of *Molding, Gatekeeping, Gardening* and *Democratizing* as best illustrating the teaching profession with its different dimensions of control and focus. For example, the metaphor of TEACHING AS MOLDING relates to the social order context of teaching, in which learners are controlled externally

by teacher's reinforcement; whereas TEACHING AS GATEKEEPING describes cultural transmission, which is "unidirectional information giving". TEACHING AS GARDENING expresses teacher responsibility for learner development and TEACHING AS DEMOCRATIZING expresses the social principle by which the educational process is seen as shared by teachers and learners.

Rosaen and Florio-Ruane (2008) also look at metaphors in the context of teacher education discourse and quote often-used metaphors:

> Three common metaphors found in educational discourse: field experience; struggling readers; and at a risk learners [...] "Field experience" is examined as a root metaphor that is so embedded in the language and culture of teacher education that we often do not recognize it as a metaphor at all. It is a root metaphor from which other metaphors spring. [...] this metaphor influences how teacher educators conceive of and organize university- and school-based experiences of novices. An alternative metaphor, ecological environment, is explored in terms of its potential for reinventing the social dimensions of learning to teach. (Rosaen & Florio-Ruane, 2008: 707)

This metaphoric perception of teaching and of teachers themselves expands the understanding of the underlying cognitive and affective aspects of the profession, demonstrating the necessary integration of various factors and areas of life in understanding teaching as becoming a person and becoming a professional at the same time.

A sample study of pre-service teachers' metaphoric categorisation of teaching

The study I would like to comment on at this point (also reported on in detail in Gabryś-Barker, 2009c) looks at the ways in which pre-service teachers see themselves as teachers and suggests where these perceptions come from. Like in the study by Strugielska and Siek-Piskozub (2008), an attempt has been made at classifying the trainees' conceptualisations about teaching and themselves as teachers. This time however, in contrast to the above-mentioned study, it is qualitative and not quantitative in nature and solely based on individual student voices, reporting in different ways and styles, with a different degree of depth and sophistication in their attitudes, thoughts and feelings towards their new experiences in the FL classroom. The study also aims to see how the trainees will conceptualise their teaching experiences in the form of metaphors.

The discussion in the trainees' narratives starts with a clear focus on the influence of the learning experiences the trainees have had in the past at school and their learning experiences now (their language learning as well as

the acquisition of professional knowledge), and its relevance to experiential events in their classrooms. The issues commented on are:

1. The contribution of past and present learning experiences to the belief systems of pre-service teachers as FL teachers.
2. The ability to conceptualise the process of teaching as metaphors, which could express a system of beliefs holistically.
3. The role of theoretical knowledge and training received in creating one's image of a professional and his/her growth, both professional and personal.

These are pre-service teachers who constitute a group of language learners with very little experience of teaching (2 months at most) and a long history of FL learning, approximately 10 or more years of formal instruction in English as a foreign language (EFL). It may be assumed that learning experiences will be the major source for their perceptions of themselves in their own classrooms at the initial stages of teaching and that this will shape their perceptions of themselves and their roles as teachers and the way they will subsequently conceptualise those roles.

An additional purpose of this study was to look at a group of practicing teachers and see if their perceptions differ from those of trainees who are in the initial stages of teaching, at the pre-service level.

"Me as a teacher" (beliefs)

When discussing their system of beliefs about the main role of the teacher, the position students take ranges from a very traditional focusing on the teacher him or herself as the major agent in the process of teaching/learning, seen as a knowledge-giver and expert, sometimes as a parent-like figure focusing on the learners as those needing care, to perceptions relating to being a missionary and facing a challenge ("A fighter"). (See Table 1.6 for details of this).

Table 1.6 Perceptions of teacher's roles (based on Gabryś-Barker 2009c)

Beliefs (TEACHING IS…)	**Rate (per cent of subjects)**	**Success or failure? (per cent of subjects)**	**Trainees' comments and evaluation (unedited language)**
1	2	3	4
MISSION	27	Predominantly seen as failure (20)	"giving oneself away", "amazing period", "opening new worlds to learners", "affectivity", "development of awareness", "golden rule: be prepared"

1	2	3	4
CHALLENGE	20	Mixed responses, but slight dominance of failure	"learning from students", "adapting to the situation", "coping", "need for results", "role of code of conduct", "individual approach"
SHARING KNOWLEDGE	22	Experience of failure	"not discouraging", "feeling the need for knowledge", "being tested by pupils", "a productive period", "need for cooperation with learners", "competence"
PROFESSIONALISM (teachers as experts – methods, management and control)	25	Perception of failure	"a learning experience", "need for constant development", "contradictions between the method used and own beliefs"
ACTING	2	Mostly seen as both success and failure	"experiential period of experimenting", "teacher as a source of fun", "discipline focus"
PARENTING	2	Seen as inadequate (failure)	"need to establish the right atmosphere and climate in the classroom"
PARENTING AND ACTING	2	Failure due to lack of knowledge and preparation skills	"harsh reality of the classroom: expect the unexpected"

The trainees' perceptions presented in Table 1.6 can be interpreted in the following way:

MISSION

The perceptions of trainee teachers of the profession and themselves in this profession reflect both their idealistic attitude, pointing up their vocation to teach, and the significant role teachers play in their learner's lives as "architects and sculptors", or "gardeners", contributing not only to their knowledge and language ability but above all to their personal growth. In this category, they also see their own growth in personal as well as in professional terms.

CHALLENGE

Teaching seen as challenge expresses the students' insecurity at not being professional enough yet and lacking experience. This challenge however seems

motivating and encouraging even in the face of failures, which the novices encounter quite frequently in their daily classroom practices.

SHARING KNOWLEDGE and **PROFESSIONALISM**

Awareness of the need for constant development is registered in the perception of teaching as a profession requiring high qualifications in terms of the knowledge a teacher possesses: subject matter knowledge, knowledge of pedagogy and psychology and the basics of effective interpersonal communication skills, knowledge of the most effective ways of passing language knowledge on to learners and developing their abilities in language use at the level of the methodology of teaching.

PARENTING and **ACTING**

Some of the subjects chose to comment on their perceptions of themselves as teachers in terms of the roles that seem to them to be significant in a FL classroom. These are the roles of an actor and parent, each of them emphasising different dimensions of teaching. Acting means being able "to hide behind a mask", to reach a variety of teaching goals and, as a consequence, to be effective in teaching but also in distancing oneself from what one does. The other role, that of a parent, seems to give importance to achieving an appropriate rapport with the learners which would facilitate their learning and well-being in the classroom by making them feel secure, open and recreating a sense of "being at home" in that context.

"Where do my beliefs come from?" (sources of beliefs)

In their reflections on "Where do my beliefs about teaching come from?" the students looked back at their past experiences as learners, at primary and secondary schools. These experiences naturally varied from the most exhilarating to the most disastrous. The trainees also revealed their own selves, their personalities, their interests and their perceptions as they changed with increased experience in the classroom. Here are some comments made by the trainees on the factors significant for the formation of their beliefs about teaching (all the comments are direct quotations from the trainees and their language has been in no way altered):

a. Restoring past experiences (1): teachers of the past as models

[…] *until I met an English teacher who was completely different. Her eyes were sparkling and she was full of life. She showed me that a teacher is somebody who has his/her own life and preferences. Moreover, she was keen on sharing her opinions and experiences with us. It was the moment that I realized how important it is to be yourself and still be able to teach others.*

Who could I compare a teacher to? Trying to answer this question I thought of a guide leading the group of tourists in some place of tourist attraction […]. *When I was a student I remember one teacher whom I could compare to a perfect guide.*

b. Restoring past experiences (2): acting contrary to one's own school experience

I can discern some mistakes made by my own teacher of English […] *I had a teacher who always criticized and mocked her students, which resulted in my avoidance of speaking* […] *due to this fact, I attempt to be particularly patient and understanding towards shy students in order to help them overcome the obstacle.*

c. Oneself as a learner and the learner as a human being

My experience as a student is not very helpful when I started teaching. Being a good teacher means that we have to remember about students' weaknesses. A student is also a normal human being who needs to talk with you or ask for advice.

d. New experiences and changing perceptions

Many people share the opinion that teacher's work is not a big deal. I also used to take it for granted while being a primary and secondary school student. […] *Now I can see myself as an example of perceiving it was totally wrong.*

From the very beginning, from the primary school we make some critical remarks about our teachers. We think that we would do certain things better. I also had similar feelings when I was a pupil. However, when I started teaching, my concept about former teachers and their methods of teaching have changed.

e. Other interests

Literature influenced my life […] *Teachers of Polish were the only ones who managed to keep my interest during long classes that I had to survive* […]. *Polish Romanic artists awoke in me a sense of responsibility which I want to face. As a teacher I have a great chance to fulfill myself' (A fighter).*

f. Unresolved

My beliefs are still unrooted.

"My metaphors about teaching" (conceptualisations)
The beliefs expressed by the students are well reflected in the way they conceptualise their profession and picture themselves as teachers. They are represented here as quotations serving as headings in the students' narratives:

- *"The story of a little boy", "Like an eagle", "Practice makes perfect"* – these metaphors/sayings emphasize the on-going process of searching for models, best practices, still in the early stages of development, still "young", "spreading wings" and experimenting.
- *"The lighthouse" (a beam of hope), "A light in the darkness"* – the teacher is seen as someone leading his/her learners from a state of ignorance, inability, lack of knowledge to "enlightenment", always encouraging learners to find their own ways to achieve their goals.
- *"A good guide", "On a tour", "A long way"* – the teacher is conceptualised as a guiding person with knowledge and able to demonstrate what is worth seeing and learning about; also someone who knows the way: where to go and how to get there.
- *"Teacher as an actor", "Playing the most important role"* – here the emphasis is put on the diversity of roles a teacher needs to be able to play, each of them requiring skill and professionalism and also the ability to distance himself/herself from the real self and "hide behind the mask".
- *"A torn Sagittarius", "Keep being myself"* – in contrast to the previous concept of the teacher as an actor, here some of the trainees believe that only by being true to oneself ("keeping one's own identity") can they become successful teachers and establish a genuine rapport with their learners, always expressing and sharing what they think and feel in the open, discussing their own personal experiences with the learners.
- *"All thanks to the greatest builders in the world", "Sculpting minds"* – here the teaching profession is perceived as creative and artistic (a sculptor, an architect), where learners are seen as the end product of an act of creativity on the part of the teacher. These images must be considered very teacher-centred.
- *"Old images", "Image of me as a teenager"* – this perception highlights the role of past experiences and of restoring the past and giving it its due in one's own practices, perhaps in some re-shaped form but based on the models familiar from one's own school days.
- *"A knight errant", "A fighter"* – these images, on the other hand, point to the need for changes in the teaching profession, discarding old models and

emphasising the need for taking (almost heroic) steps to effect changes even against all the odds: on a macro level, in the entrenched system of schools themselves and on the micro level, in one's own classroom.

Each of these metaphors/conceptualisations of the teaching profession reflects the positive ambitions the pre-service teachers have for their future profession. Each implies the need for a teacher's active involvement: both professional and personal, creativity and responsibility and also the courage to be different and the need to go on trying, irrespective of failures and obstacles. The following are some exceptionally positive and encouraging perceptions of student-teachers:

I believe it is fairly adequate to compare myself to a knight. I am such a type of a teacher who constantly looks for solutions when facing a problem […]. *Some of them are very challenging and not easy to use in practice. However, it does not frighten me* […].

Pre-service vs in-service teachers' professional identities

For the purpose of comparison, a group of 40 in-service teachers were also asked to reflect upon their perceptions of this profession and the sources of the beliefs they hold about it and which they try to put into practice in their own classrooms. The teachers were EFL practitioners continuing their education at the M.A. level. The survey was carried out in a form of a narrative essay (Gabryś-Barker, 2009).

The submitted narratives received uncovered some significant differences between these two groups: the trainees and the in-service teachers. What characterises the in-service teachers in terms of the content of their reflection on their own classroom practices and experiences is the following:

- More focus on discussing learners than teachers themselves. In the case of trainees, there was an almost obsessive need to create a positive image of oneself as a teacher and a person which became the focus of their narratives but also had a key role in the identification of critical incidents (discussed in Gabryś-Barker, 2008a).
- The need to modify the old, traditional objectives of teaching a foreign language by rules and grammar translation and moving towards communicative needs, hence the development of speaking skills as the major instructional issue.

This is also considered by the trainees to be the most significant aspect of FL instruction.

- Motivating learners and creating their system of values, since home is seen as very negligent in this respect, parents seem totally detached from school and

uninterested in its workings. On the other hand, the roles of home and parents were never mentioned by the trainees as teacher's allies (or their enemies for that matter), hence it may be assumed that it was not considered an important factor for this group of subjects.
- An individualised approach to learners, based on their needs and individual profiles (with emphasis placed on a special care students). This was also seen as equally important by the trainees.

Also in pinpointing the factors that shaped their approach to the teaching profession and as a consequence their classroom practices, the in-service teachers looked both at external factors and those deriving directly from their own needs and idiosyncratic experiences. The external factors which seem to be very strong in the comments made by the in-service teachers and which were scarcely ever pointed out by the group of pre-service teachers are:
- the social environment and social background of learners: where they come from, who they are and who their parents are and what system of values they instil in their children (if any at all). There is a strong emphasis placed on diversification of approaches here according to the context of teaching and teacher's roles
- the objectives of a particular educational context (a specific school), with regard to its social standing and prestige, which went wholly unregarded by the trainees
- the role of supervisors, the head of the school and educational authorities in general as entities imposing certain measures to be taken and rules to be followed
- the external constraints imposed by the institution on how to teach, what to teach and how to behave as a teacher were seen as factors taken account of in approaching teaching and often causing one to act against one's own individual beliefs by in-service teachers, demonstrating a contradiction between externally- and internally-driven factors.

Internal factors, which are conceived as shaping these teachers' images of themselves as they are or as they are aiming/struggling to be, relate to:
- their experience as students and the way they were taught in training institutions (TTC – teacher training colleges) and not so much in the early educational context of the primary and secondary school. The college teachers are seen by this group of teachers as models of language instructors in terms of language and professional competence. In this respect, trainee teachers emphasise more TTC teachers' professional knowledge rather than seeing them as models of FL instructional practices to be followed
- knowledge gathered as the result of their TTC program of studies which is seen to constitute "half of the success", also highlighted but even more strongly in the comments made by the trainees

- their own experience of school ("facing reality") as the major factor in forming beliefs, which the trainees still lack but the significance of which they are fully aware of
- testing pedagogical theory acquired in the period of study in the first year of teaching contributes most significantly to teaching approaches and beliefs
- the need to take security measures by establishing one's own routines and individual ways, which in the case of pre-service teachers was described as giving up a democratic, friendly manner of teaching when confronted with the reality of the classroom, and taking up a more authoritarian stance somewhat against their own beliefs
- copying or rejecting the models of the past, treated with almost equally strong emphasis – that is, admiration for or discouragement by previous teachers when relating to the far-past (school). The in-servicers are more critical of the past than the trainees, who also seem to have a stronger positive memory of their teachers at school. This of course may be due to recent and very sharp changes in the approach to teaching foreign languages, moving away from the traditional teacher-dominated classroom (the negative experience of in-service teachers) to learner-centred and a more autonomous context (the positive experience of trainees).

It seems surprising that both groups of teachers do not reflect upon themselves as language learners. The transfer of learning, understood as one's individual way of approaching a FL learning situation (Gabryś-Barker, 2008), seems not to be a significant variable for the subjects in forming their system of beliefs about the nature of the teaching process. In the case of such extensive learning histories, it must be assumed that these teachers (both groups) developed their own set of strategies for learning and that their experience of success (for they are amongst the best examples of stories of success in language learning) would contribute to their beliefs about teaching, constituting first-hand experience that could be shared with their learners.

Clearly, similarities and differences between these two groups are experiential. Exposure to the realities of a classroom and a school, and the pedagogical tasks to be performed by pre-service and in-service teachers are very different. Their positions in the school hierarchy and its functioning are different. Different types of awareness are present. But they have one thing in common and that is the need to reflect, develop and change. This is very encouraging in view of the fact that, generally speaking, experienced teachers are heavily criticised for becoming routinised. Maybe a new and progressive generation of teachers is indeed growing?

1.5 Pre-service teachers' initial development

1.5.1 Challenges faced and thematic concerns expressed

Nias (1989) in her comments on self and professional identity expresses the view that

> [i]t is reasonable to assume that people who are fortunate enough to be able to select their paid occupation will look for a sense of "fit" between their self-image, their place of work and what the work itself involves. They are especially likely to seek the compatibility between self and context when they see themselves idealistic, or less powerfully, when they are aware of self-defining values in tune with which they wish to live and work. (p. 43)

This observation illustrates well the possible areas of challenge pre-service teachers will be confronted with. As discussed earlier, trainees come to training courses with different motives, sensitivities, degrees of personal maturity and each of these contributes to their initial performance in their first classrooms. They also bring different degree of vulnerability to what they are to face and cope with. It is often assumed that the qualities of sensitivity and vulnerability are an inevitable part of what makes up successful teachers (Dow, 1976). In her study of trainee teachers, Dow (1976) observed her students in the initial stages of their training, in which teaching practice occupied an important, a central role indeed, in pre-service teacher development. The data obtained expressed an immense amount of sensitivity and vulnerability on the part of the trainees.

Having analysed the diary entries written over a practicum period, Dow (1976) came to the conclusion that such a form of training offers a context in which trainees are put at extreme risk and are "being thrown in at the deep end" (Dow, 1976: 81), which might be challenging and thus motivating, but could also be unwise and irresponsible if certain precautions are not taken by their educators: the supervisors and mentors of trainees. A close monitoring for example of diary reporting and common sessions are possible measures of shoring up the development of those who are insecure and at risk. At the same time, Dow is fully aware of the way many teachers are and expresses her disapproval:

> There are far too many stogy, unadventurous teachers whose approach to their work and their classes is humdrum and safely set in dreary routine, ignoring the challenging innovations available to them if they were less timid. (Dow, 1976: 81)

This means that a solid knowledge base and a set of solid rules concerning teaching and classroom procedures are necessary, but at the same time to create successful teachers, it is necessary for educators to allow – and promote – challenge and risk. However, no one is suggesting this is easy:

> Challenges cannot be productive without some uncertainty and a willingness to see when failure will become irretrievable. Each person must learn this for himself – the limitations in the circumstances and his personal limitations. Just as fear of drowning becomes damaging when it turns to panic, so fear of failure in teaching can turn into neurotic anxiety or even disintegration of the teacher […]. For this reason, there must be a lifesaver standing ready to jump in should the novice swimmer panic or if a shark should suddenly be sighted. (Dow, 1976: 81)

This attitude to teacher education constitutes the basis for the implementation of reflective teaching. Reflections in Dow's diary entries expressed the areas of risk the trainees' felt they were exposed to in their practicum. They derived from the pupils themselves, the school and its staff, being evaluated or even, the experience of lack of peer support and the threat of being criticised by fellow students. The major themes articulating the trainees' initial anxieties related to:

- *Being ill-at-ease with children* which resulted from lack of communication due to inappropriate language register, inarticulacy and shyness, resulting in building defences and treating children as a group, instead of taking an individual approach to individuals.
- *Self-doubts* expressing individual fears of being ridiculed or laughed at as a person and as a teacher, being critical of the school, having personal problems, often resulting in traumas with serious consequences for future practice; also doubts concerning teaching itself, and the degree of one's own creativity and spontaneity versus proscribed classroom practice.
- *Keeping at arms' lengths* which concerns the level of formality/informality in interaction with one's pupils, trying to connect one's own image and preferences with what was expected.
- *The teaching style for me* expressing the search for a way of teaching that would be effective and at the same time in agreement with one's self-concept as a person and the concept of oneself as a teacher; observing that various teachers become effective and generally successful depending on a variety of contextual factors. (Dow, 1976)

When reflecting on her course and the diaries analysed some years after this had taken place, Dow (1976: 115) concludes:

> […] the most vulnerable students seldom failed as teachers – indeed, among them are some of the most successful teachers from the Course. This is not to say that the untroubled ones, the ones who appeared to glide through the Course and seldom had recourse to their diaries for a release from anxieties, are not also often successful. Some of them are highly successful; but the pedestrian, plodding teachers are more likely to come from this group than from the other. Extreme sensitivity, when it is not mere egocentricity, seems to be a valuable ingredient for the imaginative teacher.

1.5.2 A sample study of pre-service teachers' challenges and areas of concerns

The study group

The group of teacher trainees participating in my survey (Gabryś-Barker, 2008) consisted of a sample of 100 third-year students of teacher training institutions – one university department and one teacher training college, who were about to graduate and take up their jobs in schools. The final requirement for them to obtain the B.A. degree in TEFL was to complete a thesis. The thesis was a small-scale research project designed within the framework of action research and related directly to the students' teaching practice, done in the final year of their studies. Following the prescriptions of action research methodology, the choice of the research topic to be carried out by means of an empirical project was an area of teaching the trainees perceived as troublesome for them as language instructors. So the topics of the projects were independently chosen by them. In the course of designing their projects in terms of appropriate methodology (the stages, tools of gathering data, type of intervention, etc.), the projects were refined, that is to say, narrowed down and rephrased. However, they still followed the general focus preferences as chosen by the students themsleves.

The thematic areas of concerns

The corpus of this survey consists of a hundred topics for projects selected and prepared by the trainees themselves under my supervision. Although these topics overlapped in terms of their main theme in quite a few cases, at the same time they differed in terms of the teaching context: the type of school, age and language level of the learners, etc. Their tendency to choose similar areas for research clearly demonstrates some of the shared difficulties pre-service teachers encounter.

The disproportion between the different topic areas show the striking dominance of topics relating to *teaching areas* (53%): what to teach (in terms of skills and language areas) and how to do it (strategies). This reflects the major focus of what these trainee-students consider to be vital in their practice but also what is often emphasised in the training programmes. The issues concerning student behaviour, achievement and motivation (11%) are most probably seen by the trainees as more elusive and fuzzy, thus more difficult to focus on and frame (fine-tune). Another possible explanation might be that they seem to be pretty obvious as difficulty areas and as such well described in the literature, so they are not considered for the most part worth investigating. The projects on, for example, motivation that the students work on are often very conventional, lacking in originality and as a consequence result in very obvious solutions offered as the product of research: very general, not grounded in the idiosyncracy of a given teaching context. These types of projects require more boldness and courage on the part of the student teachers, to experiment and go beyond well-known and accepted classroom practices, which for obvious reasons the students are not ready to embark on. Another area, that of *learner focus* (strategies, autonomy, language awareness), seems to be gaining in popularity (11%), as these also have become key issues in modern pedagogy and have resulted in the greater availability of resources in this area of teaching methodology. This is also very encouraging for students who are still feeling insecure as teachers. A firm theoretical background contributes significantly to the consolidation of their security, to a sense of being right in their classroom practices. The lowest score for the *special needs students* topic area (3%) can obviously be accounted for by the fact that not many students work in school settings which offer special education for less-able learners. However, what can be observed is a growing interest in now more broadly discussed issues concerning the teaching of dyslexic learners and those suffering from ADHD.

Table 1.7 Diploma/licencjat projects: topic selection by areas (Gabryś-Barker, 2008)

Topic area	Number of choices (total sample: 100)	Examples of the topics
1	2	3
Classroom management	7	• *The influence of seating arrangement on teaching and learning in a FL classroom* • *Motivational aspects of pair and group work* • *Application of authoritarian teaching style*
Appropriate materials	7	• *Visual materials in developing speaking skills of adolescent learners* • *Audio-visual aids in developing speaking skills* • *The role of CALL in teaching mixed ability classes*

1	2	3
Teaching areas (language and skills)	53	• *Teacher questions as a way of enhancing speaking skills* • *The development of writing skills in one-to-one tuition* • *FL grammar instruction: a case study of an adult learner* • *Teaching pronunciation at the level of segmentals* • *Teaching English article system to Polish learners* • *Teaching idioms at the pre-intermediate level* • *Implementing mnemonic strategies in FL vocabulary learning* • *Speaking barriers in the case of adult learners of EFL* • *Pre-communicative activities: encouraging students to talk*
Student behaviour, achievement and motivation	11	• *A profile of an adult learner of EFL* • *Effectiveness of rewards in teaching a FL to teenagers* • *Reward and punishment in teaching young learners* • *The ways of motivating discouraged children to learn English* • *Prevention and reaction to discipline problems*
Personal management issues (e.g. personal development, personal relations with other teachers)	1	• *Foreign language attrition of EFL teachers*
Assessment and testing	7	• *Learner training for EFL exams* • *Ways of oral assessment* • *Testing from teachers' and learners' perspective* • *The role of students' self-assessment in the process of teaching and learning English*
Learner focus (strategies, autonomy, language awareness)	11	• *The role of mother tongue in the process of FLL* • *Development of learner autonomy through project work* • *Lexical transfer in learning English* • *Code-switching as a communication strategy* • *Transfer of learning as a learning strategy*
Special needs learners	3	• *Multisensory teaching of dyslexic children* • *Teaching children with symptoms of ADHD* • *Teaching English to a dyslexic learner (a case study)*

The *teaching areas* topics (Table 1.8) show a fairly equal interest in skills focus (53%) versus language focus (47%), but with a slight preference for researching skills development. This probably results from the accepted methodology of communicative teaching, where the development of communication relates

directly to skills rather than teaching language for language sake (as much as we cannot in fact separate the two).

Table 1.8 Teaching areas: skills vs language focus in topic selection

Skills focus	listening	1
	reading	4
	speaking	**19**
	integrated skills	4
	total	28 (53%)
Language focus	pronunciation	4
	grammar	7
	vocabulary	**14**
	total	25 (47%)

The strikingly high numbers for topics relating to speaking skills (13%) versus the other skills is not so surprising if we consider the role of speaking in developing communication, on the one hand, and the complexity of developing this skill, on the other. This complexity, as exemplified by the topic focus of the projects, stems from speaking barriers not only posed by a foreign language (still not fully mastered), but also from personality factors operating on the level of affectivity: anxiety, shyness, self-esteem, introversion, etc. This interest not only results from real classroom problems trainees face in their classrooms (and not only them, experienced teachers as well), it also stems from their own FL learning experience. The significance of speaking skills in FL instruction is also registered in the choice of language focus in topic selection. Here, vocabulary teaching covers 14% of all topics, ahead of grammar with only 7%. Vocabulary and lexical competence in general are naturally seen as vehicles for the development of communication in a foreign language.

The choice of the research topics presented in my study (Gabryś-Barker, 2008) does not fully accord with the trainees' expression of the difficulties they encounter in their classrooms, the weak points in their teaching practice as expressed in another study (Gabryś, 2002: 187) and the information gathered from personal communication with these students. Here, they complained mostly of their inability to manage their classrooms, for example in the case of disruptive behaviour, the pace of the lesson or problems with timing of activities. These difficulties may be seen by the trainees as the result of lack of experience, and solutions may be assumed to come inevitably with years of teaching and familiarity with the context and its array of variables, but also with the security of one's position as a teacher and his/her authority. Possibly, too superficial an awareness of psycho-pedagogic issues is also reflected in their inadequate

way of dealing with different situations, such as critical incidents occurring in classroom context (commented on in Chapter 3).

The pre-service teachers' comments on project theme choices

The general attitude expressed by the trainees towards their projects was very positive – if not enthusiastic – as they could observe the relevance of what they did to their immediate context. The following comment illustrates this:

[The project] *was beneficial because it was based on my own teaching experience and interest and therefore practical and relevant. It was also down to earth because once you start teaching you look at the whole process from a different, more realistic perspective.*

The comments provided here relate mostly to the project topics dealing with speaking which, as mentioned earlier, seemed to predominate over the other problem areas. The choice of topics made often related to the perceptions of what the focus of FL learning and its ultimate goal are, as exemplified by the following quotation:

When we think of learning a FL it is usually speaking [...] *which we specify as the major aim. Moreover, verbal production is what causes greatest difficulties in the process of FL learning.*

Also the inadequacy of the methods derived from the students' own learning history and initial observation during the practicum constituted the reasons for designing projects in specific areas:

Hundreds of methods have been applied to overcoming speaking barriers.

During my teaching practice, I encountered the problem of speaking activities in the classroom. I noticed that many students are unwilling to participate in them for various reasons.

The focus of this project is to find a more appropriate way to deal with the problem of using L2 during a lesson. I have chosen this topic because I remember that I had as well as my school mates a lot of problems with it [...] *to overcome speaking barriers.*

It seemed that the trainees were well aware of the importance of the diagnostic (preliminary) investigation stage and of the teacher's awareness of the reasons for the problems occurring, as expressed in the comment:

The most important goal is to find what makes the students unwilling to speak aloud.

The choice of some of the topics was also justified by the need to introduce some elements of novelty elements into an otherwise traditional syllabus and into traditionally used didactic materials. The example to be quoted here is of the project which used the British sitcom *Keeping Up Appearances* to develop learners' cultural awareness:

As a traditional English lesson does not focus on teaching culture, mainly because of lack of time, I decided to introduce some elements of British culture in my lessons.

It seems that in commenting on their preferred topics for AR projects, the trainees did not focus very strongly on the areas of difficulty relating to classroom behaviour and more generally the pedagogic issues mentioned earlier by them. This again could be interpreted as a manifestation of their insecurity at dealing with their self-perceived weaknesses as teachers.

So, therefore, what is the role played by trainees' experiences acquired during a school placement? Can it contribute to the successful elimination (or at least abatement) of professional insecurity and the development of professional competence. The next section elaborates on teaching practice and pre-service teachers' critical evaluation of its merits.

1.6 Pre-service teachers in the period of school placement

1.6.1 Teaching practice: its functions and learning dimensions

Preparation to teach embraces a wide spectrum of knowledge and skills the prospective teacher has to acquire. They range from "instructional methods, learning theories, educational measurement and testing, educational psychology, sociology and history" (Wilson *et al.*, 2002: 193). Key questions concerning the preparation of teachers should focus on *subject matter preparation* (the amount of it and degree of specificity), *pedagogical preparation* (the amount of it and degree of specificity), *timing and amount of clinical training* (classroom practice) and administrative *policies and strategies* that would assure best quality preparation and hence high-standard teaching in the future (Wilson *et al.*, 2002: 193).

School-based initial teacher education (also called the practicum, teaching practice or apprenticeship) constantly undergoes changes. In the United

Kingdom, one of the leading countries in teacher training, the most significant modifications were brought about by establishing the Teacher Training Agency and by the introduction of new policies. These policies consisted in:

- An increase in the amount of time that student teachers spend at schools.
- Moves to reduce the role of institutions of higher education.
- A move to competence-based planning and assessment of student teachers.
- An increasing role of schools in developing partnerships with institutions of higher education and taking shared responsibility for the preparation of the newly qualified teachers.
- The rise of mentoring in schools.
- An increase in the level of government prescription in the contents of time allowances for, and assessment in, initial teacher education courses. (Cohen *et al*., 1998: 20)

What definitely seems most positive here are two aspects of teacher preparation programme change: the increased amount of school-based experience and the shared responsibility of the school and higher education institution working in tandem. This makes the practicum period for teachers not only a pragmatic experience but also a form of feedback on the theoretical knowledge and pedagogical research and the link between the two is emphasised as a necessary condition for becoming an effective teacher. Also competence-driven courses and assessment constitute a detailed and precisely defined exemplification of the level each novice teacher should reach in the preparation stage. Table 1.9 gives details of these individual competences as the main targets of teacher preparation programmes (for a full description, see Cohen *et al*., 1998).

Table 1.9 Competence-driven courses of teacher preparation (based on Cohen *et al*., 1998: 20–25)

Competence	Description of knowledge, abilities and skills (selected examples) in:
1	2
Subject knowledge	• knowledge of the subject knowledge beyond the syllabus • the place of the subject in the curriculum
Subject application	• planning lessons and setting up goals • providing clear instruction • use appropriate resources
Class management	• be able to introduce appropriate forms of work (student groupings) • develop and maintain learners' motivation • create the context conducive to learning

1	2
Assessment and recording of students' progress	• take an individual approach towards assessment following the criteria and standards adopted • observe and record progress of pupils systematically • give appropriate feedback to learners
Further professional development	• develop understanding of the place and role of school in a given community • ability to perform administrative duties • ability to recognise diversity • working with special needs pupils • a self-critical approach
Curriculum content, planning and assessment	• knowledge of the whole curriculum and its specific goals and objectives • develop pupils general skills (literacy, communication, etc.) • subject knowledge and ways of applying it within the curriculum • assess and record pupils progress according to the criteria set up by the school
Pupil learning	• be aware of learning as a process • respond to individual learner needs • set appropriate demands • devise and monitor performance
Teaching strategies and techniques	• establish standards of achievement and discipline • create appropriate learning context • use a variety of techniques in teaching • be economical with lesson time • apply a variety of student groupings during a lesson
Further professional development	• develop within all the areas specified above

All teacher training programmes include two distinctive areas of preparation: theoretical courses about teaching, learning, subject matter knowledge, and the practical module, i.e. a practicum at school which gives trainees an opportunity to experience school for the first time and try out their knowledge, as well as their individual beliefs about teaching. Wilson *et al*. (2002: 195) emphasise that:

> Learning to teach typically involves spending a considerable time in schools participating in field experiences of varying lengths. In fact, field experience is a staple of teacher preparation programs. Study after study shows that experienced and newly certified teachers alike see clinical experience as powerful – sometimes the single most powerful – component of teacher preparation. Whether the power field experience enhances the quality of teacher preparation, however, may depend on the particular experience.

Having overviewed several studies on the effectiveness of the practicum for pre-service and new teachers, Wilson *et al.* (2002) discovered that, generally speaking, teaching practice which was school-based was evaluated positively. Teachers expressed the views that they developed professionally, especially in a context where they were allowed to experiment in their classrooms doing action research projects or when cooperation with other teachers was involved (Wilson *et al.*, 2002: 195). The trainees also tended to refer more to their school experiences than to theory learnt in their courses when describing their knowledge and skills in teaching (p. 196). Also, the longer the practice went on, the better evaluation it received, as it then offered further opportunity of experience for the trainees, who emphasised the need for continuity and the dynamic character of their development.

When discussing the role of teaching practice, Hascher *et al.* (2004: 623) see it as the context in which pre-service teachers can evaluate their abilities and experiment safely in their classrooms and it is also when they develop relationships and socialise with other teachers (school mentors, other peers, etc.). Teaching practice also acts as a stimulating experience for further development and study. Theoretically speaking, the practicum is an invaluable source of learning about teaching, but only if learning really occurs during this period. Certain conditions have to be fulfilled for the practicum to be effective: the way they are organised, the support given to the trainees, the feedback they receive from their mentors and others. Hascher *et al.* (2004) enumerate some of the basic criteria for learning to take place during the period of the practicum:

- Teaching is a very complex profession and therefore, the learning context during practicum is many-sided, too.
- Learning as a teacher is not limited to practicum but is part of a life-long learning process.
- Teachers' professional knowledge is strongly associated with activities and events in the classroom.
- Teachers' professional development is always process- and situation-oriented, social and subjective.
- Learning to become a good teacher requires much more than the use of either theoretical models or teaching methods. (Hascher *et al.*, 2004: 624)

A significant area of concern when discussing the teaching practice of trainees is the proportion of theory to practice in teacher preparation and, in more general terms, how important theory is in creating effective teachers. As studies show, trainee teachers always demonstrate their negative attitudes to theory in the initial stages of their school experiences (Hascher *et al.*, 2004), which to some extent derives from their lack of awareness of the complexity of the teaching/

learning processes, something which tends to develop only later (Gabryś-Barker, 2007). Having completed their one-year period of practicum, my students claim that they do need more theoretical knowledge, especially in relation to the pedagogical preparation necessary to cope with classroom problems such as, for example, specific instances of pupil misbehaviour and lack of discipline, ways of motivating learners or coping with dysfunctional and special needs learners.

The practicum stage is an important phase in teacher development, but it is often called "a survival stage", during which the trainees struggle from one lesson to another. The trainees' main focus is on planning their lessons according to acquired methodological knowledge, dealing with discipline problems and motivating their class to perform as asked. It also means accommodating to their schools, learning the regulations (often contrary to their own beliefs as to what is right), written and un-written procedures addressing how the school and its community function. This period may continue well-beyond the practicum phase and may last for about three to five years, as research suggests (Hascher *et al*., 2004). Hascher *et al.* (2004) further concluded on the basis of their student diary data that the students perceived their year at school as a fruitful experience, seen as "progress and growing expertise", but also due to the feedback received from their school mentors. The reflective comments expressed in the diary entries however were of a very situated nature (here and now) and did not show any "long-term perspective," but "were confined to thinking about the actual situation." Hascher *et al.* (2004) also question the reflective value of the diaries, as the comments are evaluated by them as rather weak and based on intuitions more than on firm theoretical knowledge, which was all too frequently rejected by the trainees as useless. They also demonstrated unawareness of the complexity of the phenomena under reflection. They conclude that reflectivity is the concept which is key to success, but it has to be carefully developed in prospective teachers.

In another study on teaching practice and its value for pre-service teachers, Boz and Boz (2006) studied narrative responses of their 41 students, prospective teachers after a second stage of practicum as contrasted with after the first stage, which consisted solely of passive observations of other teachers in their classrooms. Boz and Boz observed that:

> Prospective teachers' written responses indicated that most of them experienced problems in their school placements. [...] they observed similar issues, repeated similar activities as they did in their first school placement. [...] they did not feel like the teacher of the class and did not get enough time to practice. (2006: 353)

So in this study, the general evaluation of the practicum was fairly negative, as the trainees expressed the view that it offered them "little gain" on the one hand,

and on the other, they observed only a loose link between the theory learnt and practice at school. What was also pointed out as negative was "the mentors being distinct" (Boz & Boz, 2006: 357), which means that there was a problem with the feedback the trainees received in their placement schools:

> […] most of them said that they did not feel like the teacher of the class because their mentors interfered. In addition, some of the mentors did not give student teachers enough chance to practice; mentors explained the topic themselves, and student teachers solved problems in class. (Boz & Boz, 2006: 357)

Of course, the problem exemplified in this study stems from the fact, as mentioned by Boz and Boz, that mentors in Turkish schools where the study was conducted are chosen randomly and not on the basis of their craftsmanship, personality and willingness to mentor – the criteria which are seen as fundamental for the mentor assignment (Boz & Boz, 2006: 365). So it seems that one of the major issues in practicum effectiveness is the process of mentoring involved.

Pinnegar (1995), a practising teacher trainer, also reports somewhat negatively on her own experiences of going back to school to teach and, as if re-experiencing again the shock of school. She says:

> Many of the things I reflected on led me to realize that student teaching may not be the most helpful and educational event we can provide for pre-service teachers, even though they always refer to it as the most important part of their teacher preparation experience. The constraints placed on them by experienced teachers may contribute to and exacerbate the kind of reality shock. (p. 67)

To summarise, the teaching practice at school has to be viewed as the most important component of teacher development right at the beginning of their careers, as:

> […] The transition from learner to teacher is difficult but is aided by working closely with one's peers.
> […] The student-teacher is a learner who is actively constructing views of teaching and learning based on personal experiences strongly shaped by perceptions held before entering the program.
> […] Student teachers should see the preservice program as an educational experience of worth.
> […] Preservice education programs are inevitably inadequate (it is the start of teacher's career that will involve appreciably more learning over time). (Loughran & Russell, 1997: 167–168)

When discussing the support necessary for pre-service and novice teachers, Gold (1996) calls teaching practice an "all-embracing event," the most critical aspect of it being its totality: "This principle recognizes that the beginning teachers are affected by the impact of all of the elements in their environment during these impressionable years" (Gold, 1996: 589). Therefore the above-mentioned support should embrace a combination of approaches for new teachers:

> The first is the personalized approach, where new teachers are encouraged to develop self-efficacy and to come to terms with their own personal needs as well as learning ways of meeting them. They also acquire meaning related to their teaching and develop their own style of teaching […] The second approach is the (sic) technical and experiential, which focuses on the technical skills of teaching and relies heavily on apprenticeship where the mentor is a key figure. An emphasis is given here to knowledge in the core disciplines, selective training, and rigorous standards. (Gold, 1996: 587)

1.6.2 A sample study of trainees' evaluation of school-based experiences

I conducted a school placement feedback questionnaire with a group of 36 students who had a teaching profile at a university English department. The same questionnaire was administered to a group of 21 students at an English teacher training college. The questionnaire used was adapted from Bullough *et al.* (2004). Its purpose was to make the trainees reflect upon the following aspects of their school placement:

1. Are you pleased with what you have accomplished thus far as a teacher? Please elaborate.
2. Do you have any disappointments? Please elaborate.
3. Have you had any pleasant surprises? Please elaborate.
4. Has your resolve to become a teacher strengthened or weakened? Why?
5. Has your thinking about teaching or yourself as a teacher changed in any way? If so, in what ways and what has prompted the change?
6. Characterise your relationship with your mentor at school.
7. Give an example of a time when your mentor was especially helpful.
8. Additional (critical) comments.
9. Evaluate your period at school in terms of its usefulness for you as a future teacher of English: *extremely useful/useful/moderately useful/not very useful/useless.*

Tables 1.10 and 1.11 present the data received from the two samples of trainee teachers of English as a foreign language.

Table 1.10 Teaching practice experience: university students, 36 in total (%)

Question focus	Yes	Neutral	No	Comments
Q.1 *Pleased*	80	6	14	overcoming fears, building self-confidence, gaining respect, autonomy, learner achievements, motivating learners, establishing rapport with pupils, practising knowledge
Q.2 *Disappointed*	83	2	15	common discipline problems, unable to motivate pupils, explaining new material, difficulty of teaching, lack of cooperation, no progress, no autonomy, crammed syllabus
Q.3 *Surprised* (+)	94	–	6	young learners' positive attitude to learning, positive feedback from learners (praising), friendly relations, effectiveness of one's techniques, warmth expressed directly
Q.4 *Strengthened*	50	25	–	energising job, novelty of teaching in different age groups, solved anxiety problems, sense of achievement and satisfaction, confidence in one's ability
Q.4 *Weakened*	25	–	–	teaching seen as boring and uninteresting, low salary, disillusionment, hardness of the job and frustration it brings, bad health
Q.5 *Changed perceptions*	83	2	15	teaching is not only instruction but psychological and pedagogical actions, be realistic, need for reflection and openness, much harder than expected, importance of coping with stress (also learners'), time consuming, one's inadequacies, complexity of the process
Q.9 *Evaluation*	55	28	17	–
Q.6 *Rapport with the mentor*	80	15	5	a guide, source of information/knowledge, understanding of trainee's insecurities, serious and demanding, but with friendly attitude, giving autonomy, partnership relationship, a model of a teacher, feedback on strong and weak points
Q.7 *Facilitation*	92	8	–	helping with keeping discipline in the classroom, helping with language, providing materials, building confidence through reassurance, giving information about group characteristics
Q.8 *Additional comments*	–	–	–	not long enough, interfering with studying, no access to courseboooks, working on one's individually prepared materials, clear preferences for some types of schools (primary, private) and age groups (young learners)

Both groups of trainee teachers present a fairly homogeneous picture of their school placement experiences. The trainees underwent a similar learning programme: theoretical and practical TEFL methodology courses, introductory courses to psychology and the pedagogy of teaching, language instruction at a similar level and additionally a course in linguistics. Their teaching experience

was equally limited and mostly done on a one-to-one basis before the school placement commenced. The organisation and demands of their teaching practice were also fairly homogeneous in both institutions.

Table 1.11 Teaching practice experience: teacher training college students, 21 in total (%)

Question focus	Yes	Neutral	No	Comments
Q.1 *Pleased*	90	6	4	satisfaction from students' progress, learning about oneself, coping with stress, new experiences in using different techniques, confidence development, self-development in general
Q.2 *Disappointed*	96	4	–	misbehaviour and oversised classes, difficult to motivate the learners, a lot of preparation for lessons, difficult to apply the theory learnt, being undervalued
Q.3 *Surprised (+)*	100	–	–	observing the effects, learners' creativity, students' involvement, nicely behaved learners, being able to motivate weaker students, attentiveness of learners
Q.4 *Strengthened*	50	13	–	more awareness of teaching, more confidence in one's ability
Q.4 *Weakened*	37	–	–	feeling inadequate (a "weak character", according to the mentor!), tiring and not profitable to be a teacher, no inborn predisposition, too many difficulties to cope with
Q.5 *Changed perceptions*	90	6 ("little")	4	teaching is self-improvement, facing and coping with difficulties, more demanding than expected, importance of preparation to do the job
Q.9 *Evaluation*	90	10	–	–
Q.6 *Rapport with the mentor*	81	13	6	source of motivation and guidance, pointing out strong and weak points of a lesson, mental support, assistance in designing a diploma project and diploma lesson, a constructive and thorough feedback
Q.7 *Facilitation*	100	–	–	choice of the project area, practical advice on lesson planning, how to find out about the learners' characteristics, planning trainee's teaching ahead
Q.8 *Additional comments*	–	–	–	development of teaching techniques, too intensive period (daily assignment of lessons), not enough preparation time for the lessons because of studying simultaneously, a unique experience of shaping young people's minds, irrelevance of theoretical knowledge to classroom practice, need to introduce novelty and be creative

As in the other studies presented earlier, the trainees perceived their practicum in a positive light. It seems that the major advantage of it was the opportunity to build their confidence and feel more secure in the classroom, getting satisfaction from pupils' progress and establishing an appropriate rapport with the learners (80% and 90%, respectively). These comments suggest a good and promising start. The disappointments expressed relate to the areas of difficulty and problems in classroom management that even experienced teachers have to struggle with, e.g. misbehaviour, lack of learners' motivation and factors beyond the trainee's power such as syllabus content and oversized classes. Here, more disappointment is observed in the case of college students who, being more motivated to become teachers, take a slightly different approach to their practicum (more concerned and involved), and unfulfiled expectations make them more critical of the whole experience: 83% for the university students versus 96% of disappointment in the case of college trainees. In both groups the element of positive surprise is very strong: 94% versus 100%, respectively. It is expressed by being pleased with the positive feedback from the pupils and their achievement and involvement in the lessons run by the trainees. The practicum period is seen more often as strengthening (50% in both groups) than weakening (25% and 37%, respectively) the desire to become an EFL teacher in the future, although the initial expectations of what the job entails changed during this period, and this change in their perceptions was not always positive.

One of the most significant factors in evaluation of the practicum is perception of the mentor-teacher and rapport with him/her. Again, the trainees expressed full satisfaction deriving from the cooperation with their supervisors at schools. They were perceived as not only helpful and ready to assist the students in all their teaching actions, but also full of understanding of the trainees' insecurities and failures, and respect for them as younger colleagues. The feedback received was seen as both thorough and informative and delivered in a friendly and encouraging manner. As in the previously discussed studies, here also the feedback was treated as one of the most significant factors assuaging the trainees' feelings about themselves as teachers who are still in the early stages of their professional development, but who would all be able to become successful teachers in the future. The trainees demonstrated full trust in their mentors and often treated them as their role models.

All in all, the practicum period, although very intensive and filled with moments of helplessness, insecurity and anxiety for the young teachers, constituted a significant period of growth at the level of personal identity as a teacher and of professional expertise.

1.7 Summary: The profile of a pre-service teacher

Let us recapitulate what was discussed in the foregoing chapter and make a provisional sketch of a pre-service teacher. The picture of pre-service teachers that emerges seems to be fairly consensual across various studies on this group of professionals-to-be. Those reviewed in this chapter unanimously show student teachers as a group of future professionals who go through near traumatic experiences in confrontation with their deeply ingrained and idealistic view of the profession, invoking a disorienting contrast between the theory they acquired as a body of knowledge and what they are faced with as classroom reality. Perceptions of the classroom as imagined versus the reality experienced make trainees take a different stand than the one they usually intend: they struggle for "survival" (Katz, 1979; Burden, 1980; Apple, 1995; Mok, 2005). Hence trainees' major concerns focus on their own affectivity and the way the trainees are seen by their mentors, their peers and most of all, by students in the class. They are greatly concerned with building up their authority with their pupils either by being overwhelmingly friendly or, contrastingly, extremely authoritarian and controlling. As theoretical knowledge fails, they tend to revert to the models of teaching known to them, their own teachers at different levels of education. Even though these models were often criticised by them, now they seem to offer a safe way of keeping face and "surviving". With passing time, trainees' motivations are exposed to challenges and may undergo certain changes or at least be severely shaken up, as their first expectations are not fully met. They become very technically oriented in their classroom concerns and focus on the techniques of teaching and how these can help them become real professionals, denying or neglecting their own needs, for example, for genuine satisfaction which would help to maintain an enthusiastic approach to teaching (Gabryś-Barker, 2008).

Looking at the initial motivation to teach the trainees express during their first experiences, Younger *et al.* (2004: 262) in their discussion on the motives trainees have to study teaching and to become qualified teachers conclude:

> Trainees' own thinking at the start of their teacher training shows a sophisticated grasp of the type of teachers they aspired to become, based upon their models of outstanding teachers and the quality of the classroom practice they have experienced as pupils or observed as trainees.

Trainee-teachers in this, as in many other studies, present themselves as idealistic and carrying out a mission, which is not however always very well-grounded in their own individual teaching contexts (e.g. Gabryś-Barker, 2008). What seems most important in these narratives is that all the trainees who

expressed their views see themselves as involved in a developmental process of becoming: becoming more aware and more reflective, more creative and able to share their knowledge but also better able to share themselves as people with their own learners, revealing a very strong need to reflect on themselves in their own classrooms. The analysis found in the study presented in this volume (Chapter 5 ahead) and other studies (e.g. Younger *et al.*, 2004) perhaps do not go far enough into the topic, however, they constitute a starting point to focus on how to develop the reflective abilities of those trainees in the course of their studies and practicum period at schools. The first step is developing awareness of this need and fomenting the willingness to reflect.

Motivations to study to become a teacher are related to the main beliefs expressed by the student-teachers about teaching. Here they are described in order of frequency as:

- a mission to be accomplished
- a highly specialist job requiring professionalism
- a sharing of knowledge developed through study and experience
- performing a well-prepared role.

These systems of beliefs can be conceptualised as metaphors *of a victorious battle, a lighthouse showing the way in difficulties, a guided tour* or *acting on the stage.* They derive from:

- models of former teachers that the trainees recover from their memory, mostly from primary and secondary level experiences – positive examples and, as such, copied by the trainees in their own classrooms, but also negative and, as such, rejected by them
- one's own personality features which determine preferred styles of management and interaction with the learners
- the new teaching experiences of trainees.

The major practical experiences of teaching influence evolving motivation to teach and also systems of beliefs previously held, now finally confronted with classroom reality. The majority of trainees see the period of school placement as extremely fruitful, but not without flaws. The major drawbacks as described in the studies (Wilson *et al.*, 2002; Hascher *et al.*, 2004) derive from the different attitudes and different treatments which the institutions where the trainees are put provide. This mostly relates to the inadequacy of mentoring and mentor preparation, too much control over the trainee-teachers, which is seen as very limiting and not sufficiently helpful as feedback and assistance. Also, as expected, the amount of teaching practice, which is a prescribed part of the teaching module in the different teacher training institutions pre-service teachers come from, is always seen as insufficient. During this school period trainees try out their theoretical knowledge and, becoming dissatisfied, first discard it and build their "expertise" on a more intuitive and experiential basis. However with time,

they mostly modify their judgements by becoming more aware that perhaps it is not the flaws in the theory they are familiar with but their own incomplete knowledge in certain areas of teaching and its management, or a specificity of a situation they find themselves in that needs to find amendment in further knowledge and skills.

These attitudes of trainees can be read as important indicators of the way in which pre-service preparation should be developed. Teacher educators and trainers should be aware of them, as they have major implications for the way training programmes need to be constructed and how their general objectives are formulated. As we know, much attention should be paid to developing fully aware teachers, ones whose professional awareness comes not only from knowledge acquired from experience but from "digesting" it in reflection. Reflective teaching, primarily a focus on developing the ability to reflect at the pre-service level, should be considered to be a major objective in creating successful teachers. Chapter 2 elaborates on what reflection means in general and how this specifically applies to teaching, and then discusses ways of developing the ability to reflect in pre-service teachers.

CHAPTER 2

REFLECTIVITY IN TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented teachers as a professional group at the initial stage of their development, focusing on their motivations, beliefs and sense of professional identity. It also commented on the school placement experiences of student-teachers on the basis of selected studies in the area. In this chapter I would like to comment on something I consider absolutely essential to teacher development, reflectivity in teaching, and would like to emphasise its role in initial teacher training as the most conducive to becoming an effective teacher after the induction period of teaching has concluded. It is also numerous political and pan-European initiatives that have been useful in prioritising and clarifying what is at stake in 21st-century (language but not only) teacher training, emphasising reflectivity as the major feature of teacher development at its all stages (see Epilogue).

Following Cole (2005: 131), I strongly believe that

> **AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER IS SOMEONE** who sees herself or himself as a learner. Teachers who evaluate and change their own practice to benefit their pupils are rewarding colleagues to work with. They make teaching a highly creative experience. (author's emphasis)

What Loughran (1996) sees as basic to creating effective teachers when working with student-teachers on their professional development is the belief that

> teaching needs to be interactive and challenging as learning does not occur just by listening, it occurs by reconsidering one's understanding through deeds,

> thoughts and actions. Therefore, so that student-teachers' learning about teaching is meaningful, the teaching employed should challenge and motivate them to take steps to make new meaning from teaching and learning episodes. (Loughran, 1996: 25)

The understanding of the processes involved in teaching comprehended as a learning process, derives from a conscious and structured reflection on these very processes.

At the beginning of this chapter I will attempt to define the concept of reflection in general and specifically for a teaching/learning context. It is however no easy task. In her discussion of the construct of reflection, Moon (1999) makes an important observation about the impossibility of providing a precise definition of what is meant by reflection. This is due to the fact that different sciences offer many different perspectives on what reflection might be. There is a developed discussion on reflectivity in the fields of philosophy and psychology, in sociology and in education, amongst others. Moon suggests that often there is not enough integration of these different perspectives applied to cross-disciplinary topics (Moon, 1999: vii). She also points out that this discussion on reflection is marred by linguistic imprecision, as such terms as thinking, reasoning, problem-solving or critical judgement are often used interchangeably and as synonyms. The lack of precisely defined meanings leads to a vagueness in the comprehension of the concept. Moon also sees inadequacy in discussion of the concept of reflectivity due to the relative dearth of discussion in psychology of the relationships between thinking, emotionality and reflection. However, many may take this to be an ill-informed judgement, as research in psychology these days, supported by many neurolinguistic studies, is deeply concerned with the relationship between affectivity and cognition.

A lot has been written about reflectivity in educational contexts, by (among many others) Schön (1987), Posner (1989), Pollard and Tann (1994), Richards and Lockhart (1994), Loughran (1996), Moon (2004) and Pollard (2005). This volume does not intend to reproduce the whole bulk of theory available and discussed in detail in the above studies; it only aims to look selectively at it and mark those areas relevant for the discussion of pre-service teachers, their training programmes and ways of developing reflectivity at the early stages of professional induction. It is of pivotal importance as this stage as this is still a learning stage and no habits have been established yet as to teaching routines. Thus, comments on the characteristics of learning processes seem relevant to the discussion of development of one's reflectivity. So I will discuss reflectivity as a developmental process of learning about teaching, dependent on the individual characteristics of teachers, their styles of thinking and ways of learning.

It can be safely assumed that the development of reflectivity in the teaching context of pre-service teachers is not only theory-based through the courses trainees attend, but mostly it means experiential learning at school where their practicum occurs.

As Samuels and Betts (2007: 269) state:

> Experiences, whether in the context of work or personal lives, have the potential to be rich sources of learning. Through reflection we can explore experience so that it becomes a mental event we can play with, relive, and develop into future actions. There is a potential to reflect on intentions as well as actions, thoughts and feelings.

The role of reflection in professional contexts, such as in this case teaching, is seen as:

- creating an opportunity to confront knowledge learnt and knowledge created in use
- establishing a personal meaning of an experience and interpretation of it
- challenging beliefs and individually-made assumptions
- facing challenges and uncertain situations
- re-examining and building new knowledge based on experiential learning
- avoiding routine and introducing new solutions to conflict, uncertain or unresolved situations.

The ability to reflect and one's reflectivity are developmental, and can be exposed to formal instruction, both theoretical and practical, to attain higher levels of competence. Professional experience is to provide a grounding for this development. So, it may be assumed as a consequence that different groups of teachers will exhibit different levels of reflectivity, depending on how long they have been in the profession and what training they have received. However, it is also crucial to bear in mind that reflectivity is not an automatically developed quality and even experienced teachers will not necessarily exhibit this ability.

As the basis for comments on the development of reflectivity in trainee teachers, the data of my previous study (Gabryś-Barker, 2008) is provided to demonstrate their abilities or in many cases the limitations of their ability to reflect productively upon their own teaching experiences. Some preliminary advice on how to make trainees more able to see their teaching and reflect upon a given teaching event before, during and after it occurs will be presented and discussed as part of a training programme implemented in a teacher training college for pre-service ELT teachers.

2.2 Reflection and reflectivity

2.2.1 Defining reflection (an overview of different perspectives)

A common-sense meaning of the word reflection, the qualifier Moon (1999) uses to describe a general understanding of the term and its use in everyday speech, suggests:

> […] a form of mental processing with a purpose and/or anticipated outcome that is applied to relatively complicated or unstructured ideas for which there is no obvious solution. This suggests close association with, or involvement in, learning and the representation of learning. (Moon, 1999: 4)

Such an understanding of the term brings certain connotations to mind: re-thinking something, more focused detailed representation of a certain phenomenon, evaluation of it, a manner of thinking (being reflective), looking back on something, bringing in other types of knowledge previously not considered, etc. For the purpose of developing an understanding of reflection as a conscious and well-structured construct to be used effectively in educational programmes, its definition and description would require more rigor and an academically disciplined description and its elaboration. In other words, a brief background to the concept deriving from the scholarly writings of philosophers, psychologists and educators seems appropriate here. The selection made here is based on major sources, the "backbone philosophies" as Moon describes them in her overview of literature on reflection.

Table 2.1 An overview of major theories of reflection

Focus	Name	Description
1	2	3
Educational processes	John Dewey (1933)	• Reflection is synonymous to (re)thinking a given issue. • It has purpose which determines its ways. • It is concerned with testing and evaluation. • It is based on knowledge, evidence, rationality. • It aims to develop understanding and testing it. • It has a defined outcome. • Formal instruction is a tool to develop reflection. • The purpose of reflection is effective education.

1	2	3
Sociology of knowledge	Jurgen Habermas (1971)	• It is concerned with understanding of human behaviour and communication. • It takes interest in the development of knowledge, re-interpretation of knowledge and examination of analytical inquiry. • It means development of self in a social context and interaction of these. • The purpose of reflection is empowerment, justice, emancipation.
Experiential learning	David Kolb (1984)	• Experience becomes the medium of reflection in a learning cycle: experience-observation-conceptualization-experimentation-experience. • It is interaction between different forms of knowing (active experience versus “detached” observation). • It means assimilation and accommodation of knowledge (following Piaget developmental stages). • It takes into account different styles of thinking/learning. • Its purpose is learning from experience through observation.
Professional development	Donald Schön (1983)	• It takes two forms: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action • It is creation of “theory in use” (as contrasted with espoused theory) • Reflection-in-action is guided by a given action, unplanned, no theory use • Reflection-on-action is retrospective and theory-building • Significance of practicum (reflection-in-action) • Its purpose is professional improvement

Each of the above essential summaries of theories on reflection have some bearing on educational theories and practices, however the most useful are an adaptation of Kolb’s experiential learning (and the place of reflection in it) and Schön’s reflective practice (all discussed later in more detail).

2.2.2 Different levels of reflection

As can be seen from the previous presentation of the variety of perspectives on reflection, reflectivity is a complex multilevel construct (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Levels of reflection (based on Mezirow, 1981: 12–13)

Level	Focus
1	2
1. Reflectivity (a general concept)	an awareness of specific perceptions, meanings or behaviours
2. Affective reflectivity	the individual’s awareness of feelings about what is being perceived, thought or acted upon

1	2
3. Discriminant reflectivity	assessing the efficacy of perceptions, thoughts and behaviour
4. Judgemental reflectivity	an awareness of value judgements made on perceptions, thoughts and behaviour
5. Conceptual reflectivity	assessing the adequacy of the concepts used for the judgement
6. Psychic reflectivity	recognition of the habit of making precipitate judgements on limited information
7. Theoretical reflectivity	an awareness that one set of perspectives, e.g. taken for granted practice or culture, may explain personal experience less satisfactorily than another perspective

Within these different levels of reflectivity, Mezirow distinguishes between so-called "consciousness levels" (1–4) and "critical consciousness levels" (5–7). This distinction may be directly related to action research (teacher-directed research) as a form of reflectivity development in the teaching environment. The preliminary stages of action research, that is diagnosing classroom problems and identifying the dependent variables, concluding in the formulation of research questions or hypotheses, operate at the "consciousness level", whereas the interventive stage of implementation of independent variables in the form of treatment and dissemination of results and their discussion operate at the "critical consciousness level". The individual levels of Mezirow's perceptions on reflection, in a general context, can be related to specific aspects of teacher reflection.

Table 2.3 Levels of reflection in teaching based on Mezirow's typology

Level	**Teacher actions**
1	2
1. Reflectivity (a general concept)	an observation of one's teaching context and its effectiveness
2. Affective reflectivity	an ability to describe one's attitude and personal (affective) involvement in didactic practices
3. Discriminating reflectivity	being able to discriminate what works and what does not work in different teaching situations
4. Judgemental reflectivity	making informed judgements about one's decisions
5. Conceptual reflectivity	developing understanding of the constructs (variables) and their relevance for a particular teaching context
6. Psychic reflectivity	careful analysis of one's observations of teaching practice and taking an individual approach to different teaching situations
7. Theoretical reflectivity	getting acquainted with literature in the field, both in terms of field focus (here: a foreign language) and methodology (didactics) and empirical studies in academic research

Many scholars adopt a hierarchical model of reflective thinking, which distinguishes between three modes of reflecting: at the technical, contextual and dialectical levels.

Table 2.4 Reflective thinking (based on the Reflective Thinking Pyramid in Taggart & Wilson, 1998: 3)

Level	Description
Technical level	• reference to past experiences; teacher competency toward meeting outcomes • focus on behaviour/content/skill; simple, theoretical description
Contextual level	• looks at alternative practices; choices based on knowledge and value commitments • content related to context/student related needs; analysis, clarifications, validation of principles
Dialectical level	• addresses moral, ethical, socio-political issues • disciplined inquiry • individual autonomy • self-understanding

A technical mode of reflective thinking constitutes the bottom level, but also provides the basics and the starting point for higher level reflection. It focuses on issues of methodology, most often those which a teacher finds to be problematic for him/her: planning and managing lessons or dealing with various critical episodes. It constitutes the main domain of student-teachers' reflections, as they do not have well-established schemata for their teaching and are at the stage of trying out theory learnt against the reality of the classroom practice (Taggart & Wilson, 1998: 2). The facilitation of reflection at this stage means instruction on basic methodology, explaining and pointing out what works and what does not generally work in a given teaching context.

The higher mode of reflection, the contextual level:

> [...] deals with pedagogical matters as examined relative to a relationship between theory and practice. The non-problematic nature of the technical level gives way to problems in the contextual level. Problems stem from the personal biases resulting from a practitioner's belief system, looking at situations in context, and the questioning of practices based on increased pedagogical knowledge and skills. (Taggart & Wilson, 1998: 4)

Facilitation at this stage of reflection consists of discussing situational factors, both external and internal, stemming from the instructors, learners and the school context itself, and their interaction. It is the time of questioning and clarifications based on the theory and the on-going and growing experience

of trainees and the expertise and experience of mentors as models of effective teachers.

At the top of the reflective pyramid is the dialectical level, also labelled "critical reflection" (Taggart & Wilson, 1998: 5). This is concerned with the morality and ethics of teaching in relation to various issues that may arise during teaching practice. They may be focused on the teacher's self, the system of values and beliefs as manifested by classroom practice and behaviour, the role of knowledge and teachers' empowerment, justice and objectivity, etc. Here the facilitation offered to trainee-teachers may consist of developing action research projects analysing individual cases (such as critical incidents) or teacher narratives in the form of dialogical journals or regular diaries.

2.2.3 Teachers in action: levels of reflection

Another perspective on reflection in a teaching context is proposed by Schön (1983) and further described by Farrell (2007), where different types of reflection are based on time frames (see Table 2.5).

Table 2.5 Types of reflection in teaching (after Farrell, 2007: 4–6)

Type of reflection	Characteristics
Reflection-in-action	• occurs when tacit knowledge based and often automatic and routinised action is not sufficient • a routine response of a teacher triggers a non-routine response of a learner (an element of surprise) • acting on a spot (intuitively and spontaneously experimenting) • experienced teachers have a repertoire of actions to take, novices may loose control of the situation • based on past experiences
Reflection-on-action	• carried out on completion of the lesson in a form of retrospective interpretation of the events • metacognitive awareness of classroom events • analysis based on experience, tacit knowledge and structured analysis
Reflection-for-action	• a combination of the two types of reflections, and the ultimate goal • planning for future actions • revisiting one's beliefs and attitudes

Here the criterion for the typology is that of the given time frame, i.e. when the reflection actually takes place. It may cover the same domains, but the purposes will be different, as described above. The reflection-in-action will be a particular form of reflectivity, as it will require from the teacher an immediate reaction to the event and/or interaction with a learner/learners, materials, task, language, as Qualley (1997: 11) puts it:

> Reflexivity is a response triggered by a dialectical engagement with the other – the other idea, theory, person, culture, text, or even on other part of one's self, e.g. a past life.

Reflection-in-action, like any reflection, is cognitve in nature, but as it occurs automatically and spontaneously, and relies on past experience, it will have an important affective dimension. In other words, it will not be fully controlled by the teacher, especially a pre-service teacher, whose experience in dealing with immediate events will be limited and whose behavioural schemata have not been established yet. Perhaps Schön's typology could be expanded by establishing another category of reflection, that occuring before the action, i.e. reflection-before-action, which would allow a teacher to anticipate and plan for action to the extent that his/her knowledge/experience/intuition will be able to make a contribution. *Reflection-on-action* as a sequel to reflection-in-action relies on retrospecting on what has happened and how the situation was resolved. Unlike the latter, it makes use of metacognitive knowledge explicitly applied in the analysis. *Reflection-for-action* combines experience use (*reflection-in-action*) and knowledge used to interpret the event (*reflection-on-action*) to re-frame a teaching practice and "prepare for the future by using knowledge from what happened during class and what they (the teachers) reflected on after class (Farrell, 2007: 6).

2.2.4 Reflection in teaching

De Jong and Korthagen (1988) describe the nature of reflecting as reframing a mental construct present in an individual:

> A person is reflecting when he or she is engaged in structuring his or her perception of a situation, of his or her actions of learning, or when he or she is engaged in altering or adjusting these structures. (quoted in Wubbels & Korthagen, 1990: 32)

Thus a schematic representation of the act of reflecting may be seen as a process of:

> noticing → awareness → expanding → refining → altering → reframing

It is very well represented by inquiry-based teacher training and development programmes, following the action research framework described later on in this chapter.

In a teaching context, this process can develop as a *broad reflection* focusing on its content and *deep reflection* related to its nature. These two types of reflection

should occur as complementary constructs in an actual context of reflecting. Broad reflection is described as:

- internally and externally oriented
- taking into account internal and external factors
- considering both the past and the future
- embracing personal cognitive and moral dimensions
- carrying teacher responsibility
- relating to ethics and morality of teaching
- grounded in a social context. (Luttenberg & Borgen, 2008: 544)

Luttenmberg and Borgen conclude:

> The broader the content, the broader the reflection. And for reflection to be most broad, it must encompass the teacher's entire field of action which includes the social and cultural context of teaching. (Luttenberg & Borgen, 2008: 544)

On the other hand, deep reflection is seen as more of a process of constructing a mental picture of a situation with a view to reframing it (as described above). Thus deep reflection is often described by thinking and action cycles such as:

- Action, retrospection, identification, development of alternatives, experimentation (Korthagen, 2001).
- Anticipatory, contemporary, retrospective reflection. (Loughran, 1996)

Deep reflection is also seen as a process of construction on different levels:

- Technical, practical and critical (Carr & Kemmis, 1986).
- Descriptive, comparative or critical (Jay & Johnson, 2002).
- Embracing description, information, confrontation and reconstruction (Smyth, 1989).
- Rapid reflection, repair, review, research and re-theorising (Zeichner & Liston, 1996).

2.2.5 Domains in teachers' reflectivity (empirical data)

Another perspective on teacher reflection and its domains, most relevant to the discussion of pre-service teachers' reflectivity, is presented by Ottesen (2007). This perspective is purely empirical and derives from her study of pre-service teachers in their internships and their mentors' conversations, which she calls "collaborative communicative actions". The purpose of the study was to observe how the trainees reflect and what they reflect on when confronted with their mentors in a communicative act. On the basis of the data collected, Ottesen established a taxonomy of reflection modes both for the mentors and trainees

by taping 35 conversations and categorising types of reflection expressed by both participants, the mentor teachers and their trainees.

Table 2.6 Ottesen's (2007) categorisation of reflection based on the empirical data (%)

Modes of reflection	Mentor teachers	Trainees
Reflection as induction: learning the "how" of teaching	77	41
Reflection as concept development: learning about teaching	14	41
Reflection as imagined practice: transcending the constraints of the practice	9	18

The first observation Ottesen makes is that the subjects reflect almost entirely on the situations when a problem occurs:

> […] although reflection is evident in nearly every session, it is commonly neither systematic, nor extended in time. Typically, the objects of reflection emerge from puzzling or disturbing aspects of teaching experiences, or student teachers' raising some problematic about their plans. (Ottesen, 2007: 36).

Despite the criticism expressed above, Ottesen assumes that there is an intrinsic value to any kind of reflection expressed by the trainees, no matter how imperfect and inadequate it may seem. At this stage of their professional development, "it is crucial to becoming a teacher" (Ottesen, 2007: 41). What is more, in the recorded interactions, the trainees' reflections are expanded by the feedback received from their mentors:

> Through the expansion of the object of reflection, experienced teachers share the resources and enterprises that mediate their teaching practice, thus facilitating the student teachers' access and enabling participation. (Ottesen, 2007: 41)

Ottesen's understanding of reflection is that it "is a discursive process in which an object is elicited from the flow of events and expanded in communicative action" (Ottesen, 2007: 41). This was very well demonstrated in her study. Reflection as expressed in a communicative collaborative action such as implemented here as a study tool not only expands the object of trainees' reflection, it also labels and thus categorises it. As such, it adds structure to it. Communicative actions between mentors and trainees make reflective processes more systematic if planned in advance as part of an internship. Importantly, the process demonstrated

in the study uncovered not only the trainees' need to reflect upon how to do things in the classroom, i.e. reflection as induction – 41% of total reflective turns, but equally importantly, it is related to understanding of what teaching means, i.e. reflection as concept development – also 41% of the data gathered. Understanding the processes of teaching and learning and conceptualising their different dimensions by explicit commentary on them allows these trainees to become more open to innovation in teaching and as a consequence to become more autonomous as teachers.

Reflection is reported as such a common enough activity for teachers that it is often taken for granted by them. However, its assumed mundane character may in a way constitute an impeding factor in teaching. Korthagen and Vasalos (2005) describe teachers' habits of reflecting as aiming at "a quick fix" in situations of difficulty, which often becomes routinised, "frozen" behaviour. Thus, a more structured, not *ad hoc* in form, reflectivity is necessary to foment a more aware, systematic and open attitude to one's teaching and its evaluation. This more structured approach to the development of reflectivity should be implemented in a variety of ways in teacher training programmes right from the start, but it is perhaps no less important in the in-service re-training of experienced teachers.

It is often assumed that the propensity for reflectivity is a personal characteristic and can be observed broadly in one's life, not only applied in relation to a professional context and professional growth. Thus a teacher who is a reflective person will most probably express a positive attitude and simultaneously the need to reflect upon himself/herself as a teacher, his/her pupils, his/her subject, the school and other domains related to the job. However it must be affirmed that being reflective is also a developmental feature. In other words, it can also to some extent be imposed by training programmes on those whose predisposition to reflect is not very strong. The major objective of these programmes should be not only to introduce but also to guide prospective teachers in developing different types of reflectivity. It means that

> in a person-oriented programme, for instance, becoming a teacher is construed as primarily a matter of personal growth and psychological maturation. Reflection can thus stimulate and guide such development. In a behaviour-oriented programme, the emphasise is on the acquisition of those teaching skills that are known to stimulate pupil learning. Reflection is then more technical and used to determine the extent to which a particular action prompts effective learning […]. In a research-oriented programme, the development of an inquisitive teaching attitude stands central and concerns the teaching profession in general. (Luttenberg & Bergen, 2008: 544)

The four general domains of reflection mentioned earlier, the trainee teacher himself/herself, his/her students, the subject taught and his/her teaching context (e.g. school placement), constitute the basic areas of evaluation of reflectivity for pre-service teachers, as measured by a questionnaire used by Wubbels and Korthagen (1990) in order to evaluate the effectiveness of their pre-service teachers on completion of a reflective training programme of studies. At this point I would like to describe briefly the reflective teaching training programme implemented by Wubbles and Korthagen (1990), understanding it as a programme that "trains prospective teachers to reflect on their experiences as teachers and to strive for a conscious awareness of their own professional development" (p. 30).

The programme follows the ALACT model of reflection which consists of the following five stages:

- Action
- Looking back on the action
- Awareness of essential aspects
- Creating alternative ways of action
- Trial

The trainees participating in this ALACT programme were pre-service teachers of mathematics embarking on a four-and-a-half year programme of studies to become qualified teachers. What is interesting is that at the initial stages, in the first year, before the actual school placement (internship) starts, the programme introduces reflections relating to learning processes in mathematics and on the learning tasks performed in a classroom context and beyond (such as homework assignments). The use of various forms of student groupings were favoured to promote reflection (pair, group work) and also activities such as role playing and discussions, which also enhance reflection through cooperation. Instruction on how to reflect was provided and practiced. Additionally, written reports on their learning experiences were handed in by the student-teachers. During the course, the trainees reflected not only on learning and pedagogical aspects, but also on their attitudes and goals. So it was both broad and deep reflection that were being promoted. The first year of studies prepared the group of prospective mathematics teachers to reflect productively.

In the second year the teaching started, first with individual learners for more comfort and to create confidence in the trainees. Later on, regular teaching under the supervision of university mentors and then monitored by qualified school instructors occurred for the rest of the training period. Throughout the course, not only feedback sessions but also the regular keeping of logs and journals provided opportunities for the trainees to reflect periodically on their classroom practices.

What is interesting in the ALACT model is that it combines the individual learning experiences of future teachers with reflection on those experiences

and the actual learning that occurred in their classrooms during the school placement periods. The reflection process is cyclical and always follows the five stages enumerated above.

The questionnaire administered by Wubbels and Korthagen (1990) demonstrated that the program contributed to the creation of a positive attitude to reflection; however it did not have an immediate impact on the effectiveness of teaching as such. This must be understood as a longitudinal process and not something that can be instantaneous:

> It is remarkable that the program designed to promote reflective teaching does not result in the teachers performing better in the class right from the start, but rather contributes to a greater capacity for growth and development (*capacity to improve*). [...]. The conclusion may well be that this teacher education program is most effective for the period after teachers have overcome the initial problems. (Wubbels & Korthagen, 1990: 41)

This conclusion seems to me to be over-simplifying, as it has to be understood that reflective practice constitutes only one dimension of an educational programme for pre-service teachers and other external (and internal) variables have to be incorporated into the analysis of the effectiveness of the subjects investigated in the study.

2.3 Teaching as a knowledge-constructing process

2.3.1 Knowledge construction as a process

Teachers who come into the profession do not come as *tabula rasa* or blank slates. Even though they have no, or only minimal, teaching experience, they usually have a considerable body of knowledge acquired during their training courses and also their own learning experience, which constitutes an important basis for the beliefs and assumptions about teaching and learning held by them. Experience gained throughout teaching practice (and also later on) and reflective teaching must be considered highly significant for becoming effective professionals, however, as much as I believe in the value of both, teacher knowledge construction derives from a more extensive basis of regulation:

> Three sources of regulation have to play a role in knowledge construction in learning to teach: external sources to provide new information, active internal sources to deliberately focus on (new) information, and dynamic internal

sources to spontaneously reconceptualize prior understandings. (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2003: 157)

Oosterheert and Vermunt (2003) believe that student-teachers' and novices' ability to (re)construct their knowledge based on these three quoted sources largely depends on their readiness to change, which is seen as emotionally-based, as it relates to a "change of their perception of reality" (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2003: 157).

A situated cognition theory defines knowledge construction as a process of self-regulation, in which an individual re-conceptualises and internalises knowledge and experience derived from external and internal sources in a deliberate fashion by:

- attending to a given task
- employing individually appropriate learning strategies
- monitoring the process
- evaluating the process and its effectiveness.

Traditionally the main attribute of self-regulation is seen in the explicit, externally-driven process of control and internalisation of knowledge. However, we know (and this is also demonstrated by theories of information processing, where the brain is seen as processing multi-sources simultaneously) that knowledge construction also derives from internal self-regulation. (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2003).

Table 2.7 Self-regulation in knowledge construction (based on Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2003: 158)

Self-regulation type	Processing	Nature of information processing	Learning experience	Activities
Active	slow, effortful, deliberate, sequential, attention allocation	conceptual, important, reducing complexity	internalisation, knowing, effort	explicit: analysing, structuring, memorising
Dynamic	rapid, spontaneous, non-deliberate, simultaneous, attention delegation	sensorial, interesting, leaving complexity intact	reconceptualisation, understanding, ease	implicit

The implicit character of dynamic self-regulation occurring spontaneously is believed to be emotionally-based and as such relates directly to one's appraisal systems in terms of prior experience, familiarity and the affective characteristics

of the task to be performed: interest, anxiety (directly related to one's perception of coping potential) and self-esteem.

Following the three-source theory of knowledge construction, it is claimed that

> (student) teachers are inclined to rely exclusively on dynamic sources for their *teaching* – only dramatic contextual changes may force them to change existing habits and knowledge; tend to ignore new information from external sources; and use active internal sources only to solve practical problems in teaching, not to further develop their knowledge base. (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2003: 164)

If the above is true, three major assumptions about training new teachers come to mind:

1. The need to develop some awareness of their own appraisal systems with the view to modifying them if their effects are detrimental to classroom practices, e.g. when low-self esteem of a pre-service teacher diminishes his/her coping potential, which is considered to be one of the major elements in one's appraisal system.
2. The need to point out the role of active self-regulation, expressed explicitly by self-reflection on one's practices, determining the reasons for and sources of them, understanding underlying beliefs.
3. The need to show the connection and interaction between the two modes of self-regulation as complementary sides of a learning process by means of reflecting upon concrete classroom situations such as critical incidents.

This awareness of two types of self-regulation as both necessary aspects of a learning process, here learning to teach, will contribute to creating an appropriate attitude and starting point on the way to developing one's expertise.

2.3.2 Expert vs novice knowledge

By studying expert and novice teachers, Sternberg and Horvath (1995) established an expert knowledge prototype, consisting of three areas: knowledge, problem solving efficiency and degree of insight, which are demonstrated by expert teachers.

Although the three domains of expert knowledge are complementary, they are often thought of as requiring different types of involvement on the part of the learner, here a trainee teacher. However if we adopt a constructivist view, each of the below domains (Table 2.8) develops *via* interaction between the external input (e.g. spoken or written text in the case of content knowledge) and

internal sources (thinking/reflecting in problem-solving and insight) to constitute a body of knowledge. Thus, the abilities of a learner involved in the process of constructing this knowledge will have to derive from the capacity for, generally speaking, thinking and more precisely being able to solve problems and think critically about one's solutions.

Table 2.8 An expert teacher's knowledge (based on Sternberg & Horvath, 1995)

Type of knowledge	Description of expert teachers
Professional knowledge	• content knowledge • general and specific pedagogical knowledge • curriculum knowledge • knowledge of learners and educational context • knowledge of educational aims, objectives and standards
Problem solving efficiency	effective problem solving and efficient use of time in problem solving
Insight into teaching	an ability to: • define and re-define a problem • find (creative) solutions • use of classroom experiences effectively

2.3.3 Critical thinking and problem solving as attributes of knowledge construction

When talking about thinking (reflecting), Dewey (1933) describes it as a sequence of five stages:

1. *Suggestions*: a stimulus for reflection, any idea arising in a situation requiring some response (action).
2. *Problem* (*intellectualisation*): perceiving a situation as a complex whole and a potential problem to be solved.
3. *Hypothesis formation*: re-considering the initial suggestion(s) as working hypothesis/hypotheses, gathering more data (observations) and refining the initial suggestion(s).
4. *Reasoning*: linking what is hypothesised and what is known (prior knowledge) to expand knowledge and thinking about the problem.
5. *Testing*: the stage of evaluation of the ideas (hypotheses) to either corroborate or reject the ideas suggested and refined in the course of problem formulation.

Dewey (1993) emphasises the idea that reflective thinking can relate to both the present situation and past experiences, thus contributing to the building of extensive knowledge to anticipate future problems and ways of solving them. Dewey's long-established theory and seminal work are reflected in the modern theories of reflective teaching of Schön (1983) in the concepts of *reflection-in-*

action and *reflection-on-action* discussed earlier, and of other educationalists, who have emphasised the role of reflection in constructing teacher knowledge and expertise.

Each of Dewey's stages in a thinking process requires the whole range of capacities and skills which constitute the ability to think critically, for example

- awareness of the complexity of a certain situation, capacity to notice and spot the problem area, alertness to the need for action (*suggestions stage*)
- defining the complexity of the situation and diagnosing the problem and variables involved, different perspectives on the issue, attention to detail, taking various perspectives (*problem/intellectualisation stage*)
- construction of a precisely defined hypothesis expressing the correlation between variables involved in the statement of the problem in question, taking into consideration the data, knowledge, identifying patterns and trends (*hypothesis formulation stage*)
- seeing the connection between the observed and existing knowledge, being able to argue for and against, being able to select the relevant information, categorise it, differentiate, compare and contrast (*reasoning stage*)
- the capacity to evaluate the collected data objectively, weigh the arguments in support and against the hypothesis constructed, demonstrate it in a clear but rigorous manner (*testing stage*).

So, in this way, reflectivity is a thinking process whose major attributes are critical thinking and problem solving. In her discussion of critical thinking in the educational context of training students to be critical, Cottrell (2005: 9) describes what it means to be critical in one's thinking:

- finding out where the best evidence lies for the subject you are discussing;
- evaluating the strength of the evidence to support different arguments;
- coming to an interim conclusion about where the available evidence appears to lead;
- constructing a line of reasoning to guide your audience through the evidence and lead them towards your conclusion;
- selecting the best examples;
- and providing evidence to illustrate your argument.

Cottrell (2005: 9) emphasises that critical thinking is often exposed to certain barriers that need to be overcome before its practitioners can become effective "critical thinkers": lack of methods and strategies, lack of practice, reluctance to criticise those with more expertise, affective reasons ("emotional self-management"), mistaking information for understanding and/or insufficient focus and attention to detail (2005: 12). Each of these barriers can be addressed

and taken care of in the course of the development of critical skills and reflection in explicit training.

Another attribute of reflective thinking, that is, the problem – solving character of the process, is inherent in the very understanding of it as a search, for a well-defined and attainable goal (Holyoak, 1995) a solution to the problem once identified, as it were. In reflective practice in teaching

> [t]his can be the proactive seeking of "problematic situations", "a conscious process of identifying problematic issues in their practice and pursuing solutions that bring about valued effects on student learning", or the seeking of understanding". (quoted in Moon, 1999: 60–61)

Newell and Simon (1972; quoted in Holyoak, 1990: 119) present a modern formulation of the theory of problem solving as consisting of the *initial stage*, in which the problem occurs and needs to be solved, the *goal stage*, referring to the description of the goal to be reached, a set of *operators* (actions) to be taken to solve the problem/reach the goal and a set of *path constraints* on the way to reaching the goal. Problem solving is thus seen as a search along certain path(s) to be followed by using optimal methods. What is interesting here is that this search can operate in two directions: from the initial stage to the final goal/solution stage (most frequently applied), or contrariwise, it can move backwards, where the solution/goal stage becomes the starting point. Newell and Simon (1972) offer another solution, the so-called *means-ends analysis*, in which both directions of solution search are employed. The main starting point is to identify the current state of affairs and compare it with the final/desired state to find differences, as a launch pad for finding the optimal path to follow. This may be an interesting option to consider in educational contexts of problem solving.

Critical thinking and problem solving as attributes of reflective practice are factors highly conducive to the development of expertise in a given area. As mentioned earlier, expert teachers operate very differently in their ways of thinking about teaching and in their actual classroom practices, insofar as they are (or are assumed to be) better critical thinkers and problem solvers. Considering teaching to be a learning process, it is clear that learning mechanisms

> allow some combination of direct problem-solving experience, instruction, and exposure to solved examples – the obvious types of environmental inputs available to the learners – to produce increased expertise. (Holyoak, 1990: 132)

The development of expertise as an example of effective learning is described in learning models as:

- acquisition of new production rules ("The general idea is that by inspecting the results of a solution attempt, learning mechanisms can encode important regularities into new rules" (Holyoak, 1990: 132))
- on the basis of prior knowledge, combining the old and new rules more efficiently
- taking advantage of ready solutions and examples and using analogy and inference, the effectiveness of which is demonstrated by research: "Good learners generate inferences that serve to explain *why* the examples can be solved in the illustrated manner, whereas poor learners code them in a much more passive manner" (Holyoak, 1990: 133).

The capacity for employing critical thinking and the ability to solve problems efficiently on the basis of input and learning strategies during the processes of reflective thinking develop by being experientially reinforced. In the development of one's expertise in teaching, this clearly entails functioning in an appropriate tutoring environment.

2.3.4 Experiential learning as learning about teaching

The school placement of trainee-teachers usually constitutes the first encounter with classroom reality for them and as such becomes a source of and a stimulus for experiential learning about teaching. It is considered by many, especially pre-service and novice teachers, to be critical for their future professional development – both at the cognitive and affective levels. It is important to remember that this group of teachers, despite their common characteristic of inexperience, will be otherwise quite heterogeneous. Kubler LaBoskey (1993) emphasises the differences at the level of the pre-conceptions about teaching they bring to their training programs and their first classroom encounters. She places individuals on a continuum stretching from those who are labeled as *common-sense thinkers* to those who are seen as *pedagogical thinkers.*

Common-sense thinkers are those trainees who are characterised by:

Self-orientation (shifting their attention from self or subject matter alone to what needs explaining to children)
Short-term view
Reliance on personal experience in learning to teach (learn by doing, trial and error)
Metaphor of teacher as transmitter
Unaware of need to learn; feelings of already knowing much from having been in classroom as a student

Pedagogical thinkers, on the other hand, represent an approach to teaching characterised by:

> Student-orientation
> Long-term view
> Differentiates: teacher/learner roles
> Metaphor of teacher as a facilitator
> Open to learning; growth-oriented
> Acknowledgement of need for conclusions to be tentative; need feedback and triangulation
> Means/ends thinking
> Awareness of teaching as a moral activity
> Strategic
> Imaginative
> Grounded knowledge of self, children, and subject matter. (Kubler LaBoskey, 1993: 25)

Kubler LaBoskey believes that novices and pre-service teacher whose beliefs and approaches are closer to pedagogical thinkers will be more effective teachers – if we assume that reflectivity is the major attribute of an effective teacher. At the same time she believes that the capacity for pedagogical thinking is a developmental feature if it is recognised and attention and resources are given to developing it in training programmes. In other words, any trainee or novice teacher should be able to become a pedagogical thinker.

The first stage of this development can occur through experiential learning in class and through feedback received from the mentor, supervisor and/or one's awareness and self-reflection. Furthermore, this should be a wholly natural process:

> Learning from experience is one of the most fundamental and natural means of learning available to everyone. [...] in the majority of cases, all it requires is the opportunity to reflect and think, either alone or in the company of other people. In spite of it being a natural means of learning it is not always consistent nor effective for a number of reasons, such as a lack of time, a lack of awareness of other modes of operating and thinking, and the absence of other people to act as sounding boards to assess and evaluate our prior experiences. (Beard & Wilson, 2004: 13)

In other words, experiential learning results from insight into a situation, context, or action, which is conscious and derives from what we knew (our prior knowledge) combined with the new experience and our mental processing of

it. Not every experience will be a contributive factor to learning and knowledge development. It needs to be personally relevant, to relate to past knowledge and to interact with it.

Experiential learning has been described by various scholars as a learning style, understood as a preferred way of learning which results from one's attitudes and behaviours. Experiential learning is seen as a cycle:

1. Observation – knowledge – judgement – observation, etc. (Dewey).
2. Concrete experience – observations and reflections – formation of abstract concepts and generalisations – testing the implications of concepts in new situations – concrete experience (Lewin).
3. Experiencing/noticing – interpreting/reflecting – generalising/judging – applying/testing – experiencing/noticing (Kolb).

Using the above framework(s) for an experiential learning style, Honey and Mumford (1992) refer to four different types of styles, depending on which stage of a learning process cycle is the focal point for an individual learner:

Stage 1: Having an experience – ACTIVIST.
Stage 2: Reviewing the experience – REFLECTOR.
Stage 3: Concluding from the experience – THEORIST.
Stage 4: Planning the next steps – PRAGMATIST.

Table 2.9 Personal styles in experiential learning (based on Honey & Mumford, 1992)

Style	Description
ACTIVISTS	open to experience, fully involved in the activity, irrespective of results
REFLECTORS	gathering data and building knowledge to reach conclusions, careful judgement of the context
THEORISTS	focusing on creating a complete theory about the experience, carefully based on the evidence and all the knowledge available
PRAGMATISTS	experimenting with theories and ideas in one's own work, willing to improve

Experiential learning is formed by the cognitive, affective and behavioural involvement of a learner and becomes important not only as a "here and now" phenomenon, a concurrent event, but it relates to retrospective and prospective experience(s) as well. It embraces:

- learning from an event at the time it occurs;
- learning from past experience when reflecting on it later;
- learning more about a past event when thinking about it further;
- reinterpreting a past event differently in the light of further experience(s);
- analyzing future scenarios. (Beard & Wilson, 2004: 32)

Experiential learning, to become effective and to contribute to expertise in teaching, can only be acquired by well-planned and monitored reflective practice in and beyond the classroom.

2.4 Reflective practice in learning to teach

2.4.1 Defining reflective practice and its characteristics

Reiman (1999: 598) defines reflective practice in teaching as one that

> describes a process of problem solving, reconstruction of meaning, and subsequent reflective judgements while persons are engaged in significant new activity. […] reflecting upon one's significant new experiences prompts learning and cognitive development to occur. In the absence of reflection, practitioners run the risk of relying on routinized teaching. […] Thus, when practitioners engage in reflective teaching, they demonstrate the capacity (or disposition) to analyze the process or what they are doing, and to reconstruct their professional and personal schemas, while simultaneously making judgements to adapt their practice so that it best matches the needs of students. Theoretically, it connotes conceptually complex, ethical, caring, and flexible persons who consider alternative viewpoints.

The seven characteristics of reflective practice as presented by Pollard and Tann (1990) and Pollard (2005) include the qualities of teachers being open-minded and actively involved in the instructional process, implementing, monitoring and evaluating, collaborating with others.

Table 2.10 Characteristics of reflective practice in teaching (based on Pollard, 2005: 4–24)

Focus	Characteristic	Description
1	2	3
Aims and consequences	an active concern with aims and consequences, as well as means and technical efficiency	• evaluating and improving on educational policies and practices • taking into account and examining one's own values and beliefs about teaching • introducing "good practice" in accordance with aims and values and grounded in the social requirements of the school and its pupils

1	2	3
A cyclical process	applied in a cyclical or spiraling process, in which teachers monitor, evaluate and revise their own practice continuously	• teaching as a continuous examination of one's practices • enquiry, thorough planning, implementing, monitoring, collecting data, evaluating and implementing, etc. (a cycle) • teacher-based enquiry (e.g. action research)
Gathering and evaluating evidence	competence in methods of evidence-based classroom enquiry to support the progressive development of higher standards of teaching	• focus on skills and attitudes • empirical skills (collecting data) • analytical skills (interpreting classroom evidence) • evaluative skills (making judgements about the aims, practice, enquiry) • strategic skills (planning the enquiry action) • practical skills (implementation of the action) • communication skills (cooperating with others, e.g. learners, colleagues, authorities)
Attitudes towards teaching	attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility and wholeheartedness	• willingness to reflect and to reframe initial ideas and interpretation of practices • responsibility for the consequences of implemented practices • being dedicated and enthusiastic
Teacher judgement	based on teacher judgement, informed by evidence-based enquiry and insights from other research	• enhancing both teacher research (often intuitive) by collaboration with other research (academia-based, laboratory research) contribution of educational policy makers
Learning with colleagues	enhanced through collaboration and dialogue with colleagues	• reflection is a learning process through communicating with others (discussion and group work may lead to reformulation of beliefs and values, based on a more extended knowledge, not only of individual's knowledge)
Creative mediation	enables teachers to creatively mediate externally developed frameworks for teaching and learning	• being able to evaluate and adapt the policies in operation • relates to: – **protective mediation** (defending the existing practices which are effective); – **innovative mediation** (being creative, introducing new strategies); – **collaborative mediation** (cooperation with colleagues to implement changes, support the accepted practices); – **conspirational mediation** (resisting what is evaluated as inappropriate policy, strategy, etc. in a given context)

As already pointed out earlier, reflective practice development is a pathway leading from the novice, inexperienced state to an experienced-expert state of knowledge and skills. Its development is gradual and operates at different levels of sophistication. It progresses from a fairly simple one focused on teaching strategies and their effectiveness (a technical level), through attempts to understand them and evaluate their effectiveness (the pedagogical value level) to profound perception and understanding of the teaching process (the critical level). These different levels of reflection give evidence of growing awareness, consciousness and as a consequence expertise in teaching.

Pre-service and novice teachers who naturally start at the level of superficial reflection focused directly and almost exclusively on the technicalities of teaching can however be helped to progress by implementation of various mediation techniques by mentors and supervisors, and later on, by self-developed and self-controlled measures. These measures can include seminar group discussion, video-taping of sessions, journaling and diary writing (as described in detail in chapters 4 and 5 of this book) and completing teacher portfolios. Not only the practicing but also the learning explicitly about reflection and demonstrating through modeling (i.e. expert mentors' practice as a source of examples for productive reflection) produce ways of improving its quality in pre-service and novice teachers (Loughran, 1996: 9).

One of the ways of developing pre-services' and novices' reflectivity and its assessment is implementation of a teacher portfolio as a regular demand placed on those involved in teaching. Orland-Barak (2005) describes two types of teacher portfolio: a *process portfolio* (description of the process of learning to teach) and a *product portfolio* (works produced by the pre-service teachers). Teacher portfolios in general are seen as multifunctional tool that can be used as:

- evidence of a learner's (teacher's) work and achievement(s)
- demonstrate strong and weak point of the subjects
- manifest the degree of the learners'/teacher's awareness of the processes of learning (teaching)
- dossiers completed for the purposes of external assessment
- an explorative tool to find out about learners'(teachers') values, beliefs, motivations and their development over a given period of time
- ways of evaluation of types and levels of reflection used in learning (teaching). (Orland-Barak, 2005: 27)

Unquestionably, portfolios demonstrate the reflectivity involved in the practices of teachers and learners; however they are often seen as very inadequate, chaotic narratives and superficially reporting more on technical levels of teaching (the first level of reflection) and seldom going beyond it (Orland-

Barak, 2005: 27). In her own study, Orland-Barak found that the narratives produced by her trainee-teachers were mainly descriptive and "behavioural" in nature, devoid of dialogical reflection, even in the case of process portfolios, whose main aim was reflection and feedback. Also critical reflection understood as an evaluative practice of one's decisions taken and actions performed seemed to be a very infrequent activity in the portfolio narratives collected in the study. This should raise the question whether the use of portfolios really does develop the ability to reflect. However, comparing the results of her study of pre-service teachers and expert teachers' uses of portfolios, Orland-Barak comments:

> The in-service mentors' expressed sense of professionalism brought about by the experience of constructing a portfolio contrasts with prevailing findings that point to pre-service teachers' reluctance to engage in the task of constructing a portfolio (Orland-Barak, 2005: 40)

It may be assumed that their expressed reluctance derives from the trainees' initial inabilities and discomfort with reflection, resulting from the insecurity of being novices and lacking in expertise. As stated by Orland-Barak (2005: 40):

> […] the discrepancies between the findings for pre-service training (Hatton & Smith, 1995) and in-service training might be due to the differences in dispositions and expertise between neophyte pre-service teachers and experienced in-service mentors: what might become an emotional burden in the pre-service context can constitute a professional challenge with internal and external goods for the in-service context. The goods external to the practice in the in-service context were the feedback and the accreditation that mentors got by their inspectors and by their course leaders at the end of the courses.

In her conclusions, Orlando-Barak is reluctant to criticise totally the use of portfolios as a tool to develop reflectivity in pre-service teachers, but she sees their value lying more in completing portfolios as a collaborative activity eliciting feedback. This is felt to be more significant for reflectivity development in pre-service teachers in training courses. In the case of expert teachers' practice, portfolios are undeniably effective tools of reflective teaching and thus professional development.

To pinpoint once again the value of reflective practice I would like to quote Moon (1999: 65):

> The outcomes of reflection and reflective practice include learning and action, empowerment and emancipation. Reflective practice may also imply the general orientation of being reflective.

Reflective practice contributes to teacher empowerment which consists of being more innovative, more creative, more in agreement with one's own beliefs and values, in other words, more autonomous in one's profession.

The following underlying assumptions can be made about teacher development:

1. An informed teacher has an extensive knowledge base about teaching.
2. Much can be learnt about teaching through self-enquiry.
3. Much of what happens in teaching is unknown to the teacher.
4. Experience is not sufficient as the basis for development.
5. Critical reflection can trigger a deeper understanding of teaching.

(Richards & Lockhart, 1994: 3)

In my discussion of teacher autonomy (Gabryś-Barker, 2006), I define it as openness to change, which does not result from a blind following of prescribed and learnt classroom procedures and teaching methods but rather manifests itself in personally-felt responsibility for what happens in the classroom, which is marked by constant reflecting on the cognitive and affective levels. At the cognitive level, a teacher's responsibility both for teaching and learning processes relates to his/her individual and idiosyncratic professional development in the field of methodology. This embraces an updating of one's knowledge of empirical research in second language acquisition and methodology and trying out new solutions in one's own classroom.

Little (1995) points out that affective control is a factor conducive to the development of teacher autonomy. It is often defined as teacher presence in the classroom, and elaborated on by Underhill (1993: 197) in the following way:

> Underlying all valid subjective enquiry is the aim to become more aware of myself and of my manifestations as they affect others and those of others as they affect me, so that I am more able to respond creatively to situations out of choice, rather than react mechanically to situations out of habit. Awareness is the only instrument I have that can drive this enquiry.

Teacher autonomy is a pre-requisite for developing learner autonomy. No teacher can promote and develop learner autonomy without himself/herself being autonomous in his/her classroom and feeling a strong individual responsibility for what happens in the classroom (and beyond) and for sharing this responsibility with learners. This shared responsibility is achieved in a process of negotiation with the learners, concerning:

- teacher's roles and learners' roles to be performed in the classroom and beyond it

- shared decisions on the methods used, based on a given teaching/learning situations (e.g. learners' needs and profiles)
- discussing the syllabus and making decisions concerning its interpretation
- teacher's decisions on textbooks and other materials, depending also on learning objectives and learners' preferences.

Teacher autonomy refers to all the aspects of the teaching process the teacher is involved in at any given moment, as well as his/her future professional development consisting in developing the ability to reflect and thus create his/her own theories of instruction (Freeman, 1992). Freeman emphasises the teacher's active attitude towards his/her own development and stresses the need to encourage and promote willingness to do and enthusiasm for one's own research, the results of which would serve the teacher's particular purposes in his/her classroom, addressing problems which would otherwise go unsolved. It is action research which fulfils this aim (Gabryś-Barker, 2006).

2.4.2 Diagnosing pre-service teachers reflectivity (empirical data)

In my study (Gabryś-Barker, 2008), I asked what aspects of EFL teaching at the pre-service stage the trainees choose to consider as important and difficult at the same time, and how they conceptualise them in the form of research questions and hypotheses. One of the aims of the study was to evaluate the trainees' ability to reflect on their initial school placement experiences, which is the focus of my comments here. The study showed that the trainees are fully aware of what is significant for their development as teachers and for the improvement of their classroom practice. However the comments made by the novices are mostly descriptive, pointing out their choices of topics to be worked on, without any clear ability to justify them more than by saying: "I observed that teachers have problem with…," "I myself as a FL learner have a problem with…" What is missing here is productive reflection, described earlier as

> active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends. (Dewey, 1933: 9; quoted in Davis, 2005: 282)

The trainees' understanding of reflection makes use of description, neither integrating it with knowledge nor, most importantly, with analysis based on knowledge and evidence. It is purely observational and, occasionally, intuitive, lacking in perceived connections and relationships between the variables involved in the teaching/learning process. Developing the need for reflection in teaching will make trainees (teachers) conscious of the significance of researching beyond

"methods, materials, techniques", as was demonstrated in the topic choice in this study, beyond the categories of "what" and "how". This inability is observed not only at the level of topic selection discussed in this study (and considered basic to the success or failure of the research undertaken) but also occurs later on in the course of data presentation and analysis of the project results.

Another significant factor that contributes to pre-service teachers' approach to their own development is the beliefs they hold about what a good teacher is and what a good teacher does in his or her classroom. Murphy *et al.* (2004: 89) say:

> Beliefs about good teachers seem to be formed at an early age and stay consistent, even throughout teacher preparation. The implications of these findings are valuable to not only teacher educators but also to practitioners. [...] Discovering what deeply held beliefs their students bring into the training program could guide decisions and instructional approaches.

The study carried out by Murphy *et al.* (2004) shows that it is important to make these beliefs explicit, as this should facilitate the trainees becoming more open to change (modifications of beliefs) during the course of training. However, this process of modification may not be as straightforward as it seems; it should therefore constitute an indispensable part of productive reflection.

2.5 Pre-service teachers' training in reflective thinking

2.5.1 Areas and focus of reflection development

Although productive reflection is seen as a characteristic of an expert teacher, nevertheless, as emphasised extensively throughout my argument, it can be developed – or at the very least prioritised at the pre-service stage of training. In her discussion of the need for the above, Davis (2006: 294) puts forward the following recommendations to be employed in instruction programmes for pre-service teachers:

> Recommendation 1: encourage preservice teachers to move beyond description [...]. In my reflective teaching assignments, for example, I am more explicit about issues to address in the reflection.
> Recommendation 2: help preservice teachers consider learning processes, learners, and content [...]. New teachers often neglect to attend to children as learners, focusing instead on themselves as teachers. When new teachers *do*

> attend to learners, their reflection can center on students' interest or motivation, rather than on whether they are learning content [...].
> Recommendation 3: look for integration of ideas, not just emphases [...]. Some preservice teachers simply *juxtapose* ideas about learners and learning, on the one hand, and instruction, on the other. Others [...] truly *integrate* them.

The above recommendations can be paraphrased as the statement that pre-service teacher training should to a greater extent focus on the development of productive reflection derived from the different types of knowledges the trainees develop/possess. These different types of knowledges, as classified by Mann (2005), relate to the integration of:

- knowledge organised into topics (received knowledge or transmission knowledge based on training courses, books and other resources)
- individual knowledge developed through continued engagement of the received knowledge and individual experience
- situated knowledge constructed and based on a specific teaching environment.

The conclusions from this study can be taken as generally arguing for the need to introduce action research projects at the pre-service stage of FL teacher training as a form of productive reflection.

Awareness of the value of reflection in one's personal context will contribute to a teacher's development, but also to his/her motivation and enthusiasm. It will highlight the fact that teaching is very context-specific and local. The long-held belief that prescription of how to teach is the basis for becoming a good teacher and that the "one-size fits-all" approach (Mann, 2005: 112) are simply not tenable. As a consequence:

> Training and education programmes need to introduce teachers to the range of development tools and processes available in order to encourage engagement and commitment. Bottom-up teacher development is not only crucial to individual language teaching development but for the teaching profession as the whole. (Mann, 2005: 112)

This type of approach to teacher development should be adopted as early as at the pre-service stage to create professional, self-aware teachers, with beliefs both licensing and encouraging them to engage in the life-long learning process of becoming a successful teacher.

Development of reflectivity in action may stem from two distinct approaches, which will bring two distinctive types of practices: closed (conventional) and open (constructivist) ones in teacher training programmes:

> In the conventional approach, the content of the reflection is treated as something objective and thus independent of the reflective self. In the constructivist approach, in contrast, the content of the reflection is treated as construction which emerges during and as a result of reflection. (Luttenberg & Bergen, 2008: 546)

An example of the constructivist approach is Kagan's view of different aspects of reflectivity development. Kagan (1992) sees this development of teacher reflectivity as operating within five separate but interacting components of metacognition, knowledge, attention, procedures and problem-solving skills.

Table 2.11 Reflection development areas in novice teachers (based on Kagan, 1992: 156)

Component	Description
Metacognition	• increase of metacognition • awareness of one's classroom and pupils • transformation of pre-existing beliefs
Knowledge	• developed knowledge about pupils • reconstructed images of pupils • reconstructed image of oneself as a teacher
Attention	• a shift in attention from self to the process of teaching itself • focus on learners and a learning process
Procedures	• development of standard procedures in the classroom • appearance of first routines in classroom management
Problem solving skills	• development of the awareness of multidimensional character of classroom problems • the increased ability to solve classroom problems and conflicts in different situations

The aspects of the constructivist approach have to be seen here as placing emphasis on its dynamic character, where the aim is to *deconstruct* first (evidence of development of perceptions and understanding) and consequently to *construct*, i.e. create new perceptions which will eventually result in the creation of one's own identity as a teacher. This process is longitudinal and cyclical, dynamic and evolving. The elements of deconstruction and construction are to be found in:

- becoming aware of what teaching is and seeing teaching as a complex learning process, based on different types of knowledges (as discussed earlier), also knowledge of oneself and pupils, becoming aware of one's own beliefs about teaching and learning and teacher's identity and its impact on teaching itself

- active attitude to one's beliefs, ability to reconstruct them in the course of teaching practice
- a shift of focus from teaching to learning, from oneself to learners
- constant appraisal of oneself as a teacher by means of self-assessment (diaries, journals) and assessment by others (different forms of feedback from other teachers, pupils, and others involved in the educational context).

The constructivist approach emphasises not only the process of construction of knowledge through reflection but stresses the role of the self with all its idiosyncrasies. Thus reflectivity development within this paradigm will have to be seen as taking various forms, tailored according to individual needs, preferences, strengths and generally the individuality of a teacher as a person with his/her accepted teaching ideologies. These have to be respected, which is not the same thing as saying that they are permanent features. The process of reflective practice should thus become a stimulus to change these in order to make for more effective and happy teachers.

One of the ways of dealing with the individual needs of teachers in general, but particularly pre-service and novice teachers, is instilling in them the need for learning to teach by asking questions about their own practices in an empirical way, by implementing research projects in their work.

2.5.2 Classroom research as a form of reflectivity development

Action research as reflection on FL teaching and learning

As has been emphasised on many occasions, becoming a professional teacher is a longitudinal process; it takes time to acquire knowledge through teacher training programmes and to gain experience through school placements and regular teaching later on. It takes time to understand any classroom in terms of its intricacies and interacting variables. This is why there are visible differences between those who have just started to teach and those who have been in the profession for some time (see Chapter 1 and Table 2.8). Castejon and Martinez (2001: 218) comment in general terms on these differences:

> Novice teachers define good teaching in terms of personal characteristics of [the] teacher, children's involvement, and affective features in classroom interaction. Expert teachers define good teaching more in terms of lesson structure and teaching strategies […] are better able to take account of context and purpose […] make a deeper interpretation of events […] generate hypotheses about the situation in question

Becoming expert teachers requires knowledge and practice, hands-on experience in the classroom – but experience will only count as a factor conducive to successful teaching if combined with reflection and controlled and structured inquiry about one's own teaching, the end being to become more aware of one's own classroom. Action research implemented at early stages of teacher training will contribute significantly to turning pre-service and novices into expert teachers (Gabryś-Barker, 2006).

It is important to remember that the professional knowledge that pre-service teachers develop in the course of their training

> tends to be declarative, abstract and conceptual. Therefore the training of student teachers should integrate conceptual, procedural, pragmatic and theoretical ideas […] Learning to teach involves developing various forms of knowledge that are acquired in different ways. (Castejon & Martinez, 2001: 128)

Thus introducing reflective teaching by implementing action research in pre-service teacher training programmes should be seen as an important innovation in FL student programmes at universities and teacher training colleges. Action research is a way of developing their autonomy in the foreign language classroom right from the very beginning. It also seeks to trigger their need to experiment, create and test their own assumptions, hypotheses and ideas about their teaching contexts, instead of just implementing ready-made solutions and prescribed procedures in teaching (Gabryś-Barker, 2006).

It is important to introduce inexperienced teachers to reflective teaching by instructing them on ways of developing their own classroom research, which over the years of teaching English will make them more aware of the need to keep their minds open to reflection, and more willing to intervene and change for their learners' and their own good. Creating and developing this kind of attitude towards one's own performance in a classroom will hopefully help to develop and maintain a teacher's initial enthusiasm and positive attitude towards this very demanding profession and lead to an understanding that no change and routine will inevitably result in going backwards or worse, lead to professional burn-out. (Gabryś-Barker, 2006).

Generally, action research is understood as teachers' own individual research. It is defined more precisely as research initiated by a teacher himself/herself. It aims to develop classroom awareness: awareness of teaching and awareness of learning. It is seen as an inquiry which hopes to eliminate a diagnosed problem and which should result in change (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). As such, it has three basic features distinguishing it from academic research:

1. It is situational and context-grounded, by focusing on identifying and diagnosing problems and by designing and implementing treatment, finding solutions to those problems in a specific context for a particular group of learners in a particular teaching/learning situation.
2. It assumes cooperation between teachers and also (which needs to be emphasised) between the learners involved in the enquiry and the teacher.
3. It brings change into a classroom which ideally results in the elimination or at least progressive minimising of the diagnosed problems.

Burns (2005), drawing on the available literature on AR, enumerates the main goals as seen by scholars in implementing action research in the teaching context:

- to address and find solutions to particular problems in a specific teaching or learning situation […]
- to underpin and investigate curriculum change or innovation and to understand the processes that occur as part of an educational change […]
- to provide a vehicle for reducing the gaps between academic research findings and practical applications in the classroom […]
- to facilitate the professional development of reflective teachers […]
- to acquaint teachers with research skills and to enhance their knowledge of conducting research […]
- to enhance the development of teachers' personal theories […] (Burns, 2005: 62)

The above enumerated goals of AR point to its main merits in contributing to the development of teacher knowledge and the ability to reflect on the basis of personally generated and personally relevant data. Edge (1993: 113) says about AR:

- it brings information from the front line
- learners are sources of information
- research is relevant to the teacher's own classroom
- it means learning about language learning
- it means learning through research (teachers become researchers)
- it influences decision making (thus autonomy).

Consequently, the main reasons for carrying out action research projects are promotion of teacher development and reinforcement of his/her autonomy. The validity of action research is of particular importance to individual teachers. Its results cannot necessarily be generalised to other practitioners' situations, but they can be shared and discussed with other teachers and learners to open up the teaching/learning processes. Classroom enquiry can thereby make them

more autonomous through this sharing of responsibility for the implementation of resulting changes (Gabryś-Barker, 2006).

The stages of AR projects

In the context of training programmes, there are usually time constraints in implementing a course in AR. It is necessary to design a course in doing action research that is efficient and at the same time gives the student-teachers a good grounding in AR's basic objectives, data collection methods, and develops abilities to present and analyse the collected data.

The AR research cycle as a basis for the course in designing classroom-based projects comprises the following stages: *Initiation*, *Preliminary investigation Hypothesis*, *Intervention*, *Evaluation*, *Dissemination* and *Follow-up* (Nunan, 1992: 19).

Table 2.12 Stages of the AR cycle (based on Nunan, 1992: 19)

Stage	Objective(s)
1. Initiation	• to discuss classroom problems • to select a problem area
2. Preliminary investigation	• preliminary observation of the classroom • to collect initial data
3. Hypothesis	• to review the preliminary data • to define the problem • to formulate a hypothesis/research question(s)
4. Intervention	• to design data collection tools • to implement them in the classroom (e.g. observation, treatment, etc.)
5. Evaluation	• to present (write up) the data collected • to analyse and interpret the results of the intervention • to draw conclusions
6. Dissemination	• to present the project and its results to a wider audience (other teachers, learners, in a written form as a thesis) • to evaluate the project
7. Follow-up	• to continue the inquiry with possible changes to it and improvements

Each of the stages of the AR cycle involves activities requiring a different type of reflection, specifically critical thinking and problem solving. These must take into consideration not only domain knowledge but above all one's individual and unique context of teaching:

Pre-action reflection: reflecting upon one's own teaching context, selecting general areas of difficulty to investigate (*Initiation*).

Reflection-in-action: diagnosing specific problems by observing a class in a given problem area (e.g. instances of misbehaviour or specific learning difficulties) and gathering information as field notes (*Preliminary investigation*).
Reflection-on-action: reflecting upon the gathered data through critical thinking, focusing the problem area by dissecting variables involved and their mutual relations to formulate a hypothesis or questions to be posed for classroom investigation as an example of problem solving (*Hypothesis*).
Reflection-for-action: acquainting oneself with research tools and evaluating their appropriacy for the course of action to be taken; designing the treatment (*Intervention*).
Reflection-in-action: monitoring the new measures taken in the intervention stage during the treatment period (*Intervention*).
Reflection-on-action: selecting the data for analysis, its critical interpretation and evaluation of the results, (re)thinking the hypothesis/treatment and reflecting upon new suggestions or offering ways of improving the research design (*Evaluation*).
Reflection-for-action: selection of adequate techniques of presentation and critical evaluation of the data presented (e.g. drawbacks in terms of instruments used or their construction, inadequate amount of time, etc.); reflect upon ways of project improvement and its follow-up in future (*Dissemination* and *Follow-up*).

As an illustration of the way the above stages of AR projects help develop EFL trainee students' reflectivity, I cite the example of one such course, which was implemented in a teacher training college in the region (discussed in-depth in Gabryś-Barker, 2006). Its objectives were defined in the course description as aiming:

- to develop reflective practices in teaching
- to be able to diagnose a classroom problem and analyse it
- to develop the need to experiment in the class
- to develop a process of negotiation with learners
- to introduce needs analysis
- to update one's theoretical knowledge in a specific area of interest
- to be able to write a report on a project.

The course followed all the stages as defined by Nunan (1992; see Table 2.12).

The design of projects, their implementation and the analysis of results at first elicited some inhibitions and doubts, then met with growing confidence and finally with great enthusiasm. Since trainee students are not experienced in doing research and writing up reports in the form of theses, there were a lot of difficulties encountered in the course of the project. It may be assumed that those difficulties would be repeated in any context in which students are introduced to AR. This last observation is of significance for both teacher trainers and

teacher trainees. For the former it will bring awareness of dangers and may make them think of ways of minimising trainees' fears beforehand. For the latter, becoming familiar with the comments of their predecessors (other trainees) who have already worked on their projects will make them aware how natural it is to doubt and make them able to come to terms with feelings of inadequacy, especially in the case of those who are still at the pre-service or novice stage (Gabryś-Barker, 2006).

Table 2.13 Action research course (after Gabryś-Barker, 2006)

Stage	Focus/content
1	2
Initiation	The initiation stage of the project consisted of three types of sessions: • lectures whose objective was to introduce the idea of action research to students and provide them with the whole variety of research tools and methods for data collection, such as observation schemes, questionnaires, interviews, diaries, case studies, etc. • interactive sessions in which the theoretical background was illustrated with numerous examples of action research projects carried out by practising teachers by means of various tools; the above were discussed and evaluated by the students • a session on the mechanics of writing a research paper. The initiation stage of the project was the longest since the students had virtually no experience of doing research and felt fairly insecure both about data collection, analysis and "putting it on paper" – just to quote one of the students.
Preliminary investigation	This stage did not seem to be any easier for the students than the previous one. It first of all through the initial brainstorming session focused on the most persistent or challenging problems the student-teachers encountered in their classrooms which either they were not able to cope with or were unaware of the possible variables or factors that affected them. Once the problems were defined and narrowed down, the learners started investigating the area of difficulty in a theoretical way through compiling information from all available sources: methodology books, journals, experienced teachers, their college tutor and so on.
Hypothesis	Equipped with all the necessary background information and being able to pinpoint the teaching/learning difficulty they wanted to confront, the students finally formulated either: • their research question(s) or • a research hypothesis.
Intervention	During the intervention stage the learners proceeded to the practical part of their research which took place in their classrooms. In some cases they did their research individually, in the others in collaboration with their peers, all the time being monitored by their college methodology tutor. In the course of the research, the students would meet either individually with the tutor or in whole-group sessions to share their experiences, doubts, worries and enthusiasm, which went on throughout the period of doing the project.

1	2
Evaluation	With time passing, the students became more and more involved in the research, however they were unfortunately working under time pressure to complete their diploma work. At the evaluation stage the students were asked to report back on their projects in terms of the results they had obtained as well as to evaluate the importance and validity of the whole idea of novice teachers doing action research. The evaluation of all the projects was done by means of written questionnaires and informal interviews carried out by the methodology tutor with the students involved in projects.
Dissemination	The dissemination stage of the research consisted of five sessions in which the students presented their results individually. This was an especially important stage as the trainees could share their findings and compare their results.
Follow-up	The future will show what the follow-up of this first attempt "to reflect and change" will be, but as one of the students said: "I have to deal with my problems myself. In future I will do similar research to analyse other areas of problems."

Difficulties in carrying out AR projects at the pre-service level

The general feeling about AR projects among the trainees who followed the above-described course was: "Quite honestly, nothing in this project was easy. Everything was challenging, exciting, however, by no means easy." What was felt to be relatively satisfactory, according to the students, was the availability of theoretical sources, which gave them a firm knowledge background in designing their studies. The students found the research methods and tools quite straightforward to design and use in their classrooms for the purposes of data collection. There was one exception, however: the questionnaire. In some cases, this had to be rewritten a substantial number of times before it became

Table 2.14 Difficulties in designing and completing AR projects by the trainee-teachers (based on Gabryś-Barker, 2006)

Level of difficulty commented on	Examples
Content of the project	• formulating in a precise way a research question or hypothesis • narrowing the problem down • classification and presentation of data • analysis of data (a tendency to make too general comments out of too small an amount of data) • implications of the preliminary data collection (defining independent and dependent variables) • putting theory and practice together
Form of the project	• structuring the research paper • presentation of data in the form of tables and figures • language register problems

comprehensible, valid and ready to be administered in the classroom and to the teachers (Gabryś-Barker, 2006).

In general, the main areas of difficulty the students encountered related both to the content and the form of the study (Table 2.14). These areas of difficulty require special attention from any teacher trainer hoping to implement AR in training sessions. There is a vast literature which will help in designing appropriate tasks for the training programmes and in overcoming salient problems in project design and reporting back on it (see References at the end of this volume).

It is essential to remember that implementing AR projects in teacher training programmes at the pre-service level needs to be done gradually, not just to ease trainees' feelings of insecurity concerning their shallow knowledge base, but also their uncertainty about what AR is and how it might help. The trainees' experience of research work generally comes from the literature proposing academic research as obligatory reading for their courses in linguistics and applied linguistics. The aims of this research are to develop models and theories and generally to allow for broad generalisations. In the case of AR, the aim is to introduce change in the well-defined context of an individual teacher's classroom; hence its results cannot be generalised and cannot be evaluated on the basis of their external validity. That is why one of the most important features of AR is making the trainees fully aware of the specific nature of this type of research (Gabryś-Barker, 2006, 2011).

2.6 Summary: Creating a new reflective practitioner

In this chapter reflectivity was first presented from different perspectives, as a concept operating in educational processes, in interaction and communication (social contexts) and in experiential learning. The main emphasis, however, was put on reflectivity in the professional development of teachers.

Following Mezirow's levels of reflection, the distinction was made between "consciousness levels" of reflectivity (general, affective, discriminant and judgemental reflectivity) and "critical levels" of reflectivity (conceptual, psychic and theoretical reflectivity) (Mezirow, 1981). Each of these stages is seen as requiring different skills and cognitive abilities from the teacher to develop his or her expertise. This reflectivity operates in a hierarchical order, described as a Reflective Thinking Pyramid (Taggart & Wilson, 1998), in which reflectivity operates on the three levels: the lowest being a *technical level* embracing description of behaviour, content and skills; a *contextual level* embracing remodelling of past practices, relating one's practices to learners' needs and re-evaluating interactions (in other words contextualising one's actions);

a *dialectical level* which results in one's greater self-understanding (identity) and autonomy.

In classroom practice, reflection is looked at as functioning in different time frames and thus it involves performing different types of teacher reflective behaviour. *Reflection-in-action* requires a teacher's immediate reaction to the event that occurs at a given moment; this reaction is intuitive, spontaneous, based on previous experiences and sometimes routinised behaviours (in the case of experienced teachers). *Reflection-on-action* is that which occurs after the event and requires more structured analysis, where tacit knowledge and not just experience constitute the basis for interpretation of the event that has occurred. *Reflection-for-action* combines the above two types of reflection and its aim is to plan for future actions and also to reformulate one's beliefs, attitudes and generally to improve one's teaching effectiveness.

Reflective thinking is often described as a knowledge-constructing process of self-regulation, in which an individual re-conceptualises and internalises knowledge and experience on the basis of external and internal sources in a deliberate fashion. As such, it is characterised by its active and dynamic qualities, by being both cognitive and affective in nature (Oosterheert & Vermunt, 2003). In the literature on reflection and professional development, teaching is primarily seen as a knowledge-constructing process, and as such it is a longitudinal learning process requiring facilitation. This facilitation has to occur on the level of development of critical thinking and problem solving as applied to teaching situations. The studies of experts' versus novice teachers' knowledge and ability to think critically and solve problems demonstrate that there are significant differences in the three areas of knowledge these two groups of teachers possess: content and context knowledge, problem solving efficiency and insights into teaching (Sternberg & Horvath, 1995). Thus, these seem to be the areas which need to be addressed in teacher training programmes. The school placement, and through it the experiential learning acquired by pre-servicers, will have a significant impact on the development of expert knowledge as it is formed by the cognitive, affective and behavioural involvement of a trainee, supervised and monitored by his/her mentor (an expert teacher).

The school placement and regular supervision are undoubtedly the best ways of developing pre-service teachers' reflectivity, provided they not only aim at achieving technical efficiency, but also allow for structured reflection on the aims and consequences of certain actions. They need to be applied in a cyclical manner (a constant examination of one's practices), to develop empirical skills in gathering classroom data (research instruments, ways of interpreting data), and open-minded attitudes, responsibility and wholehearted involvement. This can only be done by paying attention to both teacher's and learners' affectivity. Another important characteristic of effective reflective practice at school is

the emphasis put on collaboration and dialogue with colleagues and others involved in the educational process (including parents, educational authorities, etc.). An effective reflective practice at school should also create in the trainee-teachers a belief in their role as mediators in defending old (if appropriate) and creating new (if needed) school practices (Pollard, 2005).

As observed in various studies of pre-service teachers' achievements (Gabryś-Barker, 2006; Ottessen, 2007), the novices are not new to reflection. It is assumed that an awareness of and a positive attitude towards this kind of approach to teaching is determined by the training programmes the trainees have come from, and in which reflective teaching is an active principle. This positive attitude does not translate directly into the ability to reflect; it does however constitute an important step in developing it during the school placement period and in feedback sessions with mentors and supervisors, as well as during regular course work in the methodology of teaching. The most effective tools for this development (already employed in some courses and training programmes) are the introduction of a teacher portfolio, entailing different forms of classroom research (e.g. action research as described in detail in this chapter) and journaling (described in Chapters 3 and 5 of this book).

Once again, the major aims of developing reflectivity in teaching, as enumerated by Moon (2004), are:

- learning the material for further reflection;
- action or other representation of learning;
- reflection on the process of learning;
- critical review;
- building theory;
- self-development;
- decisions or resolutions of uncertainty;
- empowerment and emancipation;
- other outcomes that are unexpected – images or ideas that might be solutions;
- emotion (development). (Moon, 2004: 99)

Carefully designed teacher training programmes can successfully meet all these aims.

The following chapter looks at specific, focused classroom events called *critical incidents* as highly significant for developing trainee-teachers' awareness of their classroom presence and its impact on the ability to reflect.

CHAPTER 3

FROM CRITICAL INCIDENTS TO CRITICAL EVENTS IN CLASSROOM PRACTICE

3.1 Introduction

We are not born skilful teachers. Although some of us do have individual predispositions to work as teachers and some gifts to exploit in teaching, we all need to develop various competences, various types of awareness: of our classrooms, and of our presence in those classrooms. We all go through different stages in our careers before we reach a fairly stable and confident phase. As Brookfield (1990: 14) writes:

> Until you begin to trust your inner voices, until you accept the possibility that your instincts, intuitions, and insights often possess as much validity as those of experts in the field, and until you recognize that in the contexts in which you work *you* are the expert, there is a real danger that a profoundly debilitating sense of inadequacy may settle in you.

However, we are experts in our contexts *only* if we are fully aware of them: if our teacher presence is genuine and informed, if our classroom awareness is fundamental to our classroom practice, if we are able to identify what is critical and why it appears to be so. Before we reach this stage however, Brookfield says, there is a danger of this feeling of insecurity and "inadequacy" stemming from the lack of self-confidence. It is natural, we can all sympathise with the feeling, but it should only be a point of departure (although sometimes one that can recur for each new situation). There is however the risk that it can lead to a permanent sense of inadequacy, which may come to dominate our classroom practice. The desire to move forward has to come from the belief that *only we* can

be experts in our own teaching contexts, but to be experts we need to develop the readiness and willingness to reflect upon the different dimensions of our educational practices.

In their professional training, pre-service teachers are instructed in a whole range of topics relating to classroom pedagogy. A very prominent place both at the level of training and direct classroom practice is given to lesson planning. Lessons plans are not fully controlled by the teachers themselves, as they derive from external factors such as the curriculum, the sequence of material in the coursebook used and also administrative decisions concerning the number of hours per week available to a course or the way the timetable is organised. Lesson planning is seen as a major responsibility of every teacher. However, what actually happens in the classroom often departs from both the planned sequence and the planned content of a lesson. Unexpected events occur more often than not and a teacher needs to be able to make decisions, as it were, *on the hoof*, in changing his/her lesson plan to turn the unexpected episodes to his/her and the students' advantage.

As mentioned earlier, modern research in education sees teacher knowledge as being constructed through narratives of practice:

> Teachers' accounts of classroom experience, generally structured chronologically, revolve around their interpretations of a series of events. Through the reconstruction of these events, teachers reconcile what is known with what is hidden, selectively infuse those events with interpretation, and actively seek to bring meaning to their experience. (Johnson, 2009: 97)

As Van Huizen *et al.* (2005: 267) point out, "[f]rom the Vygotskian theory, individuals develop personal meanings through being engaged in social practices." The classroom activity of teaching is a two-sided social event on various levels, resulting from the planned and unplanned interaction of various factors and agents involved in the context. The focus of this chapter is on meaningful events, so-called critical incidents, and it begins by describing the detailed nature of those events, as well as highlighting their contribution to teacher knowledge and understanding, classroom awareness and teacher presence. The stories of critical incidents constitute a powerful vehicle for teachers to move from a state of unconsciousness to a state of consciousness by reacting to critical incidents (CIs) and transforming them into controlled critical events (CEs).

3.2 The nature of attention and consciousness

Some years ago, Groome (1999: 16) called the study of consciousness "the last unexplored frontier of psychology, and arguably one of the greatest mysteries of life itself." Furthermore, in psychological discussion of the way we think and feel, psychologists are still quite unclear about the distinction between the constructs of attention and consciousness. In some of the literature on the topic, these concepts are represented as synonymous, but more recent theories tend to distinguish between the two. Sternberg (1996: 103) describes them in the following way:

> […] attention embraces all of the information that an individual is manipulating (a portion of the information available from memory, sensation and other cognitive processes), consciousness comprises only the narrower range of information that the individual is aware of manipulating. Attention allows us to use our limited active cognitive resources (e.g. due to the limits of working memory) judiciously, to respond quickly and accurately to interesting stimuli, and to remember salient information. Conscious awareness allows us to monitor our interactions with the environment, to link our past and present experiences and thereby sense a continuous thread of experience, and to control and plan for future actions.

Sternberg presents his understanding of attention and consciousness as a sequence of mental operations, in which consciousness constitutes only a part of attentional processing. Attention allows us to select an appropriate amount and type of information from the whole context, which is effected by our senses (auditory and visual selection), but also previous memories and cognitive processing. Attention also embraces the phenomena of vigilance and search:

> […] *vigilance* refers to a person's ability to attend to a field of stimulation over a prolonged period of time, usually with the stimulus to be detected occurring only infrequently. Whereas vigilance involves passively waiting for an event to occur, *search* involves actively seeking out a stimulus. (Sternberg, 1996: 104).

Mollon (2000: 7–8) belongs to that group of psychologists which understands attention and consciousness to be almost overlapping constructs. The nature of consciousness is:

> […] actually similar to that of attention. We are conscious of what we attend to, and not conscious of what we do not attend to. We could become conscious

> of some things quite easily if we turned our attention to them – corresponding to what Freud called the "preconscious". We might actively avoid attending to other things because we find them painful or disturbing – the repressed unconscious.

Although we tend to value consciousness and its contribution to our learning process, this does not mean that the unconscious should be disregarded, as "the unconscious does draw upon the pre-existing and externally existing words, images and cultural references. Thus, the unconscious is both personal and transpersonal" (Mollon, 2000: 41). Its personal relevance is however implicit if not drawn attention to at the level of consciousness. The unconscious is most visible in:

> [...] those situations where a person is feeling angry and critical with someone but suppresses these feelings because it might be painful or anxiety-evoking to acknowledge them [...]. The suppressed feelings are communicated unconsciously in a disguised and misplaced form. (p. 49)

> [...] emotional meanings are encoded unconsciously if they are experienced as too dangerous or frightening to be represented or communicated consciously. Encodings may take various forms – including imagery, dreams, daydreams, enactments, ambiguous and disordered verbal messages, slips of the tongue, and emotional or neurotic symptoms of various kinds. (p. 52)

> [...] the unconscious does operate with a different logic to that of the conscious mind, [...] the cognitive processes of the unconscious mind are determined partly by the interplay of conflicting emotional forces (psychodynamics). (p. 40)

Also, neuropsychological research points to the differences between conscious and unconscious processing. Greatly simplifying the issue, it is observed that the right side of the brain responsible for visual perception, imagery and emotion constitutes the basic site of the unconscious mind. As is known, it develops first and children process information through their senses. With time, the left hemisphere, representing cognitive-linguistic abilities, becomes dominant and creates consciousness dominated by thinking with language. Emotional information is not processed into verbal language if blockage occurs (the affective filter).

The unconscious and conscious are mostly seen as relating to automatic (the former) and controlled (the latter) processes, occurring when processing information. They differ at the various levels of *amount of intentional effort*, *degree of conscious awareness*, *use of attentional resources*, *type and speed of processing*,

novelty of tasks, *level of processing*, *difficulty of tasks* and *process of acquisition* (Sternberg, 2000: 74).

Table 3.1 Controlled and automatic processing – characteristics (based on Sternberg, 2000: 74)

Feature	Controlled processing (the conscious)	Automatic processing (the unconscious)
Amount on intentional effort	Yes	little or none
Degree of conscious awareness	Yes	No/little
Use of attentional resources	multiple resources	insignificant
Type of processing	linear (serial)	parallel processing (simultaneous)
Speed of processing	time-consuming	rapid
Relative novelty of tasks	Yes (new and unpractised)	No (familiar and practised)
Level of processing	synthesis and analysis	low level
Difficulty of tasks	complex	simple
Process of acquisition	thorough practice to develop routine and stable procedures	internalised through intensive practice at the conscious level

In his discussion of studies on consciousness in the language learning context, Schmidt (1994; quoted in Jessner, 2006: 54) argues that consciousness can be studied from different perspectives, which relate to the different aspects of this complex construct:

1. consciousness as intentionality (the intentional/incidental learning context);
2. consciousness as attention (focal attention and noticing versus peripheral attention);
3. consciousness as control (controlled versus automatic processing, automaticity, explicit/implicit memory);
4. consciousness as awareness (contrasts between explicit/implicit learning and knowledge) (Schmidt, 1994; quoted in Jessner, 2006: 54)

Consciousness is clearly related to implicit versus explicit learning, which are understood as:

- implicit learning – a natural process in which certain knowledge is acquired through practice/experience
- explicit learning – a conscious process operating on the level of cognitive processing of the input data that leads to hypothesis formation and testing.

Any learning context embraces both types of learning, but the more significant role is played by emotion both on the conscious and the unconscious levels (Ellis, 2002).

3.3 Teacher presence and classroom awareness

In the development of teacher training programmes reflecting modern ideas in education, which stress autonomy and reflectivity, the concepts of *teacher presence* and *conscious classroom awareness* have become basic to our understanding of what teaching and teacher's roles are both in the classroom and beyond it.

A teacher's success is not only dependent on effective methods of teaching and subject knowledge, but also all on the strong relationship teachers develop with their students. These strong relationships are built upon the teacher's understanding of the behaviour, motives and personalities of his or her class, seen not as a group but primarily as individuals with their own idiosyncrasies. This relationship is very much affective in nature and evolves dynamically. Anderson *et al.* (2001: 5) define the concept of teacher presence as "the design, facilitation, and the direction of cognitive and social processes for the purposes of realizing personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes," whereas Rodgers *et al.* (2006) see it as:

> […] a state of alert awareness, receptivity, and connectedness to the mental, emotional and physical workings of both the individual and the group in the context of their learning environments, and the ability to respond with a considered and compassionate best next step.

Thus the concept of presence in all its complexity seems to relate not only to pedagogical relationships with students, but also to self-awareness, pedagogical skills and connection with the subject taught. *Teacher presence* in the classroom is a construct which derives from these relations and the nature of which depends on the variety of features on which these relations are built. Among others these are:

- the way a teacher addresses his/her students (the degree of formality, remembering or always confusing their names, using register numbers, etc.)
- the way he/she uses his/her voice for different purposes such as establishing a rapport, lecturing, assessing learners, praising and punishing (e.g. too loud a manner of speaking is overwhelming and too dominating)
- the teacher's involvement in his/her actions in and beyond the classroom context (genuine involvement in teaching and relating to the students),

the degree of enthusiasm manifested, creativity and openness to learners' needs and idiosyncrasies
- effective feedback given to the students, at the levels of acknowledgement feedback (a genuine communicative response) and informational feedback (evaluating student's performance).

At any level in the educational process, be it in the kindergarten or at a university, teacher involvement – teacher presence in the process of teaching and an enthusiastic approach to his/her professional development, performance and achievement – create and enhance thoughtful teaching and "scholarly passion" (Neumann, 2006: 416). It is affectively marked and personal emotions are fundamental to passionate involvement. Research in the area of student motivation demonstrates that teacher presence, seen as teacher involvement, is a significant factor in developing learners' motivation to learn and also to become actively involved in classroom processes. What is more, this works both ways. Learners' involvement in learning influences positively teacher presence in teaching and thus the motivation to teach (Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

Good and Brophy (1973: 23) describe classrooms as "busy places" in which "teachers are so completely involved in the classroom activities that they are hard pressed to explain specifically what they do or what they plan to do". In describing one of these classrooms, they say:

> Our brief glimpse of Sally Turner's classroom revealed that her classroom was exceedingly busy and that she was probably unaware of certain aspects of her behaviour and its impact upon students. Obviously, if teachers are unaware of the effects of their behaviour on students, then at times they are likely to interact with students in ineffective ways. (Good & Brophy, 1973: 22)

Teacher presence is an important aspect of *classroom awareness* understood as the social cognition that a teacher has of his/her learners. In practical terms, it means knowledge about individuals, their characteristics, who they are and what their motivations and needs are, knowledge which is translated into teacher's behaviour in the classroom environment (and outside of it). This classroom awareness relates not only to the perception of individual learners the teacher has, but also to the group as a whole. It means understanding its structure and dynamics, or rather how individual learners "gel" together and what the positions of individuals and their roles within the group are and how they translate into interactions of the group as a whole.

Teacher presence and classroom awareness constitute characteristics fundamental to becoming effective teachers, professionals with the ability to see what the significant events – those *critical incidents* occurring during class periods – are and the know-how to respond to them:

> Teachers must constantly respond to immediate classroom needs. While they are teaching, they have little time to reflect upon what they are doing or planning to do, because they are busy reacting to the present situation. Thus unless the teachers are looking for signs of student disinterest or difficulty, for example, they may not see these and other important barometers of classroom life. (Good & Brophy, 1973: 23)

To become more aware of one's classroom presence and the nature of teaching, as manifested by one's actions, it is helpful to focus on the following as a point of departure:

- Describe situations and ask questions about the teaching actions of your supervising teacher and yourself.
- Explore the reasons as to why you feel particular learning-teaching experiences were successful or otherwise.
- Be prepared to challenge and extend your existing knowledge about teaching.
- Consider ethical issues associated with teaching. (Perry, 1997/2003: 104)

One of the ways of becoming more aware of one's classroom presence is by focusing on single events, which may initially be seen as minute and trivial when they occur in the classroom, but which could turn out to be highly significant if we take a closer look at them. These are what the literature calls *critical incidents*.

3.4 Critical incidents (CIs)

3.4.1 Defining a critical incident

Discussing the role of our consciousness in life activities, Flanagan (1994: 319) argues that

> the capacities to think ahead, to recognize novel situations as harbingers of good or ill, and to speedily and imaginatively solve problems are among our most valuable capacities. They were almost certainly the keys to the survival and proliferation of our species.

Teacher survival instincts, and especially those of pre-service teachers, together with their well-being in this new-for-them context, will develop with their awareness and openness to what is happening around them in their classrooms,

between them and their learners, and between the learners themselves. This anticipatory ability manifests itself as a certain state of alertness to different classroom events. Mollon (2000: 6) believes that "a moment's introspection, combined with a minimal degree of psychological mindedness, would have brought the less conscious wish into the person's full awareness."

Peterson and Clark (1978), using videotaped lessons and teachers' reports on their performance as a form of stimulated recall, observed four patterns (*paths*) of decision making in relation to what happened during a given lesson. Path 1 exemplified the situations when the teachers followed in an undisturbed manner their lesson plans, as if nothing unexpected had happened. Path 2 illustrated the situations when some problem occurred, but it was not anticipated in any way and the teachers did not have any alternative procedures at hand, so they proceeded without changing their plans. This most often resulted in ineffective teaching, lack of discipline, etc. In path 3, the teachers could have changed their planned procedures as they had ideas on how to cope with the problem events. However, they were not in the plan, so ultimately they were ignored. This also had a negative effect on student achievement and involvement. Path 4, which was observed in the case of more experienced teachers, illustrated the situations in which the teachers were open to changing their initial lesson plans and acted accordingly, which usually resulted in enhanced learning. The data clearly demonstrates that the teachers' ability to be flexible and make decisions on the spot correlates positively with effectiveness of the teaching process.

Bailey (1996) in her discussion of classroom-based research also focuses on findings concerning "surprising events" which teachers face in their daily practices.

Table 3.2 Surprising events (based on Bailey, 1996)

Study	Event	Action/comment
Long, 1980	Carlos, a yawning student	asking a display question to re-establish teacher control
Allwright, 1980	Igor, a student asking questions and making comments that interfered with the lesson as it was planned	more attention focused on Igor, less turns for other students
Bailey, 1980	a heated discussion on the unfairness of the test delivered	"loss" of the half of lesson period
Allwright & Bailey, 1991	a late student because of a personal experience (robbery)	departure from the planned topic and personalisation of the lesson, resulting in language learning enhancement

More often than not, teachers seem to exhibit a lack of full awareness of their classroom behaviour, demonstrated by their inability to comment on it, or their misperceptions (and misinterpretations) of it. When confronted with this observation, "the teachers were surprised and shocked when told what they had been doing in the classroom" (Good & Brophy, 1973: 30). In discussing the reasons for this lack of teacher awareness, Good and Brophy point to the following contributive factors:

> [...] so much happens and happens so rapidly that the teacher is not aware of everything he does in the classroom
> [...] A second factor diminishing the teacher's perception in the classroom is that teacher training programs have seldom equipped teachers with specific teaching techniques or provided them with specific skills for analyzing and labeling classroom behaviour
> [...] teachers are highly suspicious and often hostile towards the suggestions and evaluations provided by the curriculum supervisors
> [...] lack of specific feedback (about classroom behaviour) (Good & Brophy, 1973: 34).

Educational research elaborates on two distinct types of classroom episodes/occurrences, *critical events* and *critical incidents*. The literature defines *critical events* as deliberately planned, implemented and controlled classroom episodes. On the other hand, there are also *critical incidents*, which occur unplanned on the spot and are identified by a teacher from amongst all the other classroom teaching events:

> [...] critical incidents are produced by the way we look at a situation. A critical incident is an interpretation of the significance of the event. To take something as a critical incident is a value judgement we make, and the basis of that judgement is the significance we attach to the meaning of the incident. (Tripp, 1993: 8)

> Because the lesson seems unproblematic, even uneventful, it does not mean that there is nothing to observe. [...] Hidden beneath the surface of this lesson are unresolved issues which, when they are made visible, reveal possible alternative beliefs, values and practice. (Walker & Adelman, 1975: 18)

Critical incidents contribute to the development of one's understanding of the teaching process and to the acquiring of a critical attitude towards beliefs held about what is and what is not effective in the teaching/learning process. So a critical incident (CI) is "any unplanned and unanticipated event that

occurs during class, outside class or during a teacher's career" (Farrell, 2007: 44). It is an unpredictable event, emotionally loaded, offering challenges and conditioning reflection at different stages. Also, daily occurrences which turn into individual teacher's routines, such as a habitual way of addressing students by their surnames (and not first names) or a routine way of asking questions (e.g. based on seating arrangement in the classroom), have to be considered critical incidents as they will directly influence the learners in certain not necessarily positive ways (e.g. discouragement or de-motivation). It is undoubtedly true that "although routines are essential to all professional practice, when they dominate they can often make us lose sight of what we are trying to achieve" (Tripp, 1993: 41).

Tripp describes the critical incidents approach to the development of one's professional judgement as "leading from practice through diagnosis and reflection to critical interpretation" (Tripp, 1993: 151). In discussion of the reasons for implementing this approach in teachers' classroom practice, Tripp emphasises that it is unfortunate that the direction of educational programmes moves towards focusing too much on practical competences at the expense of their academic foundation. This is caused by the detachment of teacher training from tertiary educational institutions (such as universities). He fears that it will result in "deprofessionalising teaching" (Tripp, 1993: 151). In such a context, the use of a critical incidents approach to teaching can contribute to a more learnt professionalism, as

> merely practical competences are insufficient for professional practice, the creation and analysis of critical incidents is a good way to develop the equally necessary skills of informed professional judgement. (p. 152)

What is more, "academic educational knowledge" has a dubious relationship with classroom knowledge in teachers' perceptions, as their knowledge becomes contextualised in their own classrooms and by personal beliefs about teaching and learning. Through the study of CIs, this lack of balance between the two types of knowledge can be redressed (Tripp, 1993: 152).

Tripp (1993: 24–25) goes back to the origins of the concept of a critical incident when he writes:

> The term "critical incident" comes from history where it refers to some event or situation which marked a significant turning-point or change in the life of a person or an institution [...]. The vast majority of critical incidents, however, are not at all dramatic or obvious: they are mostly straightforward accounts of very commonplace events that occur in routine professional practice which are critical in the rather different sense that they are indicative of underlying

> trends, motives and structures. These incidents appear to be “typical” rather than “critical” at first sight, but are rendered critical through analysis.

As such, the analysis of a critical incident is an opportunity for explicit expression of a teacher’s knowledge in the context of his or her performance. A critical incident, if narrated by a teacher reporting on it, is like a story whose power is

> the very stuff of teaching, the landscape within which we live as teachers and researchers, and within which the work of teachers can be seen as making sense. This is not merely a claim about the aesthetic or emotional sense of fit of the notion of story with our intuitive understanding of teaching, but an epistemological claim that teachers’ knowledge in its own terms is ordered by story and can best be understood in this way. (Elbaz, 1991: 3)

Following Tripp’s understanding of the concept, James (2001: 52) sees the analysis of CIs as a process of “systematic questioning about events”. This process of asking questions makes teachers more aware and in this way challenges their assumptions about teaching based on former beliefs and values; it modifies them or allows the teachers to understand them better. Naming the events that occur “has long been known a powerful system for the determination of understanding” (Wright, 2005: 86).

So it can be assumed that a critical incident functions as a stimulus that triggers a learning process, the essence of which is registered in the challenge to be faced and the change resulting from it that contributes to the creation of a critical event in the teacher’s mind. It can be described as occurring through processes of assimilation and accommodation, when

> new information is added to an existing repertoire of knowledge. *Assimilation* is a process by which knowledge is re-structured so it can be integrated into existing schemata. *Accommodation* is the process that allows practitioners to restructure knowledge by making modifications to existing schemata. When knowledge is constructed that correlates to existing schema, balance or equilibrium occurs. (Taggart & Wilson, 1998: 6)

The identification of critical incidents operates on an individual level: different episodes are meaningful to different teachers, as they derive from their underlying beliefs and assumptions about teaching, also from the expectations they have. Years ago, Good and Brophy (1973: 70) acknowledged the importance of teacher expectations as self-fulfilling prophecies:

> [...] teachers' expectations affect the way they treat their students, and, over time, the ways they treat the students affect the amount that the students learn. In this sense, then, expectations are self-fulfilling: teachers with high expectations attempt to teach more, and teachers with low expectations tend to teach less. As a result, both groups of teachers tend to end up with what they expected, although not with what they might have achieved with different expectations in the first place.

Self-fulfilling prophecies resulting from teachers' expectations refer not only to academic achievements as mentioned by Good and Brophy, but also to all the various manifestations of behaviour: classroom procedures, type of rapport, interaction patterns and, in general, to a teacher's presence in the classroom. Learners are aware of and sensitive to teachers' expectations. In consequence, they are reflected in the feedback that the teacher gets from his/her students:

1. The teacher expects specific behavior and achievement from particular students.
2. Because of these different expectations, the teacher behaves differently toward the different students.
3. This teacher treatment tells each student what behavior and achievement the teacher expects from him or her and affects his self-concepts, achievement motivation, and level of aspiration.
4. If this teacher treatment is consistent over time, and if the student does not actively resist or change it in some way, it will tend to shape his or her achievement and behavior. High-expectation students will be led to achieve at high levels, while the achievement of low-expectation students will decline.
5. With time, the student's achievement and behavior will conform more and more closely to that originally expected of him or her. (Good & Brophy, 1973: 70)

It seems from the above that a teacher will have a profound influence on his/her learners' learning success. Thus it is of the utmost importance for each individual teacher to be aware what expectations he/she exhibits towards the students and, through reflection upon his/her classroom behaviour, to modify them if necessary. These expectations will be reflected in meaningful episodes occurring in the class. James (2001: 52) sees the importance of identifying these episodes because the "fact that the incidents start with things that teachers themselves have noticed ensures that the analysis is meaningful to them." On the other hand, a collaborative approach to the identification and analysis process through the contribution of another teacher (or a trainer/mentor in the case of student-

teachers) may broaden the scope of a teacher's awareness of the circumstances under which CIs occur.

Dörnyei (2001: 176) also points out initial teacher expectations as factors that "trigger off various events and teacher behaviours, which, in turn, influence student performance in a corresponding fashion." They have both direct and indirect influence on classroom events:

- *direct* (e.g. extra learning opportunities or increased challenges), or
- *indirect* (e.g. improved rapport and more detailed performance feedback which, in turn, change student attitudes and motivation) (Dörnyei, 2001: 176).

The importance of CIs is seen at the reflection-on-action stage when at the conclusion of the incident, the core category is defined (the focus of the incident), the conditions are described (the context in which it occurred), the strategies implemented on the spot are assessed and their consequences are evaluated. Reflection on critical incidents may (and should) lead to the creation of critical events (CE). It is vital to take into account the fact that the identification of a CI should constitute an in-depth reflection on the contribution of the unconscious to the present perception, the so-called pre-reflective unconscious. The pre-reflective unconscious is brought about by patterns which re-occur and which follow certain principles, allowing one to interpret relationships with other people. This present unconscious results from the past unconscious (Mollon, 2000).

Richards and Farrell (2005) and Tripp (1993) strongly affirm that the significance of these incidents can only be seen as critical when formally analysed, because only formal analysis allows for a fuller understanding of the given incidents in terms of their origin, and for an examination of the beliefs held by teachers about teaching and the values they stand for. In other words, critical incidents as such do not occur as such but are created by an analytical practitioner (such as a teacher) and demonstrate the teacher's awareness of his/her classroom and his/her personal presence in it. So identifying and reflecting upon critical incidents allow a teacher to

- gain a greater level of self-awareness
- learn how to identify important issues
- learn how to frame problems
- develop an awareness of teaching/learning complexities
- learn how to pose critical questions about teaching
- bring underlying beliefs to the level of awareness
- realize that there are no simple solutions or answers

- learn how to summarize common emotional experiences
- learn how to create opportunities for action research. (Farrell, 2007: 45)

3.4.2 Identifying, describing and analysing critical incidents

Tripp's discussion (1993) of critical incidents abounds with examples. These CIs present idiosyncratic preferences, understandings and ways of interpreting; however there is some degree of overlap in terms of theme focus and significant factors in the interpretation of CIs.

In Tripp's study (1993: 97–106) they were grouped into:

Critical incidents: first- and second-hand values
Critical incidents: recovery of the past as a justification of the present
Critical incidents as war stories
Critical incidents as turning points

Critical incidents are highly idiosyncratic and exactly what is critical about them may receive contradictory interpretations by different practitioners, as they will be determined by a set of beliefs, experiences and a knowledge base that is specific to each individual teacher. Here are two examples of CIs quoted by Tripp (1993).

Incident 8: Permission
Mary raised her hand. After about a minute her teacher noticed, and asked her what she wanted. Mary asked if she could sharpen her pencil. (p. 25)

Incident 9: Bad behaviour
Matthew kept messing around in our silent reading period, fidgeting, getting up, talking to himself and others. I'm fed up with his bad behaviour. Telling him off doesn't work for long. I'm really going to try to do something about it next time. (p. 29)

Both of the above incidents may be considered as critical, however, it is only the latter one that would be generally acknowledged as such because it describes disruptive behaviour, whereas the former one is a perfect example of a well-behaved girl following classroom rules. But if we look at it more broadly, we will see that it demonstrates the power structure in the classroom, the role of learner obedience and teacher control over the learners. As such, it may represent the perpetuation of a fault. (More examples of critical incidents are to be found in the appendix sample diary entries).

Loughran (2002) in discussing effective reflection on teaching emphasises that its enhancement can only occur if teaching episodes as observed in

the classroom are considered meaningful. To become meaningful, any event needs to be identified as such through one's personal understanding of it. Like in the case of an anecdote, "the author constructs a personal account of a situation from his or her perspective as a central figure in a way that creates a sense of understanding of the given situation" (Loughran, 2002: 36). The starting point, thus, is noticing the problem, event, episode and then framing it and reframing it through further analysis: "[…] experience alone does not lead to learning; reflection on experience is essential" (p. 35).

Identifying critical incidents during a lesson needs to be based on a well-structured observation strategy carried out by the teacher or another involved party. Initially, an observation scheme has to be designed. As Tripp (1993: 32) suggests:

> Most critical incidents begin with a concrete description of an event, or idea. Detail is a primary characteristic of incident description because, when one is dealing with meaning in the wider contexts of a critical incident, one is inevitable dealing with generalities.

The following observation scheme can serve as a possible template for the description of a critical incident.

Table 3.3 A sample observation scheme

Lesson stage	Context	Description of the event	Reasons for it	People involved	Effect(s) (positive/negative)	Comments
1.						
2.						
3.						

Teacher thinking in identifying and analysing critical incidents has to meet certain goals. It needs:

1. to be dynamic: to link and show the relationships, on the one hand, among pedagogic actions that occur at different points in time and, on the other hand, among pedagogic actions at different levels of generality;
2. to be cognitive: to show the thinking of individuals around these actions, including the planning that occurs in advance of and during the actions, and the interpretations and evaluations that occur during and after the actions;
3. to be constructive: to show the way in which actions are seen and constructed (receptively as well as productively) by the participants as parts

of larger similarly constructed events, reflecting relationships of inclusion and causality;
4. to be social: to be able to include the social interaction among different players in the language learning process at the different levels noted above;
5. to reflect the range and types of consciousness on the part of the individuals engaged in it. (Woods, 2003: 210–211)

Identifying and analysing critical incidents involves judgmental thinking, on the practical, diagnostic, reflective and critical levels. This thinking will be constructed by the beliefs held by the teachers on the one hand, but the interpretation of the incidents and teacher actions involved also come from the students' beliefs, on the other. Construction of the incident is a process of negotiation between the teacher and the class.

Table 3.4 Sequence of analyses of CIs

Levels	Data/information	Focus	Agents
Practical	1. Procedural 2. Descriptive	*What should I do? How? When? Where?* *What actually happened?*	*Who for?* *Who with?* *Who was involved?*
Diagnostic	3. Casual 4. Effectual 5. Affectual	*What caused the event?* *What does it do?* *How does it feel?*	*Who acted?* *To/For whom?* *For whom?*
Reflective	6. Semantic 7. Explanatory 8. Personal	*What does the event mean?* *Why did it happen?* *Do I like it?*	*To/For whom?* *With whom?* *Do others like it?*
Critical	9. Evaluative 10. Justificatory 11. Classificatory	*Is it good that it happened?* *Why?* *How to classify it (what does it exemplify)?*	*Whom for?* *Whom for?*

Tripp (1993) sees asking detailed questions about the event as the basic strategy of analysis, but he also concedes the relevance of using:

1. *Thinking strategies* which determine different ways of looking at the incident, such as for example:
   - plus, minus or interesting (the way of describing the incident)
   - alternatives, possibilities and choices (other possible solutions not used)
   - other points of view (perceptions of others, e.g. learners)
   - parts and qualities (perception of components of the event or a more holistic approach, including attitudes, values and judgements)
   - reversal (shifting from the perception of inability to do something to being able to do something, positive coping potential)

- omissions (checking what might have been left unnoticed).

2. *The WHY? Challenge*, meaning a continuous asking for reasons till we come to the final un-analysable level of the event.
3. *Dilemma identification* relates to the yes-no nature of teacher's decisions, which are usually mutually exclusive and teachers have to make informed decisions.
4. *Personal theory analysis* expresses the role teachers' beliefs have in their decision making in critical incident identification and interpretation. (Tripp, 1993: 45)

The strong connection between the system of beliefs held by the teacher and the actions he/she takes in critical incidents inevitably results in a certain degree of bias in identifying and interpreting the episodes. Good and Brophy (1973: 53) suggest reducing a biased approach in observing one's classroom practice by: "(1) becoming aware of our biases; (2) looking for specific behaviour, to break down the physical complexity of the classroom; and (3) checking our observation data against the observations of others." They offer a set of exercises for teachers such as videotaping a lesson or trying to code classroom behaviour and compare it with other teacher's transcripts.

A teacher's bias is often reflected in his/her attitude to what the teacher is prepared to look for as critical in a given situation. Tripp (1993: 35) suggests that if a teacher uses adjectives such as "interesting, funny, sad, silly, witty, violent, unfortunate, boring or good" in his/her search for a CI in a given situation, he/she alerts himself/herself to situations characterised by those qualifying adjectives. At the same time, an often observed attitude to certain events as seeming "trivial" may lead to a significant omission on the teacher's part, because as Tripp says:

> Incidents that we recall only to dismiss as trivial are often a good indicator of criticality because the very fact that we have recalled them means that there is probably something important about them, something which has made them salient for us in one way or another. (Tripp, 1993: 35)

It is important that the experiential aspect of the incident is inspected from a theoretical standpoint. Tripp's (1993) analysis of the CIs file of his sample teachers demonstrates that the questions asked by the teachers and the solutions found in problematic situations logically need to be grounded in theory, otherwise they only become personally-biased interpretations, tending to be anecdotal in nature. By employing theoretical considerations,

> [...] teachers can simultaneously begin to question and act upon their habits and the often self-imposed constraints upon their actions in their own classrooms.

> Critical incidents are an excellent means of setting a practical agenda, they facilitate problematisation through rendering into anecdotal form otherwise unremarkable aspects of teaching practice and enabling teachers to work on their own concerns. (Tripp, 1993: 22)

Brookfield (1990) studied critical incidents from the perspective of the learner. Through his *Critical Incidents Questionnaire: Experiencing Learning*, he analyses learners' perceptions of the significance of the educational events they experienced (Table 3.5). The focus of the questions is on "the most engaging and distancing moments, the most affirming and confusing actions, and the most surprising moments" (Brookfield, 1990: 32). Brookfield suggests that such a questionnaire can be used by learners individually to reflect upon their learning successes and failures, recurring "patterns, rhythms and regularities" (p. 35), and also on the development of new perspectives on teaching processes and their effectiveness. The questionnaire, if modified, can be adapted for the purposes of identifying CIs by teachers using retrospective reflection-for-action.

Table 3.5 *Critical Incident Questionnaire: Experiencing Learning* (source: Brookfield, 1990: 32)

Instruction	*Think back over the last experience you had as a learner* […]. *Describe, in as specific, concrete, and honest a fashion as you can, the following details of this experience:*
Q. 1	*The incident (or incidents) that you recall as being the most exciting and rewarding because it represented a learning "high" for you – a time when you felt that something important and significant was happening to you as a learner.*
Q. 2	*The incident (or incidents) that you recall as being the most distressing or disappointing for you because it represented a learning "low" – a time when you felt despair or frustration about your learning activities.*
Q. 3	*The characteristics and behaviours of teachers that you found most helpful to your learning. Give specific examples of events in which these were observable.*
Q. 4	*The characteristics and behaviours of teachers that you found hindering your learning. Give specific examples of events in which these were observable.*
Q. 5	*Those times that you felt valued and affirmed as a learner and why this was so.*
Q. 6	*Those times when you felt demeaned and patronized as a learner and why this was so.*
Q. 7	*The most important insights you realized about the nature of effective teaching.*
Q. 8	*The most important insights about yourself as a learner.*
Q. 9	*The most pleasurable aspects of learning you experienced.*
Q. 10	*The most painful aspects of learning you experienced.*

As mentioned earlier, in the description of a CI, a core category is identified and defined. That is, the focus of the incident is explicitly delineated, the conditions and context of its occurrence explicated, the strategies implemented on the spot are assessed, as well as their consequences. Descriptions of CIs can be made to form a teacher portfolio, in the shape of structured observations. They can also be put together in the form of a teacher diary, with well-structured entries concentrating on different levels of focus (as in Table 3.4):

1. Describing the lesson in which it occurred by presenting a brief sequence of the events that took place.
2. Identifying the incident itself by expanding on the criteria which make it critical (e.g. excitement, involvement, communication breakdown).
3. Stating why it was critical (a success or a failure).
4. Reflect upon the reasons for the incident(s) having occurred, analysing its significance and relevance in the given context.
5. Evaluating one's response to the incident and its effectiveness (its outcome).
6. Interpretation of the incident and response to it in relation to relevant views held about a specific aspect of the didactic process in the literature and one's own practice.

Investigating critical incidents is usually a longitudinal process of collecting data through journaling or diary writing, in which the above-described formula of presentation and analysis of individual incidents can be utilised. In this form, it will also be a valuable instrument for reducing routinised teaching and burnout in the case of experienced teachers. In teacher training programmes, on the other hand, I would recommend dialogical journaling as it has more impact on pre-service teachers' development. Dialogical journaling requires feedback from the mentor/supervisor, who is an expert teacher. Of course this feedback does not have to take the traditional form of a written response (but which is not necessarily excluded as an option). Journal entries, as mentioned earlier collected in a form of a *critical incidents portfolio*, may serve the purpose of facilitating regular reflection and feedback sessions between the trainee and the mentor. The expert knowledge of the mentor will constitute a guide for the trainee, by which his/her perception of critical incidents may be turned explicitly into critical events.

3.4.3 Studies of critical incidents in teaching

An experienced vs novice teacher (a case study on CIs)

An interesting study was conducted by Pietrowska (2009) as a part of her M.A. course in the methodology of teaching and presented in the form of an M.A.

thesis. The objective of the project was to comment on the teachers' ability to identify critical incidents in their teaching and discriminate differences between a teacher with extensive teaching experience and a novice teacher of English. The study was carried out by means of a sequence of non-participatory focused lesson observations and an interview with each of the teachers, one experienced and one novice EFL teacher.

Twenty eight critical incidents were identified in the areas of:

- individual learner misbehaviour during the lesson
- avoidance of L2 use by the learners, communication breakdowns
- teacher's rigidity in executing his lesson plan
- latecomers and lesson disruption
- teacher not using the blackboard.

Comparing the two teachers with different levels of experience, Pietrowska (2009) concluded that:

> - the experienced teacher identified more positive incidents than the novice, who focused more on failures
> - the experienced teacher was more rigid and frustrated by negative CIs, whereas the novice seemed to treat them as learning experiences
> - the experienced teacher was able to describe clearly the nature of a CI that had occurred, whereas the novice's description was more fuzzy
> - the experienced teacher was more alert to classroom events than the novice. (Pietrowska, 2009: 80–81)

The study clearly manifested the difficulties encountered by the teacher inexperienced in classroom practice at the identification stage. However, this teacher was more open to CIs and quite ready to reflect on them, but needed more skill to do so. The experienced teacher was aware of his classroom presence but seemed to be more set in his teaching ways. Although ready and skillful at reflection, he did not always accept the need to change.

The impact of critical incidents

In a study of critical incidents based on a written assignment completed by a heterogenous group of students (future social workers and educators, among others), Lindseth and Smyth (2003: 241) observed that the "two dominant types of critical incidents described by the students as having an impact on their professional competence were placement experiences and perceived failures." Having analysed the trainees' narratives, the authors concluded:

> Our study suggests that in order for teacher students to become professional teachers the quality of their ***placement experiences*** is crucial. It is also important that teacher education offers ***challenging placements*** for the students. This implies that ***the role of the supervisors*** within teacher education is also crucial. Teacher education should make ***codes of practice for teaching explicit,*** as a lack of explicit codes of practices may be a hindrance to professionalism and professional development. Our study also suggests that teacher education should encourage ***the dialectic between experience and reflection*** as crucial for professional development among teacher students. (Lindseth & Smyth, 2003: 249, emphasis in the original text)

Also, as I found in my earlier studies (Gabryś-Barker, 2009a, 2009c), working with critical incidents as significant for pre-service teachers' development of teacher presence and classroom awareness has a very heavy charge of emotionality involved in it. Self-confidence, self-esteem and a feeling of security derive from CIs perceived as successes. However, negative critical incidents are not necessarily felt as negative; they can be perceived as a part of a needful developmental stage on the way to becoming more effective, and more successful in the long run. Those incidents initially seen as horrendous and threatening are minimised in their threat potential; when survived as part of a formally organised reflection process, they lead to "the exhilaratingly liberating feeling of having survived experiences that had previously been perceived as terrifying and totally beyond one's capacity" (Brookfield, 1990: 49).

The value of studying CIs lies also – and perhaps primarily – in identifying unnoticed and often ignored classroom "moves" and their possibly longitudinal effects on learners and teachers. This identification is hard to make and so often goes unperceived or dismissed as inconsequential. That is why developing teacher sensitivity to his/her environment – teacher presence and classroom awareness – is so crucial.

For Brookfield (1990) the importance of critical incidents lies in seeing them as a way of disambiguating one's teaching, by setting up a clearly defined rationale and acting by means of responsive teaching:

> The sustained experience of the chaotic ambiguity of teaching – the feeling that things are not going as they should and that unanticipated factors are distorting your painstakingly prepared plans – can be extremely debilitating. At those low points when you feel as though the insane (whether these be learners, colleagues, or superiors) are in charge of the asylum, you need to remind yourself of the reasons and purposes that led you to teaching. (Brookfield, 1990: 23)

The motivation to teach is highly significant in constituting who we are and determines our openness to change (and development). Also, our alertness to situations that occur and developing ways of dealing with those situations will inevitably bring about re-evaluation and change in our "teaching philosophy". And this has to be interpreted as a healthy sign of professional development (Lange & Burrough-Lange, 1994: 627).

Affect-triggering occurences as critical incidents

Kitching *et al*. (2009) investigated the significance of commonplace events (affect-triggering incidents – ATIs) for "early-career" teachers' motivations, both those which encourage them in their professional development and willingness and enthusiasm to remain in the profession and those which result in disappointment and discouragement from continuing in the profession. The initial assumption made was about the importance of teachers' affectivity experienced during these classroom incidents. There were two groups of Irish novice primary school teachers involved in the study. The main instrument of data collection used was a weekly teacher diary commenting upon events of any significance that occurred in the given period of time (three weeks in total) and in which they described experiences which "made them feel good or bad about themselves in their work as teachers" (Kitching *et al*., 2009: 43). The study was qualitative. The objectives of the diary study were, apart from asking the teachers to identify and record the daily classroom events that had some impact on their feelings, both positive and negative, to analyse the origins of those feelings. The diary study (Study 1) was followed by another study (Study 2) carried out in a group of teachers more or less homogeneous with the first one. Its main objective was to observe how positive and negative ATIs identified by the subjects during the period (of five weeks) influenced their self-esteem and self-efficacy. It consisted of the teachers' individual weekly evaluations in the form of an inventory of teachers' self-efficacy and self-esteem in relation to each ATI (the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one's performance).

Having analysed the data received in both studies, Kitching *et al.* (2009: 43) observed:

> An analysis of the ATIs in these diaries revealed that students' engagement and student achievement are major factors in incidents triggering regular positive feelings, while students' behaviour and perceived difficulties around home influences are major factors in regular dissatisfaction.

What is more, statistical analysis demonstrated that ATIs correlate significantly with the teachers' commitment to and involvement in teaching, especially

the positive incidents singled out by the teachers. The study reported here again testifies to the importance of affectivity in building teachers' resilience and enthusiasm for work. However, the main conclusion reached by Kitching *et al.* (2009) was that the construct of ATI constitutes an important area of investigation of novice teachers' motivations and how they fluctuate in response to commonplace events that occur daily in every classroom. Identifying these and reflecting upon them as part of mentoring programmes of supervision of pre-service and novice teachers may save them a lot of stress, fend off burnout situations and ultimately prevent them from quitting the job (or never starting it full-time, in the case of trainee teachers).

"Seeking satisfaction"

Another study of meaningful episodes in teaching and learning was presented by Sato (2002) in the form of a narrative text in which the notion of satisfaction is seen as essential in those contexts, as a driving force to getting involved, being persistent and succeeding in teaching. That is how Sato sees it:

> The notion of satisfaction means to me experiencing positive emotional moments in the classrooms. I know it when I see the students' eyes filled with interest, share excitement with students, feel good rapport with students, and am impressed with students' creativity. In contrast, I do not feel satisfied when I get through a lesson without having received any response from students, when I see students confused and not involved in an activity, or when I notice that something is wrong but I must continue to teach for a discrete-point test. I think I am addicted to this feeling of satisfaction. (Sato, 2002: 150).

The study consisted of a narration about four episodes, singled out as meaningful for Sato's own learning of a foreign language and learning to teach, of learning ESL and learning to teach it as EFL (Table 3.6). Sato concludes that the meaningful episodes described below demonstrate well the evolution of her beliefs about teaching and learning and how much they were dependent on the degree of satisfaction in each situation. This in turn constituted the major driving force in her undertaking to become a professionally competent teacher, who could not teach if satisfaction was not generated. Also the need for experimenting with one's teaching by taking risks with new ideas is seen as a factor contributing to teaching satisfaction. As expressed by Huberman (1992: 132; in Sato, 2002: 160): "The strongest sources of career satisfaction may lie potentially under our noses, in the classroom, provided that some minimal conditions – some slack, variety, challenge and tolerable work assignment – are met."

Table 3.6 Meaningful episodes (source: Sato, 2002: 151–160)

Episode	Context	Content	Comment
Enlightenment	Learning ESL in the US The focus: to develop speaking skills in English	• An ESL class, presentation of a self-prepared speech and demonstration of sumo in Japan (including a role play: a sumo competition).	• a different learning experience from Japanese grammar-translation method (CLT) • different criteria of speech evaluation (e.g. the use of non-verbals) • encouraging comments from the teacher • a desire to transfer the teaching/learning method to the Japanese context.
Hope and despair	Teaching English in a Japanese high school	• Teaching English through songs and singing; unsatisfactory results on the test, but high motivation of the students. • Compromise between the two approaches to teaching English, but growing dissatisfaction with teaching itself, following more traditional methods, lack of understanding of the other teachers at school, quitting to complete M.A. in TEFL in Australia.	• discrepancy between one's beliefs about teaching and accepted approaches • initially lack of teaching success due to the previous learning experiences of the students • lack of satisfaction with teaching • determination to develop professionally.
Trial and error	Teaching Japanese at two Australian universities	• Too much domination of the teacher talk in class: presentation of the song, grammar explanation, the students' request for more interaction and communication; inability to conduct a coherent CLT lesson; self-education. • Reading on CLT and applying the theory to classroom teaching through trial and error.	• developing awareness of the students' needs and their teaching/learning preferences • developing professional expertise through reading appropriate literature • experimentation in class.
Challenge	Teaching English at a Japanese university	• An experience of a language workshop (Australian English) for university students, introducing an English-only class (elimination of L1) through communicative activities such as role-plays), initial apprehension of the students turned into enthusiasm.	• creating a facilitative and collaborative learning environment • a good rapport between the teacher and the students • giving students freedom to express their views.

"Bumpy moments" in teaching

Romano (2004: 663) uses the term "bumpy moments" to describe moments in teaching "that require teachers to make an immediate decision about how to respond to a particular problem in practice." The decision has to be taken on the spot, without much deliberation. However,

> the problem is not easily solved for any number of reasons, has importance to the teacher and is perceived to have future implications or possibly have an effect on the students in the classroom […] teachers face such dilemmas on a daily basis […] teachers must give examples of such incidents and describe what they are thinking when deciding how to handle the situation. Unfortunately teachers usually don't share such in-depth reflections and they are lost in the on-going activities in the classroom. (Romano, 2004: 663)

In her self-study, Romano (2004) reflects upon her "bumpy moments" as recorded in her teaching stories. The aim of the study was to determine the content of the incidents identified as critical and the thinking involved in decision making at the moment the episode occurred. The incidents were classified into four categories:

1. *Management* (students misbehaviour before and in class, disruptions of the lesson).
2. *Parents* (communication problems, neglect and disinterest).
3. *Not prepared* (lack of lesson preparation or a failure of a planned activity).
4. *Recess* (beyond classroom, extra time in the playground, only one incident).

In analysing decision making involved in reflecting upon the bumpy moments, Romano was also able to determine clear categories of thoughts:

> (1) previous experience or the ability to anticipate a problem in practice;
> (2) thoughts of frustration;
> (3) asking myself "What shall I do?";
> (4) thoughts about my teaching;
> (5) my attitude;
> (6) consideration of students;
> (7) modifying the plan. (Romano, 2004: 675)

Table 3.7 presents the quantitative and qualitative comments on the reflective processes described in the study of twenty eight "bumpy moments" (BMs) reflected upon.

Table 3.7 Thinking about BMs (based on Romano, 2004: 675–677)

Category	Number of reflective thoughts	Content
Previous experience and the ability to anticipate a problem in practice	17	• expression of knowledge and beliefs held • using experience of similar episodes experienced previously
Frustration	15	• misbehaviour of the students • lack of patience • reaching tolerance level • acting in affect
What should I do?	10	• thinking through alternative solutions • anticipating results of certain decisions
Thoughts about my teaching	8	• anxiety about one's adequacy as a teacher • analysing factors contributing to a problem (external or internal?) • questioning effectiveness of one's teaching
My attitude	7	• relation between the mood of the day and occurrence of a bumpy moment • the emotional self
Consideration of students	4	• personal decisions resulting from beliefs and experiences not students themselves • focus on an individual student if he/she was the source of a bumpy moment
Modifying the plan	4	• being not prepared • stress of improvisation • instantaneous decisions are not always effective (the complexity of the moment)

The data shows that the reflectivity of the teacher exhibits both a cognitive knowledge base at his/her disposal and experiential and affective factors. However, proportionally, it is previous experience and (due to it) the ability to anticipate a problem that predominate in the reflective process on the bumpy moments. This clearly suggests that in the case of teachers with little practice in the classroom (the main focus of this volume), the period of initial introduction to the profession will have an enormous impact on their future practices. Romano's study shows that awareness of the "bumpy moments" and reflection upon them allow the teacher to modify his/her beliefs about teaching in general, but most of all, it promotes the evolution of one's already established beliefs and practices:

> [...] closer examination of the "bumpy moments" in my teaching helped me to systematically look at the events over time and offered a retrospective view of how I could handle things differently or make changes to my teaching. Because

such moments are usually lost in the continuous activity of teaching, I cannot be sure that I would have been able to gain these insights had I not engaged in this form of action research. (Romano, 2004: 678)

3.5 The cognitive focus of CI analysis: thinking skills

Lipman (2007), in his discussion of creating conditions for the development of education for thinking, focuses on mental acts as a starting point for the development of thinking skills. He defines mental acts as "an achievement, a performance. One can feel oneself moving towards the making of a decision and then making it" (Lipman, 2007: 143). The quality of the decision taking will result from the performer's (in this case, teacher's) "epistemic movement from mental acts to reasoning skills."

Table 3.8 Mental acts and thinking skills (based on Lipman, 2007: 151)

Mental acts	Thinking (reasoning) skills
Questioning	formulating questions that identify problems and initiate the inquiry (discussion)
Generalising tentatively	avoiding making generalisations in the carried out inquiry on the problem
Challenging	looking for evidence for the claims made
Explaining	constructing hypothesis to explain the problem
Discriminating	being able to see contextual factors and differences
Collaborating	drawing from available research literature
Accepting	being open to solid criticism
Listening	being open to the views of the "other side" (e.g. learners)
Respecting	allowing for the rights of others
Comparing	employing analogous thinking
Clarifying	defining the concepts precisely
Differentiating	being able to see differences and connections
Justifying	offering ideas/opinions/conclusions based on valid arguments
Example-giving	using examples
Assumption-finding	identifying the underlying assumptions
Inferring	making inferences on the basis of evidence gathered and drawing conclusions (implications)
Judging	presenting valid and balanced evaluative judgements

In this paradigm of mental acts leading to thinking processes, *opinions* become *judgements, notions* turn into *concepts*, *considerations* are redefined as

criteria, *valuations* result in *evaluations*, *knowings* are *understandings*, *undefined words* are *defined*, *sequential conjunctions* become *causal connections*, *beliefs* develop into *convictions*, whereas *guesses* turn into *estimates* (Lipman, 2007: 152).

3.6 The affective focus of CI analysis: appraisal systems in teaching

3.6.1 The nature of appraisal values

In psychological research on emotions in humans, there is an agreement about the role of appraisal in cognition in creating responses to a stimulus and consequently activating the thinking part of the brain, which "allocates attention and memory resources to various problems, and the variability in such allocations affects learning" (Schumann 1997: xix). It can be assumed that appraisals activate some kind of response (either positive or negative) depending on the character of the appraisals made. As Schumann (1997: 2) states:

> Organisms seem to determine value on the basis of certain criteria [...].
> These appraisal systems assign value to current stimuli based on past experience [...].
> The value mechanisms influence the cognition (perception, attention, memory, and action) that is devoted to learning.

Flanagan (1994: 318) also emphasises the role of past experience in thinking and acting accordingly:

> High-level thought, planning with foresight and problem solving, also involve processes analogous to those involved in natural selection. We select approaches to problems that have worked in similar situations in the past. In utterly novel situations we spin out novel problem-solving strategies by mixing previous solution strategies, creating idea mutations, as it were.

This understanding of appraisal systems places value on the emotional perception of individual episodes recalled by people from their past experiences. When applied in the teaching context of experienced, novice and pre-service teachers, it helps to demonstrate the significant factors that contribute to the way they perceive and respond to actual classroom occurrences. This perception of classroom events (in this case CIs) and the teachers' response to them will tend to exhibit either the defensive mechanisms or the self-efficacy of an individual.

Defence mechanisms serve the purpose of self-protection in situations of stress and uncontrolled anxiety. They either distort or deny reality as it so to speak, objectively manifests itself. Banyard and Hayes (1994) describe them as one's "methods of coping with the situation" through *rationalization*, *repression*, *projection*, *displacement*, *suppression* and *denial*.

Table 3.9 Defence mechanisms (based on Banyard & Hayes, 1994: 101)

Mechanism	Description
Rationalisation	*Involves justifying, making excuses or talking down a goal in order to limit feelings of responsibility or disappointment*
Repression	*Is an unconscious mechanism that keeps thoughts that might provoke anxiety out of our unconscious mind*
Projection	*Is an unconscious process that involves us attributing our own unacceptable behaviours, thoughts or feelings on to others*
Displacement	*Involves redirecting negative feelings and actions away from source to a safer target*
Suppression	*Is conscious effort to avoid thinking about stressful things*
Denial	*Involves escaping from stress by ignoring it or trying to explain it away*

Mollon (2000: 57) argues that defence mechanisms exert a significant influence upon our actions:

> [...] unacceptable or frightening contents of the mind (wishes, thoughts, perceptions) are banished from conscious awareness, but continue to exert an influence, either by pushing to re-emerge into consciousness or by finding displaced and disguised expression through psychological symptoms, dreams, slips of tongue or somatic disorders (physical illness).

The use of these defensive mechanisms and the experience of failure in the past may lead in the long term to the state of learned helplessness, understood as passivity and the inability to improve one's situation by action. Learned helplessness comes from past experience, in which one has failed due to factors perceived as external (independent of oneself) and as a result the belief is created that no behaviour (for example, an action) will have any influence on outcomes and thus the person will come to believe that he/she has no control over events.

In contrast, Baynard and Hayes have this to say about self-efficacy and the beliefs it expresses:

> [...] we believe we are capable of achieving – they are all about the idea that we can act positively in a given situation. These beliefs, in turn, influence our perception, motivation and performance. Beliefs about our own abilities and

> about qualities such as intelligence have been shown to have a direct influence on how both children and adults interact with their worlds, and therefore how they go about learning from them. (Baynard & Hayes, 1994: 115)

Self-efficacy relates directly to one of the appraisal values, namely coping potential, which is shown in research to be decisive appraisal for one's performance in a whole variety of situations.

The nature of the above-mentioned defence mechanism constructs, learned helplessness and self-efficacy beliefs are strongly set in the mental dimension of one's functioning. This mental dimension has an affective character: it expresses emotionality (feelings) and its intentionality. According to Ben-Ze'ev (2000: 79):

> [...] we consider intentionality and feeling as the two basic mental dimensions. [...] I characterize an affective phenomenon as having an inherent positive or negative evaluation (this is the typical intentional feature) and a significant feeling component. The combination of the valenced aspect, namely, an inherent evaluation, with a significant feeling component, is what distinguishes affective phenomenon from non-affective ones.

One of the features of teachers' affectivity that greatly influences their ability to identify and go on to interpret a CI is anxiety, as it has a direct bearing on his/her performance. According to cognitive interference theory, "worry diverts attentional resources from task processing to task-irrelevant information, with a consequent decrement in performance" (Wells & Matthews, 1994: 129). Certain situations such as critical incidents seem to be more anxiety-provoking than others:

> 1. The situation is seen as difficult, challenging, and threatening.
> 2. The individual sees himself or herself as ineffective, or inadequate, in handling the task at hand.
> 3. The individual focuses on the undesirable consequences of personal inadequacy.
> 4. Self-deprecatory preoccupations are strong and interfere or compete with task-relevant activity.
> 5. The individual expects and anticipates failure and loss of regard by others. (Sarason *et al.*, 1990: 2; quoted in Wells & Matthews, 1994: 134)

The undeniable importance of emotionality in our evaluation of a given situation – for instance of CIs – leads us to believe that knowing our emotions and their influence on our actions is fundamental to using them to our advantage:

> Knowing our emotions and the circumstances in which they are generated may also have a positive as well as negative implications, but ignorance, which is often associated with stupidity, is not the remedy for coping with the negative implications. […] Emotional knowledge, and even labelling the emotions, usually increases our ability to regulate them. […] This knowledge enables us to reduce the frequency and intensity of negative emotions and intensify positive emotions. (Ben-Ze'ev, 2000: 533)

3.6.2 Tools of appraisal measurement

One of the tools commonly used in assessing one's appraisal systems is the *Geneva Appraisal Questionnaire* (GAQ, source: research tools at http://www.unige.ch/fapse.emotion), which has been constructed to "assess, as much as possible through recall and verbal report, the results of an individual's appraisal process in the case of a specific emotional episode" (Geneva Emotion Research Group). Various theories categorise criteria of appraisals differently. The GAQ is based on Scherer's model of Stimulus Evaluation Checks (SECs). Scherer (1984, 2001) understands appraisals as a complex network of interacting variables comprising:

- *novelty*, demonstrating the degree of familiarity of the stimulus in terms of the task itself, type of input data or action/strategy followed in performing the task (output);
- *intrinsic pleasantness*, expressing how pleasant the stimulus is as a factor conducive to the type of approach to the task taken, manifested as either (enthusiastic) indulgence in the task or its avoidance;
- *goal/need significance*, expressed as relevance value for an individual, in other words, the significance and immediate value the stimulus (i.e. task or action) has for an individual;
- *coping potential*, expressing one's perception of ability to perform a task (action) or to change the stimulus to adjust to one's performance potential; it is influenced by emotions resulting from previous experience (Lazarus, 1991);
- *norm/self compatibility*, demonstrating one's evaluation of how appropriate in social/cultural terms the stimulus is understood to be. (Scherer, 1984, 2001; summarised in Gabryś-Barker, 2009d)

Appraisal systems are investigated by means of research tools comprising appraisal questionnaires (e.g. for teachers, learners), introspective diary and journal studies and also learner/teacher biographies (see Schumann, 1997; for an extensive overview of these instruments). They give verbal evidence of appraisal variables and their evaluation in creating motivations and approaches

to learning, idiosyncratically grounded in one's own person and in past and present (observable) contexts, determined by an individual system of values. Thus they contribute to our understanding of which feelings and emotions influence positively or negatively the execution of a learning/teaching task or any other behaviour of an individual (Gabryś-Barker, 2009d).

The *Geneva Appraisal Questionnaire* is perceived as one of the most comprehensive instruments for measuring the components of appraisal systems. It takes the view that appraisals relate not only to the emotional content of the experience (called here an event) but also its antecedents. The questions in GAQ includes the following: event description (a narrative text), occurrence of the emotional experience, general evaluation of the event, characteristics of the event, causation of the event, consequences of the event, reactions with respect to the real or expected consequences, intensity and duration of the emotional experience (weak, moderate, strong/seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks), verbal description of the emotional experience (a narrative text) and the emotion terms related with the event listed. These content areas correspond to the appraisal components of Scherer (2001):

- *Novelty*: suddenness (q. 6), familiarity (q. 8), predictability (q. 7)
- *Intrinsic Pleasantness* (qq. 4, 5)
- *Goal/Need Importance* (q. 9)
- *Goal/Need Significance*: cause: agent (qq. 12, 13, 16), cause: motive (qq. 14, 17), outcome probability (qq. 18, 20, 21), discrepancy from expectation (q. 19), conduciveness (qq. 22, 23), urgency (q. 26)
- *Coping Potential*: control (q. 25), power (q. 27), adjustment (q. 28)
- *Compatibility with standards*: external (qq. 10, 11, 24), internal (qq. 10, 15).

3.6.3 A sample study of appraisal systems in teaching

The *Geneva Appraisal Questionnaire* used in my study (Gabryś-Barker, 2009d) on appraisals in a FL teaching context is based on the updated version of Scherer's components of appraisals (Scherer, 2001). It contains both descriptive questions, where the subjects are expected to produce a narrative text (i.e. a description of the incident recalled from memory), and also specific questions of the Likert-type scale, in which the subjects are asked to choose their responses from the following options:

Not at all (no), moderately, extremely (yes), does not apply.

The following instructions for filling in the questionnaire were given to the informants:

In this questionnaire, we ask you to recall moments when you experienced an intense emotion, either positive or negative. It could have been something that really happened or that you expected to happen (whether it finally happened or not). The events might have been brought about by you, by someone else, or by natural causes.

Now try to remember some of the strongest emotional experiences that you have had in recent times (for example, during the last year). Of those, please select X episodes that you thought of spontaneously. Try to recall as many details as possible that are pertinent to the chosen emotion episode.

*Please respond to the questions on the following pages by placing a check mark in the appropriate space for the respective scale. If a particular question does not make sense in a specific situation, please mark the circle "does not apply". **It is extremely important that you answer all the questions and that you select only one alternative for each question.*** (Research Tools available online at www.unige.ch/fapse.emotion)

This study was carried out as part of a course in reflective teaching for in-service teachers of EFL. Its aim was to make the teachers reflect on their classrooms in terms of the memorable incidents that occurred to them at certain points in their teaching careers. These were to be incidents which had some bearing either on their own thinking about themselves and their classroom or which made them perhaps change their usual practices and behaviours. In other words, the project intended to answer the questions: which classroom incidents are seen as significant and how are they evaluated by teachers in reference to their appraisals of the situation? Apart from focusing on the content of the CIs described, the subjects were asked to describe their feelings and emotions involved in the events they selected.

Thirty-six in-service teachers of English at various levels and in different educational institutions were involved in the survey. As mentioned earlier, the teachers were participating in a course of reflective teaching as part of their TEFL course and were also completing their M.A. theses, which were partly based on teacher's diaries, an instrument of teachers' reflection. Their teaching experience varied from 3 to 5 years of regular classroom practice, so it can be safely assumed that they were no longer novices but were hardly very experienced teachers either (Gabryś-Barker, 2009d).

The data gathered in the study of the pre-service teachers demonstrated 36 incidents identified as critical, out of which 6 were positive, 28 negative and 2 irrelevant (that is, describing events quite unrelated to teaching) (see Gabryś-Barker, 2009d).

Table 3.10a Positive critical incidents

Type of CI	Quantity
Focus on teaching the language	5
Personal well-being of learners	1

Table 3.10b Negative critical incidents

Type of CI	Quantity
Violent behaviour in the classroom and beyond: • towards the teacher • towards other learner(s) • verbal violence (towards the teacher)	 3 3 2
Disruptive behaviour in the classroom	7
Learning misbehaviour (refusal to perform a task)	6
Teaching the language (professional qualifications)	3
Teacher being evaluated by others (learners, parents)	2
Personal well-being of learners	2

The different types of CI identified by the teachers as positive and negative relate to markedly different areas of focus. It seems that what the subjects perceive as a success relates more to their learned teaching skills as such, for example ways of presenting new material and methods of teaching. Whereas the negative incidents highlighted relate more to classroom management – things like disruptive behaviour in the classroom. In analysing both negative and positive incidents, it was observed that:

> As there are many more negative than positive incidents reflected upon by the teachers (28 versus 6), the variety of types is much more diverse in the case of the former (Table 9a versus Table 9b). What is most striking, and alarming at the same time, in negative CIs is the large number of incidents describing some sort of experience of violence both verbal (swearing) and non-verbal of particular learners directed at the teacher (5 cases) and at the other learners (3 cases). Also many negative events recalled as strong emotional experiences by the teachers relate to misbehaviour in class (7 cases). Those incidents give evidence of the lack of teacher's authority in terms of exercising his/her power and therefore low levels of control over the class and themselves. The same missing qualities bring about a high number of learning misbehaviours in the classroom, manifested as refusal to do work assigned by the teacher. (Gabryś-Barker, 2009d)

As far as SECs are concerned, the data collected shows a diversity of responses given by individual subjects and therefore there is no definite value that could be

assigned to individual appraisal components. However, there are some observable tendencies in the case of selected variables. *Novelty*, *Intrinsic Pleasantness*, *Goal/Need Significance* and *Compatibility with standards* are seen as beyond the teacher's control in their experience of the events described (therefore entailing more negative answers than positive). It is only *Coping Potential* that is perceived as a component open to modification by the teachers. However, at the same time the subjects see themselves to be unable to develop that copying potential. In other words, they find it impossible to cope with the situation perceived as critical and to anticipate its consequences (Gabryś-Barker, 2009d).

The *intensity of experienced feelings* in the CIs measured by the GAQ was strong in both positive and negative events. It can be observed that the *degree of control* over feelings experienced was expressed more strongly in the case of positive incidents. The negative CIs are seen as spontaneously occurring and bringing about feelings of panic and external threat. Positivity is manifested as a test of one's professional ability, knowledge and degree of professional security. The positive terms used also express teachers' faith in what they do and their feelings of success: *pride*, *pleasure*, *joy*. Thus most of the positive CIs focus on teaching success as such. This is clearly exhibited in the verbal descriptions of the events, as they express qualitative evaluations of the emotions recalled. In contrast, the verbal descriptions of negative experiences express the fact that they are perceived as beyond an individual's control, hence, feelings of *anger*, *shock*, *fear*, *rage*, *irritation* and *sadness* are used as descriptive terms when recalling episodes. All of these very strongly express the affectivity observable in CIs retrieved from memory.

The conclusions of the study can be summarised in its two most significant findings. First of all, most of the recalled classroom episodes were negative. This prevailing recollection of incidents that were perceived as failures may be assumed to have negative consequences for future practice, unless they are reflected upon and the implications of the reflection are put into practice. Secondly, since very few instances of positive CIs were recalled, this is also a discouraging finding. Positive incidents should in theory remain an explicit memory and form part of a teacher's repertoire of behaviour. A higher proportion of positive CIs would hopefully have made a constructive contribution to confidence-building and security, in other words, would have added to a teacher's coping potential. This component of appraisals has already been discussed earlier as the major influence determining the appraisal system of a teacher.

The findings lead us to certain implications concerning teacher training programmes. If coping potential can be seen as conducive to the development of the ability to respond to CIs and the belief that the other components contribute to this coping potential, then the focus of teacher training should be on developing teacher's awareness of appraisals (for example following Scherer's

taxonomy). This could be done by giving the trainees (and teachers) tools such as the GAQ to diagnose their individual appraisals in a given teaching context and to focus on ways of coping with novelty (predictability, suddenness, familiarity). Also by making the unpredictable more predictable (since the unpredictable is seen as negative by most teachers) through implementation of reflection on CIs, we will enhance trainees' (teachers') self-confidence. No less important is emphasis in training programmes on areas so far neglected, such as misbehaviour in classrooms and, above all, ways of coping with aggressive behaviour towards the teacher and other learners, which would add to the knowledge, self-confidence and security of both teachers and learners. More attention should be paid to developing teachers' intrinsic pleasantness in classroom teaching and his/her awareness of so-called teacher presence. Also making teachers aware of the goal/need significance of their own actions and their contribution to immediate success and to becoming more professionally competent are those aspects of teacher training that we need to focus on more explicitly than we do now.

To recapitulate, the study reported on here clearly states that the diversity of responses received in the GAQ shows that its main value lies in determining individual, idiosyncratic appraisals, and should not to be generalised across the sample. In other words, it can be used by individual teachers to become more aware of their affectivity in critical situations (CIs). As CIs are affective in nature and affectivity may distort one's perception of them and hence, responses to them, which by their very nature are also cognitive, awareness of one's affectivity becomes an important factor in being effective in one's actions. This awareness makes manipulation of affectivity possible. I strongly believe that the suggestions presented in the discussion of the CIs and appraisal systems of teachers in theory, and supported by the data presented here, would constitute an important step in the improvement of pre-service and in-service teachers' performance in their classrooms if they were implemented in teacher training (Gabryś-Barker, 2009d).

The individual teacher's awareness of his/her appraisals will significantly contribute to the ability to respond successfully to new situations which are unplanned and uncontrolled, that is to say, to act confidently and successfully in the case of critical incidents.

3.7 Summary: From a critical incident to a critical event

Critical incidents are interesting as they "typify or illuminate very starkly a particular feature of a teacher's behaviour or teaching style for example" (Cohen *et al.*, 2003: 310). This chapter focused on CIs, their identification, analysis and

interpretation. They were presented as episodes occurring in a classroom that are basic to teacher success and development as:

> [...] they can reveal how the habits we have and the tendencies we form influence aspects of our teaching, thus increasing our understanding of our practice and informing our actions. Without knowing who we are and why we do things, we cannot develop professionally. (Tripp, 1993: 54)

Awareness of the nature of teaching as a process of negotiation between different agents and different factors was described here as a developing narrative focusing on classroom incidents, the value of which is critical to teacher professional development and thereafter students' progress. It was observed that, as Elbaz (1992: 423) writes:

> Initially, a "story" seems to be a personal matter. There is concern for the individual narrative of a teacher and what the teacher herself, and what (others), as privileged eavesdroppers, might learn from it. In the course of engaging with stories, however, we are beginning to discover that the process is a social one: The story may be told for personal reasons but it has an impact on its audience which reverberates out in many directions at once.

Numerous functions of critical incidents, and teachers' awareness of them, were discussed here pointing to the way they can influence teacher understanding of classroom occurrences and as a consequence teacher presence in the classroom. It was emphasised that CIs trigger a teacher's learning processes. They are both cognitive in nature and based on teacher professional knowledge of pedagogy, but they are also strongly determined by the teacher's affectivity and his/her previously established system of beliefs and appraisals such as for example in respect of novelty or his/her coping potential. Appraisals lead to a sense of success or failure in teachers' stories. The examples of studies on critical incidents demonstrated teachers' pride in success stories, but also a very strong presence of negative recollections of events and their evaluation was marked even more vividly. The negative incidents often expressed embarrassment seen as "guilt, and shame in involving a negative evaluation" (Ben-Ze'ev, 2000: 502), but which can also have value insofar as it results in growing self-awareness.

The experience of critical incidents and effective reflection upon them allows teachers to control their classroom actions more consciously and create critical events (CEs), which were described earlier as intended, planned and controlled (Woods, 1993). CEs result from teacher experience with critical incidents and explicit reflection on what works and what does not. Woods (1993) believes that critical events are structured and occur in well-defined

stages of conceptualisation, preparation and planning, divergence (generating ideas in brainstorming fashion), convergence (selecting ideas and integration), consolidation (refining and drafting) and celebration (presentation of the final product and end effects). This perspective on critical events shows the longitudinal effects of teachers' growing awareness. However, the first and most direct influence of CIs has to be seen in the daily practices of a teacher, where familiarity with and awareness of the situations experienced earlier will make more learnt and controlled responses and decisions in the classroom possible. It may even by hypothesised that a conscious reflection on CIs will lead to creating certain scripts (schemas), which give to a teacher the ability to anticipate a sequence of events that may occur in certain situations. As the studies of memory show:

> Processing an input to a deep level (*reflection*), making use of schemas from past experience (*critical incidents*) to analyse its meaningful content, will increase the likelihood of retrieving that input in the future (*critical events*) [...]. Our existing knowledge may allow us to solve new problems through analogy. The extent to which we can do this is restricted by structural, semantic and pragmatic constraints. (Groome, 1999: 190)

Tripp (1993: 152) believes that:

> [...] the most promising means of improving teaching is by grounding educational research (and thus theory) in the realities of teachers' everyday experience. Overall, I believe that an approach based on the interpretation of critical incidents has the potential to change the nature of the teaching profession by dealing with the fundamental practical, political and epistemological problems of education in teachers' terms.

To sum up, the importance of critical incidents, and their identification in daily classroom practices, has to be seen as a stimulus for teacher development, as awareness of them makes a teacher more attentive to and conscious of his/her classroom presence. The ability to see and interpret these meaningful incidents (CIs) allows a teacher to as far as possible convert them into critical events, that is, classroom episodes that are planned and controlled by a teacher.

CHAPTER 4

DIARY STUDIES IN DEVELOPING TEACHERS' REFLECTIVITY

4.1 Introduction

Research in education is often carried out in a classical, scientific way, focusing on quantifying the data and measuring different forms of behaviour. A second type of approach relies on socio-cultural-historical aspects and their measurement. A third type, phenomenological and interpretive in character, looks at qualitative data and interprets them for example by examining people's perceptions of the researched issue. This approach is critical in nature and looks at human experience as problem-oriented, something to be questioned and interpreted (Kincheloe & Steinberg, 1998). Some recent developments in educational research, by now quite well-established, have resulted in classroom-oriented studies carried out by teachers and researchers working alongside each other, as an indispensable form of teacher development (Pollard & Tann, 1994). Relating this development to a wide range of educational research, Smith and Sela (2005: 296) conclude that

> [c]urrent thought on teacher development is based on the premise that learning to teach is an ongoing process of lifelong professional learning [...]. Reflectivity, an orientation towards inquiry and the ability and need to think about their experiences, to examine their own beliefs and practices and to reach context-specific suitable decisions, are considered to be the main characteristics of effective teachers.

This classroom-based research, called action research, uses most of the methods and tools of data collection known to the other approaches. One of them is diary or journal writing, which focuses on learners'/teachers' perceptions

of their own classroom experiences. Diary writing allows the writer to represent, but also interpret these experiences, in a fairly open and unstructured way, thus allowing for creativity and imagination in finding new possibilities and problem-solving solutions. Bell (1999) suggests the use of diaries focusing on critical incidents and proposes to compile what he calls "problem-portfolios" to illustrate teacher performance and development over a given period of time.

Having discussed teacher reflection in general (Charter 2) and in the more precisely defined context of critical incidents (Chapter 3), I would like to discuss the ways this reflection can be developed by the use of a teacher diary as the main tool for narration of personal stories, such as critical incidents. The focus of this chapter is therefore on the use of teacher narratives as a way of constructing knowledge. Narratives are understood here as complex schemes that "all depict a basic pattern: the framing of the situation or a main character, the emergence of a complication or a problem, and finally a resolution" (Nespor & Barylske, 1991: 810).

The theoretical discussion of diaries: their different types, functions, and ways of implementing instructions on diary writing in teacher training programmes constitute the main thrust of the chapter. The different purposes for which teacher diaries can be used are illustrated by means of a brief report on selected studies, in which diaries were used to observe teacher development over a period of time (Appel, 1995), to depict affectivity in teaching experiences (Schmidt & Frota, 1985), to develop reflective thinking (Richards & Ho, 1998), to demonstrate the relation between teacher learning and student learning (Herndon, 2002), and also to find out about trainee-teachers' evaluation of their diary writing experiences (Gabryś-Barker, 2009b), among many other concerns.

4.2 Teacher narratives as a way of constructing professional knowledge

Following Dewey's educational philosophy, Richards (2002: 4) argues that "we are all knowers who reflect on experience, confront the unknown, make sense of it, and take action […]." Furthermore, our understanding of what we experience is "achieved through the stories we tell." These stories are contextualised socially, culturally and historically. As such, narratives are central to teacher education by becoming a critical tool of inquiry, as "the teacher's life itself is a narrative of experience" (Vazir, 2006: 445). Narrative enquiry is thus

> systematic exploration that is conducted *by* teachers and *for* teachers through their own stories and language. We believe that narrative enquiry, conducted by teachers individually or collaboratively, tells the stories of teachers' professional

development within their own professional worlds. Such inquiry is driven by teachers' inner desire to understand that experience, to reconcile what is known with that which is hidden, to confirm and affirm, and to construct and reconstruct understandings of themselves as teachers and of their own teaching. What teachers choose to inquire about emerges from their personalities, their emotions, their ethics, their contexts, and their overwhelming concern for their students. (Richards, 2002: 6)

So, in other words, the value of a narrative is in its reconstructive and dynamic character demonstrating "how humans make meaning of experience by endlessly telling and retelling stories about themselves that both refigure the past and create purposes in the future" (Vazir, 2006: 445). In characterising a narrative as the form of inquiry, Craig (2009: 106–107) points to its:

- "multi-layered and many stranded" nature
- focus on human experience
- reflective character ("inward and outward, backward and forward")
- living and re-living experiences
- fluid and not static nature
- complexity of interpretation
- interactivity ("the personal and social")
- time continuity of the past, present and future.

At the same time however, a narrative is subjective as it is a personal account of experiences:

Narratives by their very nature are not meant to describe phenomena objectively, but rather to connect phenomena and infuse them with interpretation. Narratives situate and relate factors to one another, and the essence of "truth" is *how* phenomena are connected and interpreted. Thus, narratives are holistic and cannot be reduced to isolated facts without losing the truth that is being conveyed. Since narratives are social, relational and culturally bound, they gain their meaning from our collective social histories and cannot be separated from the sociocultural and sociohistorical contexts from which they emerged. (Golombek & Johnson, 2004: 308)

Such a perspective on narrative as a form of inquiry follows both Vygotskyan sociocultural theory, in which teaching is interpreted as "a socially mediated activity" (Golombek & Johnson, 2004: 309) and Dewey's understanding of experience and its role in one's development through investigation, understood as

[o]bservation of the detailed makeup of the situation; analysis into its diverse factors, clarification of what is obscure; discounting of the more insistent and

vivid traits, tracing the consequences of the various modes of action that suggest themselves; regarding the decision reached as hypothetical and tentative until the anticipated or supposed consequences which led to its adoption have been squared with actual consequences. (Dewey, 1920/1962: 164)

Educational research on teacher development these days, standing apart from traditional approaches which emphasise the need to acquire expert knowledge formally, prefers to see it as the development of personal inquiry skills and reflectivity. Attard (2008: 308) for example confesses that:

> I have personally realised that the best tool at my disposal to help me reflect on my experiences is narrative writing [...]. I believe that while writing about my experiences and reflecting on them I am engaged in a form of constructivism. While writing, I construct meanings, interpretations, new knowledge and understandings. I also test and modify constructions in the light of new experiences and new writings.

Writing is fundamental to reflection as "a tool for understanding", as it results in a particular form of conversation with oneself, which exposes one's "vulnerabilities, conflicts, choices, and values [...] uncertainties, our mixed emotions, and the multiple layers of our experience" (Ellis & Bochner, 2000: 748). It is also a thinking-through process on the cognitive level allowing us to verbalise, to label experiences and thereby to become more aware of them. This awareness of phenomena makes them describable on the cause and effect continuum, makes the connections between variables apparent and constitutes a discovery process constructing and reconstructing meanings and providing contexts for them. These written verbalisations allow the teacher to gain a perspective on his/her own understanding of not only current phenomena, but also, through reflection, past experiences. Thinking involved in journaling is not just cognitive in nature; metacognitive skills are also at play here. These skills of thinking about thinking involve planning and monitoring of the thinking process, as well as its assessment. In diary (journal) writing, in the process of becoming better writers, we also become better thinkers and learners (Moeller, 1996). The connection between writing and the development of thinking and learning is discussed by Qualley (1997). Among other examples of research in this area, Qualley mentions Langer and Applebee's study (1987) of the relation between writing and learning development in secondary school learners. They conclude that the type of writing activity learners get involved in will determine how effective it will be in enhancing learning:

> Short answer responses and extended, analytical forms of writing as opposed to note taking, comprehension questions, or summaries seem to increase students' knowledge of the topic under consideration and encourage students to reconceptualize the information and integrate it with their own knowledge. Analytic writing enables students to manipulate a smaller amount of information in more ways, process it in more depth, and remember it for a longer period of time. (Qualley, 1997: 31–32)

Numerous approaches have been used to try to develop reflective practitioners, as discussed in Chapter 2, and some of these methods employ teacher-written narration as a basic data source for individual teacher development through reflective practice. One of the most commonly used of these is journal writing. A learner/teacher journal or diary is defined as "a first-person account of a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal and then analysed for recurring patterns or salient events" (Bailey, 1990: 215). Journal writing can take different forms: a learning diary, a learning log, a reflective journal or a dialogical journal. Each of these instruments is used for different purposes:

> A log is usually a factual record of events. […] If you were to keep this sort of factual account of your activities it wouldn't qualify as "reflection". […] A diary, on the other hand, can serve many purposes. At one extreme it may be used as an outlet for creative writing; at another it may be used to record appointments. […]. A reflective journal may be used for all these purposes – to log events, to describe circumstances, to vent feelings – but it will also, *and primarily*, be used to record and reflect upon incidents and experiences from which something useful can be learnt that will help us to develop and enhance our professional practice. (Wallace, 2007: 6)

An often made distinction between a diary and journal is their degree of confidentiality. In the case of the latter this is considered low, as a journal is often intended for public readership. Thus it would tend to be less direct and less honest, whereas the diary is a more private account of one's experiences on the level of cognitive perceptions and affective thoughts. That is why a diary is often used as a source for investigating affectivity in a teacher/learner or just for a teacher's individual purposes of self-improvement. Thus implementation of diary writing in teacher training programmes raises the issue of how much teachers-trainees will be ready to share. Only an appropriate climate of mutual trust between a trainee and his/her mentor will create the conditions conducive to using diaries.

A dialogical journal (or a dialogue journal) used in the classroom context is a time-consuming tool for creating an appropriate rapport between a teacher and his/her learners. It constitutes a conversation in written form, directly focusing on the learning experiences of learners and their affectivity (motivations, attitudes, self-esteem, etc.) between the two parties involved, in which the teacher offers written feedback to learners' entries: "Dialogue occurs when the facilitator [supervisor, mentor] responds to journal entries either through discussion or through written entries" (Taggart & Wilson, 1998: 90). Such dialogical journals allow the learners to formulate their problems, analyse them and in this way, they become important factors in the development of learner autonomy, as well as fomenting more effective interaction between the teacher and the learners and also between the learners themselves (Nunan, 1993).

The dialogical journal's main advantage lies in the different forms of feedback that are given to the diary writer. It can constitute a dialogue between the writer and 1) his/her peer learner, 2) a group, or 3) a supervisor (mentor). The studies of Weaver (2006), Todd *et al.* (2001) and Lennox Terrion and Philion (2008) demonstrate that written feedback if appropriate enhances learning in any learning context. It is seen by the trainees as effective if it is clear, provides guidance, is positive and as such creates a safe learning environment. Francis (1995, quoted in Bain *et al.*, 1999: 54) suggests that "on the basis of extensive work with journal writing, that students perceive individual reflection to be enhanced by group and paired collaboration, […] articulating to others helps shape and clarify ideas." Ballantyne and Packer (1995) however have observed its major drawback; journal/diary writers perceive it to be a solitary experience.

Reiman (1999), in his overview of ways of giving feedback on an intern teacher's journal, uses direct and indirect categories guiding written reflections. These are:

- Indirect categories:
  1. *Accepting Feelings* as expressed in the journal by also sharing the mentor's own feelings with the other teacher (trainee).
  2. *Praising* or *Encouraging* to stimulate reflections by creating a positive context.
  3. *Accepting* and/or *Clarifying Ideas* means trying to demonstrate the connections between the phenomenon described and beliefs held by the trainee; asking questions to enhance reflection.
- Direct categories:
  1. *Providing Information* in the form of theory, opinion or ideas, for example when a new situation or problem arises.
  2. *Giving Directions* in the case of those who are not yet ready for an autonomous approach.

3. *Addressing Problems* focuses on accepting the feelings an intern holds about his/her own responsibilities concerning problem occurrence but also giving constructive feedback.

Reiman (1999) emphasises the social aspect of interactive journal writing as a mediation process in learning. Here social role-taking plays a significant part when dealing with states of Vygotskyan disequilibrium:

> Substantial learning occurs in periods of conflict, confusion, surprise, and over long periods of time. How this disequlibrium or "cognitive dissonance" is resolved becomes a central issue. Journal narratives, in some cases, portrayed strong emotions like anger, fear, resentment and joy. How these feelings are acknowledged by the teacher educator or school-based mentor is important to effective guided reflection and subsequent learning and development. (Reiman, 1999: 610).

Although the distinction between a diary and a journal is clear, the terms *teacher diary* and *teacher journal* are often used interchangeably, and both usually relate to Wallace's (1998) definition of a journal, that is a personal recollection of certain experiences and reflective comments on them. It has to be taken into account that keeping a diary is a time-consuming activity if it aims to record classroom experiences on a daily basis. Also, as Wallace puts it, "[a]part from the time factor, there is also the psychological factor. Having survived the traumas of the teaching battlefield, the last thing many of us would wish to do immediately afterwards or even at the end of the teaching day is mentally revisit it" (Wallace, 1998: 64). He suggests introducing a more reduced and focused type of diary writing, that is, a narrative that would focus solely on critical incidents seen by a teacher as:

> [...] key incidents which you feel have a particular significance for you. They may derive from field-notes or simply from recall, and they may be done quite infrequently – perhaps once a week. Writing down the answer to "What was the most significant event that happened to you this week?" may build up over time a body of data which with analysis could reveal trends and significant concerns in one's professional development. (Wallace, 1998: 65)

The pre-service teachers' diaries focusing on critical incidents and their analyses are the main content focus of Chapter 5 in this volume.

4.3 Teacher diaries (journals) as tools of professional development

4.3.1 Functionalities of diaries

A diary is as an instrument for verbalising and structuring teacher's thoughts, which allows for a more conscious exploration of one's own thinking about teaching and learning processes. According to Farrell, it should also be regarded as:

> […] a way of exploring one's own beliefs and practices
> […] a way of becoming more aware of one's teaching styles
> […] a way of monitoring one's own practices. (Farrell, 2007: 109)

He also sees it as a form of "[…] positive feedback on one's own teaching, for example by writing about one's successful experiences" and a way "to vent one's frustrations and set goals for remedying problems." It is also an opportunity "to raise questions and issues to think about in the future […] triggering insights about one's self as a teacher." Farrell concludes by emphasising the collaborative nature of diary writing in the sense that it may be used "to provide a record of one's teaching for others to read" (Farrell, 2007: 109).

Also Brock, Yu and Wong (1992: 295) see diary writing as beneficial for teachers because it constitutes an excellent tool for reflection and is easy to execute. They see the value of diaries in the fact that:

- They provide an effective means of identifying variables that are important to individual teachers and learners.
- They serve as a means of generating questions and hypotheses about teaching and learning processes.
- They enhance awareness about the way a teacher teaches and a student learns.
- They provide a firsthand account of teaching and learning experiences.
- They are the most natural form of classroom research in that no formal correlations are tested and no outside observer enters the classroom dynamic.
- They provide an ongoing record of classroom events and teacher and learner reflections.
- They enable the researcher to relate classroom events and to examine trends emerging from the diaries.
- They promote the development of reflective teaching. (quoted in Richards, 2000: 154–155)

The most comprehensive overview of the purposes of diary writing is given by Moon (2004). Moon's understanding of diary writing embraces cognitive, affective and metalinguistic aspects of teacher development as an approach for professional and reflective practice. It is also seen as a legitimate tool in the assessment of teacher performance for both self and external evaluation.

Table 4.1 Purposes of diary writing (based on Moon, 2004: 189–193)

Function	Examples
Cognitive	• to record experience • taking a more thorough account of a situation or situations • to develop learning in ways that enhances other learning • to deepen the quality of learning, in the form of critical thinking or developing a questioning attitude • to enable the learner to understand their own learning process • to facilitate learning from experience • to enhance problem-solving skills • as a means of assessment in formal education • to enhance professional practice or the professional self in practice
Affective	• to provide an alternative "voice" for those not good at expressing themselves • to increase active involvement in learning and personal ownerships of learning • to explore the self, personal constructs of meaning and understand one's view of the world • to enhance creativity by making better use of intuitive understanding • for therapeutic purposes or as a means of supporting behaviour change • to foster a reflective and creative interaction in a group • to increase active involvement in learning and personal ownerships of learning
Metalinguistic	• to free-up writing and the representation of learning

This wide range of purposes for which diary writing can be put to use reflects a somewhat idealistic picture of the possibilities this writing process offers. Diary writing has to be undertaken with caution as reflective processes do not come easily and teachers trainees' abilities to record events does not equal their ability to analyse them, specifically their competence at identifying the variables involved and seeing how they interact. Productive reflectivity is a complex process which assuredly requires guidance, especially in the case of pre-service and novice teachers (as discussed in Chapter 2). Also instructing people how to keep diaries in terms of their form is a major part of the methodology. The following sections look at this.

4.3.2 Characteristics of diaries

Altrichter *et al*. (2000) recognise diaries as traditional and basic research instruments in many professional fields of expertise (e.g. in sociology, psychology and in sciences). In the teaching/learning context of reflective teaching and action research, diaries are especially useful as they are based on teachers' existing skills and do not require extra training in deploying this research tool. It is also a very heterogeneous one, as it can contain data collected by means of different methods (observation, for example). Diary form allows a teacher to record data at ease and as frequently as needed.

Discussing the forms a diary/journal can take, Moon (2004: 194–195) distinguishes different types of narrative depending on the degree of structure they can have:

- *unstructured forms* such as free writing and reflecting (usually chronological), recording relating to an ongoing event or issue, and double-entry journals (one side of a page describes the event, the other comments on it)
- *structured forms* such as autobiographical writing (recording a personal development), structured in the form of exercises (e.g. a letter, reflection on a book, metaphor), in the form of questions to answer or guidance about issues to be covered. Its structure may be determined by other learning forms (such as writing a dissertation), it can be determined by the writer's choice (e.g. a dream or fantasy, experiences described), it may also be a profile or portfolio (e.g. reflective texts but also other documents: poetry, graphic material, etc.).

Other sources on diary writing describe diaries that can be written as *memos* and *in-depth reflections*. Memos are a more frequent form: "Memos are produced when trying to recall and write down experiences that occurred in a specific period of time (for example, during a lesson)" (Altrichter *et al*., 2000: 20–21). To be valid, memos need to be produced just after the event they describe and not to be disturbed by the comments of those not involved (third parties, like other teachers). They also need to be arranged in chronological order. Memos will consist of descriptive sequences and interpretative ones (Altrichter *et al*., 2000: 20–21; see Table 4.2).

The interpretative sequences are more complex as they consist of theoretical comments, methodological remarks and planning notes (Altrichter *et al*., 2000: 20–21). Altrichter *et al*. also discuss the specific purposes of each of the above types of comments (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.2 Memos: descriptive and interpretative sequences (based on Altrichter *et al*., 2000: 20–21)

Type	Contents
Descriptive sequences	• account of activities, importance of details • description of an event • language used • non-verbals (e.g. gestures used) • portraits of the learners (appearance, talking and acting)
Interpretative sequences	• interpretation of particular details • feelings about the events described • explanation based on one's ideas and beliefs judging the importance of particular occurrences

Table 4.3 Interpretative sequences in memos (source: Altrichter *et al*., 2000: 22–25)

Types of notes	Content
Theoretical notes (TNs)	• clarifying a concept or an idea • making connections between various accounts and other bits of information • identifying surprising or puzzling situations worth following up later • connecting your own experience to the concepts of existing theory • formulating a new hypothesis • realising hitherto unconscious assumptions and formulating their theoretical implications
Methodological notes (MNs)	• What were the circumstances in which I used particular research methods? • What role did I okay in the situation under investigation? • What comments arise from my experience of specific research methods and strategies? • What decisions did I take about the future course of my research, and why? • What conflicts and ethical dilemmas did I encounter and how did I deal with them?
Planning notes (PNs)	• alternative courses of practical action • how to do it next time • what was forgotten this time and must definitely be made up for in the next lesson • what has to be thought through more carefully • what additional information seems essential and needs to be gathered
Ethical issues	• make the research overt (inform and brief the participants)

Memo type diary entries will often include in-depth reflection narratives which demonstrate the diarist's understanding of his/her tacit knowledge.

Verbalising one's experiences will enhance this understanding; as Altrichter *et al.* (2000: 25) write, "[t]he process of writing often helps to unlock this kind of in-depth reflection." They see it as helpful in developing teachers' understanding of:

- situations that occur frequently but which you do not fully understand;
- situations that end up in problems and conflict again and again;
- situations that you repeatedly feel uneasy about although no obvious conflicts surface: for example, dilemmas, ethical uncertainties, difficult decisions, "vicious circles" in which you feel trapped into behaving in a particular way, etc. […];
- problems with pupils which do not seem to have any logical reason.

Shepherd (2006) used diary writing as a way of studying his own practice, questioning its value and learning about himself:

> Through my journaling I started to develop a greater sense of self-awareness and began to think seriously for the first time about what I believed in and what I valued. Having made my values explicit (a more challenging process than I originally anticipated) my next step was to determine if I was implementing them in practice. This required me to record incidents in my journal in an open and honest way, a process that helped me see my practice for what it really was. (Shepherd, 2006: 343)

Esbenshade (2002: 117) carried out a study on diary writing and concluded this writing experience and its contribution to her growing awareness as a teacher and a person by affirming: "I am able to describe classroom incidents, even to categorize them, and to articulate my beliefs about and the influences on my teaching. I am now working on determining the methods to use to institute change in my teaching practices."

4.3.3 How to write a diary

General guidelines

Before embarking on the task of writing a diary, briefing oneself might be a good introductory strategy. It should focus on the main concerns that a teacher is able to verbalise initially as resulting from his/her past experiences in the field. To be able to evaluate one's practices, a teacher needs first to give explicit expression to personal goals and priorities because

> [p]eople's goals affect their actions, expectations and perceptions, even (and maybe especially) when the people are unaware of these goals. Expressing goals makes their examination possible, thereby providing an opportunity for reassessment. (Posner, 1989: 16)

Posner (1989) suggests that not only the verbalisation of general goals but also that of more specific ones can constitute good guidelines in one's field experiences. These may embrace the following goals:

- To find out what teaching is really like.
- To see if you really like teaching.
- To see if you can really do it.
- To learn some skills and modify certain habits and characteristics.
- To develop your own approach or style.
- To apply what you have learnt in college to real learners and to real classrooms. (Posner, 1989: 17–20)

Altrichter *et al.* (2000: 13–15) discuss different guidelines for effective diary writing. For them *diary writing is a personal matter*, thus individual style and approach can be encouraged; in other words a diarist should not necessarily be limited by externally imposed constraints (e.g. by his/her mentor). Also *regularity of writing the entries* ("diary times") leads to becoming more systematic in recording and interpreting one's teaching, which will contribute to continuity of development. *Barriers to establishing a habit of diary writing* such as time and effort required point to the *need to establish a routine of writing*. Albritchter *et al*. consider *the private nature of a diary* on the level of both content and language. Apart from these more general remarks, they comment on the necessity for careful structural design of diary entries, such as:

- page layout (*margins to add comments*)
- information on date and context (place, participants, focus, day type, etc.)
- structuring the text (headings and paragraphs)
- include a list of contents for easy reference.

On the level of content the diary entry should include factual accounts and also the feelings of the teacher, documented by different kinds of records (pictures, texts, etc.). The descriptive part of every entry should be followed by *provisional analysis of the entries to plan the next ones*. Apart from the private character of a diary, Altrichter *et al*. (2000: 13–15) also put emphasis on the collaborative aspects of teaching, the helpfulness of sharing impressions with colleagues, which may be especially significant for pre-service teachers and novices.

Structuring and analysing a diary entry (an example)

Here is an example of a diary entry from a subject who was an assistant teacher and trainee, quoted by Taggart and Wilson (1998: 94):

November 12 8:30 a.m.

> *Today the students had an Awards Assembly. Certain individuals were awarded for being good citizens, missing no school, etc. I think this is another neat thing this school does. It gives the students a sense of pride and helps build self-esteem. This reinforcement encourages positive behaviors that will stay with these individuals for a lifetime. Building self-esteem is so important at this age level as well as other developmental stages.*
>
> *With the short amount of class time left, the teacher taught the students to count by five's. Since we were studying about Pilgrims, and there were 102 Pilgrims on the "Mayflower" when coming to America, we counted by five's up to 100, then added two to make 102.*
>
> *Amber*

This short diary entry demonstrates a desirable structure for this type of narrative:

- Date and time of the entry.
- Brief sequencing of the events of the day.
- Elaboration on details of one or two episodes based on level of excitement/ involvement, puzzlement or confirmation.
- Analysis of the episode: possible explanation for (the) event, significance of the event, what was learnt, questions raised, relevance, responsibility on the part of the practitioner. (Taggart & Wilson, 1998: 90–91).

Reflectivity in diary writing will be expressed by questions giving a framework to the experiences described, analysed and interpreted. Shepherd (2006: 346) describes this process as "a long journey of self-understanding" arrived at by giving answers to questions on

1. what happened (purely descriptive);
2. thoughts and feelings about what happened, e.g.
   - *How do I feel about this?*
   - *What do I think about this?*
   - *What have I learned from this?*
   - *What action will I take as a result of my lesson learned?*

3. analysis and follow-up, e.g.
   - *What have I learned from what I've done?*
   - *What have I done with what I've learned?* (Shepherd, 2006: 346)

One of the types of entry Tripp (1993) uses in discussing ways of analysing critical incidents in a teacher diary is the incident entitled *The whole class laughed* (Tripp's source: Hall, 1989).

> *Troy said he was sometimes too scared to sleep in case something bad might happen. The teacher suggested in reply, "so what do you do? Sleep with your eyes open?" The class laughed at this and the teacher continued, "Don't laugh, I have an aunty who sleeps with her eyes open!" The class laughed some more and the teacher went on, "She does! She used to frighten the daylights out of us. We'd take her in a cup of tea in the morning and she'd be lying there staring at nothing (the teacher gave a wide-eye stare); we thought she was dead." The class laughed some more, along with the Team teacher and myself at the back of the room*. (Tripp, 1993: 125)

Tripp (1993) analyses the incident by establishing the sequence of the events:

Mistake

(a) Troy spoke of something he feared
(b) the teacher responded with an apparently absurd suggestion
(c) the whole class laughed.

Recovery

(d) the teacher told them to stop laughing
(e) she told them a story of her aunt at which they all laughed. (p. 126)

The main focus of the incident is on the role laughter can play in a classroom context. It may be perceived as "a joyous unifying experience and also a devastatingly destructive weapon. What makes it one or the other is often a matter of who is laughing at what" (Tripp, 1993: 126). In this incident, the class laughed at the teacher's story. However this was only brought about by Troy's personal account of his fears. So in fact there was a moment of humiliation for Troy for his sincerity. The teacher seemed to realise this and tried to repair the situation. By telling a story of her aunt, the teacher in fact established a personal contact with Troy, by relating him to her aunt, which was a way of recovering of his status and even raising it in the eyes of his peers. So some compensation for the brief moment of Troy's humiliation was made by the teacher. The teacher

managed to distract the learners' attention from the main incident to her own dramatic story of childhood. In her ability to react successfully to incidents like this one, the teacher demonstrated her practitioner's mastery, which does not derive from her professional academic knowledge but classroom practice and sensitivity to the contextual factors (Tripp, 1993: 127).

Pre-service teachers' diary writing

Diary writing, though time-consuming and a challenging task for pre-service teachers, can be an important experience at this stage of professional development, as these teachers in particular

> [...] approach teaching with various ideas, images and beliefs of what teacher's work is like, based on their own individual past experiences – perhaps as a parent, child, student, learner, or previous learning experience [...]. Beginning teachers then use their interpretations of those experiences as models for reasoning about the nature of teaching and what teachers do. By reinterpreting those experiences or events through reflection, perhaps a more general understanding of similar experiences and events may occur. (Vazir, 2006: 446)

This approach to teaching can find a vindication in written narratives. However, for a narrative to become an effective form of reflection, additional briefing of the trainee teachers is necessary. They may feel a bit at a loss, as their teaching experiences will still be very limited, something which might inhibit their willingness to engage in diary writing. So it is important to make them aware that as learners themselves they also have profound and prolonged classroom experience to offer:

> [...] as learners we are constantly reflecting on how we are being taught (whether we do this consciously or not) and identifying which teachers or teaching styles or activities we learn from best, and why. [...] your experiences as a learner can be a good starting point for this. (Wallace, 2008: 14)

Wallace (2008: 15) also suggests that the trainees be briefed by discussing:

1. how useful a reflective journal or diary might be for them,
2. defining what reflectivity means in the teaching – and writing – contexts,
3. examples of narratives which are reflective and those which are purely descriptive ones (and as such only the starting point for reflection),
4. focused-diary writing (for example, looking at critical incidents).

In diary writing itself, a trainee teacher needs to be instructed on how to structure his/her analysis. Tann (1993: 59) describes this as a "process of reconstruction, deconstruction and reformulation which needs demystifying", a task which can be facilitated by procedures such as:

- selection of a "key" event;
- articulation of and working through associated emotions;
- problematisation of event by generating multiple causes and consequences through association and brainstorming so as to avoid the temptation to cling to instant hunches (Mackinnon, 1987);
- crystallisation of issues, i.e. categorisation and interpretation of alternative hypotheses (Boud 1985);
- validation, i.e. testing for consistency, confirming interpretation with others, relating to previous learning, comparing with others' experiences, consulting available "authorities" (Liston & Zeichner, 1990);
- appropriation, i.e. test understandings, extract and internalise significance, plan one's own further learning (Schön, 1987).

The understanding of difficulties encountered by the pre-service teachers in articulating their ways of thinking, their feelings and ultimately behaviours in the classroom is basic to developing their abilities to reflect effectively, eliminating the forming of personal hunches and intuitions based upon a foundation of limited classroom experience, as evident in the case of these pre-service teachers. What follows should be explicit instruction on personal reflection to facilitate self-awareness. Diary/journal writing seems to be the best way of reaching this target as it eliminates the initial element of inhibition on the part of the trainees, reluctance to share their problems with their mentors as well as with themselves.

4.4 Sample studies

4.4.1 The thematic concerns of diaries: an overview of focus areas

Available studies on diary/journal writing in teacher education in general, and the development of reflective practices in particular, embrace a whole range of focus areas. Each of them however considers the development of reflectivity, be it in teaching or in learning, to be the most significant benefit of diary/journal writing.

Table 4.4 Diary themes – sample studies

Theme	Author(s)
Diary as a general reflection on lesson effectiveness (planning and management)	Loughran, 1996
Diary thematic concerns as focus for reflection	Loughran, 1996
Diary as a self-assessment tool of one's ability to reflect on one's teaching experiences	Samuels & Betts, 2007
Diary writing and the importance of feedback as a factor conducive to the development of reflectivity	Bain, Ballantyne, Packer & Mills, 1999, 2002; Sutton, Townend & Wright, 2007
Diary as expression of emotional and cognitive dissonance in teacher development	Golombek & Johnson, 2004; Verity, 2000
Diary representing stages of teacher development	Appel, 1995
Diary writing as a way of developing reflective thinking	Richards & Ho, 1998
Diary as expression of affectivity in language learning experiences	Schmidt & Frota, 1985
Diary as a tool for the development of teacher learning and student learning	Herndon, 2002
Pre-service teachers' perceptions of diary writing	Loughran, 1996; Gabryś-Barker, 2009

The most representative diary studies in these different areas of teacher classroom experiences are reported on in the following part of the chapter.

4.4.2 Stages in teacher development

Returning to Appel's inspirational study (1995) mentioned at the beginning of this book, he recalls his initial feelings and thoughts about his teaching experiences and comments on them in the following way:

> I have always had mixed feelings about school. Plain fear when I was twelve, the sweet taste of insurrection when I was sixteen, and blasé fatigue before I left. If I was to go back as a teacher, I promised myself at the time, it would be to change things or at least to avoid mistakes. […] Teaching, yes, but under more humane circumstances. (p. x)

The book covers the period of six years, during which diary writing was used for the purpose of recording both school events and Appel's change of attitudes in his professional development. The selected diary entries are analysed in terms of the issues that arose in his daily practices. As Appel (1995: xii) says: "What

they contain are not systematic observations, but subjective perceptions and impressions of everyday life at school – in short: experience." Having doubts about the publication of his narrative text, Appel concluded that although it was subjective, made up of an insider's views, it could be of value to other teachers because it honestly expressed "the complexities of school practice" and was "a picture of individual development and change."

The diary entries presented are organised chronologically, which allowed Appel to trace back his development as a teacher over a period of six years. These years by no means presented him with uniform and steady challenges. School and teaching were in no way as he expected and classroom reality differed greatly from how it was represented in university courses. The heterogeneous nature of school experiences in different periods of teaching is demonstrated by three clearly defined periods identified by Appel as *Survival*, *Change* and *Routine*:

> *Survival* describes the difficulties I encountered when I started in my first teaching post, discipline being the most prominent one among them. [...] *Change* is no longer exclusively about coping with the classroom situation, but about influencing it as well. It describes what were, for me, new perceptions as well as new methods. [...] *Routine* looks at what role the changes described in Part Two [*Change* – addition mine] can play in day-to-day teaching. It shows how humanistic principles can enhance routine work. (Appel, 1995: xv)

Table 4.5 illustrates the survival period in Appel's six years at school with selected diary entries from the book.

In the remaining periods, Appel (1995) expresses quite different concerns as his classroom experience grows and he develops his own more successful strategies to deal with the problems that occur. In the period of *Change*, his perspective on teaching is different. He is no longer focused on being in control but more visibly trying to create an individual approach to the learners as expressed through empathetic understanding, valuing the learner's individuality and the teacher being true to himself. What resulted from the above reforms was a more facilitative classroom climate, as described in the entries, and more learner autonomy. His classroom methodology departed from traditional learning tasks to more communicative and humanistic ones, taking into account both the learners' needs and their expectations.

In the third period of *Routine*, Appel's major concern was with the content of teaching and the creativity involved. Such an attitude to teaching meant for him teaching through the introduction of a literary text in a FL class for a range of purposes: speaking, reacting to the text individually and writing. Literary texts are motivating, engaging and relevant for the learners' own experiences of the world but also for generating the desire for artistic expression

Table 4.5 *Survival* (based on Appel, 1995)

Stage	Diary entry (a sample)	Focus of each stage
Survival: Teacher's work (chapter 1)	*13th September: „Missed the vital clue" Four weeks into the school year. 10a has developed into a nightmare. I don't know how it happened. I lost control. I am on the defensive. I must have missed the vital clue. Acknowledging their difficulties might have been a mistake. Trying to solve their grammar problems for them was probably another. The rule of the game now is that their English and their learning are my responsibility instead of theirs.* (p. 2)	• discipline over teaching • coping with uncertainty • strains experienced (emotional and physical) • atmosphere inhibiting creativity and innovation • teacher-centredness of the classroom (*Student alienation*) • mostly negative teaching experiences
Survival: Coping with discipline (chapter 2)	*20th December: „What a fool" I am still used to measuring my success as a teacher in terms of the silence I am able to produce, I still remember my RE teacher in secondary school. After I had left school we once met and he told me on of his early maxims as a teacher, which was "My classes must be so quiet that you can hear a pin drop." "What a fool I was," he added twenty years later.* (p. 25)	• importance of appropriate interaction patterns in class • firmness in being constant (*Constancy*) • eliminating escalation of conflicts (*Breathing spaces*) • being flexible

in a foreign language. One of the major aspects of schooling is giving and taking exams and tests, the problems of which are reflected in Appel's diary entries during the third stage, when he as a teacher of English tried to use his expertise to make learner assessment and testing more acceptable, as he himself says: "Exams are the point where humanistic fun ends and harsh reality begins. […] Exams are a threat to security. How can such security be given without defeating the purpose of testing? An exam is supposed to distribute people" (1995: 104). Appel's answer is:

- *Making exams achievable* which "means making sure it can be done and conveying the impression it can be done […] by linking it – at least its beginning – in a rather obvious way to what has been done in class" (p. 105).
- *Strategies*, training given to students on how to take an exam (different types of testing tasks) (pp. 108–110).
- *Marking* based on clearly defined criteria that do not allow bias in evaluation (important for learners' perception of fairness) (pp. 110–112).

Commenting on the value of routine, Appel points out that it is not obviously opposed to humanistic aspects of teaching. Routine situations that occur in a classroom, such as greetings, recitation (of poetry), revision or work with

a coursebook, offer learners security as they are expected and have become familiar to them. They do work if they are part of a contract with the teacher and are not imposed by him/her (p. 124).

In the conclusion to his diary analysis, Appel looks at himself as a teacher with some experience, who has developed over six years of teaching, but whose development and approach to teaching is and must remain in a constant process of change. For him, the next period means different considerations and challenges to those in the initial stage of teaching. They are (1) physical strain, (2) the monotony and repetitiveness of the job, (3) the age gap, (4) a lack of sense of purpose and value (Appel, 1995: 126). These seem to be very negative and could possibly result in teacher burnout. However, as noted before at the novice stage, Appel plans to act against this negativity by being constantly on the alert not to become inert and continue with his lifelong intention to evolve at this stage, which he regards as a good preventive measure. This passion for further development can make use of research on one's own teaching, in the form of action research, documented through diary writing. To conclude, it may be then assumed that diary writing has a role to play at every stage of teacher professional activity.

4.4.3 Journal writing as a way of developing reflective thinking

By introducing journal writing in the M.A. TESL training programme for in-service secondary school teachers at City University of Hong Kong, Richards and Ho (1998) intended to validate their belief that this form of teacher narration is conducive to in-service teachers' development of reflective thinking. They introduced their in-service teachers to journal writing by presenting them with guidelines on journal writing. They included procedures such as: technical information, establishing the readership (the teacher and a fellow teacher), offering a time schedule for diary writing (twice a week) and reviewing the entries every two or three weeks, etc. The guidelines included examples of reflection questions about the lesson described in the entry, but they also gave teachers a free hand in adding extra questions.

Having analysed the questions the teachers asked in their diaries, Richards & Ho (1998: 160) classified them into those relating to theories of teaching, approaches and methods evaluating teaching and self-awareness. Hierarchically, the number of entries of each of the above was as follows:

- evaluation of one's teaching: 185 references
- descriptions of approaches and procedures: 108 references
- theories of teaching: 93 references
- self-awareness: 20 references.

In more detail the above topics were described as:

> *Theories of teaching*: The teachers more frequently engaged in citing theories or evaluating them than in trying to apply them to their classroom practices. *Approaches and methods*: The teacher wrote more frequently about the methods and procedures they employed than about the belief systems or contextual factors underlying these techniques and procedures. Their focus was primarily on classroom experience, and there were few references that went beyond the classroom to the broader contexts of teaching and learning. *Evaluating teaching*: Entries in this category focused primarily on problems that arose and on how problems were solved. *Self-awareness*: There were few entries that related to this aspect of teaching. (Richards & Ho, 1998: 160)

The study sought to demonstrate the relation between journal writing and development of reflectivity. This was interpreted by looking at general patterns in each individual teacher's journal entries from the perspective of: "(1) a greater variety of types of critical reflectivity; (2) being better able to come up with a new understanding of theories; (3) being better able to reflect across time-spans and experiences; (4) being better able to go beyond the classroom to broader contexts; (5) being better able to evaluate both positively and negatively; (6) being better able to solve problems; (7) greater focus on *why* questions" (pp. 165–166).

Ultimately, Richards and Ho (1998: 167) arrived at inconclusive findings. Out of thirty-two journals, only 20% of questions asked by the teachers were reflective in nature, only six journals could be considered reflective and very little development was observed in respect of the development of teachers' reflectivity. The teachers' own evaluations pointed to the usefulness of this activity (71% of the informants), however, the length of time spent on journal writing (only two months) was seen as insufficient to develop more effective skills in reflecting upon one's own classroom practices and arriving at an understanding of it. Richards and Ho (1998) also concluded that individual teachers' inabilities to write a reflective text were also a negative factor in the study. This led them to suggest that perhaps training programmes implementing journal writing should focus first on this type of writing by demonstrating and discussing examples of comprehensive reflective journals which are available in the literature on the subject.

4.4.4 The major diary concerns of pre-service teachers

Loughran's study (1996) has two dimensions: it looks at attitudes the student-teachers have towards reflecting on their own and their peers' teaching

experiences, as expressed in their journal entries. It also discusses the major concerns the trainees chose to comment on in their journals throughout the training programme.

According to Loughran, certain trends can be observed in respect of prevailing attitudes. The trainees most often express open-mindedness, then responsibility and lastly whole-heartedness. Loughran sees this as a logical development and interprets the pattern observed in the following way:

> Open-mindedness is the most common attitude among these student-teachers and it is reasonable to suggest that this *should* be the case as they need to be ready to listen to others if they are to learn new skills […]. Responsibility takes the listening a step further. It requires more from an individual than simply adding a teaching strategy to one's repertoire […]. This involves questioning; to genuinely desire to ask "Why?" […] Open-mindedness and responsibility can be viewed as precursors to whole-heartedness. To be engrossed in learning, to be thoroughly interested in a subject, requires a disposition toward open-mindedness and responsibility so that the act of learning generates spontaneous questioning and suggestions for possibilities and actions. (Loughran, 1996: 83)

Loughran also points out that the attitudes expressed by trainees are "affected by the student-teacher concerns. Shifts from concerns related to self to concerns related to learning parallel the development of preparedness to reflect" (1996: 88). Thus, the same study also looks at the major concerns as expressed in trainees' journal entries (presented in Table 4.6 in a hierarchical form).

The findings of Loughran's study illustrate the general tendency pre-service teachers seem to exhibit (as shown in other studies appearing in Chapter 1 of this volume) to focus on themselves and their "confrontation" with learners, and only later on the learning process itself. In this study, the sequence of major concerns on the course itself, through self-focus and then teaching and learning, was noted at the beginning of the training course. However, with time a visible shift took place; the pre-service teachers began showing more concern with teaching effectiveness and learning progress observed. Additionally, their initial concern with the self and the course and its value decrease. Thus, Loughran concludes:

> The emphasis on these two concerns may well be a guide to the degree to which these student-teachers are reflecting on their developing teaching skills. Such a shift in concern toward one's own teaching and teacher/pupil learning is worthy of note as recognition of this can be used as a way of concurrently influencing the nature of the pre-service curriculum, so that the emphasis of

the course can better match the perceived needs and concerns of the student-teachers. (Loughran, 1996: 85)

Table 4.6 The main concerns in diary entries (based on Loughran, 1996: 85)

Focus	Examples of topics
Specific topics of the training course	Course structure, its format and its requirements Micro-teaching Journal writing This research project Communication Teaching and learning (the course) Schools; their role and function University lecturers/mentors
Concerns about self in various areas of performance	Classroom management and discipline Personality traits, concerns and perceived weaknesses Ability to praise students Prospects of teaching as a career
Concerns about classroom teaching	School placement experiences Assessing students' work Teaching experiences other than on school placement Student motivation Other teachers; pedagogy, actions or views Teaching as an occupation
Concerns about learning	Learning; self and others Role of society as shaping force in students' learning Students' rights and responsibilities Student learning

The usefulness of this can be seen in the way it demonstrates not only the development of reflective practices in trainee teachers, but also powerfully shows that the implementation of diary writing in teacher training programmes can contribute significantly to the profitable revision of curricula for such courses, where the contents should accurately reflect and address actual trainees' needs.

4.4.5 Emotional and cognitive dissonance in L2 teachers' development

Golombek and Johnson's study (2004) of teacher-authored texts demonstrates the connections between emotions and cognition in teachers' narratives, when articulating their individual experiences as they become English language teachers. As Golombek and Johnson (2004: 312) put it, what they intended to show in their work on teachers' narratives was "to make public language teachers' ways of knowing and by doing so, recognize teachers' ways of knowing

as a legitimate form of knowledge that can expand and enrich the traditional knowledge-base of teacher education." The study was based on previously collected data on teacher narratives (Johnson & Golombek, 2002).

The project was a case study of three teachers of English as a second/foreign language working in three different educational contexts: university freshman composition classes, elementary levels science and secondary-level language arts. The major aim in analysing the narratives written by the teachers was to observe:

(a) what the internal activity of teacher development, or transformation, looks like;
(b) how certain artifacts function as tools that mediate teacher development;
(c) what initiates and then drives teachers' development;
(d) how these transformative processes enable teachers to change their modes of engagement in the activities of teaching. (Golombek & Johnson, 2002: 312)

Each of the narratives was based either on a regularly written private journal serving as the basis for reflection on individually selected experiences (in the case of one subject) or on the experiences remembered and considered critical in these teachers' development, which then became the core of the narrative text produced for the purpose of the study. The data allowed Golombek and Johnson (2002) to characterise the subjects as three individuals with different teaching priorities and ways of mediating their classroom presence, demonstrating contrasting understandings of themselves as teachers and of the nature of teaching in their own teaching environments. Golombek and Johnson (2002) describe them in their analysis as:

1. Jenn: a trainee whose main focus was on power issues in the classroom.
2. Michael: a teacher at a bilingual school, completing his M.A. course in TEFL, in his seventh year of teaching.
3. Lynn: an experienced English literature teacher in an international public school, trying to implement new approaches to developing literacy skills in a mixed ability class.

Each of the subjects submitted a narrative in which they described critical incidents that occurred to them in their teaching practice and related how these influenced them in their thinking about themselves as teachers and about teaching as a social process of interaction with their learners. Only one of them, Jenn, kept up a journal on a regular basis and this became the source of her narrative text. Some observations will be offered here on her approach to journal writing and its merits for her personal and professional development.

Jenn was a student and a teaching assistant and a university tutor in ESL to international students, about to receive her M.A. in TESL. Journaling allowed her to voice her beliefs about teaching and observe how she implemented them in her practices. The narrative based on the selected fragments of the journal demonstrated Jenn's overwhelming concern with grading her students over any focus on their learning; her own feelings of being scared receiving negative evaluation from her students. Voicing her fears through her journal and then reflecting upon them in the narrative allowed Jenn to become more aware of herself as a teacher. When commenting on one of the excerpts from the journal that Jenn used in her narrative text, Golombek and Johnson (2004: 313) write:

> This journal excerpt acted as a kind of catalyst that raised Jenn's metacognitive awareness of the experiences that influenced her attitudes towards grading and learning, thus enabling her to recognize a contradiction between her beliefs and her instructional practices.

Explicit awareness of the contradictions observed contributed to Jenn's growth as a person and as a teacher. This is how Jenn comments on the role of journal writing and the need for reflection in her post-journal self-feedback narrative:

> My journal recounted many occasions during the class where there was a need for my students, either individually or collectively, to forgive me for my mistakes. These incidents were the hardest to deal with both professionally and personally since they involved my self-concept of power in the classroom. Fortunately these incidents did lead to a deeper understanding of how I conceptualize teaching. (Johnson & Golombek, 2002: 110, quoted in Golombek & Johnson, 2004: 314)

The need for the post-journal feedback was most strongly expressed by Jenn in the following passage:

> […] my journal only allowed me to recognize these occurrences. […]. Journaling is just a first step to becoming more aware of issues in the classroom and beliefs about teaching and students. Another step must be taken after this in order to change practices and to make practices align more with beliefs about teaching. […] I am able to describe classroom incidents, even to categorize them, and to articulate my beliefs about and the influences on my teaching. I am now working on determining the methods to institute change in my teaching practices. (Johnson & Golombek 2002: 116–117, quoted in Golombek & Johnson, 2004: 315)

A strong point of Jenn's reflective practices in her analysis is reference to expert knowledge, which she believes is fundamental to her professional development and which reinforced her self-confidence in her ability to deal with her problems. Golombek and Johnson (2002) see it as Jenn's zone of proximal development (Vygotksy).

Golombek and Johnson (2004) see that the value of their study lies in supporting the view that teacher development is "socially situated and socially mediated, non-linear, and without endpoint" (p. 323). The narratives produced by the teachers showed the connection between cognition and emotion, which they conclude to be the driving force for these teachers in establishing how they view their beliefs and practices, and the contradictions which arose between them. They used various mediational tools to overcome the dissonance experienced by appealing to expert knowledge or "the other" (a dialogue with oneself or a peer):

> Expert knowledge provided both the discourse through which to name experiences and a basis upon which teachers were able to ground their internal rationale for alternative ways of understanding themselves and the activities of teaching. Although teachers use expert knowledge to understand and name their practice, they must still work through the transformative process in a personally meaningful way that enables them to change their teaching activities. (Golombek & Johnson, 2004: 324)

The importance of expert knowledge not only relates to the teacher's use of available literature in the problem area, but also points to the significance of "the other", a teacher educator in the process of narrating and understanding teaching and learning processes. This study suggests that diary/journal writing is a valuable tool but, as exhibited in the case of Jenn, it can become an even more constructive experience contributing to teacher development if complemented by a narrative enquiry based on diary-recorded entries. It is difficult to disagree with the above. The flexibility of diary writing allows us to introduce further narrative structures which constitute the reflective feedback that should complement purely descriptive comments.

Ultimately, what Golombek and Johnson (2004) want to stress is the affective dimension of teacher development:

> By highlighting that development is emotional, as well as cognitive, we suggest a key area that is, at times, overlooked in teacher education. Engaging in narrative inquiry will indeed bring emotions to the surface as teachers recognize contradictions in their teaching. Teacher educators must be aware that teachers can be in unsettling and vulnerable positions when conducting

> narrative inquiry, and work to support teachers as they move through these periods of dissonance and growth as professional educators. […] Narrative inquiry provides teacher educators and teachers alike with a way to recognize and nourish the unique path of professional development that each teacher pursues. (Golombek & Johnson, 2004: 325)

4.4.6 *Affectivity in language learning experiences*

Schmidt and Frota's case study (1986) is an interesting diary-based research project focusing on a case study of an adult learner, who is also a language teacher, and his experiences of learning Portuguese as a second language. It demonstrates the role of affectivity at every stage of language learning. Being a language teacher, the subject shows his awareness of learning processes but also his evaluation of the teaching procedures she was exposed to in a classroom context. All this is embedded in affectively marked comments on his attitudes and his strongly integrative motivation to be able to communicate with Brazilians in their native language.

The study of this learning story (Schmidt & Frota, 1986: 243–246) falls into three distinctive learning periods:

1. Exposure to Brazilian Portuguese out of the classroom and an intense need to be able to interact with people around his, as expressed in the diary entry:

   I hate the feeling of being unable to talk to people around me. I am used to chatting with people all day long, and I don't like this silence. (p. 243)

2. Formal instruction in Portuguese (joining a course), in which the narrator seems to be very critical of the methodology used by the teacher in class, which has nothing to do with communicative language teaching (using learning drills out of context). He expresses his dissatisfaction by saying:

   "We are practicing affirmative answers". I objected again, I'm not married, but L said. "These questions have nothing to do with real life". My blood was boiling, but I shut up.
   […] *I guess I can remember I am not the teacher here, try not to provoke L too much, and make the best of the resources that I get*. (p. 244)

3. Abandoning the formal course and embarking on an individual programme of learning through immersion (interaction with the native speakers of Portuguese), the narrator searches for opportunities to use the language and develops his own communication strategies:

> [...] *his face showed complete non-comprehension. I grabbed my dictionary. "Comfortable" is "comfortavel" but it flashed through my mind that perhaps you can only say chairs are comfortable, not people.* (p. 246)

This case study illustrates very well the learning strategies of a very special kind of language learner, that is to say, a language teacher whose awareness of the nature of learning and teaching obviously influences not just his own learning strategies. It has also inculcated a critical attitude to certain methods of teaching as too distant from learners' needs and thus de-motivating. But more than anything else, this diary study demonstrates that a successful language learner is one whose learning processes are affectively-driven.

4.4.7 Diary as a self-assessment tool

In Samuels and Betts's (2007) mini-scale study, professional development journal writing was used as a self-assessment tool in a group of pre-service teachers involved in their initial teacher training programme, lasting one academic year. The objective of the project was to observe whether journal writing and trainees' assessment of the way they analyse their teaching experiences would contribute to the development of their reflective abilities. Nine students were asked to evaluate their journal entries according to a self-assessment schedule established in advance. Additionally, weekly peer-feedback sessions were carried out to share reflections on journal entry assessment.

Self-assessment was conducted in a written form, based on clear-cut criteria for evaluation:

- *I am reflecting on an experience.*

Did I notice/register what happened?
Did I record how I felt and how I responded?
Did I pay attention to something significant that happened?
Did I value my experience and my response as worth reflecting on and learning from?

- *I am reflecting on ideas & concepts that I have read or heard about or thought of myself.*

Am I making sense of the ideas by linking them to past experience or learning and to other concepts?
Am I questioning ideas and concepts, testing them against experience and other opinions?
Am I challenging my assumptions and my judgements?
Am I prepared to think about the ideas in a new way?
Am I planning ways to try out new ideas in practice?

> Am I working out, thinking through, action plans?
> Have I experimented with the new ideas and ways of doing things?
> Am I consciously learning from my experiments?
> What have I discovered by self-assessing my journal entry and what do I want to do about this? (Samuels & Betts, 2007: 274)

When evaluating the levels of reflection in the students' entries, the researchers adopted the scale devised by Bain *et al.* (1999: 275), which comprises reporting, responding, relating, reasoning and reconstructing. The whole project lasted three academic terms, during which various activities related to journal writing were performed:

Term 1:
- The beginning of journal writing.

Term 2:
- A peer session introducing self-assessment the schedules to be used.
- Completion of sample journal entries' assessment scheme.

Term 3:
- The final assessment of the level of reflection expressed in journal entries.
- Student discussion of the efficacy of self-assessment during the final course.
- Tutorials.
- Interviews with two selected students on the development of reflectivity. (Bain *et al.*, 1999: 275)

The data collected at various stages of this project demonstrated that journal writing and self-assessment of experiences contributed to the development of the subjects' ability to reflect. Four mechanisms were diagnosed as conducive to this development: *revisiting*, *structure*, *taking responsibility* and *metacognition*. *Revisiting* their own experiences recorded in journal entries at the assessment stage allowed the students to expand on their reflections, go deeper in their interpretation, incorporate a longer term perspective and thus improve their reflection. *Structure* given in the form of questions brought about a more comprehensive picture of the experience recorded and allowed student teachers to ground it in theory and past experiences. *Taking responsibility* derived from the individual need to challenge his/her own actions through reflection but also from the obligation to share his/her thinking with peers. Finally, using *metacognition* made the students' more explicitly aware of their own ways of thinking and reflecting.

This research project demonstrates not only the value of journal writing in the development of reflectivity, but also shows that different types of feedback play an important role in it. Generally, it was peer feedback sessions that were seen as facilitative and motivating:

> Peer supported review of reflections, carried out verbally and structured by the schedule, was valued by all the students. Two students identified this activity as the most significant prompt for their reflective development, indicating that part of the value lay in the alternative perspectives they gained and part in the peer encouragement and support. (Samuels & Betts, 2007: 280)

Despite the generally positive findings of the study, Samuels and Betts are aware that not all the students' opinions were equally upbeat, as some of the subjects found the experience of diary writing tiresome, time-consuming and ineffective. Samuels and Betts (2007: 280) cautiously conclude that perhaps the length of the study and personal variations (for example in forms of the support given to the students or the time given for intervention, some students may be slower than the others) need to be factored into a more extensive project on how to develop productive reflection by means of journaling.

4.4.8 Teacher learning – student learning

Herndon's study (2002) is an example of a personal account of experiences in teaching literacy skills in a literature class given to immigrant students. It demonstrates how a teacher's growing awareness of her professional competence, and her critical evaluation of it, can influence the learning process in the classroom.

Although evaluating herself positively as a competent and confident teacher, Herndon often felt that something was missing in her teaching; as she writes: "I was an effective teacher, no doubt, but somehow my teaching didn't feel right to me" (Herndon, 2002: 35). Through careful observation of her own practices, she sees that she is too much in control of the ideas expressed in class when discussing literary texts, which was in fact contrary to her declared beliefs and the training received in teaching, which "had emphasized the importance of allowing students ownership over the reading and writing process" (Herndon, 2002: 35). However, Herndon is able to dig out the reason for the problem, which she sees as residing in too much excitement involved in reading and enthusiasm for the literary texts discussed, so that "[i]n the classroom, my ideas too often predominated, and my voice was too often the most assured in the room" (Herndon, 2002: 35).

In the course of writing an autobiographical reflective essay (another form of diary) on her professional growth, Herndon examines the shift in her position from an over-dominating to a more satisfactory, retiring and involving teacher of literature. All this is demonstrated in selected excerpts from her diary. The reflective comments are grouped under the following headings which represent a chronological account of the shift in Herndon's (2002) teaching approach:

1. Curriculum planning and implementation.
2. Reading workshop: independent reading and response.
3. Short story unit: full-class reading, discussion and response.
4. Book-group: small-group reading and response.
5. Conclusion.

The shift observed is a result of Herndon's (2002) use of new teaching procedures such as:

- the use of text-orienting strategies to prepare students to read literary texts, e.g. by using story maps or discussing formal discourse properties to aid reading comprehension
- focusing on different patterns of interaction with a text, e.g. individual ideas of readers and social sharing in group tasks
- application of new modes of teaching in other courses, e.g. social studies class.

The later fragments of the diary demonstrate vividly how the learners took in and internalised the new modes of reading literary texts and commenting on them in their journals (introduced by the teacher as a part of reading assignments). Herndon (2002) herself comments on the improvement in her literacy classes and their success:

> Although group interactions play an important role in my students' literary experiences, perhaps most significant are the opportunities provided for students to derive intellectual satisfaction and personal meanings from the stories they read. (*Reconceptualizing Reading in English*, excerpt 19, p. 48)

The first-person account of Herndon's own learning experiences in how to teach effectively shows the evolution of her teaching. Johnson (2009), mentioning this study, concludes her discussion of Herndon's account by saying that

> various tools (cultural artifacts and activities, scientific concepts, and social relations) mediate teacher training. [...] even though these teachers used scientific concepts to understand and name their practice, they still had to work through the transformative process in personally meaningful ways in order to change the nature of their instructional activities. (Johnson, 2009: 39)

This transformation process describes the teacher and her learning, which enhanced her learners' learning and their more genuine involvement with the literary texts discussed in class. In Herndon's words:

> My own growth as a teacher of reading, as I learned to step aside, allowing my students and their learning to take center stage, was as significant as my students' growth as readers over the course of the semester. (2002: 48)

The study presented here shows effectiveness of teaching as a guiding process in which a teacher resigns from the position of a leader and becomes a facilitator. This is achieved very convincingly as it is a first-hand experience of a teacher and not a book-prescribed methodology.

4.4.9 Pre-service teachers' perceptions on diary writing

The study reported on here (Gabryś-Barker, 2009b) was carried out in a group of 23 trainee teachers of EFL, who wrote teacher diaries over a period of an academic year in their final year of gaining qualifications to become EFL teachers. On completion of the diary writing assignment, a feedback questionnaire was administered. The purpose of the questionnaire was to make the trainees voice their opinions about their individual experience of diary writing and its value for their professional development.

The open-ended data was classified into comments reporting on the positive aspects versus the negative aspects of systematic work with a diary. Table 4.7 presents the areas of positive attitudes towards diary writing as expressed by the subjects.

Table 4.7 The positive aspects of diary keeping (source: Gabryś-Barker, 2009b: 424–425)

Positive aspects	**Comments (the original quotations)**
1	2
Professional and personal development: awareness growth and skills of self-evaluation	1. *Working on teaching mistakes more consciously.* 2. *Focusing both on teacher's and learner's development more.* 3. *Keeping track of one's development and experience.* 4. *Noticing details, normally unnoticed.* 5. *New awareness of problems.* 6. *Paying more attention to what happens in class.* 7. *Analyzing after the lesson at home, retrospectively.* 8. *Knowing one's strengths and weaknesses.* 9. *Reflecting about one's own teaching.* 10. *Evaluating mistakes objectively (through analysis).* 11. *Analysis of one's style of teaching.* 12. *Developing ability to predict problems.* 13. *Writing about emotions, fears and feelings about students.*
Development of language and language skills	1. *Improving language skills.* 2. *Language learning (lexis).* 3. *Practising writing skills.* 4. *Writing a clearly structured text.* 5. *Developing academic reading skills.* 6. *Writing informal language (diary entries).*

1	2
Motivation and positive attitude to teaching and learners	1. *Being motivated to work harder and to improve.* 2. *Being proud of writing a long research text.* 3. *Enhancing self-esteem and personality growth.* 4. *The personal aspect of it (It happened to me).* 5. *Based on true experience.* 6. *Sharing with others experiences of failure.*
Learning about one's students and development of rapport	1. *Learning cooperation with students.* 2. *Getting to know students and becoming more aware of them.* 3. *Becoming aware of students' feelings and needs.*
Reviewing TEFL theory	1. *Developing theoretical knowledge for exam purposes.* 2. *A tool for TEFL revision.*
Expanding theoretical knowledge and confronting it with classroom practice	1. *Looking for references in psychology and pedagogy.* 2. *Comparing theory with practice.*

It seems that the trainees saw their diary writing experience as a thorough search for more theory and its validation through their own practices in the classroom, on which they have had a chance to reflect. This reflection in the form of written verbalisations expressing thinking processes makes them much more structured, more explicit and open to change. What also seems to have surfaced as a value of diary writing is reflection on the affectivity of classroom contexts, in which trainees become more aware of their learners and not just of themselves. Being still involved in the process of gaining their qualifications and expanding their knowledge as students, the trainees see a great value in developing and also revising their knowledge of the methodology employed in the analysis of the diary entries. Table 4.8 reports on the negative sides of diary writing, as pointed out by the trainees themselves (Gabryś-Barker, 2009b: 425).

Even though they produced negative comments on their diary writing experience, the trainees in no way disavow its value. The major drawbacks are seen mostly in terms of practical considerations, such as lack of time and the necessity of spending it on writing and editing the texts. On the cognitive level, analysis and interpretation of data gathered seemed to pose problems mostly at the stage of identification of critical incidents. The novelty of the task of diary writing was stressful and brought with it a certain some degree of insecurity, especially at the early stages of writing. At the formal level, the language of the text and distinguishing between the informality of diary entries themselves and the precise language of analysis was also considered a difficulty and a negative aspect of presenting one's own reflections in this narrative (Gabryś-Barker, 2009b: 426).

Table 4.8 The negative aspects of diary keeping (source: Gabryś-Barker, 2009b: 425–426)

Negative aspects of diary writing	Comments (the original quotations)
Practical considerations	1. *Time consuming.* 2. *Keeping to deadlines and time pressure.* 3. *Unhealthy sitting in front of the computer the whole day.* 4. *Difficulty in finding sources (references) on them.*
Analysis and interpretation	1. *Identifying critical incidents and focusing them.* 2. *Using 1st person narrative, feeling of subjectivity.* 3. *Difficulty in self-evaluation.* 4. *Not challenging enough.*
Anxiety and stress	1. *Breaking the code of secrecy (talking about students).* 2. *Stressful as it is a new experience.* 3. *Using word-processor disturbs thinking.*
Language and text presentation problems	1. *Terminology and formal, academic register.* 2. *Coming up with the titles for diary entries.* 3. *Doubts concerning the use of quotations (plagiarism) and paraphrasing.*

In additional, open-ended comments, the students stressed the development of their classroom awareness, but also they strongly emphasised the motivational character of diary writing, expressing their willingness to become better in their classroom behaviour and their enthusiasm for teaching. It was not without significance that the trainees saw their diary writing as a good opportunity to revise theoretical issues as well, to be able to interpret with rigour the classroom occurrences described in the diary entries.

Here are some relevant comments from the questionnaires in their original wording:

- *I can read the diary from time to time and think over my failures and successes.*
- *In general I like writing and analyzing my diary entries* […] *a fruitful experience which helps my development.*
- […] *it helps avoid similar mistakes.*
- […] *with time it gets harder and harder to find interesting and new critical moments.*
- *Diary makes me work systematically. Moreover it is a good practice of writing longer narrative texts.*
- *Writing a diary motivates me to get to know my learners, their needs and interests.*
- *Probably it is better than writing on one particular topic because it demands from us to study a variety of topics.* (Gabryś-Barker, 2009b: 426)

As was concluded in the study, what was seen as most important about this experience of diary writing at the pre-service levels was that all the trainee teachers regarded themselves as involved in a longitudinal process of becoming more aware of themselves as teachers and people, and of becoming more reflective and creative in their classroom behaviours. The trainees believed in their enhanced ability to "share their knowledge and also themselves as people with their own learners" (Gabryś-Barker, 2009b: 427). From the longer perspective of time and my own attitude to developing teacher reflectivity, I believe that a powerful need to reflect and a willingness to do it as expressed by the trainees constitute the strongest points of this diary keeping period, because it relates to the affective dimension of becoming a successful teacher. No less important was the fact that this first experience of reflective teaching and reporting on it was supervised and monitored through both mentor one-to-one tutorials and peer sessions in class. The latter made the students feel more secure in their struggles with teaching difficulties and ways of dealing with them, as well as allowing them to share their successes.

4.5 Summary: Teacher stories in diaries

This chapter discussed diary writing as a "thinking through process" (Moore, 1996) and one of the best tools for developing reflective thinking, which can be employed in a variety of teaching and learning contexts, for both experienced and inexperienced/pre-service teachers. Diaries are instances of teacher narratives that contribute to constructing professional knowledge, as they record and interpret teachers' stories in a systematic fashion and are contextualised in the teacher's working environment. The motivation for them comes from teachers' desires to comprehend their own practices and to improve them. Also, writing is fundamental to thinking as it allows the writer to name, categorise and interpret and later on re-interpret experiences at first subjectively described. This is done in the form of verbalised thoughts, emotions and subsequently reflections for future actions. Diaries enhance the development of experiential learning, which is grounded in reflection on classroom incidents but supported in their analysis by theory. The thinking involved in identifying and interpreting diary-recorded incidents is also a way of questioning the trainees' beliefs about teaching previously imported by them into their classrooms. This thinking process serves either to validate or reject these beliefs. This process of reflecting facilitates one's learning through narrated reflection. In Moon's words it becomes a tool for increasing "active involvement in learning and personal ownerships of learning "and helps to "to explore the self, personal constructs of meaning and understand one's view of the world [...]. To enhance the personal valuing of

the self towards self-improvement […]. To enhance creativity and make better use of intuitive understanding" (Moon, 2004: 189–193).

This broad perspective on diaries sees them as not only a tool for professional development but also as a personal device for oneself, for one's pupils and one's peer group. This last aspect attaches a social value to diary writing; sharing with students and collaborating with peers are important elements in professional teaching which cannot be emphasised enough

The characteristic features of individual diaries are determined by the purposes they serve. First of all, their purpose will determine the degree of structure and depth of analysis. Moon (2004) uses the terms "structured" or "unstructured" diaries, whereas in another approach they are described as memos and in-depth reflections (Altrichter *et al.*, 2000). In implementing diary writing in educational programmes and in teacher training, it is especially important to brief the trainees/teachers on diary writing, as on the one hand it is a personal matter (Altrichter *et al.*, 2000) and on the other, it requires a certain knowledge about how to focus one's writing and then comment upon it (selecting key events, structuring the entry, etc.). The purposes of this activity have to be clearly specified and discussed with the trainees/teachers, establishing whathever priorities teachers might have. What is equally important is establishing a strict routine of writing systematically until diary completion in order to overcome inhibitions about writing on personal matters. The various forms of feedback have to be made clear beforehand so that the trainees/teachers will not be shocked or put off when they share their entries with peers and mentors. It is useful to introduce the trainees/teachers to sample diary entries and their analysis. At the initial stages of diary writing, group sessions may be useful when discussing examples of individual entries written by group members. This chapter has provided detailed guidelines on how to implement and carry out diary writing.

The structure of a diary entry reflects at the micro-level the teaching/learning cycle, as it starts with the description of the event, proceeding to reflection on and analysis of the situation, considering strategies used and alternative ones to be used in the future, deciding on action and carrying it out through a plan of action and evaluating the effectiveness of decisions and actions (Perry, 1997: 7–8). The guidelines given to diary writers comprise a set of detailed questions which will reflect all of the above stages.

In the case of pre-service teachers, diary writing is both time-consuming and a challenging experience. It is not only that trainees may feel a bit at a loss, as their teaching experiences will still be very limited, but the very nature of diary writing, as a personal disclosure of weaknesses and fears, might seem to inhibit their participation and promote insecurity. There are different ways of dealing with this inhibition, one of them is to make student teachers aware that

as learners themselves they also have profound classroom experience and they can draw upon it as a resource in their practices (Vazir, 2006). What is important here is that the understanding that the difficulties encountered by the pre-service teachers in articulating their way of thinking, their feelings and behaviours in the classroom are basic to developing their abilities to reflect effectively. This ability will allow the novices to examine more closely their personal teaching intuitions and their as yet still unexplored classroom experience. An indispensable part of introducing diary writing would seem to be explicit instruction on personal reflection. This can be done effectively by exposure to sample diaries and group discussion of these, and at a later stage, when trainees become more confident, by discussing their own sample entries. Although inhibitory for some students, especially at the initial stages of its implementation, as Loughran (1996: 87) puts it, diary writing is "one window into student-teachers' thinking." Ample studies on diary writing in teacher education demonstrate that the attitudes of open-mindedness and responsibility are key developmental features. Initially, pre-service teachers do not exhibit full readiness to report on their teaching experiences, be it because of inhibitory factors and fear of being evaluated negatively, or perhaps due to their inability, or lack of awareness, how to articulate their experiences. This problem has to be addressed through careful preparation and mentor instruction.

This chapter adumbrates quite an extensive selection of studies, all based on teacher narratives presented in the form of diaries/journals. The thematic concerns of these studies address various areas of teacher/learner experiences. Appel (1995) describes the first years of his professional development as an EFL teacher, whose development and description of his approach to teaching as a constant state of flux is all well documented in his diary. Journal writing as a way of developing reflective thinking was the major object of study of Richards and Ho (1998), who by introducing journal writing in their M.A. TESL training programme for in-service secondary school teachers at City University of Hong Kong aimed to verify that this form of teacher narration is highly conducive to in-service teachers' development of reflective thinking. They concluded that teacher training programmes implementing diary writing should focus first on this type of writing by demonstrating and discussing the examples of reflective journals available in the literature on the subject. In his study, Loughran (1996) looked at attitudes student-teachers take to reflecting on their and their peers' teaching experiences, as expressed in their journal entries, and he also presents the major types of concerns trainees express in their journal writing, which offers from initial worries focusing on the self to preoccupations and concerns related with learning, which appears to be evidence of moving on from affectivity to reflection. The same theme of trainee teachers' perceptions of diary writing is carved in my own study (Gabryś-Barker, 2009b), which arrives at

the conclusion that the initial challenge for the trainees, expressed in their ability to reflect in their diary writing, turned into an exciting experience of personal growth and greater awareness of oneself as a teacher and a person. Golombek and Johnson (2002, 2004) moved away from reflectivity as such to focus more on the role of the affective domain in teacher development and ways of dealing with the contradictions that occur in teacher practice, in the confrontations between cognitive aspects of and emotional responses to classroom situations as they occur. The theme of affectivity was also picked up in Schmidt and Frota's study (1985). The other studies commented on in the chapter looked at different areas of effectiveness in diary writing, such as using the diary as a self-assessment tool of one's reflective capacities (Samuels & Betts, 2007) or more generally, the diary's contribution to the process of learning to teach (Herndon, 2002).

To conclude, a consensus seems to have emerged that diary/journal writing should be included in teacher training programmes and it should be employed at different stages of teacher development. At the early stages of professional development, it becomes a tool for explicitly formulating one's views on teaching and learning, examining their origins and value. In medial stages, teachers are required to give grounds for these views and to create their own new models for teaching. In the later stages of teaching, where greater experience allows teachers to grow more confident of their own practices (but unfortunately with the attendant risks of falling into routines) diary writing is a way of experimenting with new ideas and reflecting on their effectiveness through structured narratives and promoting creativeness. However, it would appear from all the above that the use of diary writing is most significant for pre-service teachers for, when introduced as an obligatory task and therefore a matter of routine practice, it becomes a natural and efficacious way of analysing teaching and moulding a reflective practitioner right at the start of his/her career.

CHAPTER 5

A STUDY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' DEVELOPMENT THROUGH DIARY USE

5.1 Introduction

Leshem and Trafford (2006: 24) compare diaries, autobiographies and journals to mirrors that "portray their authors," as they

> […] allow us to see pictures of ourselves and to analyse what we see. However, like mirrors, they may distort or accurately reflect reality. Reflective practice involves entering a latent world that might not always be considered, or used, to professional effect.

The data presented in this chapter is based mostly on the trainees' diaries, which were employed to portray pre-service teachers of EFL. The chapter aims to present a group of trainees as pre-service teachers who were still involved in the process of gaining their professional qualifications, but who were already exposed at this stage to reflective practices. These practices were being introduced by means of reflective diary writing. The process of diary writing took the form of "writing for discovery: generating earned insights" (Qualley, 1997). Writing became a way of verbalising trainees' experiences and articulating their ideas. What can be seen as a revisiting of experiences allowed the trainees to formulate so-called "earned insights", to be seen as "a kind of understanding whose essential truth is only realized or more fully grasped as it is made manifest through the individual's experience and contemplation of that experience" (Qualley, 1997: 35).

Verbalisations of classroom experiences were reported on in focused-diary writing. Students were to narrow down their descriptions and analyses to the

identification of and reflection on only episodes occurring in their classrooms, which they saw as either critical for themselves as teachers or critical for their learners.

The process of reflectivity development in the case of trainee teachers is presented here through analyses of their diary writing experiences over a period of one academic year, during which the students participated in their obligatory school placements. This for many of them was their first contact with classroom teaching in an organised school setting. The experiences recorded and analysed in the diary entries embrace different stages of this practicum, hopefully demonstrating the change over time of their perceptions of their classroom encounters, leading to a state of fuller awareness of oneself as teacher and person, and becoming more capable of productive reflection. It is hypothesised that diary writing introduced at such an early stage of professional involvement and carried out systematically will lead to habituation and routinisation of reflecting on one's actions and thus, conscious and monitored professional development. In other words, it is a tool for self-evaluation, marking out successes and failures and pointing up one's weak and strong points.

The observations made on the basis of trainees' choices of critical incidents make it possible to draw conclusions concerning the areas of difficulty these pre-service teachers encounter (and as such more generally relatable and familiar to other groups of trainees), and by this means to modify training programmes by offering further instruction in those areas of difficulty. The study adopts Tripp's understanding of critical incidents as teaching events based on a value judgement made by a teacher where "the basis of that judgement is the significance attached to the meaning of the incident" (DeShon Hamlin, 2004: 171). As such, they are not, nor could ever be, things which exist independently of an observer.

It was hoped that the diary entries would also demonstrate the ways of thinking and reflecting employed by the students which, as other studies of pre-service teachers have shown, are mostly descriptive in nature and not very insightful. It is believed that this special focus on critical incidents helps teachers at every stage of their professional careers but especially those at the beginning. This help is manifested

> in shifting from a technical approach of wondering how they are going to teach, what Tripp refers to as the "practical problematic", to consideration of how they are going to decide and how they are going to justify what they have decided. Critical incidents analysis provides a structure for teachers to identify and articulate their established routines and determine not just their effectiveness, but also their appropriateness. (DeShon Hamlin, 2004: 171)

I would argue that instruction and additional practice in reflectivity is a necessary process to be introduced into training programmes by means of diaries and teacher journals as ways of recording, monitoring and evaluating trainees' progress. What is also important is to introduce the concept of reflectivity and reflective teaching right at the start, before the trainees enter their classrooms during the practicum:

> [...] reflection is stressed even before students embark on their practical teaching. The idea behind this is that student teachers can be armed against socialization into established patterns of school practice. The student teacher must first gain some idea of who he or she is, of what he or she wants, and above all, of the ways in which one can take responsibility for one's own learning. The first period of student teaching can be one of extreme stress, in which the prime concern is simply to "get through". This is not an auspicious moment for learning the art of reflection. Prospective teachers must already have at their disposal sufficient powers of reflection to enable them to evaluate the influence of these personal concerns on the way in which they themselves function in the classroom. (Korthagen, 1988: 38–39, quoted in Eraut, 1994: 61)

Researching critical incidents is not straightforward, as they occur and are reported on retrospectively, and so fall victim to fallible memory and potentially unreliable interpretations. Ideally, this type of research should combine the variety of methods proposed by Woods: "[...] extensive interviewing, use of documentary evidence, such as tapes, film, reports, children's work, all made at the time of the event" (Woods, 1993: 157). Thus, it has to be admitted that this study limits itself to only some research methods and therefore only offers preliminary observations on the CIs, that is, their selection and the interpretation offered "subjectively" by the trainees. However, as the main purpose of the study is to make these very pre-service teachers more aware and reflective in their classroom instruction, it seems that diary writing on its own, combined with feedback sessions, is an adequate and effective way of monitoring trainees' professional development and of providing additional motivation to become better reflective practitioners.

5.2 Project design

5.2.1 Research focus

Gould (2000: 97) is not very optimistic in his evaluation of pre-service/novice teachers and their ability to grasp the essentials of classroom compartment and thus believes that

> The conceptions and theories that make up their (novices') schemata are shallow and narrow, constricted by their own personal histories and bound by their cultural ecology. Because a student's experience in classrooms has been limited by the role of participant, there are few connections among and between concepts that make up the schemata. In short, the schemata consists of a few shallow concepts connected together with fragile links.

Few would disagree with this: novice teachers' views tend to be superficial and their beliefs either ingrained prejudice or extremely tentative. They are often determined by some sketchy memory of their own learning experiences and their own teachers' practices or by some ingrained belief that derived from theoretical models read about or heard of. They can also be interpreted as traditional and prescriptive and as such, conservative views of teaching expertise as being "nonreflective and that engagement in conscious deliberation is an exception (in expert teaching)" (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986, quoted in Tsui, 2004: 277). As such it is "effortless and automatic". A rejection of the conservative approach underpins this study. Instead, Tsui's alternative view of expertise in teaching has been followed. For Tsui (2004), understanding expertise in teaching embraces a different view of the nature of expert knowledge which is not only seen as integrative and relating to specific contexts and "situated possibilities," but postulated as a developmental construct.

Table 5.1 A new perception of expertise in teaching (based on Tsui, 2004)

Nature of expertise	Aspects of expertise to be developed
Expert teacher knowledge	1. Integration of teacher knowledge in the act of teaching. 2. Focus on context specificity and "situated possibilities". 3. Practice versus theory: "theorizing practical knowledge and 'practicalizing theoretical knowledge'" (p. 257).
Development of expertise	1. Classroom-based research: "Exploration and experimentation" (p. 266). 2. Problem awareness: "problematizing the 'unproblematic'" (p. 267). 3. Awareness of challenges: "responding to and looking for challenges" (p. 272).

For Tsui, the emphasis should be on exploration and experimentation, problematising the "unproblematic" and responding to and looking for challenges that constitute the essence of expertise development. (Table 5.1).

This way of understanding expertise formed the backbone of my study presented in this chapter and a strong belief that this approach, which best exemplifies the main assumptions of reflective teaching, can be inculcated (but not imposed) on the pre-service teachers eventually to become their "second nature": natural to their motivations and attitudes, forming their engagement in teaching. As DeShon Hamlin (2004: 167) puts it, "Teacher educators committed to emphasizing reflective practice throughout their teacher education programs must decide where and how that development begins for entry-level students." She observed in her study of initial stages of CIs project implementation that

> [f]irst, pre-education students participating in early field experiences are capable of reflection at multiple levels including a critical consideration of the broader social and political effects of educational curriculum and methodology. Second, their ability to reflect at complex levels seems to be enhanced through structured writing of critical incidents analysis. Third, it may be helpful to emphasize and value a social reconstructionist focus during early field experiences when observation is still the predominant activity and the stress and tensions which accompany the shift in responsibility from observing to teaching have not yet fully surfaced.

The overall purpose of my project was to assist pre-service teachers in their development of professional judgement based on their first experiences of classroom teaching. This judgement was to come from their individual perceptions of the significance of selected classroom events (CIs), which were assumed to exhibit the conflict and tensions experienced by the trainees and their coping strategies employed in a given context, but also their success stories and the strategies used to account for these. The longitudinal character of the study (one academic year) allowed me to observe the evolution of these coping strategies. It was also hoped that the project would show the development of the trainees' ability to analyse events and responses to them (i.e. the strategies) with a view to improving their effectiveness and becoming more aware of their personal theories of teaching and their transitory nature.

More precisely, the research focus of the project is on:

- the trainees' ability to identify CIs and their thematic content
- the trainees' ability to analyse CIs at different stages of diary writing
- self-evaluation at the pre-service stage of professional development
- the trainees' perceptions of themselves as beginning teachers.

5.2.2 Pre-service teachers as a study sample and the teaching context

Pre-service teachers who were still college students at the time of data collection constituted the sample in this study. They were thirty-one 21–23 years old students (twenty-nine females and two males) from a teacher training college in their final year of studies to gain a first degree in teaching English as a foreign language at different levels of the Polish educational system, i.e. pre-school (kindergarten), primary school, junior high school (Pol. *gimnazjum*) and secondary school (of various types: grammar, technical and vocational). These educational contexts constitute a very broad spectrum, whereas training programmes are not always very specific because of time constraints in the programme of studies in the college. For instance, the principles of teaching very young learners at the kindergarten level are seldom discussed in methodology lectures and classes in the college. A new programme has introduced additional modules to make methodology courses more focused. Also, it seems that instruction in issues concerning general pedagogy and psychology are covered by short, usually one semester courses. Being general, they do not cater very well for the difficulties students have in their first encounters with learners during their school placement. The students have already had some experience in teaching in one-to-one tutorials, which rarely present the same type of problems as classroom settings and dealing with a group. So it does not come as a surprise that the trainees most often complain about discipline problems and management issues as their major areas of concern. It can be safely assumed that certain gaps in theoretical knowledge concerning the above will be evident in the trainees' classroom behaviours and performance. Having little knowledge and hardly any classroom experience, they are then exposed to, or struggle to avoid, certain stressful situations in order to save face (often the primary concern of pre-service teachers).

The group involved in this study was asked to keep a year-long diary as their final diploma work and this made the students work hard and put a lot of conscious effort into their writing. Also because they were motivated to be good teachers and they were good students, they put a lot of work into their teaching practice at school. Although subjects had a choice of school placement venues, this was often determined more by convenience (e.g. closeness to their place of residence) than by the desire to teach a particular age group or level or in a specific type of school. Thus, a variety of contexts are described in the diaries. The student-teachers taught in the following types of educational institutions:

Table 5.2 Teaching contexts

Institution	Age group	Number of student-teachers
Helen Doron course (kindergarten)	very young learners (4–6 years old)	2
Primary school	young learners (7–11 years old)	12
Junior high school (Pol. *gimnazjum*)	young adolescents (12–14 years old)	12
Secondary school	adolescents (15–18 years old)	4
Callan School	mixed adults (15–40 years old)	1

In the majority of cases the learners belonged to two quite distinctive groups of immature learners, at different developmental stage in terms of their cognitive and affective development: primary vs junior high school. These different characteristics were expected to find a reflection in the different types of critical incident selected and the ways of dealing with them. Also, the two different educational settings (primary vs junior high school) presented more homogeneous learners in the former than the latter case, which had a significant impact on what incidents occurred and what can be described as critical.

The fact that the trainees lacked experience made them quite vulnerable in the classroom. This is amply reflected in their entries, which express anxiety and a straightforward fear of their learners, fear of doing something wrong or hurting their pupils, fear of losing authority as teachers – almost before they had begun to build it. Different individuals coped differently, but it is not difficult to see that every class presented episodes that were critical in nature, howsoever individual students were not able to identify them as such. On initial evaluation of their teaching, the subjects could see their failures more clearly than their successes. Despite all this fear and the tendency to be over-self-critical, the subjects maintained a positive attitude even towards their failures, and claimed that diary writing, initially seen as burden, later on allowed them to cope better with difficult moments.

5.2.3 Data collection tools

The one-year teacher diary

The main data collection instrument used in the study was a teacher diary. As mentioned earlier, the diary writing lasted one academic year. Before the actual writing started, the students were briefed on the purposes of diary writing and ways of doing it. Diary writing was introduced to self-discover the nature of teaching and one's own aptitudes: one's attitude to it, likings or dislikings, the ability to cope with difficulties, to learn more in terms of skills and strategies, and to apply knowledge formerly gained during the training programme. Instruction specifically emphasised the diary's focus, that is, identification of critical incidents and their analysis and interpretation. More specific guidelines focused on technical aspects, i.e. the need to do it systematically and after the class to order to recall the episodes precisely. A time-frame was established for feedback sessions with the supervisor which occurred after each entry was written up and analysed in a written form. At the initial stage, the feedback sessions were in a group, enabling the group to share their experiences of both critical incidents identification and diary writing itself. The purpose was to make individual subjects aware that the problems they encounter in both processes were not unique to them, but also shared by their peers. In other words, these sessions were to provide encouragement and to establish both routine and the openness needed to share experiences with others.

The diary entries were to be mostly descriptive in nature and they were to follow the prescribed pattern. They constituted trainees' reflection-in-action, as they reported on the actual classroom events and the trainees' immediate thoughts on them. The diaries were followed by analyses of the event(s) identified in the entry, so they were also examples of delayed introspection and could be classified as reflection-on-action. In their concluding part, as reflection-for-action, they worked towards the building of critical events (CE) in the future.

School practice was divided into three periods, labeled as: *My beginnings*, *In the middle* and *Towards the end*. During each of these stages the subjects were asked to identify three meaningful episodes (critical incidents) that occurred in the classroom, describe and analyse them. The structure of each entry was to follow Altrichter *et al.*'s (2000) division into *descriptive sequences* (account of activities, importance of details, description of an event, language used, non-verbals e.g. gestures used, portraits of the learners: appearance, talking and acting), which constituted the entry itself, and into *interpretative sequences* (interpretation of particular details, feelings about the events described,

explanation based on one's ideas and beliefs, judging the importance of particular occurrences). So the narrative produced contained:

The entry:
- Date and time of the entry.
- Brief sequence of the events during the lesson.
- Elaboration on details of one meaningful episode seen as a critical incident.

The analysis of the episode:
- A possible explanation for (the) incident.
- Its significance.
- What was learnt.
- The questions it raise.
- Responsibility on the part of the practitioner.
- How to modify it for future use.

The division into three periods of analysis made it possible to observe the subjects' development in terms of their ability to identify what is meaningful and critical in their classroom actions and what it meant to them and their learners. *My beginnings* was the period when they entered the classroom for the first time, which was, as much as anything else, a testing process for their expectations, perceptions and beliefs about teaching in general and teaching a foreign language in particular. Indeed most of the diary entries at this stage identify critical incidents that occurred during the first lessons taught by the students. This was the most scary, doubt-ridden and sometimes anger-directed-towards-oneself time for the trainees. The second *In the middle* and the third *Towards the end* stages were more settled; however, they still continued to demonstrate a lot of insecurity in the entries selected for CI analyses. The subjects had visibly moved on, not in their ability to cope with the incidents, but in their more open attitude and ability to see CIs as inevitable and worth analysing. The period of one academic year and the amount of time spent in schools were of course too limited to show great progress on the road to expert competence development. But some progress was visible. In the last part of the diploma work, the students were asked to evaluate their year at school in terms of their achievement and successes, as well as the areas which still remain their weak points. Table 5.3 presents the structure and content focus of trainees' diaries.

Table 5.3 The structure and content of the diary writing project (a diploma work)

Stage	Title	Content	Objective
Introduction	*The teaching context*	1. *Me as teacher* 2. *My students* 3. *My school*	Presentation of the teaching contexts and learner profile
Chapter I	*My beginnings*	• 3 entries in the initial period of practicum • summary	• introduction to teaching in the first month of teaching practice • initial self-evaluation (strong and weak points) • setting goals
Chapter II	*In the middle*	• 3 entries in the mid-period of practicum • summary	• the end of the first semester teaching experiences • evaluation of progress
Chapter III	*Towards the end*	• 3 entries in the final period of practicum • summary	• the third (final stage) of teaching practice • evaluation of progress
Chapter IV	*My year at school*	1. Introduction (general remarks) 2. Successes 3. Failures 3. A way forward	• self-reflection (a general impression) • highlighting success and failure areas • planning for future
Appendices	–	Lesson plans, materials used, comments from learners (optional)	Additional information, learner's feedback to a novice teacher
Bibliography	–	References and sources used in analysis of critical incidents	To support the analysis of the entries with theory and research findings

Narrative text

During the period of school placement, apart from writing their diaries, the subjects were also asked to reflect on perceptions of themselves as pre-service teachers, focusing on what seemed most significant to them in their teaching in the form of a reflective essay of three hundred words. No detailed instructions were given as to the content of the text. This open-ended form of expression allowed the trainees to sum up what seemed most important and relevant in evaluating themselves as EFL teachers after their first teaching experiences.

5.2.4 Procedures

Before their classroom practice (school placement), commenced, the trainees had been introduced to reflection as a concept and had discussed its various applications in seminar sessions. Additionally, diary writing principles were presented and sample studies of different types of diaries/journals were analysed in terms of their form and content focus. The students were also familiarised with the concept of critical incidents in educational contexts (as presented by Woods, 1993 and Tripp, 1993). Table 5.4 presents the sequence of project stages.

Table 5.4 The stages of the project

Stage	Objective	Tool	Timing
1. Reflectivity and reflective teaching	• introduction to the concept of reflection in teaching • different forms of reflection • descriptive versus productive reflection • sample studies on reflectivity	• discussion based on resources	two sessions
2. Instruction on diary writing	• to familiarise the students with a teacher diary as a form of reflection • general guidelines • structure of a diary • sample studies (e.g. Appel, 1995)	• teacher presentation • discussion	one session
3. The concept of critical incidents in teaching	• defining the concept of a critical incident (CI) • examples of CIs (e.g. Tripp, 1993)	• teacher presentation • discussion	two sessions
4. Project briefing	Presenting the project: • its aims • time schedule • diary structure	• teacher presentation • clarifying questions and discussion	one session
5. Diary writing	• identifying, analysing and interpreting CIs	• diary writing by students • feedback sessions with the tutor	two semesters (twenty-three sessions)
6. Narrative text	• reflecting upon oneself as a pre-service teacher	• a reflective essay	one session (during the school placement period)

5.3 Data presentation and analysis

5.3.1 Narrative texts on perceptions of oneself as a pre-service teacher

The written impressions and reflections offered by the trainees in their texts at first were very critical of their classroom performance, and were at times hypercritical. The trainees exhibited a lot of sensitivity about themselves and the consequences of their teaching. They were fully aware that they lacked experience which offers a teacher both knowledge of how to teach effectively and how to deal with difficult situations, which according to the trainees, occurred almost on a daily basis.

The subjects' expectations concerning teaching and what it actually entailed were very different from those expressed before the school placement started, as exemplified by the comments of one of the trainees, but reinforced in the reflections of others:

First of all, I would like to underline that as a pre-service teacher I underwent many "changes" in the way of perceiving teaching. […] *I am aware of the fact that it (teaching) is not always a path of roses and honey and that it requires a lot of effort and knowledge. Practice is what will make me better as a teacher.*

My ideas about teaching changed when I started teaching in a private school. I got my own register and I was very excited to have my own register. More importantly, I got my own groups to teach. […]. *The first month was extremely tiring.*[…]. *I was physically and emotionally exhausted.* […].

Teaching practice at school, naturally enough, constituted a major factor in the trainees' evolving sense of themselves as people and teachers:

I underwent a pretty dramatic change from someone who was terrified of public speeches and presentations to a teacher who has to "perform" in front of an audience every lesson.

[…] *my notion of this job has evolved owing to my experience of teaching practice. I realized that theory and reality are two different things. As a young inexperienced, pre-service teacher, I had to cope with many obstacles. My idealistic perception of teaching professions was ruined when it clashed with reality.* […]. *After a few days it became obvious to me that I "can't save the world". I may at least try to "save some parts of it".*

It may be that experience has enriched me as future teacher and a private person. I've got the feeling of being shaped by the teacher training course and hope to be changed only in a positive way.

After teaching practice I think I changed a lot. The level of my self-confidence has risen. […]. *I like to see the progress my students make and when they are enjoying my lessons.* […]. *I became more open-minded and tolerant.* […]. *I also started to notice my weaknesses. First of all, the thing that I am afraid of most is loosing students' respect and as a result failing.*

Realisation of the difficulties teaching entails, especially for those with no or very little classroom experience, was initially seen as failure but was not necessarily a discouraging factor:

I was very optimistic about being a teacher. I thought that the job would be nice and easy because I love children. I changed my opinion when I experienced teaching for the first time. […]. *Difficulties and problems should not be treated as failures because they enrich our experience and allow for our professional development.*

Also, the trainees seem to have had a very clear idea of what it is they are good at and what aspects of their teaching need further development and refinement:

If I were to judge myself as a pre-service teacher, I would say that I am pretty good at presenting and explaining the material. […]. *On the other hand I still face problems concerning assessment of students and time management.*

I developed several important aspects of teaching such as lesson planning, timing, general attitude towards my students and the ability to improvise. I also begin to get a better feeling of the group dynamics. The areas I need to work on are: motivating my students, discipline and sticking to my plans and not overloading students with extra information/vocabulary.

I feel my lessons were a waste of time for good classes. I am also told to talk as much as possible with them but it is hard to divide time evenly between everyone.

[…] *Last, but not least, I love compliments. A little girl that I teach told me that I would be a great teacher and she would love to go to school where I would teach. That was very motivating!*

The areas of difficulty highlighted in the narratives relate to establishing an appropriate and cooperative rapport in the classroom and difficulties in monitoring one's own behaviour, which seems to have been mostly dominated by emotions experienced at the moment of challenge:

This is my weak point: how to deal with individuals. […]. *What I also think is very difficult for me it to control my emotions. At first I wanted to scream at children and sometimes I did. Then instead of screaming I started being rude and ironic. They couldn't recognize irony. Right now, I am laughing and using humour to help myself in stressful situations.*

[…] *I get easily de-motivated by the fact that my students do not learn or forget to do homework.*

I do not like teaching. I find it boring and monotonous. […]. *Although I worked for three to four hours a day, I felt exhausted. Moreover, I did not like the children. They were very annoying and noisy*. […] *I am afraid of responsibility.*

The trainees observed that their initial classroom concerns underwent a shift from those of teacher-centred instruction and classroom presence to a more learner-centred approach:

At the very beginning of my teaching career I was preoccupied with myself since I kept in mind that I was going to be assessed. […] *I believe that I will become a sensitive and sensible teacher who puts their students' needs in the centre of teaching.*

All these quoted reflective comments present the subjects as a group of pre-service teachers with the ability to reflect upon themselves in a critical, but not necessarily discouraging light, and therefore painting an optimistic picture of the group. They see themselves as motivated to teach and motivated to develop their professional competence:

Teaching young learners, who are almost always enthusiastic and energetic is like recharging one's batteries.

I believe that my linguistic competence, flexibility, spontaneity and my willingness to reflect upon what happens around me each day will enhance the quality of my teaching.

[…] *I derive great pleasure from teaching very young learners – children who go to the kindergarten.* […] *they have a great influence on me since sometimes I behave as a little child.*

I know a few teachers who are very creative and their lessons are absorbing and absolutely amazing. My dream is to be like them. [...].

The narrative texts were written during the period of diary writing and were meant to give the trainees another opportunity to reflect upon their experiences in a freer form than in their focused diary entries. It also aimed to make the students evaluate their weak and strong points, and highlight the areas to be improved. As such, their comments showed them to be informed, motivated, aware of their successes and failures, sensitive to their learners and open to change and professional development. Although their conceptions about teaching were often quite naive and ungrounded in classroom reality, on the other hand, they

> [...] enter the field of teaching with honourable intentions, such as helping children learn and making a difference in our world, so it may not be appropriate for us to strive for major changes in core principles. A more important goal may be to enrich and expand their understandings, to test and generate theories, which will, in turn, provide for more comprehensive schemata for teaching. (Gould, 2000: 98)

5.3.2 Identification of CIs and their topic focus

Topic concerns of pre-service teachers

Research investigating the profiles of teachers and their developmental stages presents fairly consistent observations and conclusions. Beijaard *et al*. (1997) in their study on the content of reflections made by their trainee teachers observed that

> The reflections described and based on the framework are mostly of a descriptive nature, that is, expressions of events and actions and recognition of alternatives. In this study, a content analysis revealed that student teachers reflected on teaching skills, personality aspects and relationships with students, the subject they taught particularly in reference to making subject matter knowledge teachable, developing an adequate attitude towards students in terms of power relations and the demonstration of interest in one another. To a lesser extent student teachers seemed to explore these events and actions, make judgements on them and explain alternatives. (p. 227; quoted in DeShon Hamlin, 2004: 168)

Similarly, in their discussion of student-teachers' development, Burn *et al.* (2003) comment that the general tendency observed in various studies highlights a well-defined pattern of pre-service teachers' teaching concerns. Initially, these concerns demonstrate focus on oneself in terms of one's affectivity and roles performed, and it is only later on that they shift their attention more towards teaching (methodology and tasks) to finally focus on the pupils themselves, learning processes and achievement. As they argue:

> The student-teachers' lesson aims become increasingly concerned with pupils' achievement; and that achievement is conceived more in terms of cognitive processes and mastery of specific skills rather than simple "coverage" of particular topics. Pupils' characteristics and their responses, particularly their level of existing or acquired knowledge, assume more significance as factors influencing the student-teachers' decisions about their aims and how to achieve them. In evaluating what has been achieved, the student-teachers pay less attention to their own role, and certainly to their own affective state, and concern themselves much more with what the pupils gained from the experience. (Burn *et al.*, 2003: 325).

Such a view is presented in Fuller's model of teacher development, seen as a three-stage process (Fuller, 1970):

1. Early phase: concerns about self (these are non-teaching concerns).
2. Middle phase (competence focus):
   - concerns about professional expectations and acceptance
   - concerns about one's own adequacy: subject-matter and class control
   - concerns about relationships with pupils.
3. Late phase (professionalism):
   - concerns about pupils' learning what is taught
   - concerns about pupils' learning what they need
   - concerns about one's own (teacher's) contributions to pupil change. (quoted in Eraut, 1994: 72)

In her overview of studies on pre-service and novice teachers as contrasted with expert teachers, Davis (2006: 283) summarises the main characteristics of both professional groups in terms of the major concerns they express in their teaching:

> [...] preservice and new teachers tend initially to place primary importance on themselves as teachers as opposed to on children as learners [...]. When they do consider learners, they may focus on student interest and motivation,

> rather than on students' learning of content […] or they may not integrate ideas about learners with ideas about learning content […] Expert teachers, to be sure, demonstrate a more complex view of teaching than do preservice teachers – they see, tend to, and analyze the connections and relationships in a classroom […].

Pigge and Marso (1997) tested Fuller's model in a longitudinal study of teaching concerns during a two-year training programme and the first five years of teaching. They conclude that: "Statistically significant developmental changes in the teachers' concerns about teaching were identified with concerns about survival as a teacher (self concerns) decreasing and concerns about the task of teaching increasing" (p. 225). It was concluded that self-concerns diminished with the gradual development of teaching expertise, growth of self-confidence and as a result teaching success. The present study lasted for one academic year and it is therefore not longitudinal. However, the intensive nature of reflective focused diary writing may be assumed to influence the shift in trainees' concerns in their identification of critical incidents.

In her study of the developmental stages of four novice ESL teachers, Tsui (2003: 265) describes them as "overwhelmed by the complex, uncertain, and multifaceted nature of teaching, and they were vulnerable to criticism and feelings of failure." More precisely, their major concerns are represented by the following areas of teacher expertise to be developed:

> […] maintaining discipline and establishing rapport with students loomed large in their perceptions of their competence as teachers. When they were being criticized by their students as being unfair or inexperienced, or when they felt they were not as well-liked by students as other teachers, they lost confidence (Tsui, 2003: 265).

Beach and Pearson (1998: 337) define pre-service teachers' concerns as "perceptions of conflicts and tensions", classified into separate categories such as *curriculum and instruction*, *interpersonal relationships*, *self-concept or role* and *contextual* and *institutionalised.* They conclude on the basis of their data that

> […] participants' references to conflicts and tensions increased in all four of these general categories throughout the preservice year and into the first year of teaching. Most noticeable were the increase in conflicts and tensions within school systems as well as an increased sense of personal isolation. Declines were noted in conflicts and tensions related to plans versus actual events, and the use of one's own curriculum versus school-mandated curriculum. (Beach & Pearson, 1998: 348).

Weber and Mitchell (1996) classify student teacher thematic concerns in their initial stages of classroom teaching as illustrative of "the emergence of a subculture of student teaching" (p. 308). The most significant dimensions of these relate to:

- "Seeing oneself as outsider. Feeling of exclusion, of not being a *real* teacher."
- "Adapting to the cultural expectations. Doing *the right thing*."
- "Confronting reality: Coping with disillusion." (Weber & Mitchell, 1996: 308)

Each of the these dimensions creates a picture of the trainee teacher as exposed to a challenge he/she has to face by finding individual strategies of coping. This challenge is an even more acute one because:

> [...] the student teacher is confronted with a dilemma – between tradition and change – because when student teachers step into the teacher's role they are confronted not only with the traditions associated with those of past teachers and those of past and present classroom lives, but with the personal desire to carve out one's territory, develop one's own style, and make a difference in the education of students. (Britzman, 1991; quoted in Weber & Mitchell, 1996: 312)

In her assessment of teachers' professional development, Tsui points out three dimensions which demonstrate differences between individuals and which are critical to their development:

> The first dimension is how the teachers relate to the act of teaching and the extent to which they integrate or dichotomize the various aspects of teacher knowledge in the teaching act. The second dimension is how they relate to their specific contexts of work, that is, the ways in which their perceptions of their work as a teacher is "situated" in the specific contexts in which they are operating (Leinhardt, 1988, Lave, 1988, Lave and Wenger, 1991), as well as the extent to which they are able to perceive and open up possibilities that do not present themselves as such in their specific contexts of work. Third is the extent to which they are able to theorize the knowledge generated by their personal practical experience as a teacher and to "practicalize" theoretical knowledge. (Tsui, 2003: 245)

The first two dimensions will be exemplified here in the analysis of the critical incidents identified by the trainee teachers at each stage of their teaching practice and analysed according to thematically classified concerns of CIs. Observations will be made on the anticipated changes of concerns expressed across time from

the *My beginnings*, *In the middle* and *Towards the end* stages of the trainees' diary writing. The way the trainees formulated the headings of their individual entries will also be presented here and interpreted as metaphors or alternative ways of conceptualising the meaningful episodes identified. The total number of analysed CI was 279.

My beginnings

In the initial stage of their school placement, the trainees identified critical incidents in the following areas:
- Classroom misbehaviour (20%).
- Language teaching methodology (15%).
- Motivating learners (10%).
- Learner performance (9%).
- Teacher attitudes and affective states (9%).
- Teacher feedback (8%).
- Being unprepared to the lesson (5%).
- Student grouping (5%).
- Mixed ability groups (4%).
- L1 use during the lesson (4%).
- Timing of the activities (4%).
- Other (atmosphere, homework) (5%).

CIs themes identified at the first stage of reflective diary writing show a fair diversity of concerns. However, as pointed out by Castejon and Martinez (2001), novices initially focus on themselves and their personal characteristics, on learners' participation and behaviour during the class and also on the affectivity of classroom interactions, at the same time paying little or no attention to their teaching purposes and their realisation during the lesson. Despite the above mentioned diversity, the major episodes identified as critical report on incidents of misbehaviour and lack of discipline during the class (20%). This misbehaviour relates either to ignoring the teacher, getting into arguments with their peers, doing off-task activities, or generally not participating in the lesson. The trainees' struggle to gain authority or to keep face becomes the major concern and guides their response to those instances of undisciplined behaviour. Although sometimes they succeed (25%), more often their actions either failed or led to an escalation of the problem causing the misbehaviour (75%).

The trainees' preoccupation with their own effectiveness as teachers makes them reflect upon language teaching methodology as learnt during their studies: the appropriacy of topics, type of instruction given and its clarity, ways of presenting new material and the didactic materials used (15%). Here

the concern is for ways of explaining new language material and the learners' ability to grasp it. Not much importance seems to be given to the stages of the lesson which relate to controlled and free practice, as if it was the presentation (mostly teacher-dominated) that constitutes the key element in learner success. This suggests that the trainees focus once again on themselves and their determining role in the classroom. Also, motivating learners (10%), which is seen by the novices as the most successful aspect of their classroom performance (an 80% success rate), can be treated as teachers satisfying their own desire to involve learners in the activities, and registering their own interest, enjoyment and fun as the main goal, irrespective of the learning outcomes observed. Only 9% of the incidents identified report on learner performance in class.

The emotional states, stress and anxiety experienced by teachers are demonstrated in 9% of the CIs and they are commented on as resulting from being observed (by the supervisor or mentor or the learners themselves), failing to follow the lesson plan (timing problems) and learning misbehaviour of the learners. Occasionally, it results from not being sure about the type of feedback to give (forms of punishment and correction, for example) or being unprepared for the lesson and improvising on the spot (5%).

These different areas of concern clearly reflect the stage reached in the trainees' teaching career as delineated by Bartell (2005), focusing on learning the theoretical basis for teaching, non-contextualised knowledge and novices'/trainees' perceptions of the importance of teaching practice. In the course of their studies and training, the latter often stick rigidly to these beliefs and rarely adapt to their here-and-now contexts. In this study, at the initial stage (*My beginnings*), it should be noted that the second major concern identified in CIs had to do with the technicalities of teaching, that is, methods and techniques of teaching and the materials used in class.

Trainees' comments on their classroom experiences are affectively marked. This affectivity is seen in their emphasis on motivating and involving their learners in what is offered to them, as a form of response to anxieties about the teacher as an expert but also as a person either accepted or rejected or (worse still) ignored by them. This level of affectivity is often disregarded by mentors and supervisors of trainee teachers:

> It could be argued that educators sometimes misunderstand emotionality because so much about the school structures, timetables and generally daily operations leaves little time, space and encouragement for successful emotional understanding. (Hastings, 2004: 144)

In the middle

In the second stage of their school placement, the trainees continued their focused diary writing and the major concerns of the incidents diagnosed as critical fall into the following thematic categories:

1. Teaching methodology (33%).
2. Classroom misbehaviour (23%).
3. Motivating learners (17%).
4. Teacher feedback (9%).
5. Timing of the activities (8%).
6. Learner performance (5%).
7. Other (student groupings, climate, use of L1 in class) (5%).

Some of the same concerns from the first phase recur in the second (misbehaviour, methodology or language teaching methods). However the hierarchy of importance is different. At this stage, teaching methods come to the fore and become more significant (a shift from 15% to 33% of CIs). At stage 1, the number of CIs related to misbehaviour was 20%, which rises to 23%. In motivating learners, the shift is from 10% to 17% at stage 2. Also a new theme emerges, concerned with lesson timing as a separate problem area (8%).

In the case of misbehaviour incidents, there were no prescribed strategies that would ensure a successful resolution to the problems occurring. They present a challenge, which is one of the major characteristics of the content focus of CIs identified by the trainees. A challenge is seen as a difficult situation with no clearly right solution. The trainees not only describe these difficult situations but start asking questions about their origins and ways of responding to them. Brookfield (1990: 48) has this to say about them:

> These might be situations in which they were required to explore areas of knowledge that they found intimidating, times when they had to learn new skills that did not come easily to them, or occasions when they were asked to explore a worldview or interpretive frame of reference with which they did not feel comfortable. During these challenging episodes, students feel exposed and at risk.

A challenge is always associated with the risk of exposure and as such it is emotionally-loaded. And although the content of CIs at this stage relates mostly to "technicalities" of teaching, trainees' perceptions of their inadequacy in certain areas make these incidents very charged. Various face-saving strategies are employed in such cases, often not very successfully. There are times when the trainees seem to react too boldly to events, which experienced teachers would treat as familiar and take easily in their stride. Their lack of experience

and exposure to certain classroom events make them over-sensitive. However, this over-sensitivity is more conducive to asking questions and coming up with possible solutions than ignoring events that might prove to be critical. This judgement as to the criticality of a situation is often difficult to make on the spot and a certain event can be seen as critical only retrospectively. It happens that even experienced teachers are not sensitive enough at times and more often than not act out of routine. For this reason, awareness of CIs is desirable at all stages of a teacher's professional career.

Towards the end

In the last stage of self-reflection in diary entries, the trainees identified the following critical incidents areas in their classroom performance:
1. Language teaching (27%).
2. Learner performance (23%).
3. Classroom misbehaviour (17%).
4. Teacher feedback (11%).
5. Student groupings (7%).
6. Motivating learners (5%).
7. Timing of the activities (4%).
8. Code switching (L1, L3) (4%).
9. Other (lesson atmosphere, teacher emotions) (2%).

As expected, some of the thematic concerns expressed in earlier stages of reflective practice did not change. However, the distribution between the different types of CIs is more balanced than before. Language teaching methods (27%), as it had been in the second stage, seem to be most significant for the trainees, but now almost equally important is learner performance (23%). As expressed in the diary entries, the trainees are mostly concerned with the difficulties learners encounter and the ways they can be remedied. For the first time, what is observed is the shift from teacher focus to learner focus. Classroom misbehaviour still remains an important concern (17%), but it is not interpreted now as learners' bad will or laziness, but rather a manifestation of learning difficulties and perceived by the trainees as their own inadequacy in adjusting the level of their teaching from either too high (resulting in lack of comprehension) or too low (too much of a challenge) a level for the group. Motivating learners (5%) is not seen by the trainees as so critical in their classrooms as is the effectiveness of their teaching. This effectiveness is now seen as resulting from always being well-prepared for the lesson (the "being unprepared" theme pointed out in the previous stage falls away), by planning their lessons according to the characteristics of the group. Timing still remains a problem issue (4%). The trainees also observe code switching as a significant

issue related not only with the use of L1 in class but also with other foreign languages the learners are familiar with, that is, an L3 or second foreign language learnt simultaneously with English at secondary school (4%).

Shifts in concerns: a comparison

The characteristics of pre-service teachers' ways of reflecting on their performance in the classroom, as presented by Davis (2006) and also by Mok (2005), are to some extent repeated here in the critical incidents identified in the diaries. Although not a very marked shift, the predominance of discussing teaching techniques should be mentioned here. Initially, this reflection is registered in terms of the trainees' motivational strengths and less in reference to their effectiveness in a given learning context. Also a strong focus on the person of the teacher, for example his/her affective states or the first impressions a teacher makes on his/her learners, e.g. the high number of entries relating to the first lesson or first impressions identified as critical incidents is present in the data. Tsui (2004: 265) describes this period in the case of her teacher-subjects as "a period during which they negotiated their roles and self-images as teachers [...]. This is a complicated process which is painful and unsettling."

Another persisting category of significance for the trainees is that of learner misbehaviour, singled out as critical and giving strong emphasis to teachers' strategies of conflict avoidance. However, conflict is not always avoidable as the trainees themselves say: "The classroom is a battlefield." The ability to become more effective in dealing with conflict situations derives from experience and the interpersonal communication a teacher establishes with his/her learners over a period of time:

> Interpersonal communication, understood as a mutual discourse of negotiation and creation of meaning through interaction, an ability to solve interpersonal conflicts, reaching consensus, creating climate of trust and partnership [...] plays a significant role in teacher work. [...]. It is an ability to listen attentively and use appropriate communication strategies to enhance mutual dialogue and its appropriate interpretation. (Zawadzka, 2004: 86, *translation mine*)

Zawadzka (2004) sees the inability to carry out a successful dialogue and to negotiate with learners to be the major cause of the failure or success of a teacher. Pre-service teachers and novices, with all their insecurity and self-centredness, are often helpless in situations of conflict and misbehaviour. As a consequence, they tend to either withdraw and ignore, or alternatively escalate the problem by overreacting and losing control of themselves. Table 5.5 presents the different concerns of the trainees over the three stages of their school placement.

Table 5.5 Concerns at different stages of the teaching period

My beginnings	In the middle	Towards the end
Misbehaviour (20%)	language teaching methods (33%)	language teaching methods (27%)
Language teaching methods (15%)	misbehaviour (23%)	learner performance (23%)
Motivating learners (10%)	motivating learners (17%)	classroom misbehaviour (17%)
12 themes (diversity)	7 themes (more focus)	12 themes (new concerns)

To sum up, the shift in the trainees' concerns is seen as moving from misbehaviour as the major category of critical episodes and commented on as a danger to one's authority and cause of loss of face in front of the class to more focus on the effectiveness of one's teaching and students' performance and ways of facilitating it by appropriate strategies of planning and classroom management (e.g. student grouping and timing of activities). This shift, according to models of teacher development discussed earlier, constitutes a significant step towards novices' growth of awareness and competence development.

As it has been in pervious studies on teacher students' developmental stages (Calderhead, 1987), here also these stages could be categorised as the three discrete but individually-paced phases of "fitting in", "passing the test" and "exploring". This is well exemplified here in the thematic concerns of CIs identified during different stages of their school placement period. However, it has to be understood that the above developmental stages present complex characteristics and individual development prevents them from being rigid and fixed, making them interconnected and amendable (Furlong & Maynard, 1995). Furlong and Maynard (1995) present the stages of development as a five-stage process, the rate of progress between which is individually determined but which generally follows the periods of "early idealism", "personal survival", "dealing with difficulties", "hitting a plateau" and "moving on". They state that:

> We do not suggest that student teachers simply progress along the narrow linear pathway, moving from stage to stage. This is far from the case. Our research indicates that development from "novice" to "professional educator" is dependent on the interaction between individual students, their teacher education programme, and the school context in which they undertake practical experience. As a result, a student's learning is complex, erratic and in one sense unique to them as an individual. (Furlong & Maynard, 1995: 70, quoted in Arthur *et al.*, 1997: 77)

So the emphasis should fall not only on the individual characteristics of a trainee but also on the school context, training instruction and especially on mentoring practices.

5.3.3 Analysing critical incidents

Ways of reflecting

The very act of identification of critical incidents, which was assessed as most challenging by the trainees, constitutes a vital but incomplete cycle of reflective practices by a teacher. A reflective process is cyclical and follows from "presence to experience, description of experience, analysis of experience and intelligent action/experimentation" (Rodgers, 2002: 851), before starting again. The term *presence to experience* refers to the stage of awareness and noticing of a certain incident/event and in this study relates to the identification of CIs as discussed earlier (section 3.4). So the ability to see the significance of certain events occurring in a classroom constitutes an important aspect of becoming a reflective practitioner and a starting point for the development of productive reflection (analysis/action/experimentation). Davis (2006: 282–283) distinguishes between unproductive and productive reflection. She states that unproductive reflection is

> [...] mainly descriptive, without much analysis, and involves listing ideas rather than connecting them logically. [...]. Productive reflection, on the other hand, is likely to promote effective learning [...] and can be indicated by both integration and analysis and (it) involves questioning assumptions.

Unproductive reflection is very visible in the pre-service teachers' narratives. However, it should be considered as only the initial stage of a trainee's developing awareness and thus a basis for the development of productive reflection. Productive reflection integrates knowledge and analysis and at the same time demonstrates the teacher's perception of the teaching process as a complex phenomenon (Davis, 2006: 283). Being aware of what happens in the classroom and being able to make connections is a pre-requisite for analysis, in which description of "what happened" is only a starting point and the first step to formulating and answering questions and addressing issues such as

> [p]roviding reasons for decisions giving evidence for claims, generating alternatives, questioning assumptions, identifying the results of one's teaching decisions, and evaluating (rather than simply judging) one's teaching [...]. (Davis, 2006: 283)

Davis (2006) assumes that it is most important in the context of pre-service teacher training to make them aware of the significance of identifying the relations between learners and learning, and thereby promote individual approaches and learner-centred teaching.

As was discussed earlier (Chapter 2), teacher reflection has two dimensions: those of breadth and of depth (Luttenberg & Bergen, 2008), in which "the breadth of the content determines the breadth of reflection [...] breadth appears to be largely associated with the content of the reflection, while depth is largely associated with the nature of the reflection" (pp. 544–545). The breadth and depth of reflection are expressed by means of different types of comments. In analysing trainees' diary entries, Bain *et al.* (1999) regard the comments made by them as representing different levels and types of reflection:

- reporting (identification and description of the incident)
- responding (expressing one's reaction)
- relating (showing one's attitude)
- reasoning (formulating the questions, seeing connections and looking for explanations)
- reconstructing (rethinking the whole process of decision-making and its results, establishing what was learned and how it relates to future actions – CEs, critical events).

It may be assumed that these different levels of reflection will correlate with the various stages of teacher development. Such comments as reporting, responding and relating will be most frequent at the early stages of teaching experiences, whereas reasoning and reconstructing will appear as a sign of a more developed capacity for productive reflection at the later stages of teacher experience and development.

To sum up, to be productive reflective narration needs to embrace the following characteristics:

1. There has to be an appropriate balance between descriptive and interpretative comments.
2. Comments on what actually happened are grounded in theory to support their interpretation (entailing the integration of knowledge and practice).
3. There is a balance between cognitive and affective comments.
4. The comments are not too general and express the specificity of the situation and its context, as well as offering interpretation.

Examples of the trainees' diary entries and their own analysis

My beginnings

Pre-service teachers' characteristic ways of reflecting on their performance in the classroom as cited by Davis (2006) are manifested in this study in the critical

incidents identified and reflected upon in trainees' diaries. The first important characteristic of productive reflection is its analytic rather than descriptive character, but as such it seldom occurs in this form. Here the trainees' diary entries mainly describe and respond to the incidents that occur. In the separate comments on the lesson, reasoning tends to be general and not context-specific. The process of reconstructing, i.e. rethinking the whole process of decision making and its results, establishing what was learned and how it relates to future actions (as defined by Bain *et al.*, 1999) does not occur very often.

The pre-service teachers in this study tend to identify the problem areas but analyse them mostly in terms of their visible characteristics, irrespective of the specificity of the context. Also, the identification of the critical incident itself has a very general focus, e.g. motivation, use of objects or active participation in the lesson. The analyses by which the subjects interpret their CIs by referring to theoretical literature are very open-ended and not focused on the specific teaching/learning contexts described in the CIs. In their analysis, the trainees do not seem to be able to interpret and approach ideas, theories and prescribed solutions critically but rather apply them without questioning their validity in a given context. Also, the authority of the published word is taken for granted. As students use internet sources more and more often, this unquestioned trust in the written word in any public domain poses a real problem. It is crucial to establish standards of work acceptable as models or useful as theory, to be able to identify primary sources of information or when they are secondary, not to blindly reproduce, or worse receive in a mangled or over-simplified form mere versions of the original ideas. It seems that the success stories rather than the failures presented in the diary entries offer a real challenge to identify and analyse.

The following examples of entries bear out the above comments:

a. A sample entry (a success story):

"But you are pretending…"

8th November

After some time, today I had another lesson with my favourite 1c. Quite frankly, I was looking forward to it so I've prepared lots of songs and chants. I wanted to put emphasis on listening and speaking skills. The thing was I can't sing and I've never taught anyone a song. Unfortunately, yesterday I didn't think it over at home so kids could see my brain working in full swing while trying to teach them the lyrics. I managed. Maybe it wasn't the best presentation of new material ever but still I'm pretty happy with the result.

When they finally were ready to sing one of the songs, I played a CD recorder and pretended to sing with them. Of course it was Damian who said: 'But excuse me Madam, you're only pretending to sing with us…' Honestly, I was surprised to hear such a remark from the seven year old schoolboy but I didn't let it be noticed. I replied sweetly with the widest smile that indeed I was singing but quietly so that I could hear their pronunciation. I'm not sure if I convinced him or not so I decided to add an element of Total Physical Response to the song to distract their attention from Damian's observation. They were asked to stand up every time they heard particular word or to mime the actions. They reacted very positively and began to enjoy themselves even more. It is quite obvious that with few songs to act out in pairs and groups, it was not a silent lesson. But I didn't mind as long as pupils had fun and I aroused interest. I wish each lesson could be that enjoyable for learners and so highly effective.

Trainee's comments:

"To my way of thinking this was a highly successful lesson despite the fact that Damian's inappropriate statement could be regarded as a harbinger of disruptive behaviour. It appears to me that some of the reasons for his remark might have been his self-esteem and self-confidence which do not always enable him to maintain proper code of conduct between a teacher and a learner. I believe that what made a difference during the session were the elements of singing and responding in an active way to the lyrics, thus I would like to concentrate on the advantages of songs and the benefits which Total Physical Response (TPR) approach brings."

Here the opening comments are quite promising, as the trainee accurately analyses the behaviour of the "trouble student" and his characteristics, but unfortunately proceeds to a very general discussion of the uses of music and other elements in TPR methodology when working with young learners, quoting only very general comments from EFL methodology sources.

b. A sample entry (a failure)

"Like an alien"

11th October

First day in grade 1. I went into the classroom in which 16 students of group A were looking at me with curiosity. It was strange for them to see someone else than they used to see during their English lessons. Now it was my turn. I was supposed to be their new English teacher for some time. I didn't feel very comfortable as

I knew which students I was going to teach. I had attended some observation classes during which I could watch how they worked on the lessons and what their attitude towards the English language was. Now that I became the most interesting figure in the class I was scared. My hands were shaking and my voice was trembling a little. But the only thing I was focused on was not to show it to the students. I would be ruined, while the learners would regard me as a weak person that is afraid of them. Then, I would lose my authority.

One of the girls looked like a rock star – her lips were blood red, she was dressed all in black, and her hair was dyed in black, too. A friend sitting next to her looked as if she was at least bored with life and too much confident with herself.

I decided to start with introducing myself: "Hello, my name is K.P. and I am going to teach you for some time. We will be meeting on Thursdays." At the moment of saying my name I heard some whispering and felt the students' eyes turn on me. It was obvious that they were thinking whether I was "that" K.P. or not. By "that" I mean Mr. P.'s daughter (Mr. P. teaches military education in the school). From that moment, I decided to stick to my guns and not to pay much attention to their staring at me so I started with writing the topic of the lesson on the board. But I knew that the students' curiosity wasn't fulfilled.

During the lesson I tried to speak as much in English as I could. What astonished me most was that they didn't respond to my questions. I repeated them a few times or even paraphrased them but they only stared at me as if I was from another planet. "Come on, co-operate with me!" I repeated a few times. I didn't know whether they didn't understand me or just didn't want to speak. Or maybe, they simply didn't know what to say. Nevertheless, I felt confused and disconcerted.

Towards the end of the lesson I heard a question: "Przepraszam, czy pani jest córką pana profesora P.?" [Excuse me, are you professor P.'s daughter?] *Apparently, they felt uneasy with my not-yet-revealed-identity. "Yes, I am," I answered. Maria, the self-confident girl said with a conceited smile: "O, jak fajnie." I didn't know how to understand it. I only smiled back.*

Trainee's comments:

"The situation described in the first diary entry is an example of a lack of interaction between the learners and the teacher. […]. During the first lesson with grade 1b TT (teacher active, students only receptive) pattern of interaction could be observed. The teacher was very active in her participation, whereas the students were not. […]. When the teacher asked students questions, it did not bring any responses. There are several possibilities why those problems might have happened."

The trainee evaluated the incident (or rather the whole lesson) as a failure as measured by the learners' lack of responsiveness and tries to analyse possible reasons for the lack of interaction, with no focus at all on lesson activity. She says:

"Students may not have been interested in learning as a result of an extensive interest in the teacher. It was the students' first lesson with the new person [...] the students' curiosity was not fulfilled until the end of the lesson when only one person did not fear to ask it. That is why it was not easy to focus on the content of the lesson."

Also, the trainee sees it as her own fault for speaking perhaps too fast to be understood, which she justifies as being the result of her stress in a new-for-her situation:

"Students might not have understood the questions asked by the teacher. Probably because the teacher was speaking too fast – she was quite stressed because of the new situation in which she found herself."

Despite her lack of success in involving the learners in talking, the trainee sees the importance of promoting speaking in class through interaction:

"[...] they are not taught to speak freely. Teacher's task is to encourage students to speak in a foreign language because it reinforces communication between them."

The trainee's clearly specified priority in teaching speaking skills in a foreign language and the awareness of her mistakes in the process are examples of productive comments, not only relating and responding to the problem, but also to some extent interpreting it.

In the middle

The following diary entries illustrate the second stage in diary writing, i.e. the mid-period of the school placement:

a. A sample entry (a success story):

"Once upon a time..."

4th January

In order to entertain my students before Christmas I decided to prepare something interesting fort the next class. I found a lovely story about three little pigs which

I found very useful. My plan was to read it out loud to my students and than by asking some questions, on the text, check their understanding of it.

I realised that they may get bored when I will be reading the story, which is why I prepared something extra for them. I spent the whole evening to make some puppets of three little pigs, their mother and of course the big bad wolf. I also made scenery which included all the details from the story on a big paper.

While telling the story I was using all the puppets and to my surprise the whole class looked like if it was under a very strong spell. They looked like mesmerised when they were following all the puppets with their eyes opened wide. They answered all my questions with a lot of enthusiasm which is unusual behaviour for them. They were even using expressions from the story which I have not explained to them yet.

At the end of the lesson I asked them to take puppets and they were performing all the actions done by their puppets while I was reading the story again. This part of the lesson must have been the most entertaining for them because they were almost pleading with me to repeat this activity.

Trainee's comments

"The critical moment which appeared during this lesson was definitely positive. My students were involved in the lesson like never before. The most surprising moment during this lesson was that some of the children in the class were able to use expressions which I used while telling the story. They were not only quoting, they were able to use it in appropriate context which proves the idea of the Critical Period Hypothesis."

The trainee is not really able to identify a CI in this lesson and sees the whole lesson as a success on the basis of the active participation, enjoyment and effectiveness of her teaching. It is difficult to establish what was critical in this lesson, as its description is very general and does not exemplify any individual behaviours. In analysing her success the trainee makes a very general interpretative statement relating to critical period hypothesis and describing learners' characteristics. She rightly points out features of young learners' abilities, but all statements are very general, and no specific examples are given to illustrate the effectiveness of the lesson:

"This lesson was definitely an engaging experience for the whole class. Everyone was playing and learning at the same time which is probably the best way of learning for young learners."

The story-telling technique proved to be successful as a roughly-tuned input and highly engaging activity allowing the children to absorb grammar painlessly:

"The story which I told during this lesson provided in a way an intake for acquisition. The learners were able to deduce the meaning of new expressions by observing puppets and from the context of the story. [...]. During this lesson I also understood that telling stories is a great idea for teaching grammar, which is always an issue when it comes to young learners. For students who are like mine around 9 years old, grammar is an abstract notion. Asking them to learn rules or exceptions would be a huge waste of time. They may memorize a few rules but they will never put them into practice. This lesson made me realize how important is it to go beyond mechanical drilling in teaching grammar."

Although the identification of the critical incident in this entry is not very successful, the student demonstrated her ability to use quite a demanding technique like successful story-telling. Also her analysis of young learners' characteristics shows her knowledge of this age group and the background literature.

b. A sample entry (a failure)

"*Enough is enough*"

21st November

I prepared many interesting activities for this lesson, among them was painting a rainbow, storytelling, playing bingo and making a hedgehog from plasticine. My objectives were to repeat colours and consolidate new vocabulary connected with wild animals. When I started with painting I could see excitement on all my learners' faces, with the exception of Kuba, he seemed to be bored from the very beginning of the lesson. At first he interrupted me with singing a song in Polish. I wanted him to stop and tried to involve him in painting different colours but it didn't work. Kuba was very noisy and disturbed Zuzia so I asked him to sit on the other cushion. Then, he refused to play with us, so I thought that it would be better to ignore him, but he started to jump around the room and took my props. I was on the verge of shouting. What's more, Ola joined him and the rest of the children looked at them. I couldn't stand it any longer, enough was enough. I shouted at Kuba in Polish that he had to behave and sit down. I saw the reaction immediately. Last ten minutes of the lesson passed in rather calm atmosphere, I guess that they were afraid of me a little because I've never shouted at them before. But we started making a hedgehog and everyone, except Kuba, enjoyed it. Kuba was sitting under the wall with the resentful face expression.

Trainee's comments

"Shortly after that lesson I realized that it was a failure because I could not prevent Kuba's disruptive behaviour and keep the order in the classroom. It was much more difficult because the domino effect took place – when one child behaves naughtily, others start to do the same."

The trainee was able to identify the critical episode and she proposes her own reasons for it, by reconstructing her mistakes and offering alternatives:

"There were several situations where I made mistakes. Earlier, more often than not I let children talk or be noisy as I thought that by means of ignoring them, they stop behave naughtily. Unfortunately, I was wrong – when the problem appears we should nip it in the bud, otherwise things can get 'out of control.'"

She goes on to state the reasons for the misbehaviour that constituted the critical incident:

"In the first place, the reasons of the problem behaviour should be defined. They can derive from inside or outside the classroom factors. First of all, young learners can be bored quickly, like in the case of Kuba. Their concentration and attention span are short, so they need every type of variety – variety of activity, variety of voice, variety of organisation. Boredom appears also when a child finishes a given task earlier so we have to try not to loose their engagement or have prepared a time filling activity. In the case of my student, the lack of such a task made Kuba bored and he quickly lost his interest in exercises. I should have prepared some time-fillers for children who deal with the exercises earlier than others."

She also sees the learner's need to be noticed by the teacher and his peers and the role of reward as conducive to proper classroom behaviour:

"The next factor the problem of misbehaving can take place is when a student wants to attract peers' or teacher's attention, what usually works. Kuba is a student who has great ambitions and needs praising and reassuring that he is doing well. It occurs when student's self-esteem is low or they feel unfairly treated. By disrupting the teacher, children may also try to impress their classmates."

Rightly seeing disruptive behaviour (especially in the case of young learners) as a persistent classroom problem for teachers, the trainee offers ideas on how to

prevent it and react to the lack of discipline, supporting her ideas with a range of both theoretical and practical references, for example:

"Instead of behaving emotionally we can be silent for a while or change an activity for example. Scott and Ytreberg (2007) advise in their book how to change disruptive behaviour into something advantageous […]. I could turn Kuba's jumping into some physical activity, for instance. […] it is vital not to reprimand students' behaviour in the front of the class but in private, otherwise it can lower their self-esteem or worse relations between them and the teacher."

She also comes up with an evaluation of her performance in the context of the identified CI and makes suggestions for her own improvement in this area:

"I made several mistakes while dealing with my learners' disruptive behaviour such as delayed reaction to Kuba's interruption, shouting at the student or impossibility to keep Kuba's attention and interest. I have to learn immediate and proper reaction to their disturbance. I need to know how to 'read' the class and how to adapt activities to their moods, weather, etc. Of course they are just children, therefore they will always act lively, energetic and noisy but an important skill is to convert their energy into learning."

Towards the end

The following entries and the trainees' comments come from the final stage of diary writing near completion of their school placement period.

a. A sample entry (a success story):

"Would you be my Valentine?"

14th of February

The red, big hearts, the colourful corridors, and a lot of candies were spreading across the school. It was a Valentine's day. Who would have thought that a seven year old child might celebrate that festival? I decided to change my planning lesson on the spur of that moment. The children were going to write a Valentine's card. We started with a short exercise in order to practise children's short term visual memory. I wrote a simple sentence on the blackboard: 'Would you be my Valentine?' The students had a few second to look at it, then I rubbed it out, and observed whether the children could write it down.

I wrote the sentence again and asked the children to describe that holiday. The majority of the group expressed their outrage over the opposite sex: "Fuuuuuj baby." "And now you're going to write a card to these 'baby'" – with a smile on my face

I announced the next activity. I decided to be an addressee seeing that there were only four girls. I presented a simple guidance on how the cards should look like. The pupils were working very hard, though it was the first writing exercise for a grade. I collected the card and checked them at home. Even though there were a lot of mistakes I didn't give the low marks in order not to discourage them from writing. Everyone received a plus. There was no denying that students' cards brought me enormous pleasure.

Trainee's comments

"The critical incident was the boys' attitude towards the girls. Fontana (1995) explains that the discrimination against women starts from the birth and continues through the childhood. The girls have less freedom than the boys. They are constantly observed while the boys are allowed to be more independent. The research shows that the girls are encouraged in domestic matters. The boys are expected to be the men and not to express themselves. This mould has a harmful effect on a personal development, and what is more on a physical health."

The trainee identifies the problem in the lesson but misinterprets it as illustrating discrimination against girls, supporting her view by relating it to Fontana's comment, whereas the boys' behaviour in class is an obvious developmental feature in this age group (9 years old). The student fails to contextualise the children's behaviour in relation to their age group.

Although the teacher did not succeed in following her lesson plan in respect of learners' interaction, she considered it a success as the teaching objective was reached:

"My reaction was spontaneous, even though it brought a satisfying result. The boys realised that the activity could not be ignored and they had to accept the set rules. That remark would not change the boys' attitudes towards the girls, though the children have to be aware that the cooperation between sexes is unavoidable, and what is more they have to reject their bias against the opposite sex."

b. A sample entry (a failure)

"Lacking good manners"

23rd November

I left home later than usual as I overslept. I even forgot that I was supposed to have lessons today. When I got up I thought that it was just another day devoted to my

studies. But when I realized I was wrong I was already late. Now, I was in a hurry and I got scared that I wouldn't be on time.

Almost running I fell into the classroom in which all the students were already waiting for me. I was ashamed of the situation when the teacher who is supposed to set a good example is no longer doing it because she behaves just like the other students – recklessly. I always say that being punctual is a sign of showing respect to the others and now I felt ashamed by the way I have treated my students.

All the students were staring at me while I was taking off my jacket. I wanted to do it as quickly as possible as the students were getting more and more impatient. I felt the students' eyes on me. I tried to pay no heed to them so I proceeded to checking the attendance and writing the topic on the board. But after about three minutes two students went into the classroom saying: "Dzień dobry, przepraszamy za spóźnienie!" [Good morning, I am sorry for being late!] *and giving me some sheets of paper on which the exact route of the school bus was written together with the time when it had finished today having a few minutes delay. "I'll fall it into oblivion," I thought and decided not to comment the whole situation. "After all, I was also late." But it wasn't the end. A few more minutes of the lesson passed when another two students came late for the classes giving me the same sheets of paper. When the students said: "Dzień dobry," I replied: "Don't worry, you're excused as I was also late today." I felt I was doing something wrong not reprimanding the students for not even trying to excuse themselves. I was surprised that the students didn't even apologize for being late. What a lack of good manners! But who was lacking them, actually?*

Trainee's comments

"The critical incident described in the diary entry is an example of showing no respect for the students by coming late for the classes. Punctuality gains respect in almost any place but it is essential in the workplace. Being on time says a lot about a teacher and how she feels about the students. Punctuality is seen as an indication of real commitment to the program and to teaching. Hence, lack of punctuality reflects negatively on the students who are expected to attend classes regularly and to be punctual."

The trainee diagnosed her own being late as critical not just because of unprofessionalism, loss of lesson time, etc., but because she would have no right to respond censoriously to those learners who subsequently also came late:

"Not excusing myself for being late made the students confused about the situation. […] I did not say anything while coming into the classroom. What is more I excused the two other students who were also late. By not giving

them the chance to explain themselves. I permitted them to feel excused from apologizing. I should have reacted differently."

Despite realising what was wrong, the trainee still excuses herself by saying:

"I was so stressed that the only thing I was thinking about was to start the lesson as soon as possible and not to let them know that something was wrong."

The trainee then expressed her firm attitude about being punctual and the role of keeping to time in building a teacher's authority, as a sign of respect for the learners and a marker of her own professionalism:

"A teacher shows her commitment to work and respect for the students and teaches them punctuality provided that she herself is never late."

The identification and analysis of this critical incident are done with solid awareness of the context and the possible consequences it may have for classroom discipline, class rapport with the teacher and his/her authority and the model of behaviour she wants to see emulated:

"The role of a teacher is not only to teach their students but also to act as a role model and to guide them in life. Teachers should set good examples as they should be an authority. That is the reason why teachers should never come late for classes. If it happens, they should not pretend that nothing has happened but tell the students why they are late and apologize in order to show that it can also happen to their teacher."

A comment on trainees' ways of reflecting across the three stages

This project on the development of reflectivity turned out to be a success. It would be naive to think that very striking differences in pre-service teachers' reflective development could be observed in a single year of training. However, in both objectives of diary writing, the thematic concerns of CIs and ways of identifying and analysing them, there are signs of developmental change from descriptive to productive comments and from general to more specific reflection.

The examples of diary entries and trainees' comments on them already presented demonstrate first of all a growing awareness of their classroom presence. They show beliefs about teaching brought to the classroom as being tested in "here and now" contexts. Learnt-knowledge and theories acquired are questioned and sometimes rejected, but with time adapted to specific

experienced contexts, they become "situated knowledge". The initial reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action becomes reflection-for-action.

This shift from reflection-on-action to reflection-for-action reveals itself in the types of comments and their quality. To use Bain *et al.*'s (1999) classification of teachers' comments, it can be observed that the descriptive comments of reporting focusing on the identification and description of CIs that prevailed at the early stages (*My beginnings*) remain throughout the diary writing. Initially, they are complemented by a strong focus on responding (describing one's reaction to the incident) and relating (showing one's attitude, mostly the emotions involved). However, with time, the trainees' reasoning – formulating specific contextualised questions, seeing connections between different aspects of the incident described and looking for explanations – begins to take precedence. Also, instances of reconstructing comments occasionally surface in the analysis. They consist of rethinking CIs and the process of decision making in responding to then, evaluating their results, establishing what was learned and how it relates to future actions.

The trainees seem to be more capable of productive reflection and not just of description, in the case of CIs that were evaluated by them as failures. The failures are well identified and brought into focus, both in their narration and analysis and interpretation (reconstruction). They make the trainees realise that there is a problem that needs either reformulation or different measures employed to turn it into an effective classroom procedure/event. It then results in the trainees' expressed need both for more theoretical knowledge and more practice in the classroom. So failures are not treated as an ultimate disaster but they usually trigger more thinking, more reflecting, more analysis, and in consequence become conducive to learning.

On the other hand, the success stories are usually described in very general terms, as are their analysis and references to sources made by the trainees. The trainees express their satisfaction at being successful, which has the effect of not stimulating them to develop and look for better and perhaps more innovative ideas for their classroom practices. As one of the students said, her success as a teacher made her "rest on her laurels."

The change in type and quality of comments observed in the diary entries is also related to the shift in CI concerns. As described earlier, CIs were first very much focused on the person of the teacher (the trainee himself/herself) and thus affectivity played the major role in the descriptions, analysis and reflections presented, where responding and relating comments were most prominent. The later CIs identified dealt more specifically with didactic concerns, such as learner performance as expression of the trainee's effectiveness, and as such they required and received more precise and knowledge-grounded cognitive analysis of the event.

5.3.4 *Self-evaluation: successes and failures*

My beginnings

A student-teacher performance assessment and evaluation only occasionally manages to pinpoint his/her strong and weak points. In general, performance is reflected upon as success and failure, in the form of comments which are judgmental rather than evaluative in nature.

The critical incidents identified at the initial stages of school placements demonstrate that many more failures were isolated and evaluated: 58% versus 40% successes (2% were undecided). However, failure was not perceived as negative; it was seen as temporary and a learning experience in as many as 70% of cases. These results coincide with the results of another study on CIs, in which the trainees saw failures as most conducive to their professional development (Lindseth & Smyth, 2003). Moreover, the trainees in my study see both success and failure as ultimately transitional, and therefore significant for professional development.

At this stage the analyses were carried not only descriptive, that is focusing on what actually happened in a given class, but also purely judgmental (a positive versus negative outcome of the incident). Evaluative comments were largely absent from the analyses, for example variables contributing to the occurrence and outcome of the incidents were hardly ever identified and discussed.

The quantitative analysis of the success versus failure rate shows that in the case of different types of critical incidents, this rate evolved. The order of concerns is presented from the most to the least frequently identified by the trainees during the first stage of their teaching practice (Table 5.6).

The most successful area the trainees identified relates to learner performance (90%), which despite the constant need for correction makes the students proud of being able to transfer their knowledge and motivate the class to actively participate in the lesson (80%). On the other hand, the incorrectness of learner performance and the inability to successfully approach individual learners at different language levels makes the mixed ability of a learning group one of the major barriers for the trainees (100% failure). It often leads them for example to use L1 in class which they assess as failure (65%). Also the tension between trying to develop one's authority and avoiding and preventing conflict with the learners and between the learners (sometimes at all costs) makes misbehaviour difficult to deal with and results in an inappropriate response to it (75%). They seem to be able to evaluate their own performance and level of preparation before the class. They honestly confess their lack of preparation for the lessons and the failure that results from it (75%).

Table 5.6 Success vs failure rate (%) in different areas of CI concerns (stage 1)

Content focus of critical incidents	Success	Failure	Undecided
Classroom misbehaviour (20)	20	75	5
Language teaching (15)	40	50	10
Motivating learners (10)	80	20	–
Learner performance (9)	90	5	5
Teacher attitude and affective states (9)	40	60	–
Teacher feedback (8)	45	55	–
Being unprepared for the lesson (5)	25	75	–
Student grouping (5)	35	65	–
Mixed ability groups (4)	–	100	–
L1 use during the lesson (4)	35	65	–
Timing of the activities (4)	50	50	–
Other (class atmosphere, homework) (5)	50	50	–
Total of critical incidents (N=93)	40	58	2

One of the examples of teaching experience evaluated by a trainee as a success exemplifies the trainee's need to establish a good rapport with her learners by a form of corrective feedback she uses to reinforce positivity in class and establish a positive perception of herself:

"Very good!"

Diary entry 1, 10th October

From the very beginning my children were excited and I could hear that they'd listened to the CD. So I praised them remembering how important the positive reinforcement is and what I've been taught on a teacher training. Kuba said: "I am Kuba" and my response was "Very good!". We did seven actions and after each of them I shouted "Very good!" several times. Flashcards with animals – my reaction was the same. "Up and Down Song", counting to ten, "Elephant Song", Animal Memory Game? "Very good!" and sometimes even "Excellent!" or "Great!". My gestures and smiles also encouraged them to cooperate with me. I did it automatically. Repeating two words in every two minutes of the lesson might seem strange and boring but I could see that it really works. Children were more willing to answer my questions and repeat words. Even Zuzia wasn't so shy as usual. When they said something wrong I corrected them without saying "no" or "wrong". The second lesson was very satisfying. Our relations brought better and better so I truly liked them. And I've become a walking "Very good!" exclamation.

Another example of a critical incident identified in one of the trainees' diaries as a failure shows the trainee's inability to cope with an over-ebullient student. The failure is seen in not being able to control the emotions that the class incident aroused and the trainee's losing control over herself.

"*Kasia, be quiet, please!*"

Diary entry 3, 30th November

After my first lesson I was sure that it was a mistake to accept the proposal to teach in this group. At the very beginning my students' attitude towards me really scared me. They simply didn't want to cooperate with me. But now to my great satisfaction their attitude to me is quite different. They are eager to take part in my lessons and the atmosphere is very friendly.

This group is very small because it consists of seven students. They are well-mannered and polite except one girl. So far I have noticed that Kasia has some serious problems with concentration. For instance, I introduced some new material today. While I was explaining the idea of using conditionals, Kasia was constantly asking me questions about the topic even if I mentioned everything a minute ago. Paradoxically, I was able to find the answer for her questions in her notebook. Moreover, she was talking to her boyfriend all the time. She was disturbing me and other students. What is more, I have noticed that some students were quiet during my lesson because Kasia was the one who dominated. There was no point in asking her to calm down and to be quiet, since she answered that she is very sorry but she likes to talk so much that she is not able to prevent herself from doing it. I really like this girl because she likes to take a risk and she is really funny from time to time, yet her behaviour was unacceptable today.

At the end of the lesson I was so fed up that I wasn't able to control my nerves any longer. I started shouting at her, because she was driving me mad. As a result of my outburst, she took offence and she was quiet till the lesson ended.

The headings used for each critical incident can be viewed as a way the individual trainees found to encapsulate each particular experience. Table 5.7 presents selected examples of diary entry headings and a comment on them.

The way the trainees labelled their critical incidents demonstrates their perceptions of the lesson, their position in it and the way they deal with learners both as groups and as individuals. A lesson is a battlefield in which the teacher sees himself/herself as being on the other side of the barricade. Initially a teacher is a lone fighter, but also a negotiator and initiator of the rules of engagement. This code of conduct can lead to a truce, to be substituted later on with a good rapport and mutual participation in a common task, that is, teaching and learning seen as one integrated process.

Table 5.7 Labeling CIs by headings (stage 1)

Theme of CIs	Titles	Comment
1	2	3
Classroom misbehaviour	*"A gang of fidgets"* *"Restless creatures"* *"Monsters were shocked"* *"My first trophies"* *"Like an Alien"* *"Ghosts from the past"* *"A nightmare"* *"Highway to hell"* *"Am I invisible?"*	classroom seen as a place of fight and conflict, alienation of the teacher
Language teaching methods	*"What does it mean?"* *"Begging for mercy"* *"The all-mighty past tenses"* *"Once again!"* *"Flash start"* *"Stories are fun"*	the need to negotiate the lesson in terms of content, materials and requirements (testing), focus on the entertainment side of a learning task
Motivating learners	*"When will we have such a lesson again?"* *"Mission accomplished"* *"Good start!"* *"Finding similar interests"* *"Overcoming apathy"*	teaching seen as a mission to fulfill by negotiating with the learners the common ground (interest), being enthusiastic to evoke the learners' enthusiasm
Learner performance	*"The idea of onomatopoeia"* *"Establishing the principles"* *"Culture shock"* *"Clogged ears"* *"Surprise! Surprise!"* *"What do you think about sexual harassment?"*	the focus on the appropriacy of topics discussed and establishing code of conduct as effecting learners' learning behaviour during the class
Teacher attitudes and affective states	*"Kasia, be quiet please!"* *"I can't imagine you angry"* *"Very good!"* *"Checking the borders"* *"In pursuit"* *"Be more flexible"*	seeing oneself as being tested by the learners, developing one's persona to be recognised by the learners
Teacher feedback	*"First squabble"* *"First impressions proved wrong"* *"Totally confused"* *"But you're pretending!"* *"Need for clarity"* *"Me! Me! Me!"*	feedback in the context of unexpected incidents, the need to develop one's sensitivity towards individual learners (especially if they are different), do not judge with no real evidence

1	2	3
Being unprepared for the lesson	*"Too good to plan"* *"What should I do!?"* *"Great Improvisation!"*	awareness that being confident in one's performance can only result from being prepared
Student groupings	*"I don't want to work with her!"* *"Adjusting to new circumstances"*	a complexity of composing groups (variety of factors, also personal knowledge about the learners)
Mixed ability groups	*"What should I do?"* *"What does the word 'they' mean?"* *"Involve me and I learn!"*	surprise at the difficulty of working with a group because of its multilevel characteristics
L1 use during the lesson	*"Speak English please!"* *"Try to speak the same language"*	difficulty of establishing *lingua franca* of the lesson, the teacher's attempts to use L2 contrary to the learners' favouring L1
Timing of the activities	*"Already finished?"* *"Six minutes left"* *"Hurry up!"*	sticking to the lesson plan, irrespective of its effectiveness, more often resulting in time left over than not finishing the lesson as planned
Other (homework, class atmosphere)	*"Vocabulary problems"* *"Where is your homework?"* *"My notebook is lost!"*	dealing with learners' lack of homework (e.g. "How to react to obvious lies?")

In the middle

In the second period of diary writing, there is a slight change in the distribution between success and failure. Unlike during the first stage, success stories now outnumber those assessed as failures: 54% versus 42% respectively.

Table 5.8 Success vs failure rate (%) in different areas of CIs concerns (stage 2)

Content focus of critical incidents	Success	Failure	Undecided
Language teaching (33)	60	29	11
Classroom misbehaviour (23)	20	80	–
Motivating learners (17)	99	–	1
Teacher feedback (9)	95	5	–
Timing of the activities (8)	17	83	–
Learner performance (5)	85	15	–
Other (very diversified: student grouping, L1 use, class atmosphere) (5)	100	–	–
Total of critical incidents (N=93)	54	42	4

The most successful areas seem to be CIs focusing on motivating learners (99%) and teacher feedback, however, these two categories are not the most commonly identified as critical (only 17% and 9% respectively). Of the most frequent thematic concerns, it is language teaching (33%) that was evaluated as successful in 60% of cases, which has to be seen as evidence of the trainees' growing focus on the effectiveness of teaching.

CIs seen as failures appear in the area of timing (83%), however this is once again not a very frequent concern (8%), whereas misbehaviour (one of the most frequent concerns at this stage (23%)) received an 80% failure rate. This can be read as a sign of the trainees' struggle with classroom management issues in establishing effective rapport and interaction in class. This means that they are still not in full control of the group as a whole and even more often, as exemplified in the entries, not in control of individual learners: dominating, overactive, withdrawn, lazy and bored pupils who manifest their attitude to the teacher and the class by different forms of disruptive behaviour.

The following is an example of a successful critical incident, which describes the motivating role of didactic aids used in a FL class (a computer-based lesson), and an individual learner's genuine involvement in the lesson, which allowed the teacher to maintain discipline within the whole group.

"Be quiet! I want to watch more!"

Diary entry 6

26th November

Before the pupils entered the classroom I asked them not to touch anything while sitting at the computers. But of course some boys couldn't refrain from running the Internet Explorer. When everyone was finally silent and sat still I began my lesson.

First I checked what the pupils already knew about United Kingdom. As soon as I asked the question, the children raised their hands immediately and eagerly shared information about this country. I asked the class to play the presentation on and announced that there would be a quiz at the end of the lesson. On hearing the word 'quiz' some pupils expressed their enthusiasm.

I started the presentation. Apart from the colourful pictures the pupils were also asked to read information included in the boxes. After every two slides I asked some questions in order to consolidate information that the pupils have just learnt. The class generally listened to me. The boys watched the photos and read the captions with interest. Since information under the photographs was limited, the children asked many questions. I remember the silence and the pupils' eyes fixed on me when I was talking about London Eye or punting in Cambridge.

Unfortunately it wasn't quiet all the time. Some of the boys were looking at the next slides of the presentation. Most of them were doing it just for fun. As a result I had to reprimand the pupils a few times. However, it wasn't only me who was admonishing the boys. Suddenly, Patrick reprimanded his friends and asked them to calm down. I was positively surprised since Patrick is very shy and calm during my classes and I didn't think that he would be able to do that. 'Be quiet! I want to watch more', he said. Despite those noisy moments the pupils listened to me carefully. Due to additional information about the presented pictures I was running out of time. Since I promised to organize a quiz I had to shorten my presentation. I distributed the handouts with the questions and gave some time to pupils to do it even if it meant to stay few minutes longer during the break.

An example of the following failure incident involves the trainee's inability to control her emotions in a situation where she decides to threaten the class with a penalty test to take place after regular school time as punishment for their off-task hyperactivity during the lesson. This uncontrolled reaction was triggered by an unexpected outburst from an individual learner in reaction to what was felt by him to be an injustice.

"I see you're in the mood for some extra homework!"

21st February 2008

Diary entry 5

I think this lesson is an example of WHAT NOT TO DO. The students were somewhat hyperactive that day and I can't lie about the fact that this was really getting on my nerves. I used many ways of trying to quieten them down. I threatened them that I would make them write a penalty test. I even told them that I would keep them in longer. When I said this, one of the students stood up and said "you can't do that".

I could feel the blood bubbling in my veins. I simply lost my temper. I raised my voice and replied: "I see you're in the mood for some extra homework!" I can only imagine how much more that particular student disliked me for my answer. I completely lost my temper and let my emotions control me. I knew that I chose the worst of the various ways I could use in order to calm them down. There are good days and there are bad ones, I guess…

Just as during the first stage, the trainees' way of labeling their diary entries shows their teaching contexts, their classroom as a place of struggle and constant anxiety and stress- evoking situations, e.g. *Wrong way* or *Under stress*. At the same time, a higher level of positivity is explicitly expressed here in terms

of the palpable effects of teaching, e.g. *Finally we are getting somewhere* and of enjoying teaching (the trainee) and learning (the class), e.g. *Let's have fun* or *Flying to England*.

Table 5.9 Labeling CIs by headings (stage 2)

Thematic focus	Titles	Comment
Language teaching methods	*"Wrong way"* *"Under stress"* *"Project work to reduce stress of grading"* *"Innovation without preparation"* *"All the world's a stage"* *"How should I teach vocabulary?"*	teacher stress and learners' stress and dealing with it in classroom performance
Classroom misbehaviour	*"I see you are in the mood for some extra homework"* *"Fight in the classroom"* *"In exile"* *"Coming back to reality"* *"Wrong number"*	negativity in dealing with classroom lack of discipline, classroom as a battlefield, a withdrawn teacher
Motivating learners	*"Let's have fun"* *"Teddy's birthday"* *"How Grinch stole Christmas"* *"Change"* *"Puppet show"* *"Winners and losers"*	lesson seen as a playground (task, materials, realia), competitive spirit
Teacher feedback	*"Like an exam"* *"Silence is golden"* *"To see or not to see, that is the question"* *"A little chat"*	behaviour during the tests, teachers' awareness of dishonesty and reaction to it
Timing of the activities	*"Judgement Day"* *"Is there enough time for the next exercise?"* *"Tick-tock"* *"No time to kill"* *"When a plan collapses"*	overrunning, lesson plan too crammed
Learner performance	*"The last lesson before Christmas"* *"Something different"* *"At a loss for words"* *"Finally we are getting somewhere!"*	noticing barriers in learners' (speaking) performance relating to the external factors (before Christmas) and language (lexical) deficiencies.
Other (student groupings, climate, L1 use)	*"Flying to England (L2 use)"* *"Rough"* *"Odd man out"*	classroom language: recreating a genuine context of L2 use

Towards the end

During the last stage of diary writing and the final period at their schools, the students seem to be slightly more confident in their abilities to perform successfully in their classes, as the success rate is higher than previously. Although the change is only slight, from 54% at stage 2 to 55% in the last stage, it is in the right direction. Also, failure is lower than previously (40%), just as growth is also observable in the number of cases that the trainees are not able to categorise unequivocally (5%).

Table 5.10 Success vs failure rate (%) in different areas of CIs concerns (stage 3)

Content focus of critical incidents	Success	Failure	Undecided
Language teaching (27)	70	28	2
Learner performance (23)	65	25	10
Classroom misbehaviour (17)	33	66	1
Teacher feedback (11)	50	50	–
Student groupings (7)	14	72	14
Motivating learners (5)	100	–	–
Timing (4%)	90	10	–
Code switching (L1, L3) (4)	90	10	–
Other (class atmosphere, teacher emotions) (2)	50	50	–
Total of critical incidents (N = 93)	55	40	5

The most successful CIs are to be found in the least frequent categories of themes, i.e. motivating learners (5% of all entries) was assessed as 100% successful, which also occurred in the case of timing (4% of all CIs identified), where 90% of incidents were positively evaluated. However, the most frequent concerns also received high scores, e.g. language teaching – a 70% success rate and learner performance – 65% success. Similar results and increasing confidence in the area of teaching effectiveness (language teaching and learner performance) may be evidence of the trainees' growing competence in their classroom performance. At the same time, misbehaviour remains the most problematic area. Here, the failure rate is the highest – 66%.

An example of success quoted here from one of the diaries may initially seem to be a failure: no homework delivered by one of the pupils and his daring remark directed in protest at the trainee. However, the trainee assessed this incident as her success, as she managed to control her emotions and reacted calmly by trying to establish a new set of rules concerning homework assignments.

"Let's get one thing straight!"

20.02.2008

Diary entry 7

It was a lovely, sunny day and I was in quite a good mood. I had to take over another teacher's class, so I was a little nervous. It's always a bit hard when you get a completely new class to teach. I started by checking their homework, as their last teacher instructed me to do.

It was going smoothly until one student said carelessly that he didn't do his homework. I replied that in that case, he should do it at home and bring it in for the next lesson. He made a look that seemed to say "what are you crazy?", after which he said "but our teacher doesn't make us do that". I was pushed lightly off track because I couldn't really believe that the student actually said such a thing. I tried to respond as calmly as I could. I told the student that I'm in charge now and the rules won't be quite the same as they were up until this moment. I then decided to dedicate our first lesson to constructing and negotiating these rules, so that nobody would feel unfairly treated in the future.

One of the numerous entries reporting a negative CI was caused by learner misbehaviour and their ignoring of the teacher's reprimanding remarks. The trainee could not think of any other measures to stop the off-task talking, although it was not the first instance of this type of misbehaviour from the same students. She decided to implement a homework assignment as punishment, which cannot be evaluated as the right strategy and may result in creating in the learners the perception that the function of homework tasks is to punish.

"(De)Motivating Punishment"

7th December

In the previous lesson Maria and Justyna were talking, laughing and whispering to each other almost the whole lesson. I tried to call their attention to what was happening during the lesson but it all was to no avail. I decided that if it happened next time, I would do something about that so that they would be discouraged from talking during lessons for the rest of their lives. So, when it happened again I said firmly: "If you continue talking, you'll be given additional homework that will be marked!" The girls looked at me, apologized but after a few minutes I saw them talking again. I couldn't bear it no longer and I turned to the girls: "As you keep talking and disturbing me and the other students, you'll have to write an essay about how to prevent the environmental problems of our planet for the next lesson.

The essay should be no longer than 120–150 words." Maria and Justyna made it clear that they were dissatisfied with my decision.

Although misbehaviour is still the major category for CIs identified at stage 3, the entries' headings reflect the topic more positively, something also expressed in the highest success level so far. This positivity is evident in *Welcome to our world* or *New discoveries*, for example, in which cases the trainee's creativity and novel approach introduced during the lesson allowed them overcome problems and the students' negative attitudes. However, novelty did not always work; sometimes it brought about additional problem behaviour, as in *Terrible desks* and *Cafeteria-like atmosphere*. Positivity is also reflected in the negotiation processes the trainees mention, for example in *Let's get one thing straight* or *Troublemaker* and in their emphasis on positive reinforcement and its motivating force, e.g. *Puppet is magic and reward is power*.

Table 5.11 Labeling CIs by headings (stage 3)

Thematic focus	Titles	Comment
1	2	3
Language teaching	*"It's very simple, actually"* *"A boring activity"* *"An English-English lesson"* *"TH sound can be funny"* *"Grammar drama"*	a variety of language concerns and motivating aspects of language activities
Learner performance	*"Reading rage"* *"Three, free, tree"* *"A real thing"* *"The hedgehog looks different!"* *"Welcome to our magic world"* *"New discoveries"*	learners' revolt against the tasks and the effectiveness of novelty
Classroom misbehaviour	*"Troublemaker"* *"Let's get one thing straight"* *"Monsters, Inc."* *"Cast away"* *"My dog took my workbook"*	the ongoing process of negotiation of classroom behaviour
Teacher feedback	*"The unknown word"* *"Please speak English!"* *"Simon says touch your nose!"* *"Not the same again!"* *"Go on…"*	encouraging use of English
Student groupings	*"Terrible desks"* *"Cafeteria-like atmosphere"* *"Unsuccessful cooperation"* *"A matter of life or death"*	difficulties in using different student groupings to enhance learning and not classroom misbehaviour

1	2	3
Motivating learners	*"Puppet is magic and reward is power"* *"Once upon a time…"* *"Let's have some fun"*	entertainment and positive reinforcement as motivating factors
Timing of the activities	*"Karol, have you finished?"* *"The best game over"*	unfilled lesson time
Code-switching (L1, L3)	*"Let's pretend we are doing this exercise"* *"Not only English is fun"* *"What does it mean?"*	the learners' insistence on using L1
Other (lesson atmosphere, teacher emotions)	*"The unexpected news"* *"A stressful visit"*	the unplanned and the unexpected and its stressful effects on attitude to the lesson

Success vs failure rate at different stages: a comparison

In general, the perception of a growing success rate (from 40% to 53%) and decreased levels of perceived failure (from 58% to 44%) are expressed in the trainees' evaluation of their one-year teaching practice achievements.

Table 5.12 Success vs failure rates (%)

Stage	Success	Failure	Undecided
My beginnings	40	58	2
In the middle	65	34	1
Towards the end	55	40	5
Total (279 critical incidents)	53	44	3

Despite the trainees' growing perception of success with passing time, the following data show that certain tendencies can be observed in the fluctuation of success rate versus failure rate in the case of the most frequently identified individual concerns of critical incidents described in the diary entries. Table 5.13 describes these different proportions of success versus failure in individual thematic concerns of CIs.

A rising success rate, according to the trainees' evaluations, can be observed in language teaching itself, which means that classroom practice allowed these novices to initially try out and test certain theoretically learnt methods of teaching, and later on to be able to use them more effectively in their own context-situated teaching. At the same time, perceived failure in the areas which relate more to teaching experience such as classroom misbehaviour (classroom interaction and teacher-learner rapport and teacher authority) seems to prevail

Table 5.13 Success (S) vs failure (F) of the major concerns across the three stages (%)

Topic concern	Stage 1		Stage 2		Stage 3		Comment
	S	F	S	F	S	F	
Classroom misbehaviour	20	75	20	80	33	66	a higher failure than success rate, with a tendency to get better at the last stage
Language teaching methodology	40	50	60	29	70	28	a higher success than failure rate, with a growing tendency at later stages
Learner performance	90	5	85	15	65	25	a high success rate at the beginning, with a visible tendency to fluctuate and to go down later
Motivating learners	80	20	98	0	100	0	a growing success rate
Teacher feedback	45	55	95	5	50	50	unstable/fluctuating

over perceptions of success. The same can also be said about learner performance, where the trainees' initial enthusiasm for their effectiveness in terms of learner performance (90% success rate in stage 1) changes into a more aware, less lenient and more demanding attitude towards learners' achievements. This can be interpreted as a consequence of their effectiveness in terms of classroom performance (a 65% success rate at stage 3). These perceptions of successes and failures, like shifts in teaching concerns across the three stages of reflective diary writing, also show trainees' more in-depth understanding of their own performance.

5.3.5 My year at school – trainees' final evaluation of themselves

Conceptualising teaching

On the completion of the diaries, their student-teachers were asked to give them titles which would reflect the way they saw their year-long experiences as EFL teachers. So their individual diary titles present how they perceive and conceptualise the nature of teaching at the end of the initial stage of their professional training.

These titles may be grouped around metaphors in the following way:

The metaphor TEACHING IS LIKE GROWING UP

Examples of titles:
You live to learn
Becoming self-dependent
In search of improvement
The never-ending story of my ups and downs
Practice makes perfect

Spreading wings
A way forward looks promising
The transition from youth to adulthood

The metaphor TEACHING IS LIKE DISCOVERY
Examples of titles:
Revealing the truth about teaching
Seeking solutions – my way to success
On the other side of the mirror
Discovering oneself
A new identity
Laying the foundation

The metaphor TEACHING IS LIKE A BATTLEFIELD
Examples of titles:
A victorious struggle for success
Classroom as a battlefield
Breaking the barriers
Breaking the ice

The three major metaphors describing the teaching experiences of the trainees involved in this study all point to the evolving character of becoming an effective teacher, which is seen as an on-going learning experience with the teacher moving from a stage of innocence to maturity. It is a process of personal growth and development, meaning self-discovery, which leads to becoming more independent and more mature. But it is not easy: it is a process of fighting for one's own place and identity, it requires breaking down barriers – not only somebody else's but one's own too, in interacting with others and questioning oneself in decision making. If perceived as such, it becomes a victorious battle, provided that "the weapons" are right and their use is appropriate and effective.

Self-evaluation: strong and weak points

Asked to evaluate themselves at the end of their pre-service school placement, the trainees reflected upon their strong and weak points. The strong points in the area of classroom performance were the following:
- establishing a good rapport with the group by their positive and even friendly attitude to their learners
- expressing empathetic qualities and thus, personalising their teaching and catering for the individual needs of learners
- presenting an enthusiastic attitude to teaching, especially with their favourite age groups (mostly young learners)

- being able to motivate and sustain motivation through the introduction of novelty and experimentation with new teaching strategies
- creativity in lesson preparation and classroom performance, flexibility and open-mindedness.

The following quotations from the trainees' narratives illustrate the above:

Working with the students demands a lot of empathy and understanding. I think being empathetic is one of my personal traits and it helps me a lot. In dealing with conflict situations it is very helpful to be able to "put oneself in someone else's shoes". (Magda, subject 5)

First of all, I have realized that I am not afraid of experimenting and trying out new methods in the classroom. I am not reluctant to face different problems and I am really persistent in trying to find an effective solution to a specific problem. (Marta, subject 6)

I am content with the relations I have with the students. From the very beginning I established a code of conduct which works quite well. There is an atmosphere of friendship in the classroom. I managed to get to know each pupil and I get on well with the group. (Bożena, subject 7)

Another positive aspect is that I have learn to exploit my own creativity and try to take advantage of it as frequently as possible. (Sylwia, subject 8)

The weak points singled out by the trainees in their narratives derived from:

- problems with time management in terms of lesson preparation, as well as timing classroom activities effectively
- being stressed out in novel and unexpected situations, resulting in impulsive and spontaneous reactions
- expressing irritation, anger and losing one's temper in the cases of classroom misbehaviour
- lacking professional competence in teaching language skills (most often speaking and reading) and language areas (e.g. grammar and pronunciation)
- being too lenient and inconsistent with the established rules.

The quotations selected from the comments of individual narratives demonstrate the weak points in trainees' performances:

[…] *I tend to be prone to stress especially during the first meeting. This is manifested in the rapid speech and I find myself at a loss for words. New circumstances can overwhelm me and make me feel underestimated. Moreover, I tend to succumb myself to emotions and act spontaneously*. (Alicja, subject 11)

During my teaching practice I realized that I am not a perfect teacher and I have some weak points. Probably the one which I should focus on is the fact that I tend to avoid teaching aspects which I biased against. I believe that this happened because I did not have sufficient knowledge to teach for example grammar or pronunciation. (Gosia, subject 12)

[…] *the students gave me a chance to reveal another weak point. In view of children's disruptive behaviour I lost my temper. I tried my best to resolve the problem according to the practiced methods. However, that stressful situation made me nervous, as the result of which I shouted at the students.* (Ewa, subject 13)

I should take more care while preparing for the classes. It would not only result in me knowing all the needed words and having all the needed materials but also be beneficial for the very content of the lesson. The more thought the teacher gives to his lessons, the more students gain from them. (Malwina, subject 16)

First of all, frequent inconsistency in enforcing rules is the weakest point concerning my teaching techniques. I am aware that it may lead to students' confusion but sometimes I do not want to punish certain pupils for their behaviour, especially when I know that they usually obey the rules. I believe that this inconsistency is caused by my attitude towards students as I prefer being a friend to being a strict teacher. (Ania, subject 15)

Comparing the highlighted strong and weak points, it is clear that what the trainees see as their best sides relates to the affective dimensions of their performance (motivations, attitudes, interaction) in the classroom and their own personality traits (open-mindedness, flexibility, creativity), which they believe make them successful practitioners. These qualities express the trainees' focus on themselves as good persons and idealists, believers that their passion for teaching will turn them into good teachers (undeniably a constituent of teacher success but not the whole story). They perceived those qualities as advantages that can be successfully used when they gain more teaching experience. So it seems that the major emphasis was put on the need for more classroom practice in which teachers are learners since experiential learning contributes to their development most significantly.

On the other hand, theory is not rejected or discredited by them, as the trainees' weaknesses described are an expression of problem areas in teaching, which result from being inadequately knowledgeable at this stage of teaching practice. This can be illustrated by such problem areas as facilitating the development of learners' language skills and language competence itself, management of classroom activities or metacognitive aspects of teaching, mostly organising, planning and monitoring work.

Tes also show their deep dissatisfaction with their own FL skills, which they rightly believe require constant monitoring and self-improvement. As they say, their diagnosed deficits in theoretical knowledge need to be eliminated by independent work and a pro-active attitude to self-development (reference back to literature, active participation in lectures and training programmes). This need is straightforwardly expressed in the comments at the end of the school placement period. So it seems that the trainees' initial skepticism (or even rejection of theory as invalid or unhelpful in their teaching contexts) gives place to a more informed attitude, in which theory and classroom practice are reconciled and mutually supportive in the "here and now" context of individual teachers in individual classrooms.

A way forward

In their final reflections on their futures as EFL teachers, irrespective of the educational context, the trainees reached the following conclusions resulting from their first teaching experiences:

1. There is a need for constant professional development in the form of regular studies to complete qualifications but it is also in individual work that one's teaching expertise will develop through participation in open-ended forms of self-improvement:

[...] *my skills still need to be considerably improved. Furthermore, I believe that a teacher belongs to the group of the professions in which constant development of one's skills is absolutely essential.* (Sylwia, subject 8)

2. If one's self-development is planned and monitored, it will lead to more reflectivity in teaching, and will also develop one's autonomy:

After this year my perception of teaching has changed. Right now I do not regard teaching practice as an undemanding work as it is a constant process of developing. It also requires regular testing of one's knowledge and ability to cope with difficult situations. To be a good teacher means to observe oneself and to draw conclusions from every success and failure. (Kasia, subject 31)

3. The trainees exhibit a very strong desire to share their professional experiences and cooperate with peers at work and with professional support groups:

First of all, the language teacher has to train himself all the time. More often than not he has to take part in different professional trainings, even abroad. My private

school takes care of those trainings and organizes them but even without it, I would search for such meetings. Not only is it excellent practice for my language, but also a great source of new information and guidelines. And of course, it is always helpful to share experience and feelings with other colleagues. (Sandra, subject 21)

4. The need to expand both theoretical knowledge and practice in a broader range of educational contexts is perceived by the trainees as basic to their development. It relates to the teaching of different age groups and at different language competence levels:

In not too distant future I would like to experiment with various age groups, levels, coursebooks, materials and techniques with the purpose of finding out which suit me best. Even though teaching young learners can be highly satisfactory, I would like to try something different. (Ela, subject 10)

The concerns the trainees expressed about their future clearly point to their growing awareness of teacher development as an example of a life-long educational process that will have to go beyond institutionalised forms of instruction. The projects carried out during their teaching practice period – and not just the teaching itself – allowed them to evaluate themselves systematically over that period of time, and diagnose their weaknesses and strengths. Sharing their experiences not only with their diaries, but additionally with their peers through feedback sessions, reduced one of the negative aspects of teaching for them: teacher isolation and loneliness in his/her own classroom. It significantly contributed to the growth of a feeling of security and more self-confidence. Feedback sessions, as reflected in the positive commentary on their value, will hopefully become one of the features of the training period that trainees will want to recreate in their regular working life, on completion of their professionalisation.

5.4 Summary: Becoming reflective as an evolving process

The study, conducted with a group of thirty-one pre-service teachers of EFL, presents a fairly optimistic picture of the group, as the trainees showed themselves to be not only informed but also motivated and enthusiastic, despite occasional setbacks during the first period of the placement. Their approach to their teaching illustrates what Furlong and Maynard (1995) call the "early idealism" of student teachers in the initial phase of their school experiences:

> […] it is a stage in which idealism is represented by student teachers' simplistic views of teaching and learning, and the expectation that they will be able to

> build friendly relationships with pupils, which they link with memories of either effective teachers who were able to do this, or ineffective teachers, who were not. (Arthur *et al.*, 1997: 78)

They are aware of their successes and failures, but also sensitive to their learners and open to change and further development. Although their conceptions about teaching are initially quite naive and ungrounded in classroom reality and sometimes theoretically-based or intuitive and idealistic, with time and reflective practice they become more contextualised.

Leshem and Trafford (2006: 24), who implemented trainee narratives as a core methodology in professional training, make the observation that their trainees' stories demonstrated certain similarities to reflective learning:

- being easy to facilitate as a learning process;
- requiring low/nil consumption of educational sources;
- possessing a constantly increasing reservoir of learning capabilities;
- displaying a capacity to extend learning from the individual to the group.

These characteristics of reflective learning were also present in the diaries of these trainee teachers and demonstrable in the shift in teaching concerns singled out, their ways of reflecting upon classroom episodes (CIs), their approach to success and failure, their ability to evaluate strong and weak points, and also their planning of their future professional development. The shift in the trainees' concerns shows change from focusing on oneself, one's emotions and authority (as threatened by misbehaviour incidents), to effectiveness of teaching and learner performance.

In identifying and reflecting upon CIs, no striking developmental differences were observed which was due to the limited time over which the data was collected. Arthur *et al.* (1997: 81) see the difficulties in analysing classroom practice that the trainees undergo as "difficulties in breaking down classroom practice in a way that enables them to begin to make sense of what is happening and how it is happening." This is also attributable to a lack of "language for talking about teaching". Arthur *et al.*, (1997: 81) suggest that:

> It is here, in the early stages, when a student teacher is attempting to make sense of basic classroom practice, that indicators of competence, or statements describing competence, may be of use. They should be used as neither as a tick list of skills or behaviours to adopt, nor a simple checklist for the student teacher, subject mentor, or tutor against which to assess progress, but as a means of enabling student teachers to get inside the "language" of teaching.

Some indications of development emerged from descriptive comments first focusing on just reporting on the events to productive reflections searching for the interpretation of the identified incidents, based on the teaching concepts and constructs understood as "the language for talking about teaching" (Arthur *et al.*, 1997).

Diary entries constitute an expression of student teachers' "internal narratives emerging from their intrapersonal experience" (Brown, 2006: 681). Brown sees them as describing the internal forces and desires that compete within each student to "develop a coherent and effective teacher identity through a process of *becoming*" (p. 681). The articulation of experiences, often traumatic, illustrates each individual trainee's "personal theories" (Tann, 1993). In Tann's study of teacher personal stories, the researcher observed that

> [...] students found it very hard to articulate and, if articulated implicitly, they found it very hard to spot the assumptions and to challenge them. [...]. A second area of difficulty for the students was in challenging their beliefs and practice. [...]. Thirdly, students experienced great difficulty in making a personal-public link. Students explained that "we don't know the words". This means that they had difficulty in articulating their experiences in anything other than colloquial terms, conceptualizing their comments and, literally, "looking things up in the index" of a text so that they could "tune into the public theory". (Tann, 1993: 68)

The importance of professional language competence, i.e. knowledge of terminology in the area, knowledge of concepts and constructs demonstrated in classroom occurrences and procedures, constituting a vital element in student teachers' ability to articulate their experiences, is also commented on by Regan (2007) in his project on the use of reflective journals in postgraduate studies.

In this study, the task of identifing CIs presented trainees with major difficulties for the same reasons. Initially, the incidents were very general and unfocused, colloquial (for the lack of language and terminology) descriptions of classroom events, but with time they became more specific, which indicates a growth of classroom awareness and teacher presence in "here and now" contexts, and also an enhanced ability to articulate these features. The theoretical knowledge the trainees brought to their classroom, first seen by them as irrelevant, became "situated", i.e. analysed and applied in a given context. The shift from reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action more and more frequently turned into reflection-for-action, in other words it would allow the trainees to use it in a controlled fashion in creating critical events (CEs). Responding to an event and reporting on it turn into reasoning and reconstructing reflections, signs of

productive reflectivity (Bain *et al.*, 1999). There is still a difference in the ability to be productive in different types of incidents, where failures are more carefully reconstructed and reasoned about, since they are perceived as problems and challenges, whereas successes are more descriptive in nature. Lack of productive comments in the case of successes may mean that, being taken for granted, the skills on which they are based may slip away and thereby not enter the teaching repertoire of those trainees. Paradoxically, the failures as described in this study are more conducive to professional development than the success stories.

The growing ability to reflect productively is most visible in the differences between the types of the comments made, where at the end of diary writing there is less description than interpretation of the identified incidents. Moreover, in analysis at the reconstruction stage, the trainees learnt how to use theoretical sources and ground their interpretation in learnt knowledge rather than in intuitions and their initial beliefs. The predominance of affective responses and comments at the beginning gives way to reflections which are more cognitive in nature, although affectivity is never far away.

In evaluating their performance across the three stages of diary writing, a growing success rate and decreased level of perceived failure is generally observed in the trainees' evaluation of their teaching achievements. However, these levels change within individual areas of teaching. The trainees see themselves as more successful in the end of their practice period at language teaching itself (methods, techniques), whereas they still struggle with instances of misbehaviour. Also, their growing exigency contrasted with their initial leniency in respect of their evaluation of learners' performance makes them more demanding in this area and therefore more prone to seeing themselves as failing more often in this domain at the end than at the beginning of their practice period. The comments made in the diary entries in respect of learner performance and its evaluation certainly show the trainees as more capable of in-depth understanding of the teaching/learning process.

Although with time the trainees' concerns about themselves and the dominance of affectivity give way to more knowledge-related issues in their classroom performance, the trainees continue to see their affective features (motivation, enthusiasm, friendly attitudes) and personality traits (open-mindedness, creativity) as their strong points. Their weaknesses are purely knowledge-related (how to teach, classroom procedures, lesson planning). What may be counted very positive is that the trainees accept the need for constant development of their FL skills, for expanding one's teaching context by teaching different age groups and at different levels and careful monitoring one's development. They also emphasise the social aspect of the teaching profession by pointing out their desire to share their own experiences and give feedback to other teachers.

The results of this project demonstrated that focused diary writing if well-structured can motivate trainee-teachers to develop an active approach to their teaching and deepen their classroom awareness and teacher presence. The trainees' initial reluctance to write reflective diaries turned into a very positive perception of the experience, which added an extra dimension to their periods of teaching practice. Experience shows that diary writing needs to be closely monitored by the supervisor and that regular feedback should be given at each stage, alongside school mentor's feedback on the trainees' performance in the classroom.

EPILOGUE: ON IMPROVING TEACHER TRAINING PARADIGMS

Specific topic focus and other major concerns in pre-service language teacher education, together with ways of enhancing teacher growth, are very significantly highlighted by European Union initiatives in education. Various agencies of the European Union, as well as the Council of Europe, have made a significant contribution to the development of educational guidelines and programmes for language learners and language teachers (Council of Europe, 2001). They all strongly voice the need to enhance teacher and learner autonomy by promoting among other things the concept of reflectivity and self-assessment in both language teaching and learning contexts. The following documents offer a comprehensive set of references and guidelines:

- The *European Language Portfolio* (ELP) aims to promote learner-centred approaches to teaching in which self-assessment is central, ELP is a practical tool for learner self-assessment (Little, 2008). After an initial period of piloting, ELP has been adopted by some Polish schools either by local educational authorities or by individual teachers on their own initiative.
- *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters* (AIE) focuses on the role of intercultural experience, aiming at the development of intercultural communicative competences by developing the language learner's ability to reflect critically on his/her individual cultural experiences in international contacts (www.coe.int/t/gd4).
- The *European Profile for Language Teacher Education* (EPLTE) is a proposal for language teacher education in the 21st century which makes suggestions concerning the "*structure* of educational courses, the *knowledge* and *understanding* central to foreign language teaching, the diversity of teaching and learning *strategies* and *skills* and the kinds of *values* language teaching should encourage and promote" (Kelly *et al*., 2004: 1; Kelly & Grenfell at: http://www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/index.html).

- The *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (EPOSTL) is "a document intended for students undergoing their initial teacher education which encourages them to reflect on the didactic knowledge and skills necessary to teach languages, helps them to assess their own didactic competences and enables them to monitor their progress and to record their experiences of teaching during the course of their teacher education" (Newby *et al*. at: http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/FTE).

It is only fair to acknowledge the value of these documents, especially the last one (EPOSTL), as the most relevant to the discussion in this volume. The *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* is described by its authors as "A reflection tool for language teacher education" (Newby *et al*., at: http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/FTE/). It was created with the purpose of standardising teacher education within the European Union. However it is not only a policy document but also a practical tool for pre-service teachers of languages, which consists of three sections: *a personal statement* (a trainee's reflection on what teaching involves, especially at the initiation stage), *a self-assessment* (a list of "can-do descriptors relating to didactic competences") and *a dossier* (where trainee teachers record their progress and work systematically). The aims of the EPOSTL as defined in the document are:

1. to encourage students to reflect on the competences a teacher strives to attain and on the underlying knowledge which feeds these competences;
2. to help prepare students for their future profession in a variety of teaching contexts;
3. to promote discussion between students and between students and their teacher educators and mentors;
4. to facilitate self-assessment of students' competence;
5. to help students develop awareness of their strengths and weaknesses related to teaching;
6. to provide an instrument which helps chart progress.
7. to serve as the springboard for discussions, topics for term papers, research projects, etc.
8. to provide support during teaching practice and assist in discussions with mentors; this will help mentors to provide systematic feedback. (Newby *et al*. at: http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/FTE)

The EPOSTL has been constructed with the idea that it should "be available to students at the beginning of their teacher education and it should accompany them throughout their teacher education, teaching practice and into their profession" (Newby *et al*., available online). However it should also be emphasised that EPOSTL is an important instrument for teacher trainers and

mentors in their work with future teachers and should be regarded as playing "a useful complementary role to that of the *European Profile for Language Teacher Education*."

Constant restructuring and changes introduced into educational systems are now observable worldwide, where "to meet the perceived needs of postindustrial, postmodern society, politicians and administrators are beginning to acknowledge, if somewhat belatedly, that teachers are the key to effective educational change" (Hargreaves, 1995: 149). If this is the case, then some focus on professional development of teachers should be of vital concern to educational reformers, although

> [i]n fact, at precisely the time that the teachers' voice is being pursued and promoted, the teachers' work is being technicized and narrowed […]. As teachers' work intensifies, as more and more centralized edicts and demands impinge on the teacher's world, the space for reflection and research is progressively squeezed. (Goodson, 1995: 62)

With this in mind, introducing reflectivity and ways of developing teachers at the pre-service stage seems the most obvious strategy to tackle the paradox of modern educational models. Thus, as Wright (2010: 295) sees it, 21st-century teacher education should be realised under the following rubrics:

> GOAL – producing reflective teachers, in a process which involves socio-cognitive demands to introspect and collaborate with others, and which acknowledges previous learning and life experience as a starting point for new learning.
>
> LEARNING EXPERIENCES – The provision of a variety of learning experiences in institutionally-based sessions and in real schools and classrooms, with an emphasis on awareness-raising, collaborative learning, reflection and learning from experience.
>
> EVALUATION- The creation of means of evaluating personal and professional learning, and long-term, research-based follow-up of successful graduates of SLTE programmes.

The professional development of teachers can proceed along different routes. For many teachers it is teaching itself that contributes mostly to growth of expertise via the daily experience of classroom activities. Working at school also offers a chance for collaboration with other teachers by mutual observation, supervision and support in discussion of problems and challenges, but also by sharing new ideas and trying them out. Numerous training courses, workshops,

seminars and distance-learning and internet activities (e.g. teacher blogs and chat rooms) offer teachers other options for self-development. Also, teacher-based research which occasionally finds a place in modern training programmes is one of the most effective ways of promoting the professional development of teachers. This book has sought to urge personal research work as an essential part of the pre-service education of FL teachers.

The declared assumption of this book was that teacher-based research develops and promotes reflective teaching through sensitising trainees to their classroom practices in a structured way. The main aim of the book has been to first establish the profile of trainee teachers and to demonstrate how certain limitations in their teaching abilities are developmental and only temporary, and so problems can be eased by carefully designed and focused action research implemented in their training programme. Action research provides the trainees (and also more experienced teachers) with an opportunity for "active involvement in research, teachers can 'see' their own classrooms and critical insights which they probably never would from reading the reports of 'more objective' researchers" (Mercer, 1995: 119).

Many publications on teacher professional education (like the ones discussed in this book) focus on the advantages of action research for the professional development of teachers at different stages of their career. Although this is undoubtedly true, I strongly believe that emphasis should be put on AR during the pre-service phase of teacher training, as also argued by Altrichte *et al.* (2000), Bailey (1996), McNiff, Lomax and Whitehead (2003), and Fichtman and Yendol-Hoppey (2008).

Pre-service and novice teachers exhibit very different characteristics from those of experienced and expert teachers. A comparison between expert and novice teachers allows us to diagnose the areas in which certain weaknesses can be observed, with a view to re-focusing and re-designing the paradigms of teacher training offered to future teachers. As research demonstrates, those weaknesses do not seem to be idiosyncratic but rather characteristic of these two distinctive groups of professionals. Recapitulating the main results of studies on expert-novice teachers in terms of the cognitive processes involved in teaching, it is clear that novices differ from experts both at the pre-active stage (planning) and interactive stage (thinking and decision making in class). In her discussion of those differences, Tsui describes expert teachers as:

> […] more efficient in planning and more selective in information processing. They are also able to recognize meaningful patterns quickly. They demonstrate more autonomy and flexibility in both planning and teaching. Because they have large repertoires of routines on which to rely, they are able to improvise and respond to the needs of the students and the situations very quickly.

> The automaticity that is made possible by the availability of these routines allows them to direct their attention to more important information. Similar to experts in other domains, these characteristics of their cognitive processes are very much related to their sophisticated knowledge schemata and knowledge base. (Tsui, 2009: 41)

The above observations are confirmed by my study of pre-service teachers (discussed in Chapter 5). Tsui (2009: 41) rightly points out that numerous studies limit themselves to describing the above differences but say fairly little about ways of developing expertise. The ideas on the development of pre-service teachers' abilities by focused action research presented in this book are offered as a contribution to filling this gap in research. They could be summarised as focusing on:

1. Developing trainees' awareness of their teaching contexts by defining significant events such as critical incidents and implementing reflection-on-action and reflection-for-action as leading to more controlled classroom practices.
2. Implementing regular diary writing as a way of developing productive reflectivity integrating theory and classroom experience in relation to analysis of individual events (CIs).
3. Developing trainees' analytical powers and the need for expressing self-evaluation in terms of their successes and failures, weak and strong points.

One other aspect noted as significant, since it is often observed in my study of trainee teachers' progress, is the appraisal systems and attitudes they have recourse to when they have to face and cope with their classes. The often-felt anxieties and feelings of insecurity of trainees lead them to entertain negative expectations. By quoting a set of guidelines given to inexperienced teachers by a new-to-the-profession EFL teacher, Alika Cirlanescu, I would like to emphasise the "positive expectation system" novices need to build for themselves:

- Expect good timing: "no matter when I teach during the day, my classes have a perfect timing!"
- Expect good conditions: "I can teach anywhere (no matter how poor the conditions are!)."
- Expect students' cooperation: "I can help my students to interact and collaborate in learning."
- Expect shifting of focus from conflict to learning: "I can get my students to change focus from (personal) conflict to learning (with/from others)."
- Expect having plenty of time: "There is enough time in class from me to finish teaching the most relevant content points of the lesson I planned."

- Expect professional satisfaction: "I am satisfied with my activity as a teacher and I am given recognition as a competent teacher by my students, and the fellow teachers whom I advice and get advice from." (Cirlanescu, 2007: 17)

Novices cannot afford to enter classrooms with a defeatist spirit. Cirlanescu's recommendations may bear no relation to any classroom that exists, or has ever existed, but it is a useful corrective to those who feel beaten down by the difficulties of their work, and who allow that sense of defeat to interfere with even the good and positive work that they can achieve.

The above expectations relate directly to the fears trainee students experience and, when overwhelmed by them, they may lose sight of their true abilities. Negative affectivity will have a detrimental effect not only on here-and-now contexts but may lead to a long-term anxiety and the collapse of self-confidence, and/or willingness to stay in the profession. Of course, too much positivity and self-confidence may lead to unrealistic expectations and disappointment with results, so they should be combined with more sober and reflective attitudes to one's classroom outcomes.

The perception of teaching we as teacher trainers hold has a direct influence on the way we design training programmes (if fortunate enough to be given any responsibility for them, which is not always the case) and mentor our students through them. Fernstermacher and Soltis (1998/2000) pose the following question on the nature of teaching: is it just a managerial process of directing our students' learning processes or a facilitation of their personal development, or is it a way of freeing individual learner's powers of perception, cognition and imagination? I believe training programmes for teachers, and the mentoring systems implemented alongside them, should embrace all three of these ways of understanding teaching, in this case, teaching to teach.

Burn *et al.* (2003) believe that a training programme based on well-defined stages of trainee development may be attractive to trainers for its clarity and close-ended phases; unfortunately, there are limitations to such a model as

> […] the attempt to reduce the process of learning to teach to a series of discrete stages obscures not only the complexity of a process, but also the enormous variation between individuals in terms of their starting points and the way their thinking develops. (Burn *et al.*, 2003: 329)

So, despite the fact that teacher development can be described in clearly defined general stages, the enormous variety resulting from individual differences of future and present teachers' perceptions of education, their own beliefs, personality and systems of values, much broader than just relating to

educational issues, make it schematically irreducible to those stages for everyone. Also, it seems impossible to cater for all of the above variables when constructing training programmes.

Loughran and Russell (1997) propose careful consideration of the following when designing a pre-service training programme:

1. Prospective teachers have needs which must be considered in planning and implementing a program and these change through their preservice development.
2. The transition from learner to teacher is difficult but is aided by working closely with one's peers.
3. The student-teacher is a learner who is actively constructing views of teaching and learning based on personal experiences strongly shaped by perceptions held before entering the program.
4. The teaching/learning approaches advocated in the program should be modelled by the teacher educators in their own practice.
5. Student teachers should see the preservice program as an educational experience of worth.
6. Preservice education programs are inevitably inadequate (it is the start of teacher's career that will involve appreciably more learning over time).
7. Schon's (1983) conception of the reflective practitioner is a vital model for those who teach the preservice program, as well as those learning to teach. (Loughran & Russell, 1997: 167–168)

Additionally, as Komorowska (1999) points out, teacher training functions within a wider, well-defined educational system operating in a given national context, and thus it is framed by it. For instance, in line with recent educational reform in the Polish educational system, a significant shift in the content focus of FL training programmes has to be made. Komorowska (1999) sees it in:

1. More focus on psychological, pedagogical and methodological issues involved in teaching different age groups learners, especially very young learners (because of the restructuring of the school system).
2. Focus on promoting the language skills development approach to teaching (a more communicatively oriented approach, which EFL teachers may not be so familiar with).
3. Instruction in a cross-curriculum approach to language development by training students in implementing project work (introduction of Pol. *ścieżki międzyprzedmiotowe* in the school curricula).
4. Implementing an ESP (English for Special Purposes) module for teaching in vocational schools (absent from the curricula of vocational schools before the reform).

5. Focus in the training programmes on instruction concerning ways of constructing teaching programmes (syllabuses) by individual teachers and ways of evaluating their validity and reliability.

I would expand the above list of necessary amendments to be made to teacher training programmes by stressing the importance of teacher autonomy. One of the aspects of it would be instruction on ways of carrying out classroom-based research: defining problems, diagnosing them and implementing possible improvements, and also introducing knowledge of research methods and tools that are at teachers' (even pre-service teachers') disposal to carry out their own individual research projects.

Additionally, I would like to emphasise the importance of supervision in teacher training programmes. Although this book does not elaborate on supervision issues, as this would require a separate study, there are however many areas of overlaps with this book's concerns and sources to which the reader is here referred, e.g. Cochran-Smith and Paris (1995), Jennings (1996), Richards (1998), Gray (2001), Hastings (2004), Smith and Lev-Ari (2005) and Hsu (2005).

This book emphasises the individual teacher himself/herself as the driving force in the educational process and points to the significance of a teacher's individuality in taking charge of their own development. Such an understanding stands in opposition to a long-established attitude to education which

> [...] relegates teachers to executing education as conceptualized by others, and professional and societal discourses which emphasize efficiency over ethics
>
> [...] support instrumental practices which leave undisturbed the existing emphasis on efficiency, meritocracy and bureaucracy. As a result, pre-service teachers tend to see themselves as fitting within an educational system that allows a narrow range of differences based on individual personalities, rather than as embodying ethical and political views of society. (Hursh, 1995: 106)

My aim has been to show and discuss the ways in which pre-service teachers conceptualise their future professions (a brief study of their metaphors), what fears they exhibit and how they cope with them. One of the areas of concern here was the often-questioned application and usefulness of the theory they acquired in various academic courses within the teacher training module to their daily classroom practices. The approach to teacher training advocated in this book sees the need to make the students aware that theory has a value only if it triggers a process of reflective thought as described by McIntyre:

> There are perhaps two main disciplines for student teachers to learn, which involve the application of "theoretical" criteria. First there is *conceptual analysis*,

> crucial in relation to educational discourse, concerned with elucidating the meaning and questioning the meaningfulness of concepts and assertions, with identifying the hidden assumptions on which arguments depend, and with explicating the value-judgements implicit in arguments. Second, there is the *use of theory developed from empirical research*. (McIntyre, 1993: 50)

I strongly believe that theoretical disciplines need to remain the cornerstones of the curricula at the initial stages of teacher training, before students enter their classrooms, to make them understand essential concepts related to language, learning and teaching. However, their focus on propositional knowledge does not suffice, and our interest as teacher trainers should not be just in what the students know but how they think (Lipman, 2003). Knowledge has to be seen as an intellectual process of constructing meanings, relative to context and situation. As such learning to teach means:

> [...] a continual process of hypothesis-testing by detailed analysis of the values and practical constraints fundamental to teaching. The 'theory' for teacher education should therefore incorporate (i) speculative theory, (ii) the findings of empirical research, (iii) the craft knowledge of practicing teachers; but none should be presented as having prescriptive implications for practice. Instead students should be encouraged to approach their own practice with the intention of testing hypothetical principles drawn from the consideration of these different types of knowledge. (Alexander, 1986: 146)

The hypothesis-testing process requires "changes in beliefs and attitudes, feelings and self-concept, perception and action as well as in knowledge" (Claxton, 1985: 86), which implies that "Learning to teach is not just learning a job: it is learning a new way of being yourself" (Claxton, 1985: 87). Thus, it follows that training programmes need to focus on psychological issues relating not only to the cognitive and affective states of learners in the classroom, but also to give attention to the teacher own psychological states. Claxton (1985: 86), for example, emphasises the need to develop strategies of coping with one's affectivity:

> Feelings of anxiety have to be dealt with one way or another, the constant imminence of failure in school being particularly threatening for those, like graduate student-teachers, who are most unused to it. Self-doubts arise as one finds oneself, *in extremis*, acting in ways that one has foresworn.

The study presented in this book (Chapter 5) demonstrates how strongly affectivity influences not only the classroom performance of trainees, but also

how they analyse and interpret it. Trainees start by taking a predominantly affective angle on themselves. Thus, I urge that training programmes make prospective teachers aware of this side of their future profession, demonstrating the significance of appraisal systems to make them more aware of their own emotionality and better prepared to deal with their anxieties. The reflection on trainees' individual appraisal systems discussed in the book might constitute a good introductory topic to the role of affectivity in teaching. Claxton (1985) describes the first teaching experiences of trainees as an "incoherent mish-mash of experience, heresay, prejudice and myth" and suggests a way of dealing with it by sensitising the students to their classroom experiences, by:

(a) eliciting students' preconceptions and bringing them to the surface;
(b) showing them that their values and assumptions are questionable, that alternatives exist, and that their original view may be replaced or re-espoused;
(c) supporting them in this enquiry, preventing them from rationalizing, defending or escaping, and intimating that, whether they eventually change or not, to assemble their own wardrobe of values and ideas out of the jumble-sale heap of reach-me-downs they have been living with is a worthwhile activity. (Claxton, 1985: 87)

The learning to teach process has to be structured in terms of clearly specified areas of concern and to make available tools that will allow prospective teachers to formulate and test hypothesis about those concerns. This book presents teacher-based research as an empirically- based process of reflective teaching, in which the trainees worked on critical incidents (CIs) and reflected upon them in their diaries. Diary reflection as described in this book allows trainee teachers

> […] to distance, objectify and make sense of lived teaching experiences. Insights gained through such a discovery process equip teacher candidates with the confidence needed to make a difference in the learning and lives of their students. They come to know that there are no easy answers, that learning is a life-long process. (Moeller, 1996: 71)

The choice of focused diary writing was determined by my belief that the identification of individually chosen incidents allows trainees to see, examine and judge independently the issues they consider significant for themselves, incidents not prescribed by their supervisors or mentors. Not only does the study presented in Chapter 5 testify to the effectiveness of this kind of approach to teacher training, it is also demonstrated in other studies on CI projects in pre-

service teachers' training. For example, Woods supports the view that studying CIs has important educational implications:

> Students have received a considerable boost to their personal development from these events. This is especially marked in relation to, firstly, attitude to learning. Increased, or new-found confidence in oneself is frequently mentioned, as is motivation for learning. There is enhanced disposition and skill in listening to others and being listened to. Secondly, there are several reports of self-discovery, a realization of abilities and interests, and a 'coming-out' of a new-found self which might coincide with a 'blending-in' to the culture of a group hitherto impenetrable. (Woods, 1993: 141)

What then are the main modules of teacher training programmes to facilitate the development of expert teachers? Here is one such example, a training programmes for EAL (English as an Additional Language), the objectives of which are sketched out below but described in full in Cajkryl and Hall (2009). The programmes aims at the development of:

a. *Professional attributes of prospective teachers* (relationships with pupils, understanding of frameworks: policy and practice, communicating and working with others, personal professional development).
b. *Professional knowledge and understanding of teaching and learning processes* (knowledge about teaching, knowledge about learning and knowledge about assessment).
c. *Professional skills* (planning lessons and schemes of work for the appropriate age range, teaching all subjects in the primary curriculum, assessing and monitoring the work of pupils, ensuring that colleagues working with them are involved in supporting learning, including all learners, including those with behaviour difficulties or intellectual disabilities, teaching pupils from a range of backgrounds, reviewing teaching and learning). (Cajkryl & Hall, 2009: 155)

The EAL training course of Cajkryl and Hall (2005) presents the basic standards to be achieved by trainees in order to become expert teachers. It is fairly uncontroversial but needs to be more precisely defined by delineating the particular ways of reaching its goals by identifying the strands in teacher development that allow novice teachers reach these standards.

Wright (2010) sees the main strands in expert teacher development as being:

- need for *reflective practice*, in which student teachers are exposed to learning situations in which they will exercise their own judgement and create their own practical theories deriving from their classroom experiences;
- development of *teacher knowledge, teacher learning, teacher thinking* and *pedagogical content knowledge*;
- *school-based teacher learning* based on school placement and an effective system of mentoring.

Having emphasised the importance of the initial stage of teacher training, I would like to repeat that learning to teach is a life-long process and "cannot be packaged into a preservice program" (Jeffries, 1996: 28). Although it is essential at the beginning to give the trainees tools to become professionals and to create a positive, reflective attitude to teaching, it is not an end in itself and should be ongoing in different forms during in-service training (Asworth, 2000). Pre-service training can only constitute the teacher preparation stage, which in the first instance inculcates an open-minded approach to one's own individual professional development, one form of which is action research carried out in one's own teaching context. This inevitably relates to the need to arouse curiosity and generate the need for questioning one's own practices at every stage of one's career. Curiosity and questioning prevent falling into routine and running the risk of burn-out in one's professional life. This commitment to teacher reflectivity and autonomy can be supported by obligatory requirements of the training curriculum, but it perhaps should go further:

> Association membership and conference attendance ought to be required of all preservice teachers and encouraged and/or required by school districts and certification boards for continuing certification. We also need to better understand the impact and role of on-line professional interest groups in keeping teachers current and providing them opportunities for critical reflection. (Jeffries, 1996: 28)

If the former (conference attendance) may not always be feasible, the latter (on-line contact and collaboration) provides an economical and lively forum for teachers.

In this book I have emphasised the value of individuality in teacher development through reflection and focus on critical incidents and diary writing as ways of developing one's ability to analyse and interpret. However, it bears repeating that professional development will be more effective if change and developmental growth occur under conditions of close collaboration between teachers and mentors, teachers and researchers, and between peer teachers

themselves, during the various stages of their professional development. As Hillocks suggests:

> One possibility lies in helping teachers to develop professional networks in which they can discuss their work with one another, become researchers themselves and write about their thinking. (Hillocks, 1999: 135)

This approach to professional development, in which teachers (novices, experienced teachers, trainers and research experts) come to constitute a community, would allow us to minimise the danger this profession exposes every new teacher to: that of being left to one's own devices to face, as student teachers often put it, the "loneliness of a staffroom and of my own classroom." It will at the same time promote self-reflectivity and openness to change in the secure context of cooperative learning to teach. The reflective teacher is not a weak figure but someone who offers and is open to criticism. It just makes sense that this criticism be voiced in a supportive and productive relationship with fellow professionals.

APPENDIX

UNEDITED SAMPLE DIARY ENTRIES

Diary title "I'm loving it" (Marcelina)

"My beginnings"

Good start

Diary entry 1, 15th October

It was a really nice lesson today. I think all pupils enjoyed it very much. Even the time, I mean 8 a.m., didn't spoil the boys' moods. We focused today on giving advice to people who are suffering from different ailments. First, we concentrated on useful vocabulary presented in the student's book in the form of pictures. The pupils learnt terms for the most common ailments such as 'a sore throat', 'a stomachache' as well as other words connected with taking care of oneself while being ill. Then the learners did a listening comprehension activity. It was very easy for them. Well… to be honest, the exercise wasn't very demanding. Even poor students could do it. The next activity was also quite easy for them. The pupils were supposed to complete a drill 'I feel horrible. I've got …' with different illnesses.

Then we proceeded to grammar, the introduction of 'should' and 'shouldn't'. To my surprise it turned out that most pupils already knew that structure. As a result, its presentation and some examples of sentences didn't take long. The students were able to come up with their own sentences using 'should' and 'shouldn't'. They did 2 exercises in the book to practice it.

Finally, we proceeded to the last activity that I planned for that lesson, namely performing a dialogue in front of the class. The dialogue itself wasn't very difficult. Well… in fact all the previous exercises were a kind of preparation for this activity.

Each pair was given a picture presenting a person suffering from an illness. I explained the task and gave the students some time for preparation. It became a bit loud but it was a positive noise. All the pupils were discussing their roles, practising some gestures. Of course, they were allowed to add any sentences or any exclamations they regarded necessary. I was very curious what the outcome of the exercise would be. The time came and the pupils were asked to show their performances in public. They were all great! They were so eager to perform their dialogues that I didn't have to ask them to step out into the middle of the classroom. What's more, some students turned out to be talented actors. The way they imitated a toothache or a stomachache was excellent. Those yells, cries or moaning were brilliant. The boys were splendid and they all had a good time.

Once again! Once again!

Diary entry 2, 18th October

Uff… I'm tired. Physically tired. But there is still this song on my mind. The lesson went better than I expected. I managed to do all the tasks even despite the fact that there were over twenty pupils in the class.

The pupils started a new chapter in their books, namely 'The Body'. I introduced the necessary vocabulary using the student's book and pictures. First the pupils were repeating after me the names of parts of the body. While repeating we were pointing to those parts of our bodies. Next I drew some funny pictures on the blackboard. I drew them step by step so that the children could follow me. The class enjoyed drawing and signing the parts of the body. Some pupils tried to do their best. Then the pupils did a listening activity. While listening to a CD they had to number parts of the body. After checking the answers we proceeded to the next activity. 'Stand up, please!' I said to the class. 'Touch your nose, please!' I continued and I called out some other commands.

After that game I told the pupils that I would teach them a song. I asked them to repeat after me the words and point to the particular parts of the body. After saying 'Head…and…shoulders' the class started to talk and some pupils shouted 'We know this song!' Despite that, we practiced it and tried to say it faster and faster. When I put the CD on, the smiles appeared on many faces. The whole class sang the song very eagerly. They liked my version of the song because there were some traps. It was recorded at least 6 times in different ways. Each time there was a gap while pointing to a particular part of the body. The funny moment was when I mistook mouth with ears and Ola said: 'Haa. You made a mistake!' and she started laughing. What's funnier she addressed me not as a teacher but as a friend.

When the whole recording finished I wanted to ask whether the pupils are tired or not. But I didn't manage because many children started to shout: 'Once again!

Once again!' I was shocked. I didn't expect that. The pupils were shouting 'Once again!' all the time. I had no choice. I played the song one more time. Seeing that some pupils were tired I allowed them to sit down and rest. Together with a group of 15 I sang the song. The pupils were so busy singing that they didn't even hear the bell and stayed in the classroom 3 minutes longer. When the song finished I realized that I was standing 2 metres further towards the windows. The children were approaching me closer and closer all the time and I didn't even notice that. They must have enjoyed that lesson very much.

Me! Me!

Diary entry 3, 25th October

Another fantastic lesson. We started with the revision of the vocabulary that was introduced a week before. We played 'Simon says' game to check whether pupils understand the spoken words. The class enjoyed that activity since it was another occasion to move a little bit rather than sit on a chair. After testing them orally I checked whether pupils learnt how to write down the names of the parts of the body. As soon as I asked "Who would like to write 'head' on the blackboard?", half of the class raised their hands. They were calling "Me! Me! Me!" I chose a boy who I thought to be the first. The rest expressed their dissatisfaction by giving some murmurs. I calmed them down by saying that there were plenty other words to be written and that I would need many volunteers. I continued the exercise. Yet, I still had a tough job in choosing pupils. One of the girls at the front, Ola, got even offended because I chose a different person. The only thing I could do was to chose her in the next turn. I was also astonished when Mateusz raised his hand since he is rather quiet and not very good at English. I thought that it would be a good chance for him to become more confident so I asked him to write the word "eyes" on the blackboard. Well… it was a bit strange because although what he wrote didn't resemble "eyes" he was still smiling and was happy that he could come up to the blackboard.

After our revision there was another set of words for pupils to learn. I asked children to repeat the adjectives after me. We did it in different ways. First pupils repeated new words together, then in rows and finally in smaller groups. Thanks to that I was able to check whether they are pronouncing the adjectives correctly.

Then I suggested drawing some pictures presenting some of the new words and of course signing them. The children became deeply involved in that activity. Some pupils tried to draw their pictures as best as possible. It was really nice when a girl came up to me to show her colourful picture. Some other pupils also showed me their wonderful drawings. At the end of the lesson we sang the song 'Head and Shoulders' just to finish the class in a pleasant atmosphere.

"In the middle"

It's logical!

Diary entry 4, 5th November

After checking the attendance I announced that I had a surprise and I asked the class not to laugh. The pupils seemed very curious. I said: 'Look at me. I am 21 years old. But in this photograph I was one.' The picture aroused the interest. The pupils craned forward to see the photo better. They laughed a bit and said some remarks on my appearance but I wasn't angry about that. I asked the learners to repeat 'I was one' and I wrote that sentence on the blackboard. I took another pair of pictures. 'This is my sister. She is very tall. But in this picture she was only eight and she was short. Repeat, please: she was short.' After the children repeated it I wrote the sentence on the blackboard. Then I did the similar procedure using other pictures but changing the subjects in each sentence. The children liked the pictures very much. They made silly comments on them but they were still concentrated during the lesson. In the end there were eight short sentences on the blackboard presenting all past forms of the verb 'to be'. I wrote those forms in red so that the pupils could memorize them faster. The learners read the sentences paying special attention to 'was' and 'were'. When they wrote those forms down in their notebooks we moved to another important point.

Since the presented examples were only affirmative statements I wanted to elicit from the class how to form questions and negative sentences. Most students came up with the correct answers. Some of them even shouted in order to be the first to say that. They said it's the same as with the present forms of 'to be' and that it's logical. As a result I asked the pupils to change the affirmative sentences into negative ones and then into questions.

Then the children opened their books and did various activities connected with the new teaching point, i.e. the introduction of 'was' and 'were'. Thanks to the presentation at the beginning of the lesson, the children were able to do the listening and reading activities without any problems. After doing some grammar exercises the learners were supposed to perform a dialogue about themselves in the childhood. However during the activity I asked some additional questions to make the learners talk more and practise the verb forms 'was' and 'were'. The pupils were eager to talk and they sometimes laughed when for example someone admitted to being naughty or fat in their childhood.

Stop talking, please!

Diary entry 5, 12th November

It wasn't even three minutes after the school bell rang when I noticed Kuba with

a small carton of milk. 'Kuba, could you stop drinking and put that milk away from the computers, please?' He looked at me with a disgruntled face, he mumbled something under his breath and after my second request he put the carton away. I didn't think that it was only the onset of a difficult lesson.

At the beginning everything went quite smoothly. The pupils revised the previous lesson, read a bit, did a reading and listening comprehension activity. But when it came to the speaking activity, the atmosphere got worse. The pupils were supposed to answer a few questions concerning themselves. Since the answers could vary I wanted to give each pupil a chance to speak. While the boys were giving their answers, Adam started to talk to another boy. I came up closer to them and gave them a sign that they should be quiet. Adam became silent for one minute and then he started chatting again. I came up to him once again and stood behind him. Unfortunately, my presence didn't put him off chatting so I had to pat him on the shoulder to make him aware that he's disturbing the lesson and particularly his friend who was speaking at that moment. Fortunately it worked and Adam became quiet.

A while later one of the boys had problems with constructing the sentence so I walked up to the blackboard in order to explain it. While explaining the problem the class started to talk. I clapped my hands but some of the boys were still talking. I clapped my hands again but the boys didn't hear me. I came closer to them and said 'Excuse me'. I had to repeat that with a bit raised voice. 'Excuse me!'. They noticed me so I continued 'Is it still the lesson or a break?' I asked them to be quiet and listen to me because I was explaining an important point not only to one student but also to others. The class calmed down but not for long. I had to reprimand them with a raised voice a few times more. I didn't know what had happened to them during that lesson.

Be quiet! I want to watch more!

Diary entry 6, 26th November

Before the pupils entered the classroom I asked them not to touch anything while sitting at the computers. But of course some boys couldn't refrain from running the Internet Explorer. When everyone was finally silent and sat still I began my lesson.

First I checked what the pupils already knew about United Kingdom. As soon as I asked the question, the children raised their hands immediately and eagerly shared information about this country. I asked the class to play the presentation on and announced that there would be a quiz at the end of the lesson. On hearing the word 'quiz' some pupils expressed their enthusiasm.

I started the presentation. Apart from the colourful pictures the pupils were also asked to read information included in the boxes. After every two slides I asked some questions in order to consolidate information that the pupils have just learnt. The class generally listened to me. The boys watched the photos and read the captions with interest. Since information under the photographs was limited, the children asked many questions. I remember the silence and the pupils' eyes fixed on me when I was talking about London Eye or punting in Cambridge.

Unfortunately it wasn't quiet all the time. Some of the boys were looking at the next slides of the presentation. Most of them were doing it just for fun. As a result I had to reprimand the pupils a few times. However, it wasn't only me who was admonishing the boys. Suddenly Patrick reprimanded his friends and asked them to calm down. I was positively surprised since Patrick is very shy and calm during my classes and I didn't think that he would be able to do that. 'Be quiet! I want to watch more', he said. Despite those noisy moments the pupils listened to me carefully. Due to additional information about the presented pictures I was running out of time. Since I promised to organize a quiz I had to shorten my presentation. I distributed the handouts with the questions and gave some time to pupils to do it even if it meant to stay few minutes longer during the break.

"Towards the end"

Another step closer

Diary entry 7, 13th December

4b is great! The children proved it one more time. Their colourful projects enchanted me immediately. It was as if making friends with the pupils. Since the projects were for volunteers, I first focused on those children who didn't do them. When they read their descriptions from the notebooks, we proceeded to the presentation of posters.

There was a variety of different collections presented by the pupils. The children were very eager to show off their interests. Fast cars and stickers of the worldwide football players were the most popular among the boys. The girls, on the other hand, collect soft toys, Barbie dolls and elephants with their trunks raised. The children used different techniques to create their projects. Apart from drawing or painting they also used pictures from newspapers. The class was listening carefully to the presentations. Well, in fact, the pupils were more interested in the poster itself than in what was said about it. Despite this fact I tried to involve them in the lesson by asking the students some questions or asking to repeat certain sentences.

There were 2 works that the pupils regarded as the best ones. Marysia's poster presented her collection of Barbie dolls. There were some drawings and magazine pictures of the dolls. But what caught the learners' eyes was the use of pink colour and shiny decorations. Another very good project was made by Kasia and Julka. They presented their fashion collection which consisted of colourful skirts, jeans, dresses, tops etc. Since the girls are close friends and visit each other very often, they create various parts of the garment using special board. The "Wow" sound filled the classroom. All children were fascinated by that project. Some girls even admitted that their posters are rather "ugly" in comparison with Kasia and Julka's.

The last 10 minutes of the lesson were spent on the presentation of my postcard collection. I brought lots of postcards presenting famous English places and thanks to a hanging map I was able to show their exact locations. The children seemed to enjoy my presentation since all of them wanted to have a closer look at the postcards. Even after the bell, the children stayed in the classroom, asked about my summer trips to England and helped me with hanging the projects on the wall.

Terrible desks

Diary entry 8, 17th December

Shock! Complete shock! For the first time no one was absent. All boys from the group came to the class and as a result five pupils had to sit at the computer desks. When they finally sat down and became quiet I started the lesson.

We began with a game. The children were supposed to guess what one person (a chef) was going to cook by asking about the ingredients that the boy needed to prepare the chosen dish. Some cooks used their imagination and chose more unusual dishes like spaghetti Bolognese making it more difficult for others to guess the answer. However, it didn't discourage the learners from solving the riddle. Quite the opposite. The pupils became more involved in guessing the dish. The chef was standing in front of the class whereas the children sat closer to each other and were discussing the possible solutions. The U-shape of the tables made the whole guessing even more interesting since the pupils could see each other and confer a bit.

After the game I asked the boys to open their books on a new unit concerning the structure 'be going to'. First we listened to a dialogue and then I asked the boys to read it aloud. Everything would be all right if it wasn't for Konrad. He was sitting at the computer desk with his back to the boys. That's why the pupils and I couldn't hear him properly and I had to read the same sentence after him. When it came to Oscar, who was also sitting at the computers, I asked him to read loud so that everyone could hear him.

But sitting at the computer desks occurred to be a problem one more time. While I was explaining the structure 'to be going to' to the class, the pupils were looking at the blackboard and listening to me carefully. But when I asked them to copy new information to their notebooks, some boys found it a bit difficult to write it down. The reason lied in their sitting position. Five boys had to turn round constantly in order to copy the sentences from the blackboard. It took some time and the boys became a bit tired. I didn't like the way the boys were sitting but I couldn't change the arrangement of the desks in the middle of the lesson. When it came to performing dialogues I asked those five pupils to turn round and face the class. I found that idea good since the learners didn't need to write anything, just listen to others or perform the dialogue.

What does it mean?

Diary entry 9, 3rd March

'English. Use English. As much as possible.' Such thoughts were on my mind before the lesson. Whenever I conduct the lesson I don't think how much I use English or Polish language. This time I wanted to focus on it and see whether it's possible to use only English during classes.

The first exercise wasn't a problem for the class. Although the pupils came across new words, the pictures helped them to understand the words. After repeating them several times, the boys memorized them very quickly. In second exercise the pupils were supposed to listen carefully to a dialogue and answer some questions. The children managed to do that task although certain words were unknown to them. As a result I didn't have to switch to Polish.

But when it came to reading the dialogue, the hard part began. Although the dialogue itself wasn't very difficult, it contained a few new words and phrases that the children should know or they just wanted to know. At the beginning it was quite fun. 'Co to jest fair?' 'Fair… not black, not brown. Oo Dorian has got fair hair', I responded. 'Jasny', the boys shouted. In a similar way I explained other unknown words. But when the children asked about 'unusual' or 'don't delay' I had to give them Polish equivalents. I couldn't think of a good way to explain them.

The next important point of the lesson was the presentation of the plurals. I don't know why but I actually used the term 'plurals' in front of my pupils. Suddenly their faces expressed "What the hell are you talking about?" I realized my mistake and switched into Polish for a while. Then the class did some exercises so as to practise forming the plurals of the nouns. Just to be sure that everyone knows what to do, I gave the instructions in Polish. Since there were five minutes left, I decided to play hangman so as to relax the boys.

REFERENCES

Aamot, P. and Havnes, A., 2008: Factors affecting professional job mastery: quality of study or work experience. *Quality in Higher Education* 14 (3), 233–248.

Aleksandrowicz-Pędich, L. i Komorowska, H. (red.), 1999: *Kształcenie nauczycieli języków obcych w Polsce*. Białystok: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu w Białymstoku.

Alexander, R.J., 1984: Innovation and continuity in the initial teacher education curriculum. In: R.J. Alexander, M. Craft, and J. Lynch (eds), 1984: *Change in Teacher Education: Context and Provision since Robbins*. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, pp. 103–160.

Alexander, R.J., Craft, M. and Lynch, J. (eds), 1984: *Change in Teacher Education: Context and Provision since Robbins*. London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Altrichter, H., Posch, P. and Somekh, B., 2000: *Teachers Investigate Their Work. An Introduction to the Methods of Action Research.* London/New York: Routledge.

Allwright, D. and Bailey, K.M., 1991: *Focus on the Language Classroom: An Introduction to Classroom Research for Language Teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Allwright, R.L., 1980: Turns, topics and tasks: patterns of participation in language learning and teaching. In: D. Larsen-Freeman (ed.), 1980: *Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research*. Rowley MA: Newbury House, pp. 165–187.

Anderson, T., Rourke, L., Garrison, D. and Archer, W., 2001: Assessing teaching presence in a computer conferencing context. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks* 5 (2), 1–17.

Appel, J., 1995: *Diary of a Language Teacher*. Oxford: Heinemann.

Arabski, J., Gabryś-Barker, D. and Łyda, A. (eds), 2007: *PASE Papers 2007.* Vol. 1: *Studies in Language and Methodology of Teaching Foreign Languages.*

Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego i Wydawnictwo „PARA", pp. 429–440.

Arnold, J., 1999: *Affect in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Arthur, J., Davison, J. and Moss, J., 1997: *Subject Mentoring in the Secondary School*. London: Routledge.

Ash, A. and Moore, A., 2003: Key factors in the promotion and obstruction of reflective practice in beginning teachers. In: A. Putkiewicz and A. Wilkomirska (eds): *Problems of Teacher Education in Rolling Changes of Educational System all over the World*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, pp. 92–130.

Ashworth, M., 2000: *Effective Teachers, Effective Schools*. Toronto, Ontario: Pippin.

Attard, K. and Armour, K.M., 2005: Learning to become a learning professional: reflections on one year teaching. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 28 (2), 195–207.

Attard, K., 2008: Uncertainty for the reflective practitioner: a blessing in disguise. *Reflective Practice* 9 (3), 307–328.

Bailey, K.M., 1980: An introspective analysis of an individual's language learning experience. In: R.C. Scarcella and S.D. Krashen (eds): *Research in Second Language Acquisition: Selected Papers of the Los Angeles Second Language Research Forum* Rowley. MA: Newbury House, pp. 58–65.

Bailey, K.M., 1990: The use of diary studies in teacher education programs. In: J.C. Richards and D. Nunan (eds): *Second Language Teacher Education.* New York. Cambridge University Press, pp. 215–226.

Bailey, K., 1996: The best laid plans: teachers' in-class decisions to depart from their lesson plans. In: K. Bailey and D. Nunan (eds): *Voices from the Language Classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 15–40.

Bailey, K. and Nunan, D. (eds), 1996: *Voices from the Language Classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bain, J.D., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Mills, C., 1999: Using journal writing to enhance student teachers' reflectivity during field experience placement. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 5 (1), 51–73.

Bain, J.D., Mills, C., Ballantyne, R. and Packer, J., 2002: Developing reflection on practice through journal writing: impacts of variations in the focus and level of feedback. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 8 (2), 171–196.

Ballantyne, R. and Packer, J., 1995: The role of student journals in facilitating reflection at doctoral level. *Studies in Continuing Education* 17 (1, 2), 29–45.

Banyard, P. and Hayes, N., 1994: *Psychology: Theory and Application*. London: Chapman & Hall.

Barker, A., Callahan, D. and Ferreira, M.A. (eds), 2009: *Success and Failure. Essays from the 29th APEAA Conference at the University of Aveiro, 17–19 April 2008*. Aveiro, Portugal: Universidade de Aveiro.

Bartell, C.A., 2005: *Cultivating High-Quality Teaching Through Induction and Mentoring*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Sage Publications Company.

Beach, R. and Pearson, D., 1998: Changes in preservice teachers' perceptions of conflicts and tensions. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 14 (3), 237–251.

Beard, C. and Wilson, J., 2004: *The Power of Experiential Learning: A Handbook for Trainers and Educators.* London: Kogan Page.

Beijaard, D., Stellingwerf, H. and Verloop, N., 1997: Student teachers' outlook on teaching: a content analysis of their reflective reports on experiences in practice. *European Journal of Agricultural Education and Extension* 4 (3), 217–229.

Bell, J., 1999: *Doing Your Research Project.* Buckingham/Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Benson, P. and Nunan, D., 2004: *Learners' Stories. Difference and Diversity in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ben-Ze'ev, A., 2000: *The Subtlety of Emotions.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Berliner, D.C., 1994: The wonders of exemplary performance. In: J.N. Mangieri and C.C. Block (eds): *Creating Powerful Thinking in Teachers and Students*. Forth Worth: Harcourt Brace, pp. 161–186.

Bold, Ch. and Chambers, P., 2009: Reflecting meaningfully, reflecting differently. *Reflective Practice* 10 (1), 13–26.

Boud, D., 1985: *Reflection: Turning Experience into Learning.* London: Kogan Page.

Boz, N. and Boz, Y., 2006: Do prospective teachers get enough experience in school placements? *Journal of Education for Teaching* 32 (4), 353–368.

Britzman, D.P., 1991: *Practice Makes Practice: A Critical Study of Learning to Teach.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Broadbent, C., 2003: Thinking globally. Preparing pre-service teachers for classrooms of the 21st century. In: E. Putkiewicz and A. Wilkomirska (eds): *Problems of Teacher Education in Rolling Changes of Educational System All Over The World*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, pp. 110–130.

Brock, M., Yu, B. and Wong, M., 1992: Journaling together: collaborative diary-keeping and teacher development. In: J. Flowerdew, M. Brock and S. Hsia (eds): *Second Language Teacher Education*. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong, pp. 295–307.

Brookfield, S.D., 1990: *The Skillful Teacher. On Technique, Trust and Responsiveness in the Classroom.* San Francisco/New York/London: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Brown, T., 2006: Negotiating psychological disturbance in pre-service teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 22, 675–689.

Bullough, R. Jr., Young, J. and Draper, R.J., 2004: One-year teaching internship and the dimensions of beginning teacher development. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 10 (4), 365–394.

Burden, P.W., 1980: *Teachers' Perceptions of the Characteristics and Influences on Their Personal and Professional Development*. Manhattan, KS: Author (ERIC Document Reproduction Service no. ED 198087).

Burn, K., Hagger, H. and Mutton, T., 2003: The complex development of student-teachers' thinking. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 9 (4), 309–331.

Cajkryl, W. and Hall, B., 2009: *When they first come in what do you do?* English as an additional language and newly qualified teachers. *Language and Education* 23 (2), 153–170.

Calderhead, J., 1987: The quality of reflection in student teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 10 (3), 269–278.

Calderhead, J. (ed.), 1988: *Teachers' Professional Learning*. London: The Falmer Press.

Calderhead, J. and Gates, P., 1993: *Conceptualizing Reflection in Teacher Development*. London: The Falmer Press, The Taylor and Francis Group.

Capel, S., Leask, M. and Turner, T., 1997: *Starting to Teach in a Secondary School. A Companion to a Newly Qualified Teacher*. London/New York: Routledge.

Carr, W. and Kemmis, S., 1986: *Becoming Critical: Education, Knowledge and Action Research.* London: Falmer.

Castejon, J. and Martinez, M., 2001: The personal constructs of expert and novice teachers concerning the teacher function in the Spanish educational reform. *Learning and Instruction* 11, 113–131.

Chan, D.W., 2006: Emotional Intelligence and components of burnout among Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 22, 1042–1054.

Cirlanescu, A., 2007: Teaching English: a learning experience for students only? *The Teacher* 10 (52), 16–19.

Clandinin, D.J. and Connelly, M. (eds), 1995: *Teachers' Professional Knowledge Landscapes*. New York/London: Teachers College Press, Columbia University.

Claxton, G., 1985: The psychology of teaching educational psychology. In: H. Francis (ed.): *Learning to Teach. Psychology of Teacher Training*. London and Phildelphia: The Falmer Press, pp. 82–101.

Clarke, M., 2008: *Language Teacher Identities. Co-constructing Discourse and Community*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cochran-Smith, M., 2002: The research base for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education* 53 (4), 283–285.

Cochran-Smith, M. and Paris, C.L., 1995: Mentor and mentoring: did Homer have it right? In: Smyth, J. (ed.): Critical Discourse on Teacher Education. London: Cassell, pp. 181–202.

Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman-Nemser, S., McIntyre, D.J. and Demersd, K.E. (eds), 2008: *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. 3rd edition. New York/London: Routledge and the Association of Teacher Educators.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K., 1998: *A Guide to Teaching Practice*. London/New York: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K., 2003: *Research Methods in Education*. London/New York: Routledge and Falmer, 5th Edition.

Cole, M. (ed.), 2005: *Professional Values and Practice. Meeting the Standards.* 3rd edition. London: David Fulton Publishers.

Cottrell, S., 2005: *Critical Thinking Skills.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Coultas, V., 2005: Commitment to professional development. In: M. Cole (ed.): *Professional Values and Practice. Meeting the Standards*. 3rd edition. London: David Fulton Publishers, pp. 131–143.

Council of Europe, 2001: *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, Modern Languages Division/Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Craig, Ch.J., 2009: Learning about reflection through exploring narrative inquiry. *Reflective Practice* 10 (1), 105–116.

Creemers, B., 1994: *The Effective Classroom*. London/New York: Cassell.

Creese, A., 2005: *Teacher Collaboration and Talk in Multilingual Classrooms.* Clevedon/Buffalo/Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Crossouard, B. and Pryor, J., 2008: Becoming researchers: a sociocultural perspective on assessment, learning and the construction of identity in a professional doctorate. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society* 16 (3), 221–237.

Darling-Hammond, L., 2005: Foreword. In: C.A. Bartell: *Cultivating High-Quality Teaching Through Induction and Mentoring.* Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press, A Sage Publication Company, pp. xi–xiii.

Davis, E., 2006: Characterizing productive reflection among preservice elementary teachers: seeing what matters. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 22, 281–301.

Day, Ch. and Kington, A., 2008: Identity, well-being and effectiveness: the emotional contexts of teaching. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society* 16 (1), 7–23.

Day, R. (ed.), 1986: *Talking to Learn. Conversation in Second Language Acquisition.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Day, Ch., Whitaker, P. and Wren, D., 1987: *Appraisal and Professional Development in the Primary School*. Milton Keynes/Philadelphia: Open University Press.

De Jong, J.A. and Korthagen, F., 1988: Handelen, reflecteren, opleiden. A paper presented at Congres van de Vereniging Univeristaire Lerarenopleiders, Nederland, Beekbergen.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (eds), 2000: *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.

DeShon Hamlin, K., 2004. Beginning the journey: supporting reflection in early field experiences. *Reflective Practice* 5 (2), 167–179.

Dewey, J., 1920 (1962): *Reconstruction and Philosophy.* Boston, MA: Beacon.

Dewey, J., 1933: *How We Think: A Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Education Process*. Chicago: Henry Regnery and Co.

Dörnyei, Z., 2001: *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Dörnyei, Z., Csizer, K. and Nemeth, N., 2006: *Motivation, Language Attitudes and Globalisation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Dreyfus, H.L. and Dreyfus, S.E., 1986: *Mind Over Machine*. New York: Free Press.

Duran, A., Extremera, N. and Rey, L., 2004: Self-reported emotional intelligence, burnout and engagement among staff in services for people with intellectual disabilities. *Psychological Reports* 95, 386–390.

Edelman, G., 2000: *Second Nature. Brain Science and Human Knowledge.* New Haven/London: Yale University Press.

Edge, J. and Richards, K., (eds), 1993: *Teachers Develop Teachers Research*. Heinemann Books for Teachers, London: Heinemann.

Eilam, B. and Poyas, Y., 2009: Learning to teach: enhancing pre-service teachers' awareness of the complexity of teaching-learning processes. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 15 (1), 87–107.

Elbaz, F., 1991: Research on teachers' knowledge. The evolution of the discourse. *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 23, 1–19.

Elbaz, F., 1992: Hope, attentiveness, and caring for difference. The moral voice in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 8, 421–432.

Ellis, C., and Bochner, A.P., 2000: Autoethnography, personal narrative, reflexivity. In: N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (eds): *Handbook of Qualitative Research.* London: Sage, pp. 733–768.

Ellis, N., 2002: Frequency effects in language processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 24, 143–188.

Ellis, R., 1995: *Questioning Consciousness. The Interplay of Imagery, Cognition, and Emotion in the Human Brain*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Eraut, M., 1994: *Developing Professional Knowledge and Competence.* London/ Washington D.C.: The Falmer Press.

Esbenshade, J.L., 2002: My learning through journaling. Forgiveness as a source of power and the communication of voice in the classroom. In: K. Johnson and P. Golombek (eds): *Teachers' Narrative Inquiry as Professional Development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 108–117.

Estola, E., Erkkila, R. and Syrjala, L., 2003: A moral voice in vocation in teachers' narratives. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 9 (3), 239–256.

Farrell, S.C., 2006: The first year of language teaching: Imposing order. *System* 34, 211–221.

Farrell, S.C., 2007: *Reflective Language Teaching*. London & New York: Continuum.

Fenstermacher, G. and Soltis, J., 1998: *Approaches to Teaching*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University (Polish translation by K. Kruszewski, 2000: *Style nauczania*. Warszawa: WSiP).

Fessler, R. and Christensen, J., 1992: *The Teacher Career Cycle: Understanding and Guiding the Professional Development of Teachers*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Fitchman Dana, N. and Yendol-Hoppey, D., 2008: *The Reflective Educator's Guide to Professional Development. Coaching Inquiry-oriented Learning Communities.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press & Sage Company.

Flanagan, O., 1991: *The Science of the Mind.* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Flowerdew, J., Brock, M., and Hsia, S. (eds), 1992: *Second Language Teacher Education.* Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.

Fodor, J., 2008: *LOT: The Language of Thought Revisited.* Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Fottland, H., 2004: Memories of a fledging teacher: a beginning teacher's bibliography. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 10 (6), 639–662.

Francis, H., (ed.), 1985: *Learning to Teach. Psychology of Teacher Training.* London/Phildelphia: The Falmer Press.

Francis, D., 1995: The reflective journal: a window to pre-service teachers practical knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 11 (3), 229–241.

Freeman, D., 1992: Language teacher education, emerging discourse, and change in classroom practice. In: J. Flowerdew, M. Brock and S. Hsia (eds): *Second Language Teacher Education*. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong, pp. 1–21.

Fuller, F.F., 1969: Concerns of teachers: a developmental conceptualization. *American Educational Research Journal* 6, 207–226.

Fuller, F., 1970: *Personalized Education for Teachers: One Application of the Teacher Concerns Model.* Austin, TX: University of Texas, R & D Centre for Teacher Education.

Furlong, J. and Maynard, T., 1995: *Mentoring Student Teachers*. London: Routledge.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2006: A programme of studies to develop research abilities and reflective practices in pre-service EFL teachers. In: S. Howcroft (ed.): *Actas do Encontro Internacional de Linguistica Aplicada,* Aveiro: Universidade de Aveiro, pp. 103–116.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2007: The insecurity of being a reflective practitioner: on pre-service teachers' aches and pains. In: J. Arabski, D. Gabryś-Barker and A. Łyda (eds): *PASE Papers 2007.* Vol. 1. *Studies in Language and Methodology of Teaching Foreign Languages*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego and Wydawnictwo PARA, pp. 429–440.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2008: The research orientation and preferences of pre-service EFL teachers. In: M. Pawlak (ed.): *Investigating English Language Learning and Teaching*. Poznań–Kalisz: UAM, pp. 31–48.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2009: Critical incidents in foreign language instruction: pre-service teachers' perceptions of success and failure. In: A. Barker, D. Callahan and M.A. Ferreira (eds): *Success and Failure. Essays from the 29th APEAA Conference at the University of Aveiro, 17–19 April 2008*. Aveiro, Portugal: Universidade de Aveiro, pp. 303–316.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2009a: How critical are critical incidents? Diary stories from trainee teachers' classroom. In: M. Kuźniak and B. Rozwadowska (eds): *PASE Papers 2008.* Vol. 1: *Studies in Language and Methodology of Teaching Foreign Language*. Wrocław: Oficyna Wydawnicza ATUT and Wrocławskie Wydawnictwo Oświatowe, pp. 307–316.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2009b: New to self-reflection and self-evaluation: Novice teachers as diary writers. In: M. Wysocka (ed.): *On Language Structure, Acquisition and Teaching*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, pp. 419–427.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2009c: Foreign language learners as teachers: Individual perceptions of a teaching process at the pre-service level. In: M. Pawlak (ed.): *New Perspectives on Individual Differences in Language Learning and Teaching,* Vol. VIII. Poznań–Kalisz: UAM, pp. 189–204.

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2009d: Appraisal systems in teacher training: focus on critical incidents (CIs): *Linguistica Silesiana* (in press).

Gabryś-Barker, D., 2010: Introducing action research in the foreign language classroom. In: Eadem (ed.): *Action Research in Teacher Development: An Overview of Research Methodology*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, pp. 11–24.

Gabryś-Barker, D. (ed.), 2010: *Action Research in Teacher Development: an Overview of Research Methodology*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Gold, Y. and Roth, R.A., 1993: *Teachers Managing Stress and Preventing Burnout. The Professional Health Solution*. London: The Falmer Press.

Gold, Y., 1996: Beginning teacher support: attrition, mentoring and induction. In: J. Sikula: *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. London/Sydney/Toronto: MacMillan and Prentice Hall International, pp. 548–594.

Goleman, D., 1995: *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.

Golombek, P. and Johnson, K.E., 2004: Narrative inquiry as a mediational space: examining emotional and cognitive dissonance in second-language teachers' development. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 10 (3), 307–327.

Good, T. and Brophy, J., 1973: *Looking in Classrooms*. New York/London: Harper and Row Publishers.

Goodson, J., 1995: Studying the teacher's life and work. In: J. Smyth: *Critical Discourse on Teacher Education*. London: Cassell, pp. 55–64.

Goswami, U., 2008: *Cognitive Development: The Learning Brain*. Hove/New York: Psychology Press.

Gould, L., 2000: Changes in pre-service teachers' schema for understanding teaching. *Action in Teacher Education* 4 (21), 90–100.

Gray, C., 2001: *Mentor Development in the Education of Modern Language Teachers*. Clevedon/Buffalo/Toronto/Sydney: Multilingual Matters.

Groome, D., 1999: *An Introduction to Cognitive Psychology*. London and New York: Psychology Press.

Habermas, I., 1971: *Knowledge and Human Interests*. London: Heinemann.

Hall, S., 1989: *Fieldwork Observation From "A Teacher's Use of Her Tacit Teaching Knowledge In The Self-Evaluation of Her Professional Practice."* Unpublished PhD thesis, Murdoch University, Western Australia (quoted in Tripp, 1993).

Hammersley, M. (ed.), 1999: *Researching School Experience: Ethnographic Studies of Teaching and Learning*. London: The Falmer Press.

Hargreaves, A. and Fullan, M.G. (eds), 1992. *Understanding Teacher Development*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Hargreaves, A., 1995: Beyond collaboration: critical teacher development in the postmodern age. In: J. Smyth: *Critical Discourse on Teacher Education*. London: Cassell, pp. 149–180.

Harrison, J., Lawson, T. and Wortley, A., 2005: Mentoring the beginning teacher: developing professional autonomy through critical reflection and practice. *Reflective Practice* 6 (3), 419–441.

Harrison, J. and McKeon, F., 2008: The formal and situated learning of beginning teacher educators in England. Identifying characteristics of successful induction in the transition from workplace in schools to workplace in higher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 31 (2), 151–168.

Hascher, T., Cocard, E., and Moser, P., 2004: Forget about theory – practice is all? Student teachers' learning in practicum. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 10 (6), 623–637.

Hastings, W., 2004: Emotions and the practicum: the cooperating teachers' perspective. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 10 (2), 135–148.

Hawkins, M.R. (ed.), 2004: *Language Learning and Teacher Education*. Clevedon/Buffalo/Toronto: Multilingual Matters.

Hayes, D., 2005: Exploring the lives of non-native speaking English educators in Sri Lanka. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 11 (2), 169–194.

Herndon, L.D., 2002: Putting theory into practice: letting my students learn to read. In: K.E. Johnson and P.R. Golombek: *Teachers' Narrative Inquiry as Professional Development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 35–51.

Hillocks, G., Jr., 1999: *Ways of Thinking, Ways of Teaching.* New York/London: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Holmes, E., 2004: *The Newly Qualified Teacher's Handbook.* London/Sterling, VA: Kogan Page.

Holyoak, K.J., 1995: Problem solving. In: D. Osherson and E. Smith (ed.): *Invitation to Cognitive Science*. Vol. 3: *Thinking.* 2nd edition. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, pp. 267–296.

Honey, P. and Mumford, A., 1992: *Manuals of Learning Styles.* 3rd edition, Maidenhead: Honey Publications.

Howcroft, S. (ed.), 2006: *Actas do Encontro Internacional de Linguistica Aplicada*. Aveiro: Universidade de Aveiro.

Hsu, S., 2005: Help-seeking behaviour of student teachers. In: *Educational Research* 47 (3), 307–318.

Huberman, A.M., 1992: Teacher development and instructional mastery. In: A. Hargreaves and M.G. Fullan, (eds): *Understanding Teacher Development*. New York: Teachers College Press, pp. 122–142.

Hursh, D., 1995: It's more than style: reflective teachers as ethical and political practitioners. In: J. Smyth (ed.): *Critical Discourse on Teacher Education*. London: Cassell, pp. 101–112.

Jarvis, J. and Woodrow, D., 2005: Reasons for choosing a teacher training course. *Research in Education* 73 (1), 29–35.

Jay, J.K. and Johnson, K.L., 2002: Capturing complexity: a typology of reflective practice for teacher education. In: *Teaching and Teacher Education* 8, 73–85.

Jeffries, S., 1996: The national foreign language standards: can we get from here to here? In: Z. Moore: *Foreign Language Teacher Education*. Lanham, New York and London: University Press of America, Inc., pp. 1–36.

James, P., 2001: *Teaching in Action. Tasks for In-Service Teacher Education and Development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jennings, C., 1996: Training the reflective professional. The practice of supervision. In: C. Jennings and E. Kennedy (eds): *The Reflective Professional in Education*. London/Bristol, Pennsylvania: Jessica Kingsley Publishers, pp. 15–43.

Jennings, C. and Kennedy, E. (eds), 1996: *The Reflective Professional in Education*. London/Bristol, Pennsylvania: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

Jessner, U., 2006: *Linguistic Awareness in Multilinguals*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Johannesson, I.A., 2006: Concepts of teacher knowledge as social strategies. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society* 14 (1), 19–34.

Johnson, K., 1992: Learning to teach: instructional actions and decisions of preservice ESL teachers. *TESOL Quarterly* 26 (3), 507–535.

Johnson, K. and Golombek, P. (eds), 2002: *Teachers' Narrative Inquiry as Professional Development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, K., 2009: *Second Language Teacher Education. A Sociocultural Perspective*. New York/London: Routledge.

Joram, A. and Gabriele, A.J., 1998: Preservice teachers' prior beliefs: transforming obstacles into opportunities. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 14 (2), 175–191.

Jyrhama, R., Kynaslahti, H., Krokfors, L., Byman, R. Maaranen, K., Toom, A. and Kansanen, P., 2008: The appreciation and realisation of research-based teacher education: finnish students' experiences of teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 31 (1), 1–16.

Kagan, D.M., 1992: Professional growth among preservice and beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research* 62 (2), 129–169.

Kalaya, P. and Barcelos, A.M.F. (eds), 2003: *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches*. Dortrecht/Boston/London: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Katz, L., 1979: *Helping others learn to teach: some principles and techniques for inservice educators*. Urbana, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Early Childhood Education.

Kegan, R., 1982: *The Evolving Self*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kegan, R., 1994: *In Over Our Heads*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Kemmis, S. and R. McTaggart (eds), 1988: *The Action Research Planner*. Geelong, Australia: Deakin University Press.

Kennedy, M., 2005: *Inside Teaching. How Classroom Life Undermines Reform*. London/Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Kincheloe, J.L. and Steinberg, S.R., 1998: Making meaning and analyzing experience – student researchers as transformative agents. In: S.R. Steinberg and J.L. Kincheloe (eds): *Students as Researchers: Creating Classrooms that Matter*. London: The Falmer Press, The Taylor and Francis Group, pp. 2–19.

Kitching, K., Morgan, M. and O'Leary, M., 2009: It's the little things: exploring the importance of commonplace events for early-career teachers motivation. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*. 15 (1), 43–58.

Kniveton, B.H., 2004: The influences and motivations on which students base their choice of career. *Research in Education* 71 (2), 47–59.

Kolb, D., 1984: *Experiential Learning as the Science of Learning and Development.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prenctice Hall.

Komorowska, H., 1999: Kształcenie nauczycieli języków obcych – potrzeby i propozycje rozwiązań. W: L. Aleksandrowicz-Pędlich, and H. Komorowska. (red.): *Kształcenie nauczycieli języków obcych w Polsce*. Białystok: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu w Białymstoku, pp. 75–88.

Korthagen, F.A.J., 1988: The influence of learning orientations on the development of reflective teaching. In: J. Calderhead: *Teachers' Professional Learning,* London: The Falmer Press, pp. 35–50.

Korthagen, F.A.J., 2001: *Linking Practice and Theory: The Pedagogy of Realistic Teacher Education.* Mahwah, New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Korthagen, F. and Vasalos, A., 2005: Levels in reflection: core reflection as a means to enhance professional growth. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 11 (1), 47–71.

Kővecses, Z., 2006: *Language, Mind and Culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kramsch, C., 2003: Metaphor and the subjective construction of beliefs. In: P. Kalaya and A.M.F. Barcelos (eds): *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches*. Dortrecht/Boston/London: Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 109–128.

Kubler LaBoskey, V., 1993: A conceptual framework for reflection in preservice teacher education. In: J. Calderhead and P. Gates: *Conceptualizing Reflection in Teacher Development*. London: The Falmer Press, The Taylor and Francis Group, pp. 23–38.

Kuźniak, M. and Rozwadowska, B. (eds), 2008: *PASE Papers* Vol. 1: *Studies in Language and Methodology of Teaching Foreign Languages*. Wrocław: Oficyna Wydawnicza ATUT.

Kyriacou, C., 2001: *Effective Teaching in Schools. Theory and Practice*. 2nd edition Cheltenham: Nelson Thornes, Ltd.

Lakoff, G. and Johnson, M., 1980: *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

Lange, J. and Burrough-Lange, S.G., 1994: Professional uncertainty and professional growth: a case study of experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 10 (6), 617–631.

Lantolf, J.P., 2000: *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Larrivee, B., 2008: Development of a tool to assess teachers' level of reflective practice. *Reflective Practice*. 9 (3), 341–360.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (ed.), 1980: *Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Lave, J., 1988: *Cognition in Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lave, J. and Wenger, E., 1991: *Situated Learning. Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leinhardt, G., 1988: Situated knowledge and expertise in teaching. In: J. Calderhead (ed.): *Teachers' Professional Learning*. London: The Falmer Press, pp. 146–168.

Lennox Terion, J. and Philion, R., 2008: The electronic journal as reflection-on-action: a qualitative analysis of communication and learning in a peer-mentoring program. *Studies in Higher Education* 33 (5), 583–597.

Leshem, S. and Trafford, N., 2006: Stories as mirrors: reflective practice in teaching and learning. *Reflective Practice* 7 (1), 9–27.

Lipman, M., 2007: *Thinking in Education*, 2nd edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Liston, D. and Zeichner, K., 1990: Reflective teaching and action research in preservice teacher education. In: *Journal of Education for Teaching* 16 (3), 235–234.

Little, D., 1995: Learning as dialogue: the dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. *System* 23 (2), 175–180.

Little, D., 2008: The Common European Framework and the European Language Portfolio: involving learners and their judgements in the assessment process. *Language Testing* 25, 365–402.

Long, M.H., 1980: Inside the "black box". Methodological issues in research on language teaching and learning. In: *Language Learning* 30 (1), 1–41.

Loughran, J., 1996: *Developing Reflective Practice. Learning about Teaching and Learning through Modeling*. London/Washington, D.C.: The Falmer Press.

Loughran, J. and Russell, T., 1997: Meeting student teachers on their own terms: experience precedes understanding. In: V. Richardson (ed.): *Constructivist Teacher Education: Building New Understandings*. London: The Falmer Press, the Taylor and Francis Group, pp. 164–181.

Loughran, J.J., 2002: Effective reflective practice. In search of meaning in learning about teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education* 55 (1), 33–43.

Lucas, N., 1997: The changing sixth form: the growth of pre-vocational education. In: S. Capel, M. Leask and T. Turner: *Starting to Teach in a Secondary School. A companion to a newly qualified teacher*. London/New York: Routledge, pp. 211–231.

Luttenberg, J. and Bergen, Th., 2008: Teacher reflection: the development of a typology. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 14 (5–6), 543–566.

Mann, S., 2005: The language teacher's development. *Language Teaching* 38 (3), 103–118.

Maaranen, K. and Krokfors, L., 2007: Time to think? Primary school teacher students reflecting on their MA thesis research processes. *Reflective Practice* 8 (3), 359–373.

Malderez, A., Hobson, A.J., Tracey, L. and Kerr, K., 2007: Becoming a student teacher: core features of the experience. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 30 (3), 225–248.

Mackinnon, A., 1987: Detecting reflection-in-action among pre-service teachers. *Teacher and Teacher Education* 3 (2), 135–145.

Mangieri, J.N. and C.C. Block (eds), 1994: *Creating Powerful Thinking in Teachers and Students.* Forth Worth: Harcourt Brace.

McNiff, J., Lomax, P. and Whitehead, J., 2003: *You and Your Action Research Project*. 2nd edition London/New York: Routledge and Falmer.

Meijer, P.C., Zanting, A. and Verloop, N., 2002: How can student teachers elicit experienced teachers' practical knowledge? *Journal of Teacher Education* 53 (5), 406–419.

Meirink, J.A., Meijer, P.C., Verloop, N. and Bergen, C.M., 2009: How do teachers learn in the workplace? An examination of teacher learning activities. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 32 (3), 209–224.

Mercer, N., 2008: *The Guided Construction of Knowledge. Talk amongst Teachers and Learners*. Clevedon/Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.

Mezirow, J. 1981: A critical theory of adult learning and education. *Adult Education Journal Quarterly* 32 (1), 3–24.

Moeller, A.J., 1996: Journaling: a path to reflective teacher development. In: Z. Moore (ed.): *Foreign Language Teacher Education*. Lanham, New York/ London: University Press of America, Inc., pp. 59–74.

Mok, Y.F., 2005: Teacher concerns and teacher life stages. *Research in Education* 73, 53–72.

Mollon, P., 2000: *The Unconscious. Ideas in Psychoanalysis.* Cambridge: Icon Books UK.

Moon, J.A., 2004: *Reflection in Learning and Professional Development Theory and Practice*. London/New York: Routledge Falmer.

Moore, Z., 1996: *Foreign Language Teacher Education*. Lanham, New York/ London: University Press of America, Inc.

Moss, G., Springer, T. and Dehr, K., 2008: Guided reflection protocol as narrative inquiry and teacher professional development. *Reflective Practice* 9 (4), 487–434.

Murphy, P.K., Delli, L.A. and Edwards, M., 2004: The good teacher and good teaching: comparing beliefs of second-grade students, preservice teachers, and inservice teachers. *The Journal of Experimental Education* 72 (2), 69–92.

Nespor, J. and Barylske, J., 1991: Narrative discourse and teacher knowledge. *American Educational Research Journal* 28 (4), 805–823.

Neumann, A., 2006: Professing passion: emotion in the scholarship of professors at research universities. *America Educational Research Journal* 43 (3), 381–424.

Newell, A. and Simon, H.A., 1972: *Human Problem Solving*. Englewood Cliffs, New York: Prentice Hall.

Nias, J., 1989: *Primary Teachers Talking. A Study of Teaching at Work*. London/New York: Routledge.

Nunan, D., 1992: *Research Methods in Second Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge Language Teaching Library. Cambridge University Press.

Oosterheert, I.E. and Vermunt, J.D., 2003: Knowledge construction in learning to teach: the role of dynamic sources. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 9 (2), 157–173.

Orland-Barak, L., 2005: Portfolios as evidence of reflective practice: what remains untold. *Educational Research* 47 (1), 25–44.

Osherson, D.N. and Smith, E.E. (eds), 1995: *Invitation to Cognitive Science*. Vol. 3: *Thinking*. 2nd edition. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Oxford, R., Tomlinson, S., Barcelos, A., Harrington, C., Lavine, R.Z., Saleh, A. and Longhini, A., 1998: Clashing metaphors about classroom teachers: towards a systematic typology for the language teaching field. *System* 26, 3–50.

Ottesen, E., 2007: Reflection in teacher education. *Reflective Practice* 8 (1), 31–46.

Pawlak, M. (ed.), 2008: *Investigating English Language Learning and Teaching*. Poznań–Kalisz: Wydawnictwo UAM.

Pawlak, M. (ed.), 2009: *New Perspectives on Individual Differences in Language Learning and Teaching,* Vol. VIII. Poznań–Kalisz: Wydawnictwo UAM.

Pedro, J.Y., 2005: Reflection in teacher education: exploring pre-service teachers' meanings of reflective practice. *Reflective Practice* 6 (1), 49–66.

Perry, R., 1997: *Teaching Practice. A Guide for Early Childhood Students*. London/New York: Routledge Flamer, Taylor and Francis Group.

Peterson, P.L. and Clark, C.M., 1978: Teachers' reports of their cognitive processes. *American Educational Research Journal* 15 (4), 555–565.

Pigge, F.L. and Marso, R.N., 1997: A seven year longitudinal multi-factor assessment of teaching concerns development through preparation and early years of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 13 (2), 225–235.

Pinnegar, S., 1995: (Re) experiencing student teaching. In: T. Russell and F. Korthagen (eds): *Teachers who Teach Teachers. Reflections on Teacher Education*. London/Washington D.C.: Falmer Press, pp. 56–67.

Pollard, A. and Tann, S., 1994: *Reflective Teaching in the Primary School. A Handbook for the Classroom*. 2nd edition. London/New York: Cassell Publications & The Open University.

Pollard, A., 2005: *Reflective Teaching*. 2nd edition. London/New York: Continuum.

Posner, G.J., 1989: *Field Experience. Methods of Reflective Teaching*. New York/London: Longman.

Punter, A. (ed.), 2007: *Mentor Development for Teacher Training. A Scenario-based Approach*. Hatfield: University of Hertfordshire, School of Education.

Putkiewicz, A. and Wilkomirska, A., 2003: *Problems of Teacher Education in Rolling Changes of Educational System All Over The World*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego.

Qualley, D., 1997: *Turns of Thought. Teaching Composition as Reflexive Inquiry*. Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Boynton Cook, Heinemann.

Regan, P., 2007: Interpreting language used in reflective practice. *Reflective Practice* 8 (1), 109–122.

Reiman, A.J., 1999: The evolution of the social role taking and guided reflection framework in teacher education: recent theory and quantitative synthesis of research. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 15, 597–612.

Rhodes, Ch., Nevill A. and Allan, J., 2004: Valuing and supporting teachers. A survey of teacher satisfaction, dissatisfaction, morale and retention in an English local education authority. *Research in Education* 71, 67–80.

Richards, J.C. and Farell, T.S.C., 2005: *Professional development for language teachers*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. and Ho, B., 1998: Reflective thinking through journal writing. In: Richards, J.C. (ed.): *Beyond Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 153–170.

Richards, J.C. and Lockhart, Ch., 1994: *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C, (ed.), 1998: *Beyond Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. and Nunan, D. (eds), 1990: *Second Language Teacher Education*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richardson, V. (ed.), 1997: *Constructivist Teacher Education: Building New Understandings*. London: The Falmer Press, the Taylor and Francis Group.

Rinvolucri, M., 2008: The teacher's biography and mutual supervison (3). *The Teacher* 58 (4), 18–20.

Rodgers, C., 2002: Defining reflection: another look at John Dewey and reflective thinking. *Teachers College Record* 104 (4), 842–866.

Rodgers, C. and Raider-Roth, M., 2006: Presence in teaching. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*. 12 (3), 265–287.

Rodgers, C.R. and Scott, C., 2008: The development of the personal self and professional identity in learning to teach. In: M. Cochran-Smith, S. Feiman-Nemser, D.J. Mc Intyre and K.E. Demersd, (eds): *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. New York/London: Routledge and the Association of Teacher Educators, 3rd edition, pp. 732–755.

Romano, M., 2004: Teacher reflections on *bumpy moments* in teaching: a self-study. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 10 (6), 663–681.

Romano, M., 2005: Assessing and meeting the needs of pre-service teachers. A programmatic perspective. *Action in Teacher Education* 27 (3), 40–54.

Rosaen, Ch. and Florio-Ruane, S., 2008: Experience, metaphor, and culture in teacher education. In: Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman-Nemser, S., Mc Intyre, D.J. and Demersd, K.E. (eds): *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. 3rd edition. New York/London: Routledge and the Associotion of Teacher Educators, pp. 706–729.

Rose, D., 2006: *Consciousness. Philosophical, Psychological and Neural Theories*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Russell, T. and Korthagen, F., 1995: *Teachers who Teach Teachers. Reflections on Teacher Education*. London/Washington, D.C.: Falmer Press.

Russell, T., 2005: Can reflective practice be taught? *Reflective Practice* 6 (2), 199–204.

Samuels, M. and Betts, J., 2007: Crossing the threshold from description to deconstruction and reconstruction: using self-assessment to deepen reflection. *Reflective Practice* 8 (2), 269–283.

Sarason, I.G., Sarason, B.R., Pierce, G.R., 1990: Anxiety, cognitive interference, and performance. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality* 5 (2), 1–18.

Sato, K., 2002: Seeking satisfaction. In: K. Johnson and P. Golombek (eds): *Teachers' Narrative Inquiry as Professional Development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 150–173.

Scarcella, R.C. and S.D. Krashen (eds), 1980: *Research in Second Language Acquisition: Selected Papers of the Los Angeles Second Language Research Forum*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Schmidt, R. and Frota, S., 1986: Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: a case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In: R. Day, (ed.): *Talking to Learn. Conversation in Second Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House, pp. 237–326.

Schmidt, R., 1994: Deconstructing consciousness in search of useful definitions for applied linguistics. In: *AILA Review* 11, 11–26.

Schön, D., 1983: *The Reflective Practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.

Schön, D.A., 1987: *Educating the Reflective Practitioner*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Schumann, J., 1997: *The Neurobiology of Affect in Language*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Shepherd, M., 2006: Using a learning journal to improve professional practice: a journey of personal and professional self-discovery. *Reflective Practice* 7 (3), 333–348.

Sikula, J., Buttery, T. and Guyton, E. (eds), 1996: *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. London/Sydney/Toronto: MacMillan & Prentice Hall International.

Smith, C. and Squire, F., 2007: Narrative perspectives: two reflections from a continuum of experience. *Reflective Practice* 8 (3), 375–386.

Smith, K. and Lev-Ari, L., 2005: The place of the practicum in pre-service teacher education: The voice of the students. In: *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education* 33 (3), 289–302.

Smith, K. and Sela, O., 2005: Action research as a bridge between pre-service teacher education and in-service professional development for students and teacher educators. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 28 (3), 293–310.

Smyth, J., 1989: Developing and sustaining critical reflection in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education* 40, 2–9.

Smyth, J. (ed.), 1995: *Critical Discourse on Teacher Education*. London: Cassell.

Sternberg, R.J., 1996: *Cognitive Psychology*. Philadelphia/New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Sternberg, R.J., 1999: *Thinking Styles*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Steinberg, S.R. and Kincheloe, J.L., 1998: *Students as Researchers: Creating Classrooms that Matter*. London: The Falmer Press, The Taylor and Francis Group.

Sternberg, R.J. and Horvath, J.A., 1995: A prototype view of expert teaching. *Educational Researcher* 24 (6), 9–17.

Strugielska, A. and Siek-Piskozub, T., 2008: The teaching/learning experience at the university level – a case study of educational discourse. In: M. Kuźniak, and B. Rozwadowska (eds): *PASE papers*. Vol. 1: *Studies in Language and Methodology of Teaching Foreign Language*. Wrocław: Oficyna Wydawnicza ATUT, pp. 485–498.

Sutton, L., Townend, M. and Wright, J., 2007: The experiences of reflective learning journals by cognitive behavioural psychotheraphy students. In: *Reflective Practice* 8 (3), 387–404.

Tabor, U., 2008: *Biograficzne uwarunkowania rozwoju nauczyciela. Analiza jakościowa*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Tann, S., 1993: Eliciting Student Teachers' Personal Theories. In: J. Calderhead and P. Gates (eds): *Conceptualizing Reflection in Teacher Development*. London: The Falmer Press, The Taylor and Francis Group, pp. 53–69.

Tagart, G.L. and Wilson, A.P., 1998: *Promoting Reflective Thinking in Teachers: 44 Action Strategies*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press Inc., A Sage Publication.

Thagard, P., 2005: *Mind: Introduction to Cognitive Science*. 2nd edition. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Thomas, C. and Gadbois, S.A., 2007: Academic self-handicapping. The role of self-concept clarity and students' learning strategies. *British Journal of Educational Psychology* 77, 101–119.

Thomas, J.B., 1980: *The Self in Education*. Windsor, Berks: NFER Publishing Company.

Thurlow Lond, D. and Stuart, C., 2004: Supporting teacher higher levels of reflection among teacher candidates: a pedagogical framework. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 10 (3), 275–290.

Tickle, L., 1994: *The Induction of New Teachers. Reflective Professional Practice.* New York: Cassell.

Tilema, H. and Van der Westhuizen, G., 2006: Knowledge construction in collaborative enquiry among teachers. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 12 (1), 51–67.

Todd, R.W., Mills, N., Palard, C. and Khamcharoen, P., 2001: Giving feedback on journals. *ELT Journal* 55 (4), 354–359.

Tripp, D., 1993: *Critical Incidents in Teaching. Developing Professional Judgement*. London: Routledge.

Tsui, A., 2003/2009: *Understanding Expertise in Teaching: Case Studies of Second Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge Applied Linguistics, Cambridge University Press.

Tuzel, A.E. and Akcan, S., 2009: Raising the language awareness of pre-service English teachers in an EFL context. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 32 (3), 271–287.

Underhill, A., 1993: Awareness: the instrument and the aim of experiential research. In: J. Edge and K. Richards (eds): *Teachers Develop Teachers Research*. Heinemann Books for Teachers, London: Heinemann, pp. 183–187.

Van Huizen, P., Van Oers, B. and Wubbels, T., 2005: A Vygotskian perspective on teacher Education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies* 37 (3), 267–290.

Vazir, N., 2006: Reflection in action: constructing narratives of experience. *Reflective Practice* 7 (4), 445–454.

Verity, D., 2000: Side-effects: the strategic development of professional satisfaction. In: Lantolf, J.P.: *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*. New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 179–198.

Vygotsky, L.S., 1978: *Mind in Society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Walker, R. and Adelman, C., 1975: *A Guide to Classroom Observation*. London: Methuen.

Walkington, J., 2005: Becoming a teacher: encouraging development of teacher identity through reflective practice. *Asia Pacific Journal of Teacher Education* 33, 53–64.

Wallace, S., 2007: *Teaching, Tutoring and Training in the Lifelong Learning Sector*. 3rd edition. Exeter: Learning Matters Ltd.

Warford, M.K. and Reeves, J., 2003: Falling into it: novice TESOL teacher thinking. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 9 (1), 47–65.

Watson, C., 2006: Narratives of practice and the construction of identity in teaching. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 12 (5), 509–526.

Weaver, M.R., 2006: Do students value feedback? Student perceptions of tutors' written responses. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education* 31 (3), 379–394.

Weber, S. and Mitchell, C., 1996: Betwix and between: the culture of student teaching. In: Z. Moore (ed.): *Foreign Language Teacher Education*. Lanham, New York and London: University Press of America, Inc., pp. 300–316.

Wells, A. and Matthews, G., 1994: *Attention and Emotion*. Hove/Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Wilkin, M. (ed.), 1992: *Mentoring in Schools*. London: Kogan Page.

Wilson, S.M., Floden, R.E. and Ferrini-Mundy, J., 2002: Teacher preparation research. An insider's view from the outside. *Journal of Teacher Education* 53 (3), 190–204.

Wojtynek-Musik, K., 2001: *Samopoznanie w procesie nauki języka obcego oraz propozycje ćwiczeń obcojęzycznych*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Woods, D., 2003: The social construction of beliefs in the language classroom. In: P. Kalaya and A.M.F. Barcelos (eds): *Beliefs about SLA: New Research Approaches*. Dortrecht/Boston/London: Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 201–229.

Woods, P., 1993: *Critical Events in Teaching and Learning*. London/Washington, D.C.: The Falmer Press.

Wright, D., 2005: Embodying, emotioning, expressing learning. *Reflective Practice* 6 (1), 85–93.

Wright, T., 2010: Second Language Teacher Education: review of recent research on practice. *Language Teaching: Surveys and Studies*, 259–296.

Wubbels, Th. and Korthagen, F.A., 1990: The effects of a pre-service teacher education program for the preparation of reflective teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching* 16 (1), 29–43.

Wysocka, M., 2003: *Profesjonalizm w nauczaniu języków obcych*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego.

Wysocka, M. (ed.), 2009: *On Language Structure, Acquisition and Teaching*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, pp. 419–427.

Younger, M., Brindley, S., Pedder, D. and Hagger, H., 2004: Starting points: student teachers' reasons for becoming teachers and their preconceptions of what this will mean. *European Journal of Teacher Education* 27 (3), 245–264.

Zawadzka, E., 2004: *Nauczyciele języków obcych w dobie przemian*. Kraków: Oficyna Wydawnicza „Impuls".

Zembylas, M., 2003: Emotions and teacher identity: a poststructural perspective. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice* 9 (3), 213–238.

Zeichner, K.M. and Liston, D.P., 1996: *Reflective teaching: An introduction*. Mahwah, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Internet sources

Adams, K., 2001: "The Critical incident Questionnaire: A Critical Reflective Teaching Tool." Available HTTP: http://www.exchangesjournal.org/print/print_1038.html, accessed 14.12.2007.

Geneva Appraisal Questionnaire at http://www.unige.ch/fapse.emotion. Kelly, M. and Grenfell, M.: *European Profile for Language Teacher Education – A Frame of Reference*. Available HTTP: http://www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/index.html.

Kelly, M., Grenfell, M., Allan, R., Krizia, Ch. and McEvoy, W., 2004: *European Profile for LanguageTeacher Education – A Frame of Reference*. Available HTTP: http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages, accessed 30.05.2011.

Newby, D., Allan, R., Fenner, A.B., Jones, B., Komorowska, H. and Soghikyan, K.: "European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages. A reflection tool for language teacher education", European Centre for Modern Languages. Available HTTP: http://archive.ecml.at/mtp2/fte, accessed 31.05.2011.

Tercanlioglu, L., 2008: A qualitative investigation of pre-service English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher opinions. In: *The Qualitative Report* 13 (1), 137–150. Retrieved from: http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR 13–1/tercanlioglu.pdf., accessed 20.12.2009.

Wilde, E.: "The journey: Critical self reflection through writing". In: Newman, J., 2008: *Educating as Inquiry. A Teacher Action Research Site*. Available HTTP: http://www.lupinworks.com/ar/changing/ew.htmla, accessed 27.10.2008.

http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/FTE/, accessed 30.05.2011.

http://www.coe.int/t/gd4/linguisitc%5CAutobiogrWeb_EN.asp, accessed 1.06.2011.

INDEX OF NAMES

Aamot, Paul J. 271
Adams, Katherine L. 291
Adelman, Clem 121, 289
Akcan, Sumru 289
Aleksandrowicz-Pędich, Lucyna 271, 282
Alexander, R.J. 258, 271
Allan, James F. 286
Allan, Rebecca 291
Altrichter, Herbert 160–163, 187, 197, 271
Allwright, Dick 120, 271
Allwright, R.L. 120, 271
Anderson, Thomas 117, 271
Appel, Joachim 168–171, 188, 200, 271
Arabski, Janusz 271, 278
Archer, Walter 271
Armour, K. M. 272
Arnold, Jane 272
Arthur, James 213, 246, 247, 272
Ash, Andy 272
Ashworth, Mary 272
Attard, Karl 154, 272

Bailey, Kathleen M. 120, 155, 253, 271, 272
Bain, John D. 156, 168, 180, 215, 216, 227, 248, 272
Ballantyne, Roy 156, 168, 272
Banyard, Phil 141, 272
Barcelos, Ana Maria F. 281, 282, 290
Barcelos, Ana 285
Barker, Anthony 273, 278
Bartell, Carol A. 19, 24, 30, 209, 273, 275
Barylske, Judith 152, 284
Beach, Richard 206, 273
Beard, Colin 91, 92, 273
Beijaard, Douwe 204, 273
Bell, Judith 152, 273
Benson, Phil 273
Ben-Ze'ev, Avi 142, 143, 149, 273
Bergen, C.M. 284
Bergen, Theo 82, 101, 215, 283
Berliner, D.C. 18, 273
Betts, Jan 73, 168, 179–181, 189, 287
Block, Cathy Collins 273, 284
Bochner, Arthur P. 154, 276
Bold, Christine 273
Boud, David 167, 273
Boz, Nihat 62, 63, 273
Boz, Yezdan 62, 63, 273
Brindley, Susane 290
Britzman, Deborah 207, 273
Broadbent, Catherine 273
Brock, Marc 158, 273, 277

Brookfield, Stephen D. 112, 130, 133, 210, 273
Brophy, Jere E. 118, 119, 121, 123, 124, 129, 279
Brown, Tony 39, 40, 247, 274
Bullough, Robert V. 64, 274
Burden, Peter W. 18, 68, 274
Burn, K. 205, 255, 274
Burrough-Lange, Sue G. 134, 282
Buttery, Thomas 287
Byman, Reijo 281

Cajkryl, W. 260, 274
Calderhead, James 213, 274, 282, 283, 288
Callahan, David 273, 278
Capel, Susan 274, 283
Carr, Wilfred 80, 274
Castejon, Juan 274
Chambers, Philip 273
Chan, David W. 23, 36, 274
Christensen, Judith 18, 277
Cirlanescu, Alina 254, 255, 274
Clandinin, D. Jean 36, 274
Clark, Christopher M. 120, 285
Clarke Matthew 274
Claxton, Guy 258, 259, 274
Cocard, Yves 279
Cochran-Smith, Marilyn 257, 275, 286, 287
Cohen, Louise 59, 148, 275
Cole, Mike 71, 275
Connelly, Michael 36, 274
Cottrell, Stella 88, 275
Coultas, Valerie 275
Council of Europe, 2001 250, 275
Craft, Maurice 271
Craig, Cheryl J. 153, 275
Creemers, Bert 275
Creese, Angela 275
Crossouard, Barbara 275
Csizer, Kata 276

Darling-Hammond, L. 275
Davis, E. 98, 99, 205, 212, 214, 215, 275
Davison, J. 272
Day, Christopher 275
Day, Richard 275, 287
Dehr, Karol 284
De Jong, J.A. 79, 276
Delli, Lee Ann 284
Demersd, Kelly E. 275, 286, 287
Denzin, Norman 276
DeShon Hamlin, Karen 191, 194, 204, 276
Dewey, John 74, 87, 88, 92, 98, 152–154, 276, 286
Dörnyei, Zoltan 19–21, 23, 30, 125, 276
Draper, Roni Jo 274
Dreyfus, Hubert L. 193, 276
Dreyfus, Stuart E. 193, 276
Duran, A. 35, 36, 276

Edelman, Gerald 276
Edge, Julian 276, 289
Edwards, Maeghan 284
Eilam, Billie 276
Elbaz, Freema 123, 149, 276
Ellis, Carolyn 154, 276
Ellis, Nick 117, 276
Ellis, Ralph 276
Eraut, Michael 192, 205, 276
Erkkila, Raija 277
Esbenshade, Jennifer L. 162, 277
Estola, Eila 277
Extremera, Natalio 276

Feiman-Nemser, Sharon 275, 286, 287
Fenner, Anne-Brit 291

Fenstermacher, Gary 277
Farrell, Thomas S.C. 78, 79, 122, 125, 126, 158, 277
Ferreira, Maria Aline 273, 278
Ferrini-Mundy, Joan 290
Fessler, Ralph 18, 277
Fitchman Dana, Nancy 277
Flanagan, Owen 119, 140, 277
Floden, Robert E. 290
Florio-Ruane, Susan 42, 287
Flowerdew, John 273, 277
Fodor, Jerry 277
Fottland, Helg 277
Francis, Hazel 274, 277
Francis, Dawn 156, 277
Freeman, Donald 98, 277
Frota, Sylvia 152, 168, 178, 189, 287
Fullan, Michael G. 279, 280
Fuller, Frances F. 16, 205, 206, 277
Furlong, John 213, 245, 277

Gabriele, Anthony J. 281
Gabryś-Barker, Danuta 25, 42, 43, 48, 50, 53, 54, 56, 62, 68, 73, 97, 98, 103, 105–109, 111, 133, 143–148, 152, 168, 183–186, 188, 271, 278
Gadbois, Shannon A. 35, 288
Garrison, D. Randy 271
Gates, Peter 274, 282, 288
Gold, Yvonne 64, 278, 279
Goldberg, Phillis E. 24
Goleman, Daniel 35, 279
Golombek, Paula 153, 168, 174–178, 188, 277, 279– 281, 287
Good, Thomas 118, 119, 121, 123, 124, 129, 279
Goodson, Ivor 252, 279
Goswami, Usha 279
Gould, Lois 193, 204, 279
Gray, Carol 257, 279
Grenfell, Michael 250, 291
Groome, David 114, 150, 279
Guyton, Edith 287

Habermas, Jürgen 75, 279
Hall, Bernadette 260, 274
Hall, Susane 165, 279
Hagger, Hazel 274, 290
Hammersley, Martyn 279
Hargreaves, Andy 30, 252, 279, 280
Harrington, Cassandra 285
Harrison, Jennifer 279
Hascher, Tina 61, 62, 69, 279
Hastings, Wendy 209, 257, 280
Hawkins, Margaret R. 280
Hayes, David 280
Hayes, Nicky 141, 142, 272
Havnes, Anton 271
Herndon, Lynne Doherty 152, 168, 181, 182, 189, 280
Hillocks, George Jr. 262, 280
Ho, Belinda 152, 168, 171, 172, 188, 286
Hobson, Andrew J. 284
Holmes, Elizabeth 280
Holyoak, Keith J. 89, 90, 280
Honey, Peter 92, 280
Horvath, Joseph A. 86, 87, 110, 288
Howcroft, Susan 278, 280
Hsia, Sophie 273, 277
Hsu, Shihkuan 257, 280
Huberman, A. Michael 135, 280
Hursh, David 257, 280

Jarvis, Janet 24, 25, 280
Jay, Joelle K. 80, 280
Jeffries, Sophie 261, 280
Jennings, Cermel 257, 280, 281
Jessner, Urlike 116, 281
Johannesson, Ingólfur Ásgeir 281
Johnson, Karen 113, 153, 168, 174–178, 182, 188, 277, 279, 280, 281, 287

Johnson, Kerri L. 80, 280
Johnson, Mark 41, 282
Jones, Barry 291
Joram, Elena 281
Jyrhama, Riitta 281

Kagan, Dona M. 101, 281
Kalaya, P. 281, 282, 290
Kansanen, Partti 281
Katz, Lilian 18, 68, 281
Kegan, Robert 37, 281
Kelly, Michael 250, 290, 291
Kemmis, Stephen 80, 103, 274, 281
Kennedy, Elizabeth 280, 281
Kennedy, Mary 281
Kerr, Kirstin 284
Khamcharoen, Palard 289
Kincheloe, Joe L. 151, 281, 288
Kington, Alison 275
Kitching, Karl 134, 135, 281
Kniveton, Bromley H. 23, 24, 281
Kolb, David 75, 92, 282
Komorowska, Hanna 256, 271, 282, 291
Korthagen, Fred A.J. 79, 80, 82–84, 192, 276, 282, 287, 290
Kővecses, Zoltan 282
Kramsch, Claire 282
Krashen, Stephen D. 272, 287
Krizia, Ch. 291
Krokfors, Leena 281, 283
Kubler LaBoskey, Vicki 30, 31, 90, 91, 282
Kuźniak, Marek 278, 282, 288
Kynaslahti, Heikki 281
Kyriacou, Chris 282

Lakoff, George 41, 282
Lange, John 134, 282
Lantolf, James P. 282, 289
Larrivee, Barbara 282
Larsen-Freeman, Diane 271, 282
Lave, Jean 207, 282, 283
Lavine, R.Z. 285
Lawson, Tony 279
Leask, Marilyn 274, 283
Leinhardt, Gaea 207, 283
Lennox Terion, Jennepher 283
Leshem, Shosh 190, 246, 283
Lev-Ari, Lilach 257, 288
Lincoln, Yvonna 276
Lipman, Matthew 139, 140, 258, 283
Liston. Daniel P. 80, 167, 283, 290
Little, David 97, 250, 283
Lockhart, Charles 31, 32, 72, 97, 286
Lomax, Pamela 253, 284
Long, Michael H. 120, 283
Longhini, Ana 285
Loughran, John 63, 71, 72, 80, 95, 126, 127, 168, 172–174, 188, 256, 283
Lucas, Norman 283
Luttenberg, Johan 80, 82, 101, 215, 283
Lynch, James 271

Łyda, Andrzej 271, 278

Maaranen, Katriina 281, 283
Mackinnon, Allan 167, 284
Malderez, Angi 284
Mangieri, John N. 273, 284
Manion, Lawrence 275
Mann, Steve 100, 283
Marso, Ronald N. 206, 285
Martinez, Maria 102, 103, 208, 274
Matthews, Gerald 142, 290
Maynard, Trisha 213, 245, 277
McEvoy, William 291
McIntyre, D. John 286, 287
McKeon, Frankie 279
McNiff, Jean 253, 284

McTaggart, Robin 103, 281
Meijer, Paulien C. 284
Meirink, Jacobiene A. 284
Mercer, Neil 253, 284
Mezirow, Jack 75, 76, 109, 284
Mills, Colleen 168, 272
Mills, Nathan 289
Mitchell, Claudia 207, 290
Moeller, Aleidine. J. 154, 259, 284
Mok, Yan Fung 16, 17, 68, 212, 284
Mollon, Phil 114, 115, 120, 125, 141, 284
Moon, Jennifer A. 72, 74, 89, 96, 111, 159, 160, 186, 187, 284
Moore, Alex 272
Moore, Zena 186, 280, 284, 290
Morgan, Mark 281
Morrison, Keith 275
Moser, Peter 279
Moss, John 272
Moss, Glenda 284
Mumford, Alan 92, 280
Murphy, P. Karren 99, 284
Mutton, Trevor 274

Nemeth, Nora 276
Nespor, Jan 152, 284
Neumann, Anna 118, 284
Nevill, Alan 286
Newby, David 251, 291
Newell, Allen 89, 285
Nias, Jennifer 20, 41, 51, 285
Nunan, David 105, 106, 156, 272, 273, 285, 286

O'Leary, Michael 281
Oosterheert, Ida E. 85, 86, 110, 285
Orland-Barak, Lily 95, 96, 285
Osherson, Daniel N. 280, 285
Oxford, Rebecca L. 41, 285
Ottesen, Eli 80, 81, 285

Packer, Jan 156, 168, 272
Palard, Chatchai 289
Paris, Cynthia L. 257, 275
Pawlak, Mirosław 278, 285
Pearson, Donna 206, 273
Pedder, David 290
Pedro, Joan Y. 285
Perry, Rosemary 119, 187, 285
Peterson, Penelope L. 120, 285
Philion, Ruth 156, 283
Pierce, Gregory R. 287
Pigge, Fred L. 206, 285
Pinnegar, Stefinee 63, 285
Pollard, Andrew 72, 93, 111, 151, 285
Posch, Peter 271
Posner, George J. 72, 163, 285
Poyas, Yael 276
Proctor Karen M. 24
Pryor, John 275
Punter, Anne 285
Putkiewicz, Elżbieta 272, 273, 286

Qualley, Donna 78, 154, 155, 190, 286

Raider-Roth, Miriam 286
Reeves, Jenelle 289
Regan, Paul 247, 286
Reiman, Alan J. 93, 156, 157, 286
Rey, Lourdes 276
Rhodes, Chrostopher 21, 22, 286
Richards, Jack 31, 32, 72, 97, 125, 152, 153, 158, 168, 171, 172, 188, 257, 272, 286
Richards, Keith 276, 28
Richardson, Virginia 283, 286
Rinvolucri, Mario 286
Rodgers, Carol 32, 36–38, 117, 214, 286
Romano, Molly 137, 138, 139, 286
Rosaen, Cheryl 42, 287

Rose, David 287
Roth, Robert A. 278
Rourke, Liam 271
Rozwadowska, Bożena 278, 282, 288
Russell, Tom 11, 63, 256, 283, 285, 287

Saleh, Amany 285
Samuels, M. 73, 168, 179–181, 189, 287
Sarason, Barbara R. 142, 287
Sarason, Irwin G. 142, 287
Sato, Kazuyoshi 135, 136, 287
Scarcella, Robin C. 272, 287
Schmidt, Richard 116, 152, 168, 178, 189, 287
Schön, Donald 39, 72, 75, 78, 79, 87, 167, 256, 287
Schumann, John 140, 143, 287
Scott, Carol 32, 36, 37, 38, 223, 286
Sela, Orly 151, 288
Shepherd, Mark 162, 164, 165, 287
Siek-Piskozub, Teresa 42, 288
Sikula, John 279, 287
Simon, Herbert A. 89, 285
Smith, Claire 287
Smith, Edward E. 280, 285
Smith, Kari 151, 257, 288
Smyth, Judith 80, 132, 133, 228, 275, 279, 280, 288
Soghikyan, Kristine 291
Soltis, Jonas 255, 277
Somekh, Bridget 271
Springer, Terry 284
Squire, Frances 287
Steinberg, Shirley R. 151, 281, 288
Sternberg, Robert J. 86, 87, 110, 114, 116, 288
Stellingwerf, Hinke 273
Strugielska, Ariadna 42, 288
Stuart, Carolyn 289
Sutton, Liz 168, 288
Syrjala, Leena 277

Tabor, U. 25, 288
Tann, Sarah 72, 93, 151, 167, 247, 285, 288
Tagart, Germaine L. 288
Tercanlioglu, Leyla 290, 291
Thagard, Paul 288
Thomas, Cathy 35, 288
Thomas, John Bernard 288
Thurlow Lond, Deborah 289
Tickle, Les 289
Tilema, Harm 289
Todd, Richard Watson 156, 289
Tomlinson, Stephen 285
Toom, Auli 281
Townend, Michael 168, 288
Trafford, Vernon N. 190, 246, 283
Tracey, Louise 284
Tripp, David 121–123, 125–130, 149, 150, 165, 166, 191, 200, 279, 289
Tsui, Amy 193, 194, 206, 207, 212, 253, 254, 289
Turner, Tony 274, 283
Tuzel, Ayse Eser 289

Underhill, Adrian 97, 289

Van der Westhuizen, G. 289
Van Huizen, Peter 34, 37, 113, 289
Van Oers, Bert 289
Vasalos, Angelo 82, 282
Vazir, Nilofar 152, 153, 166, 188, 289
Verity, Deryn 168, 289
Verloop, Nico 273, 284
Vermunt, Jan D. 85, 86, 110, 285
Vygotsky, Lev Semyonovich 34, 37, 153, 157, 289

Walker, Rob 121, 289

Walkington, Jackie 289
Wallace, Sue 155, 157, 166, 289
Warford, Mark K. 289
Watson, Cate 289
Weaver, Melanie R. 156, 290
Weber, Sadra 207, 290
Wells, Adrian 142, 290
Wenger, Etienne 207, 283
Whitaker, Patrick 275
Whitehead, Jack 253, 284
Wilde, Edith 291
Wilkin, Margaret 290
Wilkomirska, Anna 272, 273, 286
Wilson, Alfred P. 77, 78, 109, 123, 156, 164, 288
Wilson, John P. 91, 92, 273
Wilson, Suzanne M. 58, 60, 61, 69, 290
Wojtynek-Musik, K. 35, 290
Wong, Matilda 158, 273
Woodrow, Derek 24, 25, 280
Woods, Devon 128, 290
Woods, Peter 149, 192, 200, 260
Wortley, Angela 279
Wren, David 275
Wright, David 123, 290
Wright, Jeannie 168, 288
Wright, Tony 252, 260, 290
Wubbels, Theo 79, 83, 84, 289, 290
Wysocka, Maria 278, 290

Yendol-Hoppey, Diane 253, 277
Younger, Mark 24, 68, 69, 290
Young, Janet 274
Yu, Bartholomew 158, 273

Zanting, Anneke 284
Zawadzka, Elżbieta 212, 290
Zeichner, Kenneth 80, 167, 283, 290
Zembylas, Michalinos 34, 290

SUBJECT INDEX

Accomplishment 23
Action research 12, 53, 76, 95, 98, 103, 104, 126, 139, 151, 160, 171, 253, 254, 261
 characteristics 103, 253
 definition 103
 project 12, 61, 78, 100, 104, 107
 stages 76, 105, 107
Affect 11, 19, 23, 36, 97, 107, 124, 134, 138, 140, 163, 173
Affective factors 138
Affectivity 38, 43, 56, 68, 72, 110, 134, 135, 142
Anxiety 16, 29, 36, 52, 56, 65, 67, 86, 115, 138, 141, 142, 185, 196, 209, 234, 255, 258
Appraisal
 awareness of 147
 definition 140
 measurement (GAQ) 143, 144, 147, 148
 study of 144–148
 systems 85, 86, 140, 143, 144, 147, 148, 254, 259
 values 140, 142
Archetypes in education 41
Association membership 261
Attention 35, 70, 85, 88, 90, 91, 101, 109, 110, 114–116, 120, 140, 142, 148, 166, 179, 183, 201, 208, 217, 218, 222, 223, 237, 254, 258, 266
Attitudes 23, 25, 42, 61, 69, 70, 78, 83, 92, 94, 110, 125, 128, 156, 168, 172, 173, 176, 178, 183, 188, 194, 208, 224, 231, 238, 243, 248, 254, 255, 258
Autobiographies 190
Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters 250
Autonomy – learner 54, 55, 65, 97, 156, 169, 250
Awareness 19, 23, 32, 35, 37, 38, 41, 43, 45, 50, 54–58, 61, 66, 69, 70, 75, 76, 78, 79, 83, 86, 88, 91, 95, 97, 100, 101, 103, 107, 111–121, 125, 133, 136, 138, 141, 147, 148–150, 154, 158, 162, 167, 171, 172, 176, 178, 179, 181, 183–185, 188, 189, 191, 193, 211, 213, 214, 219, 226, 232, 235, 245, 247, 249, 251, 252, 254

Beliefs 15, 23, 25, 30–58, 62, 69, 71, 73, 78, 84, 86, 91, 93, 94, 95, 97, 99, 100–102, 110, 121, 122, 123, 125, 126, 128, 129, 135, 136, 138, 140, 141, 142, 149, 151, 156, 158, 161, 162, 166, 176, 177, 181, 186, 193, 198, 209, 226, 247, 248, 255, 258

Burnout
  definition 22, 23
  symptoms 18, 23, 171

Challenges 27, 29, 51, 52, 53, 68, 73, 122, 123, 125, 169, 171, 193, 194, 248, 252
Change 16–18, 21, 25–27, 29, 33, 34, 47, 48, 50, 58, 59, 64, 67, 68, 71, 85, 86, 94, 97, 99, 102–105, 108, 109, 122–125, 132, 134, 138, 143, 145, 150, 159, 162, 168, 169, 171, 175–177, 182, 184, 191, 201, 202, 204–207, 211, 223, 224, 226, 227, 235, 236, 240, 244, 246, 248, 252, 254, 256, 258–261, 266, 270
Classroom
  research 102–109, 111, 158
  awareness 103, 112, 113, 117, 118, 119, 133, 185, 247, 249
  misbehaviour 208, 210, 211, 213, 229, 231, 232, 235, 236, 238, 239, 240, 242
  pedagogy 113
Code-switching 55, 211, 236, 239
Cognitive
  analysis 227
  knowledge 138
  skills 154
Concept 20, 32, 33, 41, 46, 47, 52, 62, 72, 74–76, 81, 82, 87, 92, 109, 114, 117, 122, 123, 139, 161, 179, 182, 192, 193, 200, 247, 250, 258
Consciousness 76, 95, 109, 113, 114–117, 119, 128, 141
Constructivist approach 101, 102
Critical event 25, 113, 121, 123, 125, 148–150, 197, 215, 247
Critical incident(s) (CIs)
  analysis 122, 123, 129, 139–148, 191, 194, 199, 207, 226, 254
  definition 121, 122
  examples 126, 130, 137, 139, 200
  focus 125, 126, 128, 131, 139–148, 210, 232, 236, 238
  impact 132–134
  labels 231, 235, 238
  negative 132, 133, 134, 145–147, 149, 237
  questionnaire on 130
  studies 131–139, 149, 259
  identification of 48, 123, 125, 184, 197, 204, 206, 214, 216, 221, 259
  portfolio 131
  positive 132, 134, 145, 146, 147
  questionnaire 130

Defence mechanisms 141
Dialogical journal 78, 131, 155, 156
Diary
  a selection of studies 188
  analysis of 184
  aspects of teacher development 159
  focus areas of 167
  functions 152
  guidelines 162, 163, 187, 197, 200
  purposes 152, 159, 187, 197
  types of 200
Diary entry 163, 164, 170, 178, 187, 218, 225, 229, 230, 233, 237, 263–270
  structure of 187, 197
  evaluation 152
Diary writing
  focus 166, 187, 190, 206, 210, 248
  studies 162, 188
  purposes 159, 197
Diploma projects 54, 66
Disequilibrium 23, 36, 40, 157

Educational context 30, 36, 49, 72, 87, 88, 89, 102, 175, 195, 200, 244, 245

Educational research 121, 150, 151, 154
Effective teacher 59, 61, 71, 78, 91, 118, 151, 181, 241, 246, 247
Emotional exhaustion 23
Emotionality 35, 72, 133, 142, 209, 259
Emotions 32, 35, 36, 38, 118, 140, 142–145, 147, 153, 154, 157, 167, 174, 177, 183, 186, 203, 211, 227, 230, 234, 236, 239, 246
European Language Portfolio 250
European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages 251
European Profile for Language Teacher Education 250, 252
European Union initiatives 260
Evaluation 17, 43, 58, 61, 62, 64–67, 74, 82, 83, 87, 95, 105, 106, 108, 121, 127, 134, 136, 140, 142, 143, 144, 147, 149, 152, 159, 170, 171, 176, 178, 179, 181, 193, 196, 199, 223, 228, 239, 240, 248
Experienced teachers 50, 56, 63, 67, 73, 78, 81, 82, 103, 107, 110, 120, 131, 145, 210, 211, 253, 254, 261
Experiential learning 73, 75, 90, 91, 92, 93, 109, 110, 186, 243
  personal styles in 92
Expertise in teaching 90, 93, 95, 193

Failure 20, 23, 43, 44, 45, 48, 52, 67, 99, 130–132, 137, 141, 142, 147, 149, 184, 185, 191, 196, 199, 202, 204, 206, 212, 216, 217, 219, 221, 222, 224, 227–230, 232–234, 236, 239, 240, 246, 248, 254, 258
Feedback 33, 34, 59, 61–67, 69, 81, 83, 91, 96, 111, 118, 121, 124, 125, 131, 156, 157, 158, 168, 176, 177, 180, 183, 187, 192, 197, 199, 200, 208–211, 229, 231–233, 235, 236, 238, 240, 245, 248, 249, 251

Goals 19, 20, 23, 24, 32, 35, 37, 45, 59, 60, 83, 104, 127, 158, 162, 163, 199, 260

Humanistic 18, 169, 170

Identity
  characteristics 32, 34
Individual differences 30–50, 255
Inquiry skills 154
In-service teachers 48–50, 145, 148, 171, 188
Interpreting 92, 94, 110, 126, 129, 163, 186, 200, 219

Job satisfaction 18, 19, 21, 24
Journal
  definition 131, 155, 157, 160
  feedback to 176
  writing 151, 154–157, 167, 171, 172, 174–177, 179, 180, 188, 189

Knowledge
  expert 86, 110, 131, 154, 177, 193
  novice 86
  theory of 86
Knowledge construction process 84, 85

Language learning histories 11
Learner performance 208–211, 213, 227, 228, 229, 231, 231, 232, 235, 236, 238, 240, 246, 248
Learning
  experience 26, 27, 31, 32, 42–44, 56, 83–85, 132, 136, 156, 158, 166, 182, 193, 228, 241, 252
  explicit 85, 95, 116
  implicit 85, 116

process 31, 61, 62, 72, 86, 89, 92, 94, 97, 98, 100, 101, 110, 115, 121, 123, 128, 159, 173, 181, 248
Licencjat projects 54
Log 83, 155

Mediation 94, 95, 157, 177
Mediators 111
Mentors 33, 51, 61, 62, 63, 67, 68, 78, 80, 81, 83, 95, 96, 111, 167, 174, 187, 209, 251, 252, 259, 261
Metaphors of teaching 41, 42
Monitoring 40, 51, 85, 93, 94, 106, 154, 158, 192, 203, 243, 244, 248, 260
Motivation 11, 20
instrumental 29
integrative 178
Motivation to teach 19–30, 68, 69, 118, 134
features 20, 21

Noticing 79, 92, 116, 127, 183, 214, 235
Novice teachers 12, 24, 30, 39, 40, 64, 86, 90, 95, 101, 102, 108, 110, 135, 159, 193, 205, 253, 260
Novices 30, 41, 42, 45, 78, 85, 91, 95, 96, 98, 103, 111, 145, 163, 188, 193, 208, 209, 212, 213, 239, 253–255, 262

Observation 35, 57, 72, 75, 76, 81, 92, 105, 106, 107, 121, 127, 129, 160, 181, 194, 246, 252
scheme 127

Personality 15, 33, 34, 37, 56, 63, 69, 174, 184, 204, 243, 248, 255
Portfolio
process 95
product 95
Practicum 51, 52, 57–63, 67, 69, 73, 75, 191, 192, 199
Pre-service teachers 9, 11–13, 15, 25–30, 31, 39, 41–51, 53, 57, 58, 61, 68, 69, 70, 72, 73, 80, 84, 95, 96, 98, 99, 103, 110, 111, 113, 119, 131, 133, 140, 145, 157, 163, 166, 167, 168, 172, 173, 179, 183–189, 190–249
Problem-solving 86–89, 93, 101, 105, 106, 109, 110, 140, 152, 159
Processing
automatic 116
controlled 116
Productive reflections 247
Professional development 9, 12, 18, 21, 22, 60, 61, 67, 75, 81, 83, 90, 96, 97, 98, 104, 109, 110, 118, 133, 134, 149, 157, 158–166, 168, 175–179, 183, 187, 188, 189, 191, 192, 194, 202, 204, 207, 228, 244, 246, 248, 252, 253, 260–262
Professional identity 34, 36, 37, 51, 71
Professional training 113, 240, 246
Professionalism 39, 45, 47, 69, 96, 122, 133, 205, 226
Profile 34, 55, 64, 68–70 160, 199, 250, 252, 253
Psychological processes 39

Rapport 45, 47, 65–67, 117, 124, 125, 135, 136, 156, 184, 203, 206, 226, 229, 230, 233, 239, 241
Rate
failure 228, 229, 232, 233, 236, 239, 240
success 209, 229, 232, 236, 239, 240, 248
Reflecting
ways of 212, 214, 215, 226, 227, 246

Reflection
critical 78, 96, 97, 261
definition 74, 75
descriptive 200, 214
for action 78, 79, 106, 110, 197, 227, 247, 254
in action 75, 78, 79, 106, 110, 197, 227, 247
on action 75, 78, 79, 88, 106, 110, 125, 197, 227, 247
productive 95, 98–100, 181, 191, 200, 214, 215, 216, 227, 247
role of 73, 88
types: broad and deep 79, 80, 83
unproductive 214
Reflective learning 246
Reflective practice 75, 84, 89, 93–99, 102, 106, 110, 111, 155, 159, 167, 174, 177, 190, 194, 211, 214, 246, 261
characteristics 93
definition 93
Reflective practitioner 109–111, 155, 189, 192, 214, 256
Reflective teaching 13, 52, 70, 83, 84, 87, 93, 96, 99, 103, 111, 145, 158, 160, 186, 192, 194, 200, 253, 259
Reflective thinking 77, 87, 90, 99–109
attributes 87–89
Reflectivity
development 76, 96, 101, 102–109, 191
domains in 80–84
levels 73, 75, 76, 109
Research
neuropsychological 115
psychological 140
Research topics 56
Routine 17, 18, 31, 50, 51, 72, 73, 78, 101, 103, 116, 122, 163, 169, 170, 187, 189, 191, 197, 211, 253, 254, 261
School placement 58–67, 83, 84, 90, 98, 102, 110, 111, 174, 191, 195, 199–201, 208, 210, 212, 213, 219, 223, 228, 241, 244, 261
School-based experience 42, 59, 62–67
Self 16, 33, 35, 37, 40, 41, 47, 51, 78, 79, 90, 91, 101, 102, 138, 143, 158, 159, 173, 174, 188, 205, 206, 260
Self-assessment 55, 102, 168, 179–181, 189, 250, 251
Self-concept 32–35, 52, 124, 176, 206, 258
Self-efficacy 21, 64, 134, 140–142
Self-evaluation
strong points 199, 241, 243, 246
weak points 199, 241, 242, 243, 246
Self-knowledge 35
Self-perception – levels 33, 34
Self-regulation 85, 86, 110
Social interaction 39, 128
Stress 21–23, 29, 36, 65, 66, 117, 135, 138, 141, 177, 185, 192, 194, 209, 219, 234, 235, 242
Student groupings 59, 60, 83, 210, 211, 232, 235, 236, 238
Student teacher 48, 54, 59, 63, 68, 69, 71, 77, 81, 83, 85, 86, 103, 105, 107, 173, 180, 187, 188, 192, 195, 196, 204, 205, 207, 213, 228, 240, 245–247, 251, 256, 257, 258, 261, 262
Success 11, 15, 19, 20, 21, 25, 27, 43, 44, 49, 50, 62, 99, 117, 124, 131, 136, 146, 147, 148, 149, 170, 182, 185, 186, 191, 194, 196, 198, 199, 204, 206, 209, 212, 216, 219, 220, 223, 224, 226–229, 232, 233, 236, 238–241, 243, 244, 246, 248, 254
Supervision 53, 83, 110, 135, 252, 257
Survival 16, 17, 18, 62, 68, 119, 169, 170, 206, 213

Teacher
affectivity 134, 142, 148, 149
Teacher career – stages 18
Teacher development
adjustment 18
change 17, 169
consolidation 18
maturity 18
renewal 18
routine 17, 169, 170
stages 16–19, 168–171, 188, 205, 215
survival 17, 18, 62, 170
Teacher drop out 21
Teacher education
competence-driven courses in
policies 33, 58, 59, 93, 94
Teacher expertise 18, 206
Teacher feedback 208, 210, 211, 229, 231, 232, 233, 235, 236, 238, 240
Teacher identity 15, 32, 34, 35, 36, 40, 247
definition 34–35
development 36–39
Teacher individuality 30, 102, 257, 261
Teacher knowledge 12, 84, 88, 104, 113, 193, 207, 261
Teacher narrative 36, 78, 152–157, 175, 186, 188
Teacher presence 15, 97, 112, 113, 117–119, 148, 149, 247, 248
Teacher stories 186–189
Teacher trainer 63, 106, 109, 251, 255, 258
Teacher training college 9, 49, 53, 64, 66, 73, 103, 106, 195
Teacher training paradigms 250–262
Teacher training programmes 11–13, 37, 60, 82, 100, 102, 103, 109, 110, 111, 117, 131, 147, 152, 155, 174, 188, 189, 257, 260
Teacher-based research 253, 259
Teachers as a professional group 12, 15–70
Teachers' roles 40, 43, 49, 97, 117, 207
Teachers's reflectivity
domains 80–84
Teaching context 12, 15, 19, 39, 53, 54, 68, 73, 76–79, 83, 103, 104, 105, 113, 140, 144, 148, 195, 196, 199, 234, 244, 248, 251, 254, 261
Teaching expertise
stages 19
Teaching process 12, 50, 95, 98, 120, 121, 130, 214
Thematic concerns 51–53, 167, 168, 188, 207, 211, 213, 226, 233, 239
Theory 12, 37, 39, 50, 61, 63, 66, 68, 70, 72, 73, 75, 77–79, 85–87, 89, 92, 108, 111, 113, 129, 136, 142, 147, 148, 150, 153, 156, 161, 180, 184, 186, 193, 199, 201, 215, 216, 243, 244, 244, 247, 254, 257, 258
Thinkers
common-sense 90
pedagogical 91
Thinking
critical 87–90, 105, 106, 110, 159
skills 139–140
Timing of activities 56, 213
Trainee teacher(s) 12, 13, 15, 44, 49, 51, 61, 64, 68, 73, 78, 83, 86, 90, 96, 111, 135, 152, 166, 167, 174, 183, 186, 188, 191, 204, 207, 209, 246, 249, 251, 253, 254, 259
Training programmes 11–13, 37, 39, 54, 60, 70, 72, 82, 91, 100, 102, 103, 105, 109–111, 131, 147, 148, 152, 155, 172, 174, 188, 189, 191, 192, 195, 244, 253, 255–260
Transfer of learning 50, 55

Verbal reports 11
Verbalisation 154, 163, 184, 190
Vocation 21, 30, 44, 195

Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Rozwijanie refleksyjności w programach kształcenia nauczycieli
Teoria i praktyka

Streszczenie

Niniejsza monografia poświęcona jest rozwijaniu refleksyjności i refleksyjnego nauczania oraz ich miejscu w programach kształcenia przyszłych nauczycieli języka obcego. Praca ma charakter zarówno teoretyczny, jak i empiryczny. Rozdział pierwszy poświęcony jest opisaniu profilu nauczycieli jako grupy zawodowej, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem przyszłych nauczycieli i nauczycieli początkujących. Rozdział drugi definiuje refleksyjność i refleksyjne nauczanie oraz określa ich rolę w rozwoju zawodowym nauczyciela. Rozdziały trzeci i czwarty opisują narzędzia rozwoju refleksyjności: pamiętnik nauczyciela oraz zdarzenia krytyczne (ang. *critical incidents*) jako istotny element refleksji. Ostatni rozdział pracy przedstawia badanie przeprowadzone przez autorkę na grupie słuchaczy nauczycielskiego kolegium języków obcych, przyszłych nauczycieli języka angielskiego. Celem badania było wykształcenie umiejętności refleksyjnego podejścia do nauczania już na początkowym etapie rozwoju zawodowego nauczyciela. Badanie przeprowadzono, opierając się na pisanych przez słuchaczy pamiętnikach, w których identyfikowali oni i interpretowali zdarzenia krytyczne w klasie podczas rocznej praktyki pedagogicznej w szkole. Wnioski z badań są bardzo optymistyczne i ukazują rozwój samoświadomości młodych nauczycieli oraz wzrost ich motywacji do nauczania po wprowadzeniu modelu nauczania refleksyjnego opartego na prowadzeniu pamiętnika nauczyciela.

Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Die Entwicklung des Nachdenkens in den Bildungsprogrammen für Lehrer
Theorie und Praxis

Zusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Monografie ist der Entwicklung des Nachdenkens über methodologisches Vorgehen in den Ausbildungsprogrammen für zukünftige Fremdsprachenlehrer gewidmet. Sie umfasst theoretische und empirische Probleme. In dem ersten Kapitel wird das Profil der Lehrer als einer Berufsgruppe mit besonderer Rücksichtnahme auf zukünftige und angehende Lehrer geschildert. Im zweiten Kapitel werden die Begriffe „Nachdenken" und „durchdachte Unterrichtsmethoden" definiert und deren Rolle in der Berufsentwicklung der Lehrer eingeschätzt. Die zwei nächsten Kapitel schildern die dem durchdachten Unterricht dienenden Hilfsmittel: ein Tagebuch des Lehrers und schwerwiegende Ereignisse (*critical incidents*) als ein wichtiges Element der Reflexion. Im letzten Kapitel wird die von der Verfasserin unter den Studenten des Fremdsprachenkollegs, zukünftigen Englischlehrern, durchgeführte Forschung besprochen. Das Forschungsziel war, die Fähigkeit einer überlegten Auffassung von dem Unterricht schon in dem ersten Stadium der Berufsentwicklung der Lehrer auszubilden. Die Verfasserin stützte sich dabei auf die von den Lehrerkolleghörern geschriebenen Tagebücher, in denen die Hörer die während ihres einjährigen Schulpraktikums stattgefundenen, schwerwiegenden Ereignisse erkannten und interpretierten. Die Forschungsergebnisse sind sehr optimistisch und bezeugen, dass angehende Lehrer infolge des überlegten Unterrichts immer selbstbewusster sind und dass sie größere Motivation zur Arbeit haben.

Executive Editor: Krystian Wojcieszuk

Cover Designer: Danuta Gabryś-Barker

Cover graphics digital adjustment: Beata Klyta

Proofreader: Sabina Stencel

Computer-generated forms: Grażyna Szewczyk

Copyright 2012 © by
Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego
All rights reserved

ISSN 0208-6336
ISBN 978-83-226-2055-7

Published by
Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego
ul. Bankowa 12B, 40-007 Katowice
www.wydawnictwo.us.edu.pl
e-mail: wydawus@us.edu.pl

First impression. Printed sheets: 19.5. Publishing sheets: 21.0.
Paper: Alto 80 g/m^2, vol. 1.5 Price 28 zł (+ VAT)

Printing and binding: PPHU TOTEM s.c.
M. Rejnowski, J. Zamiara
ul. Jacewska 89, 88-100 Inowrocław

Price 28 zł (+ VAT)

ISSN 0208-6336
ISBN 978-83-226-2055-7