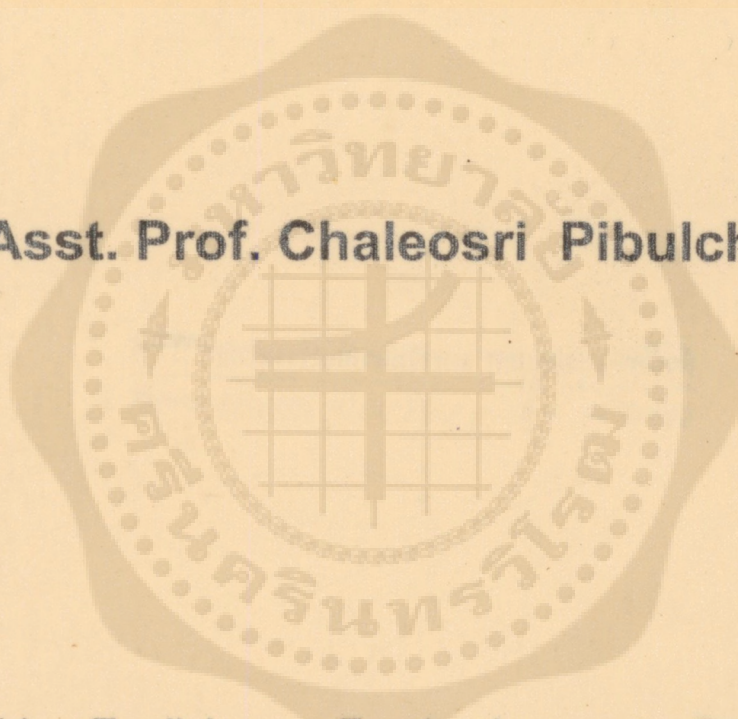


TF 651: TEACHER TRAINING I

Asst. Prof. Chaleosri Pibulchol



Teaching English as a Foreign Language Program

Western Languages Department

Faculty of Humanities

Srinakharinwirot University

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Teaching English as a Foreign Language Program
Western Languages Department
Faculty of Humanities
Srinakharinwirot University

COURSE SYLLABUS

1. **Course code :** TF 651
2. **Numbers of Credits :** 3
3. **Courses name title:** Teacher Training I
4. **Faculty/Department:** Faculty of Humanities
Western Languages Department
5. **Instructor:** Chaleosri Pibulchol
6. **Condition:** None
7. **Course type:** Compulsory
8. **Program:** M.A. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language
(TEFL)
9. **Level:** Graduate
10. **Number of hours per week:** 2 lecture hours and 2 practicum hours per week
11. **Course description:**

The course focuses on the study of principles and methods of developing teacher training and teacher development skills. Observation tools and models of supervision are discussed and participants are led to devise their own observation tools, which are then tried out and tested in an authentic classroom environment. Cooperative Development and action research as means for professional development are also included.

12. Course outline

12.1 Course objectives:

12.1.1 Participants will be introduced to the aspects of language teaching and its implications of language teacher education.

12.1.2 Participants will be equipped with skills to devise observation tools applicable to classroom content.

12.1.3 Participants will be made to reflect on the process of new innovations and learn how they can be exploited for professional development.

12.2 Contents

Week 1	Theories of language teaching in professional teacher education
Week 2	Current models of professional teacher education
Week 3	The role of the teacher in professional teacher education
Week 4	Teacher training, teacher development, and teacher education
Week 5	Teacher development in action: reflective teaching and Framework of teacher reflectivity
Week 6	Teacher development in action: Professional development activities
Week 7	Principles of classroom observation
Week 8	Classroom observation tools
Week 9	Methods of supervision
Week 10	Observation field study
Week 11	Field study report and feedback
Week 12	Field study report and feedback
Week 13	Cooperative Development
Week 14	Simulation on Cooperative Development techniques
Week 15	Action Research
Week 16	Action Research : case-study and presentation

12.3 Instructional methods :

Teaching Instruction will be partly by lecture with opportunity for discussion. Participants will be required to apply the content of the course to their fieldwork and the simulation. This application will provide the basis of the assignment.

12.4 Instructional media: Textbooks, selected readings from the journals in Applied Linguistics, and set of observation tools

12.5 Evaluation criteria:

Participation	10%
Learning log	10%
Assignments	15%
Topic presentation	15%
Reports on classroom observation and a simulation of Cooperative Development	50%

12.6 Course requirements:

12.6.1 Each participant is expected to read and prepare to discuss the assigned topic before class and keeps a learning log for each class.

12.6.2 Each participant must hand in an essay of approximately about 800 words on the topics related to teacher training/development including at least 6 recent articles/resources that are most relevant to the topic chosen.

12.6.3 Each participant must complete two reports of the fieldwork: 1) The report on the use of observation tools in the actual classroom, and 2) The report on the simulation of Cooperative Development technique. Details will be provided in class.

12.6.4 Each participant is required to present one case-study of action research in class. The presentation is evaluated on the clarity of content and the presentation skill.

13. Recommended reading

13.1 Required

Edge, J. (1992). *Cooperative Development: Professional Self-Development through Cooperation With Colleagues*. Harlow: Longman.

Richards, J. C.; & Nunan, D. (1990). *Second Language Teacher Education*. (Eds.) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C.; & Lockhart, C. (1995). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge University Press.

Wajnryb, R. (1992). *Classroom Observation Tasks*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

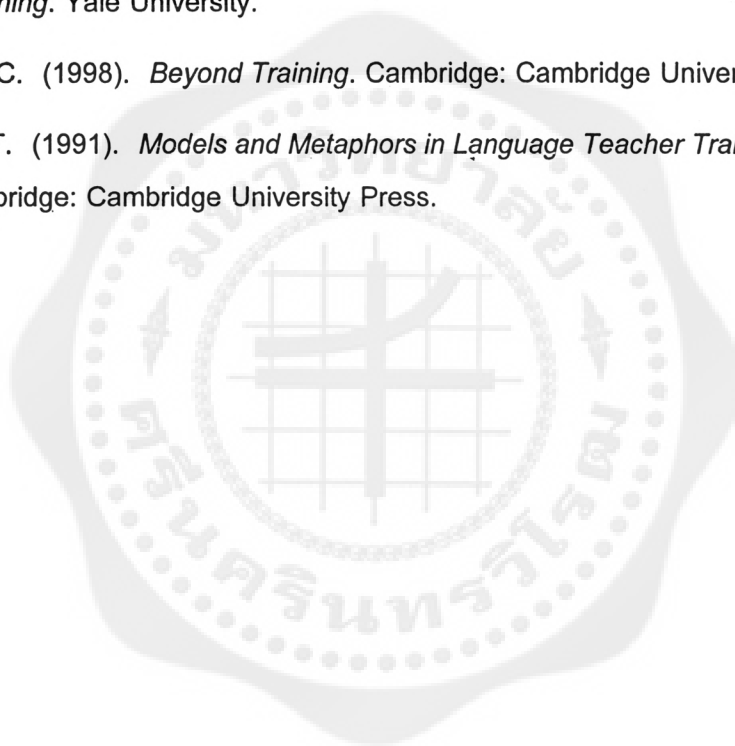
Wallace, M. J. (1998). *Action Research for Language Teacher*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

----- (1991). *Training Foreign Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

13.2 Supplementary

Gebhard, J. G.; & Ceprandy, R. (1999). *Language Teaching Awareness*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Harmer, Jeremy. (2001). *The Practice of English Language (3rd edition)*. Essex: Longman.
- Hayes, D. (2004). *Trainer Development: Principles and Practice from Language Teacher Training*. (Ed). Language Australia Ltd.
- Head, K.; & Taylor, P. (1997). *Readings in Teacher Development*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003). *Beyond Methods: Macrostrategies for Language Teaching*. Yale University.
- Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Woodward, T. (1991). *Models and Metaphors in Language Teacher Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.



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INTRODUCTION

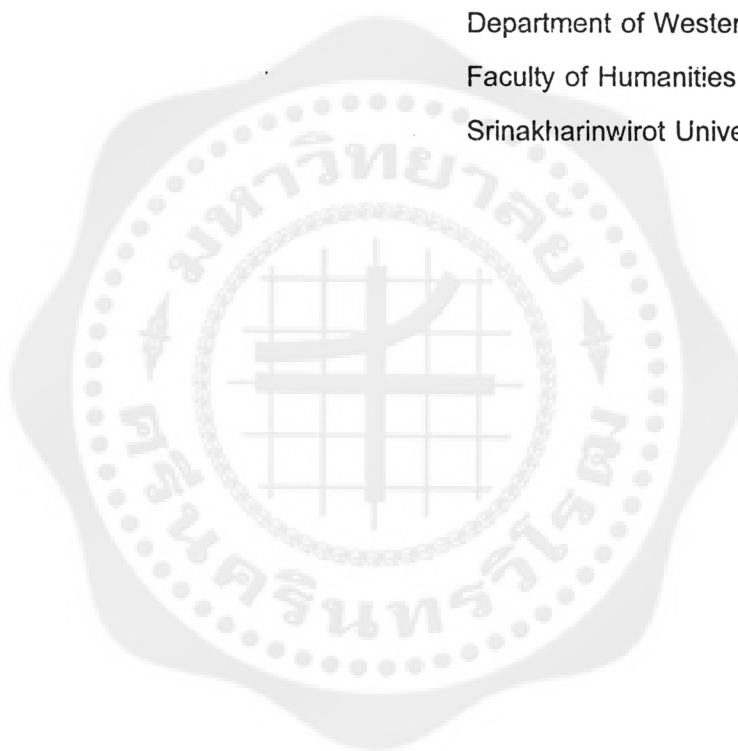
This book has been written to meet the objectives of TF 651: Teacher Training I. The course is provided to the participants in MA. TEFL program at the Faculty of Humanities at Srinakharinwirot University. The book focuses on the knowledge and practices for professional teacher development. The chapters examine a range of inputs and activities concerning the development of teachers and teacher-trainers in ELT through their reflection on practice.

The book contains seven chapters, each with its own focus contributing to professional teacher development. Chapter 1 presents theories of teaching derived from research, theory or practice and its implication for language teacher education in terms of current models of professional teacher education. The role and function of the teachers is presented in this chapter. Chapter 2 addresses the areas of teacher training, teacher development and teacher education through its contribution to language teacher education. Chapter 3 describes the process of reflective teaching as well as the framework of teacher reflectivity. Activities that attempt to develop teachers' professional knowledge, skills and attitudes are included. Chapter 4 looks at the role of classroom observation and how classroom observation activities can be used to move beyond a focus on teaching behaviors to assist teachers in developing a critically reflective approach to their own teaching. Chapter 5 examines models of supervision and the nature of the supervisory role towards enhancing the teacher's professional growth. Chapter 6 discusses Cooperative Development as one of professional development innovations focusing on the power of learning through expression. The final chapter concentrates on action research as a means to enable teachers to learn directly from their own practice through systematic collection and analysis of data.

Throughout the chapters, reflective and exploratory tasks are provided to stimulate further reflection and exploration on the topics discussed. Moreover, samples of observation tools, case studies, and transcripts from classroom data and simulations are used to illustrate the issues discussed.

I particularly hope that this book will help participants in the course gain insights into professional teacher development.

Chaleosri Pibulchol
Department of Western Languages
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CHAPTER 1

Language Teaching and Its Implications for Professional Teacher Education

Objectives:

1. To introduce basic concepts of theories of language teaching and its implications for professional teacher education
2. To acquaint participants with some current models of professional teacher education
3. To provide participants with the roles of the teacher in professional teacher education

Key concepts:

1. Theories of language teaching in professional teacher education
2. Models of professional teacher education
3. The role of the teacher in professional teacher education

Theories of language teaching in professional teacher education

Generally speaking, the underlying principle in any approach to the professional teacher education is: 1) a conception of what good teaching is and 2) what the essential knowledge and skills of teachers are. However, there is no general consensus on what essential knowledge base or conceptual foundation of the field consists of. From a historical perspective, one can glean from the literature on the conceptions of teaching in second/foreign language teacher education various approaches. Starting from the seventies and eighties, the most popular model is the method – based of teaching. The model focuses on methods of teaching which regards as means to the effective teaching (Richards, 1998). Another conception proposed by Fanslow (1987) in his book “Breaking Rules” is an “anti – methods” perspective. In this approach, teachers are encouraged to develop their own methods of teaching through exploring and discovering their own inner rules for good teaching Fanslow (1987: 2) asserts:

".....Thus I invite you not to judge, or if you do, to withhold your judgment, to substitute specific descriptions for general prescriptions, and as a result to be free to generate alternatives unrelated to your preconceived notions of good and bad teaching, to serve as your own expert rather to depend on those in authority, and to explore congruence between what you think you do, what you want to do, and what you actually do."

Other conceptions of teaching in second/ foreign language teaching are of those who regard teachers as classroom researchers (Nunan. 1989) and teachers as reflective practitioners (Richards; & Lockhart. 1994). Each model makes specific assumptions about what the essential knowledge base, skills, and attitudes of teachers are. The teacher – researcher approach looks at teachers as the ones who involve the critical appraisal of ideas and apply these ideas in the classroom. Teachers are encouraged to observe and investigate their own classrooms to find, exploit and extend their own best ways of teaching. The main concern of the reflective practitioners is on how teachers, through their informed involvement in the principles, practices and process of classroom instruction, can bring about fruitful perspectives to the complexities of teaching through reflective teaching.

Based on the conceptions discussed above, Zahoric (Richards. 1998; citing Zahoric. 1986 . *Journal of Teacher Education*...pp 21-25.) proposed the framework of 3 conceptions of teaching with the view of their implications for second/foreign language development:

1. Art-craft conceptions
2. Science-research conceptions
3. Theory-philosophy conceptions

Art–craft conceptions

The art–craft conceptions to teaching seek to develop teaching as a unique set of personal skills that teachers apply in different ways, according to the demands of specific situation. In this approach, teacher decision-making is regarded as an essential competency. A good teacher "is a person who assesses the needs and possibilities of a situation and creates and uses practices that have promise for that situation." (Richards. 1998: 43 citing Zahorik. 1986 op cit. p. 22)

This approach does not deny the value of different models of teaching, but regards the commitment to one method of teaching as a means to develop the teacher's full potential.

Science-research conceptions

Science-research conceptions of language teaching regard teaching as an activity, which is informed and validated by scientific research and supported by experimentation and empirical investigation. Teaching principles developed from science-research conceptions include audiolingualism, task-based language teaching, and learner training. Audiolingual teaching method was firmly grounded in the learning theory associated with the school of psychology known as behaviourism. It is based on the theory that a second language could be learned through a process of habit formation and overlearning. Thus, mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and repetitive drills were the primary teaching techniques.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), on one hand, is claimed to “derive from what is known about human learning in general and/or second language learning in particular” (Long; & Crookes. 1992: 27). It is proposed that the successful language learning involves learners in negotiation of meaning. In the process of negotiating with a speaker of the target language, the learner receives the kind of input needed to facilitate learning. Thus, classroom tasks that involve negotiation of meaning should be used to facilitate practice of both language forms and communicative functions.

The learner-training conception, on the other hand, was drawn from research on the cognitive styles and learning strategies used by successful learners in second language learning. It is based on the assumption that learning strategies employed by successful learners should be studied to determine what it is they do that makes their efforts more successful and taught to unsuccessful learners. This approach, in its own nature, seeks to teach students specific learning strategies with a resulting increase in learners' learning efficiency. Nevertheless, some merely aim to develop awareness of the role of strategies in successful language learning.

Apart from those teaching principles mentioned above, a research-based theory of teaching also involves applying the result of the practices of good teaching and effective teachers. By identifying specific teaching behaviors (i.e. teachers' questioning and wait-time) and teachers who are regarded as exemplary (based on reports, criteria of effectiveness and their teaching practices), a conception of good teaching and effective teachers were, then, identified and validated. Research on this effective teaching, thus,

leads to the identification of principles that can be used as the basis for teacher training and teacher development.

Theory–philosophy conceptions

Theory–philosophy conceptions of teaching are built “not on empirical research but on generally data-free theories and principles that are justified on logical, philosophical, political, moral, or other grounds” (Richards. 1998: 38). The theory–philosophy teaching conceptions result from the attempts, on one side, to apply particular theory of language/ language learning to teaching, and on the other side, to develop a teaching approach from the values one holds about teachers, learners, classrooms, and the role of education in society.

An example of a teaching conception based primarily on a theory of language is communicative language teaching. Its attempt was to build language teaching around the theory of communicative competence. The literature on communicative language teaching is not linked to empirical research findings, but underlying principles and its implications for language teaching. The focus is on the matters as the appropriateness of different syllabus types and the role of accuracy versus fluency.

A different approach to this teaching conception views teaching and learning to encompass ideological dimension. The approach is based on the assumption that teaching “always serves social purposes in creating and exchanging meaning, needs to be understood in its context of use, is ideological, is linked to social power, and should be taught with a critical dimension that calls into question such ideological and social relations” (Richards. 1998: 42; citing Pennycook. 1996. *TESOL Quarterly*. pp. 163)

The examples of values or ideologically based approaches in language teaching include the school-based curriculum, action research, the teacher as researcher, the learner-centered curriculum, team-teaching, humanistic approach (eg. Community Language Learning), and reflective teaching. These approaches appeal to cultural, educational, or social value systems in justifying their proposals. Team-teaching, for example, is based on a view that teachers work best when they work in collaboration with peers and that the interaction in all phases of teaching is beneficial to both teachers and learners.

Conclusion

Implications for professional teacher education

As one can realize, different conceptions of teaching embody different assumptions about what the essential skills of teaching are, and thus raise different issues and perspective of professional education and training in both models of professional teacher education and the roles of the teachers themselves.

Reflective task 1.1

Of the three conceptions of teaching - art-craft conception, science-research conceptions and theory-philosophy conceptions, which conception, do you think, should be considered and appropriate basic for effective teaching? Why?

Models of professional teacher education

Currently, there are three major models of professional education/training, which have historically appeared on the scene. These models include: (Wallace. 1994:6)

1. The craft model
2. The applied–science model
3. The reflective model

The craft model

The craft model of professional education relies on an experienced professional practitioner. The young trainee learns by imitating the experts' techniques, and by following the experts' instructions and advice. By this process, expertise in craft is passed on from generation to generation. This model can be illustrated as shown below in Figure 1.1. (Ibid)

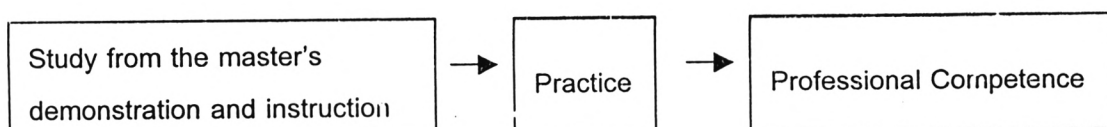


Figure 1.1: The craft model

Furlong and Maynard (Diaz-Maggioli. 2003 citing Furlong; & Maynard. 1995. *Mentoring Student teachers: The growth of professional knowledge*) propose the role of this craft model in professional education as an apprenticeship model incorporating learning from experts. The approach helps teachers learn how to see the concepts and framework about teaching and learning. It is best used during the initial career stages or until teachers have developed an individual style. However, the disadvantage of this model is that teachers may be cloned into the teaching style of the model, thus failing to develop their own technique.

The applied science model

The applied-science model derives from the achievements of empirical science. The model, in its framework, regards practical knowledge of anything simply a matter of relating the most appropriate means to whatever objectives have been decided on. The whole issue of the practice of a profession is therefore merely instrumental in its nature (Wallace. 1994: 8).

In the applied-science model, the findings of scientific knowledge and experimentation are conveyed to the trainees by the experts in the fields. It is the trainees who put the result of the findings into practice. The illustration of this model is shown in Figure 1.2 below:

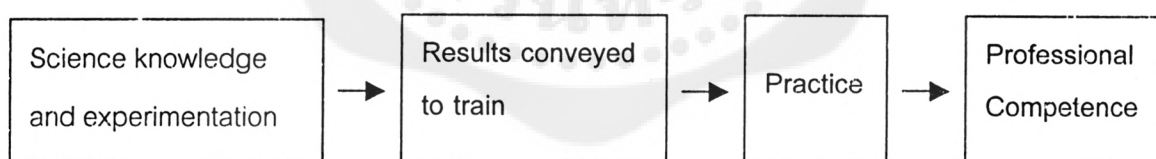


Figure 1.2: The applied-science model

The applied-science model is claimed to have its weak points due to the complete separation between research and professional practice. Normally, the researchers and the practitioners are usually different people. Also, the place of work and the nature of work done by the researchers and the practitioners are not the same. Moreover, the changes in the practice element are established by the experts in the knowledge or experimental base, and not by the practitioners themselves.

The reflective model

The reflective model involves a strong reflective stance and gives an emphasis on “learning to be” (Diaz-Maggioli. 2003 citing Furlong and Maynard. 1995 op.cit). The model plays around the framework of reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action. Reflection-on-action can occur before and after a lesson during the time the teachers plan for a lesson and then evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching afterward. Reflect-in-action, on the other hand, occurs during the teaching situation, attempting to locate unexpected problems on the spot and then adjusting their teaching. It is believed that considerable practice with reflection-on-action will lead to potential reflection-in-action (Schon. 1983). The aim of reflective teaching is to develop the teacher's capacity for critical thinking, inquiry and self-development as professional.

Following Schon's framework of reflection, Wallace (1994: 15) proposes the reflective model which gives due weight both to experience and to the scientific basis of the profession. The basic elements include two kinds of knowledge development: received knowledge and experiential knowledge. “Received knowledge” is interpreted as the knowledge, which includes the necessary and valuable element of scientific research. “Experiential knowledge”, on the other hand, is the knowledge, which refers to the professional's ongoing experience. The model can be summarized as shown in figure 1.3 below.

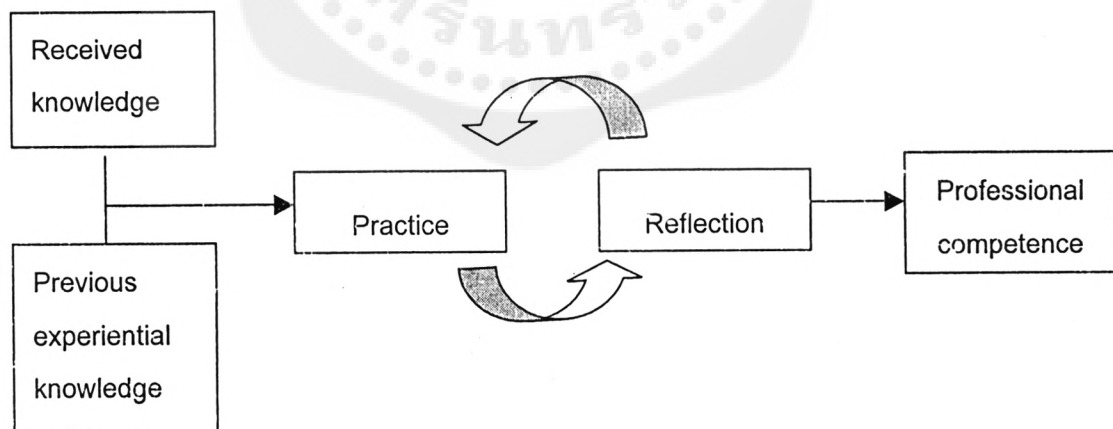


Figure 1.3: The reflective model

The reflective cycle, from Wallace's point of view, acts as a continuing process of reflection on 'received knowledge' and 'experiential knowledge' in the context of practice. This practice element is, then, the central focus of the knowledge base and the reflective process, which lead to a dynamic development concept of 'professional competence'.

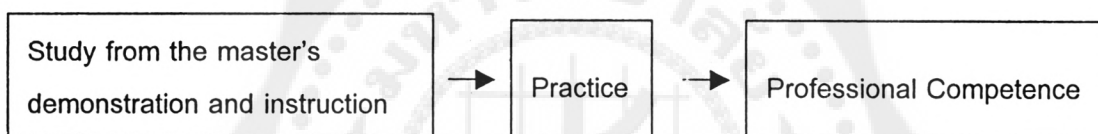
Conclusion

The three models being discussed embody quite different assumption about that the essential skills of professional competence are acquired, and hence raise different issue in teacher education programs.

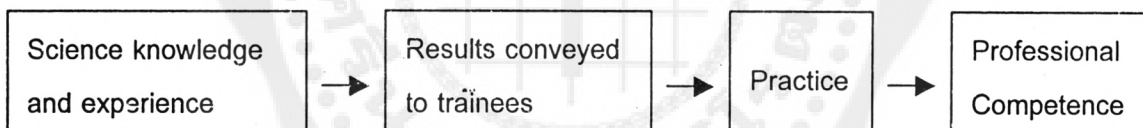
Exploratory task 1.1

Compare and contrast the craft model (a), the applied-science model (b), and the reflective model (c).

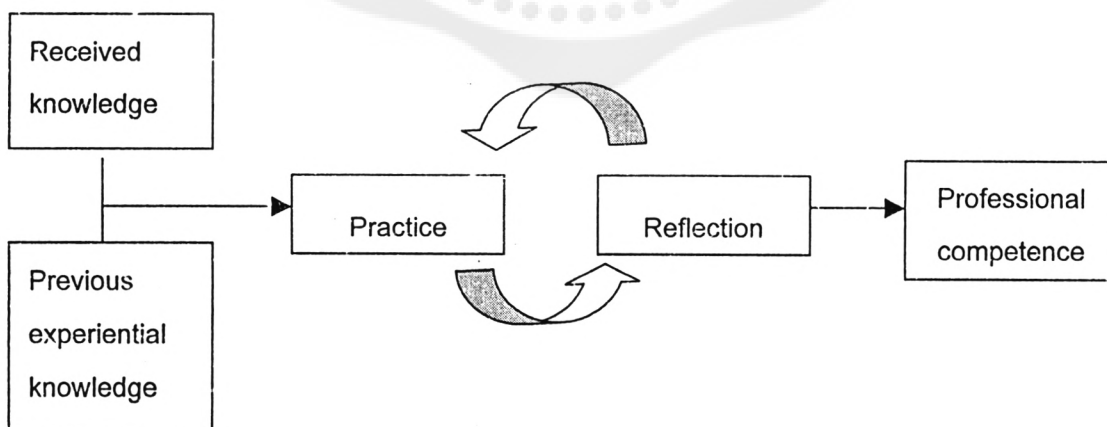
(a)



(b)



(c)



Exploratory task 1.2

What are the crucial features of the three models? List them. How do they affect the roles of the teacher in the classroom?

Craft model	Applied-science model	Reflective model

The role of the teacher in professional teacher education

The teacher has been variously referred to as an artist, a scientist, a psychologist, a counselor, a researcher, a manager, a mentor, a controller, an organizer, an assessor, a facilitator and more (Harmer. 2001; Kumaravadivelu. 2003; Nunan. 1989; Richards; & Lockhart. 1995). There is, of course, merit in each of these metaphors, all of which have developed over the years through different teaching conceptions. From the current literature on language teacher, at least three strands of thought are introduced (Kumaravadivelu. 2003: 8):

1. Teachers as passive technicians
2. Teachers as reflective practitioners
3. Teachers as transformative intellectuals

Teachers as passive technicians

The concept of teachers as technicians can be partly traced to the behavioral school of psychology that emphasized the importance of empirical verification. In the behavioral practice, the primary focus of teaching and teacher education is content knowledge of facts and clearly articulated rules. Teachers and the teaching methods are not considered important. Thus, teacher education programs concentrate more on the education part than on the teacher part.

In this technicist approach, the primary goal of teaching and learning is to promote student comprehension of content knowledge. Teachers, thus, are regarded as informants who transfer knowledge to their students. They are constrained to operate from fixed, pedagogic assumptions without questioning the validity or relevance to the learning and teaching contexts. If problems arise, they are supported to search for ways to solve those problems by themselves.

In short, the technicist approach to teaching and teacher development can be characterized as “a rigid role relationship between theorists and teachers: theorists conceive and construct knowledge, teachers understand and implement knowledge. Creation of new knowledge or new theory is not the domain of teachers; their task is to execute what is prescribed for them.” (Kumaravadivelu. 2003: 9)

The technicist approach disempowered teachers in the sense that their classroom behavior is conformed mostly to knowledge than experience. Thus this approach is considered “so passive, so unchallenging, so boring that teachers often lose their sense of wonder and excitement about learning to teach” (Kumaravadivelu. 2003; citing Kincheloe. 1993. *Towards a Critical Politics of Teacher Thinking.*)

Reflective task 1.2

1. What are the advantages and disadvantages of the role and function of teachers as passive technicians?
 2. Think about some of your own teachers whom you might call technicists. What aspect of their teaching did you like most? Least?
 3. Is there any aspect of technicist orientation that you think is relevant in your specific learning and teaching context?
-

These considerations bring to the concept of reflective teaching as a reaction to the fixed assumptions of this technicist view of teaching.

Teachers as reflective practitioners

The concept of teachers as reflective practitioners was originally proposed by John Dewey in the early twentieth century. Dewey makes a distinction between action that is routine and action that is reflective. Routine action is guided primarily by traditions and an

obedience to authority. Reflective action, on the other hand, is promoted by "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it, and the further consequences to which it leads....." (Moran. 1999: 19; Stanley. 1998: 584; citing Dewey. 1933. *How we think*).

Another view on reflective practitioners is put forward by Zeichner and Listen who argue that "not all thinking about constitutes reflective teaching. If a teacher never questions the goals and the values that guide his or her work, the context in which he or she teaches, or never examines his or her assumptions, then it is our belief that this individual is not engaged in reflective teaching" (Mc Kay. 2002: 3-4; citing Zeichner; & Listen. 1996. *Reflective teaching: An Introduction*). According to them, a reflective practitioner:

- attempts to solve the dilemmas of classroom practice;
- is aware of and questions the assumptions and values he or she brings to teaching;
- is sensitive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches;
- takes parts in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts; and
- takes responsibility for his or her own professional development.

It is clear that reflective teachers, thus, attempt to maximize their learning potential and that of their learners through various problem-solving activities including classroom observation and classroom-oriented action research.

The concept of teachers as reflective practitioners has been recently perceived to be necessary element in the field of language teaching. Wallace (1994) in his book titled *Training Foreign Language Teacher: A Reflective Approach* provides ways in which reflective approach can be applied to many areas of teacher development, including classroom observation, microteaching, and teacher supervision. Richards and Lockheart (1995) in a book entitled *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms* explore, promote and enhance development through reflecting upon their classroom experience, using a structured approach to self-observation and self-evaluation. Furthermore, in his book *Doing Teacher Research: From Inquiry to Understanding*, Freeman (1998) offers ways to show how practicing teachers can transform their classroom teaching by doing research.

However, he argues that this cannot be achieved simply by exposing teaching and their experience of teaching.

Mc Kay (2002: 5) states that there are common benefits that arise from reflecting on one's teaching. Some of these benefits are the following:

1. Being a reflective teacher frees teachers from routine behavior.
2. Being a reflective teacher enables teachers to act in a deliberate manner.
3. Being a reflective teacher improve teaching practice.

Though the concept of teachers as reflective practitioners is clearly an improvement over the limiting concept of teachers as passive technicians, it is said to have the pitfall. By focusing on the role of the teacher and the teacher alone, the reflective movement tends to treat reflection as an introspective process involving a teacher and his or her reflective capacity, and not as an interactive process involving the teacher and his or her learners, colleagues, planners, and administrators. (Kumaravadivelu. 2003: 12)

Reflective task 1.3

1. Which characteristics of a reflective teacher do you think you now possess? Which characteristics do you feel you lack?
 2. What are the obstacles you may face in carrying out the responsibilities of a reflective teacher? And how might you overcome them?
-

Teachers as transformative intellectuals

The idea of teachers as transformative intellectuals is derived mainly from the works of a particular group of education called critical pedagogists. They view teachers as "professionals who are able and willing to reflect upon the ideological principles that inform their practice, who connect pedagogical theory and practice to wider social issues, and who work together to share ideas, exercise power over the conditions of their labor, and embody in their teaching a vision of a better and more human life" (Kumaravadivelu. 2003: 13; citing Giroux. 1988. *Teacher as Intellectuals: Toward a Critical Pedagogy of Learning*). The concept of teachers as transformative intellectual demands that they go beyond the borders of the classroom. As transformative intellectuals, teachers are engaged in a dual task of educational advancement and personal transformation. In other words, the dual role

requires teachers to view pedagogy not merely as a mechanism for maximizing learning opportunities in the classroom, but also as a means for transforming in and outside the classroom. Their teaching can be summarized as: (Kumaravadivelu. 2003. 14; citing Kincheloe. 1993. *Towards a Critical Politics of Teacher Thinking*. pp. 201-3)

- **“inquiry oriented:** teachers cultivate and extend research skills that help them and their students to explore problems they themselves have posed about life in and outside the classroom;
- **socially contextualized:** aware of the sociohistorical context and the power dimensions that have helped shape it, teachers always monitor and respond to its effect on themselves, their students, and the social fabric;
- **grounded on a commitment to world making:** teachers realize that appropriate knowledge is something that is produced by interaction of teacher and student in a given context, and act on that realization;
- **dedicates to an art of improvisation:** teachers recognize that they operate in classroom conditions of uncertainty and uniqueness and therefore are able and willing to improvise their lesson plans and instructional procedures;
- **extended by a concern with critical self-and social-reflection:** teachers conceptualize classroom techniques that encourage introspection and self-reflection;
- **shaped by a commitment to democratic self-directed education:** teachers consider ways of helping themselves and their students gain a sense of ownership of their own education;
- **steeped in a sensitivity by pluralism:** familiarize themselves with the linguistic and cultural diversity of their student population and conceptualize multiple perspectives on issues that matter to them and to their students;
- **committed to action:** teachers come to see thinking as a first step to action and continually design plans of action to carry out their critical thoughts; and
- **concerned with the affective dimension of human beings:** teachers think in terms of developing both the emotional and logical sides of their students and themselves.”

The roles of the teacher prescribed above can be summarized as shown in Figure

	Teachers as passive technicians	Teachers as reflective practitioners	Teachers as transformative intellectuals
Primary role of teacher	conduit	facilitator	change agent
Primary source of knowledge	professional knowledge + empirical research by experts	professional knowledge + teacher's personal knowledge + guided action research by teachers	professional knowledge + teacher's personal knowledge + self- exploratory research by teachers
Primary goal of teaching	content maximizing knowledge through prescribed activities	all above + maximizing learning potential through problem-solving activities	all above + maximizing sociopolitical awareness through problem-posing activities
Primary orientation to teaching	discrete approach, anchored in the discipline	integrated approach, anchored in the classroom	holistic approach, anchored in the society
Primary players in the teaching process (in rank order)	experts + teachers	teachers + experts + learners	teachers + learners + experts + community activists

Figure 1.4 The roles of the teacher: a summary

Data source: Kumaravadivelu. 2003: 16.

These three perspectives, however, should not be treated as absolute opposite but as relative tendencies, with teachers learning toward one or the other at different situations. One cannot deny that passive technicians cannot become transformative intellectuals without a continual process of self-reflection and self-evaluation.

Reflective task 1.4

To what extent do teacher education programs with which you are familiar (eg. Srinakharinwirot MA. In TEFL program) prepare their participants to become transformative intellectuals in terms of imparting necessary knowledge, skill and attitude?



CHAPTER 2

Teacher Training, Teacher Development and Teacher Education

Objectives

1. To introduce participants the definition of teacher training, teacher development and teacher education
2. To raise participants awareness of the distinction between teacher training and teacher development

Key concepts

1. The characteristics of teacher training, teacher development and teacher education
2. The distinction between teacher training and teacher development

What are the key characterizes of teacher training, teacher development and teacher education?

The terms “teacher training”, “teacher development”, and “teacher education” have particular and sometimes varying resonance to those involved in the language teaching field. It is, thus, necessary to have a clear distinction of the terms so that we have a better understanding of their contributions to professional teacher education as a whole.

Teacher training

Teacher Training is seen to be involved with classroom skills and techniques. According to Peter James (2001: 151-152) in his book entitled *‘Teachers in Action’*, teacher training is defined as follows:

The learning needs for teacher training are typically defined by a recognizable deficit in the participating teachers’ knowledge or skills. The learning aims are often rather short-term and convergent, that is to say, they lead towards a predetermined outcome; in addition, the aims may be specified by the institution which is funding the training. Training in this sense is sometimes referred to as ‘top-down’.

Teacher development

Teacher development is the extension of teacher training. The term is used to describe a process of continual intellectual, experiential and attitudinal growth of teachers (Lange. 1983; Joyee and Weil. 1980; Sprinthall & Sprinthall. 1983). It focuses on individual needs and takes on different specific meanings and form depending on where the teachers are working and what their desired direction for development is. Lange (1983: 250-251) states that teacher development aims at continued growth both before and throughout a career. Thus, teachers need to be involved in using, adapting and applying their teaching. In other words, teachers should be developed, not trained.

Alan Maley (1990) gives five overlapping reasons of the need for teacher development:

1. A feeling that training courses cannot alone satisfy all trainees' needs.
2. A need to go beyond more training.
3. The search for a sense of direction what characterizes the increasing professionalization of ELT.
4. The growing confidence of teachers in their ability to shape their own growth.
5. The influence of the wider life-long education movement.

Richard Rossner (1992: 4) has identified the key characteristics of teacher development taken from his informal survey. Here are the responses from the EFL teachers when asked what they think teacher development is:

- A it is about dealing with the needs and wants of the individual teacher in ways that suit that individual. The needs may be many and diverse - from confidence-building to language awareness or technical expertise.
- B Much of TD is seen as relating to new experiences, new challenges and the opportunity for teachers to broaden their repertoire and take on new responsibilities and challenges. This helps them to fight a feeling of jadedness and also to develop their career as well as themselves.
- C TD is not just to do with language teaching or even teaching: It's also about language development (particularly for teachers whose native language isn't English), counseling skills, assertiveness training, confidence-building, computing, mediation, cultural broadening – almost anything, in fact.
- D TD, in most teachers' opinions, has to be 'bottom-up', not dished out by managers according to their own view of what development teachers need. This doesn't mean to

say that managers have no role in it ... Nor does it mean that managers should stop organizing in-service to other training courses.

Specifically, a set of principles was developed by the Curriculum Development Center Australia (1988) as a support context for teachers to develop themselves. It states that teacher development is most successful when teachers, as professional :

1. are actively involved in determining what they need to learn and the best processes by which this might occur.
2. have access to models of good practice to guide their program planning and teaching.
3. are provided with opportunities to carry out problem-solving tasks which enable them to analyze and apply new information and skills.
4. are able to focus on different components of the curriculum at different times.
5. are provided with opportunities to develop professionally according to their own particular personalities, concerns, and needs.
6. are provided with feedback and opportunities to interact and discuss with others.
7. are provided with opportunities for reflection, awareness-raising, and opportunities for innovation.
8. are responsible for their own learning.

Thus, development can mean many different things and take many different forms as teachers find ways to motivate them to learn. Some of them decide to go on to a further course of academic study such as a diploma or Master's degree or some in-service training courses. Some might recognize that academic courses either are not an option, or seem not to provide an appropriate way of developing themselves. These are the ones who are keen to understand more about teaching and learning and have the potential with themselves to become better teachers through deepening their own understanding and awareness of themselves and of their learners.

Alan Maley (1990: 67), in his article written to illustrate the concept of teacher development, has exemplified the variety of activities leading to the development as follows:

What is TD (teacher development) since no single definition will suffice, examples may help to characterize a 'family resemblance'.

1. Teacher A feels constantly under stress is sleeping badly and is off her food. She decides to act. After reading articles/books on stress and on personal organization

she decides to set aside 30 minutes 'quiet time' daily and to use this to make lists of personal action points.

2. Teacher B finds a good practical idea (in a teachers' magazine). He decides, with a colleague, to try it out for a month and to discuss progress once a week.
3. Ten teachers from school X decide to meet once a month to discuss a book or article all have agreed to read.
4. Eight teachers from school Y decide to meet once a month to talk over problems individuals have encountered. There is no agenda but the group is tolerant and mutually supportive.
5. Teacher C decides to take a course on a non-ELT subject, which she thinks may give new insights for her teaching. (For example, a course on counselling skills, Neuro-Linguistic Programming, photography, and so on.)
6. Teacher D decides to improve his qualifications. He enrolls on a RSA Dip. TEFL course
7. Teacher E has never written for a publication. She decides to review a recent book she feels enthusiastic about. She seeks advice from more experienced colleagues on how to write it and who to submit it to.
8. Teacher D and H decide to implement ideas they have on learner independence. They set up a small action research project. They present their finding at the next IATEFL conference.

As you can see, one characteristic that all these activities have in common is that the teachers themselves decide what they are going to do. However, it seems that an activity is likely not to be developmental unless it takes on a real personal value for the people involved.

Teacher education

The focus of teacher education is extended from a based training model towards an approach in which developmental insights are promoted alongside classroom techniques and skills. Thus, it covers the activities which attempt to develop teachers' knowledge, skills, and attitudes as well as to cater flexibly for teachers' learning needs. In other words, teacher education focuses on teachers' role as educators and language teachers and helps prepare teachers for their career-long learning. Pennington (1990: 34-35) has illustrated the responsibility of teacher educators for teachers' career growth as follows:

"Within the framework of teaching as a profession, teacher preparation aims at the

development of competency standards for the field and for the attainment of a certain level of competency for all individuals, while underscoring the importance of individualized professional growth throughout the teaching career. Professional teacher preparation programs will have as **goals the development of an extensive repertoire of classroom skills and the judgment to apply these skills as needed.** In this way, teacher preparation moves beyond 'training' in the narrow sense to enabling an individual to function in any situation, rather than training for specific situation...

For long-term professional development, education can provide the confidence and the knowledge to continue to reach and to grow, while a practicum or prepracticum course can, for example, provide experience in accepting feedback and implementing suggestions offered as feedback by another professional – a colleague or supervisor. Education provides the background for helping the teacher to understand what type of feedback is appropriate in different situations; training can teach the candidate how to give that feedback, both to students and to colleagues, in a way that will be most beneficial. Education also aims to build tolerance in future teachers and teacher supervisors, reminding them that there are many different perspectives on teaching, all of which may be equally valid. Practical training experiences can also assist in the development of attitudes that are open to differing perspectives and to modification through experience.

Conclusion

From what has been discussed, teacher training is concerned with teachers' knowledge and skills whereas teacher development focuses on the development of teachers, existing knowledge or skills. Teacher education, on the other hand, is being extended to incorporate elements of teacher training and teacher development, providing, however, a wider view than both of these. One needs to take into account these views with regard to teacher education and development to help practicing teachers to develop their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes, in order to educate their learners more effectively.

Reflective task 2.1

With reference to the definition of teacher training and development above:

1. How do you distinguish training from development that fit your own experience?
 2. Think of an example of a change in your teaching that has resulted from 'training' and another that fits better the definition of 'development'
-

Reflective task 2.2

Pennington draws attention to the importance for teachers to become competent in these areas:

1. Individualized professional growth throughout their career
2. Ability to exercise judgment and make choices appropriate to the situation
3. Confidence to reach out towards new goals and objectives
4. Feedback skills
5. Tolerance towards a variety of perspectives on teaching

Think back to your own education as a teacher. How far did your teacher education prepare you in each of these five areas?

How are teacher training and teacher development different?

Teacher training as it is seen, is concerned with the knowledge of the topic that is to be taught, and the methodology for teaching it. The emphasis is on classroom skills and techniques, and on using the materials that are currently considered helpful to learning. Teacher development, on the other hand, is essentially concerned with the effects that the teacher has on the learners and on the learning atmosphere within the class, as distinct from the effect of the techniques and materials. The emphasis is on developing those personal capacities which affect a teacher's presence in class, awareness, and attitudes.

Drawn from the difference between teacher training and teacher development being discussed, more explicit views on some differences of emphasis between these two types of teacher learning will be illustrated. Adrian Underhill (Head & Taylor, 1997: 10; citing Underhill, 1988, *Teacher Development Newsletter*, 4) proposes the difference between teacher training and development as followings:

"The argument for training in this sense may go like this: 'I believe that my effectiveness as a teacher depends largely on my pedagogic skills, and my knowledge of the topic I am teaching, and on all the associated methodology. My teaching is only as good as the techniques or materials that I employ, and I improve by learning more about them. I acknowledge that the kind of person I am affects my teaching, but I don't really see what I can do about this other than by further training and by gaining experience.

The part of me that argues for development may say things like: 'I believe that my effectiveness as a teacher depends largely on the way I am in the classroom, on my

awareness of myself and my effect on others, and on my attitudes towards learners, learning and my own role. I value my facility with pedagogic skills and my knowledge of the topic, but it is the 'me' who operates them that primarily influences their effectiveness. I teach only as well as the atmosphere that I engender. I believe that education is chance and that I will not be able to have a static quality about it that is not good for me or for my students."

Freeman (1982: 21-22) also differentiates the two terms:

" Training assumes that teaching is a finite skill, one which can be acquired and mastered. Development assumes that teaching is a constantly evolving process of growth and change. It is an expansion of skills and understanding.....Training addresses certain immediate needs, for example, helping a person with little or no previous teaching experience enter a class. Development however, speaks to broader, long-term concerns: how a teacher can be encouraged to grow, to explore new avenues and ideas, and, thereby, to avoid professional atrophy or the feeling that one has done it all before."

Tessa Woodward (1991: 147-8) has presented a bi-polar scaled comparison as shown below:

teacher training	Teacher development
• compulsory • competency • short term • one-off • temporary • external agenda • skill / technique and knowledge based	• voluntary • holistic • long term • ongoing • continual • internal agenda • awareness based, angled towards personal growth and the development of attitudes / insights
• compulsory for entry to the profession • top-down • product / certificate weighted • means you can get a job • done with experts	• non-compulsory • bottom-up • Process weighted • means you can stay interested in your job • done with peers

Alan Maley (1990) also lists the merits of teacher training and teacher development in form of polar opposites as follows:-

teacher training

- time-bound
- related to needs of course
- terminal outcomes pre-empted
- information/skills transmission
- fixed agenda
- hierarchical
- other-directed
- top-down

Teacher development

- continuing
- related to needs of the individual
- terminal outcomes open
- problem solving
- flexible agenda
- peer-oriented
- inner-directed
- bottom-up

Based on the viewpoints outlined above, the crucial characteristic which distinguishes teacher development is of the decision making in teacher rather than in organizations. In teacher development it is the teacher who makes decisions and bears the responsibility for these decisions. In terms of practicality, however, each model is said to have its own advantages and disadvantages which can be summarized as show in Figure 2.1.

	Teacher training	Teacher development
Advantages	● Use valuable external sources of knowledge ● Courses based on organized syllabus coverage ● Monitoring of standards ● Accreditation	● Learning based on teacher's own experience and reflection ● Critical thoughtful learning ● Respects teacher as autonomous professional ● "Facilitators" are themselves teachers
Disadvantages	● Not enough emphasis on teacher's own thinking and experience ● Teacher not seen as an autonomous professional but subordinate to expert ● Trainers often not teachers themselves, out of touch	● Not enough use made of external input (knowledge, skills) ● Lack of organization, may be inefficient ● No control of standards or accreditation

Figure 2.1 The advantages and disadvantages of teacher training and teacher development

Conclusion

From what have been discussed, teacher development draws on the teacher's own inner resource of change. It is concerned on personal awareness of the possibilities for change, and of what influences the change process. Nevertheless, teacher training and teacher development go hand in hand, and are two components of the same thing – the external knowledge or skill accompanied by the internal insight. Thus, it is more useful to see training and development as two complementary aspects of teacher education.

Exploratory task 2.1

Referring to the 8 activities leading to the development illustrated by Alan Maley, put a tick next to those you would be interested in. Then compare your answers with a partner.

Exploratory task 2.2

The words and expressions below are from the bi-polar comparisons of teacher training and teacher development by Tessa Woodward and Alan Maley. Without reading them again, decide if they relate to TT (Teacher Training) or TD (Teacher Development). Write TT or TD next to each one.

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| a. bottom-up | g. voluntary |
| b. ongoing | h. problem solving |
| c. fixed-agenda | i. skill transmission |
| d. done with experts | j. time-bound |
| e. peer-oriented | k. continuing |
| f. holistic | l. short-term |
-

CHAPTER 3

Teacher Development in Action

Objectives

1. To introduce participants the concept of “reflective teaching”
2. To provide participants the framework for teacher reflectivity
3. To acquaint participants with professional development techniques and activities

Key Concepts

1. The definition of “ reflective teaching”
2. Framework for teacher reflectivity
3. Professional development activities

Defining “reflective teaching”

The term “ reflective teaching” has been widely used in the language teaching literature to refer to a practice and an approach to teaching that allows teachers to become more professional and better teachers. It plays around the idea that teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions and teaching practices and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching (Bartlett. 1990, Lange. 1990, Richards. 1994). Reflection enable teachers to take responsibility for their own growth by allows them to be self-directed (Zeichner; Listen. 1987).

Teachers as reflective practitioners

One of the most comprehensive discussions concerning reflective teaching is provided by Schon (Stanley. 1998: 584-5; citing Schon. 1983. op. cit.). He initiated the framework of reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action and describes that reflective practitioner do when they look at their teaching in the moment or in retrospect to seek for the reasons and beliefs underlying their action and generate alternative actions for the future. Reflection-on-action can occur before and after a lesson during the time the teachers plan for a lesson and then evaluate effectiveness of their teaching afterwards. Reflect-in-action, on the other hand, occurs during the teaching situation, attempting to locate

unexpected problems on the spot and then adjusting their teaching. It is believed that considerable practice with reflection-on-action will lead to potential reflection-in-action.

Hatton and Smith (Shaw et al. 2004: 201-202; citing Hatton; & Smith. 1995. *Teacher and Teacher Education*. pp.33-49.) draw on the work by Schon (1983, 1987) on the distinction between reflection-in-action (as we act) and reflection-on-action (after the act). They propose the reflection types for teacher development, and clarify the various conceptualizations of reflection as shown in Figure 3.1.

Reflection type	Nature of reflection	Possible content
"Reflection-in-action" (Schön. 1983, 1987) addressing IMPACT concerns after some experience in the profession	5. Contextualisation of multiple viewpoints drawing on any of the possibilities 1-4 below applied to situations as they are actually taking place	Dealing with on-the-spot professional problems as they arise (thinking can be recalled and then shared with others later)
Reflection-on-action (Schön. 1983, Lovat and Smith. 1991, Smith and Hatton. 1993) addressing TASK and IMPACT concerns in the exploring alternative later stages of a pre-service program	4. Critical (Social reconstructionist), seeing as problematic, according to ethical criteria, the goals and practices of one's profession	Thinking about the effects upon others of one's actions, taking account of social, political and / or cultural forces (can be shared)
	3. Dialogic (deliberative, cognitive, narrative) weighing competing claims and viewpoints, and then exploring alternative solutions	Hearing one's own voice (alone or with another) exploring alternative ways to solve problems in a professional situation
	2. Descriptive (social efficiency, developmental, personalistic) seeking what is seen as "best possible" practice	Analysing one's performance in the professional role (probably alone), giving reasons for actions taken

<i>Reflection type</i>	<i>Nature of reflection</i>	<i>Possible content</i>
Technical rationality (Van Manen. 1977, Schon. 1983) addressing SELF and TASK concerns early in a program which prepares individuals for entry into a profession	1. Technical (decision-making about immediate behaviors or skills), drawn from a given research/theory base, but always interpreted in the light of personal worries and experience	Beginning to examine (usually with peers) one's use of essential skills or generic competencies as often applied in controlled, small-scale settings

Figure 3.1: Types of reflection relating to concern

Data Source: Shaw. et al. 2004; citing Hatton; & Smith. 1995: 33-49.

Hatton and Smith state that first professional practice experience undertake in controlled situation with immediate feedback focused on technical skills. Descriptive reflection is, moreover, manifest in an attempt to provide justification for events in a reportive or descriptive way and requires the recognition of the fact that there are different ways of looking at a problem. Dialogic reflection, in this sense, is a "Stepping back" from events and actions, involving active searching for the explanation of what is happening. Critical reflection, furthermore, requires a recognition of the social, cultural of events and actions.

Reflective task 3.1

What are the characteristics of "reflective teaching"?

In what ways does the concept attempt to go beyond the day-to-day teaching?

Framework for Teacher Reflectivity

Stanley (1998) proposes a framework for teacher reflectivity. She recommends five phrases in the process of developing of a reflective teaching practice: a) engaging with reflection, b) thinking reflectively, c) using reflection, d) sustaining reflection, and e) practicing reflection. These phases do not represent a sequence to be followed, but varies in time and particular experiences that constitute a particular phrase.

Engaging with reflection

Deciding to engage with 'reflection' is not that simple. The amount of time, effort and commitment is needed. Personal, professional and contextual factors may limit a teacher's ability to engage with reflection. Personal issues of self-esteem may trigger responses of guilt, and self-doubt when teachers examine their teaching. If the experience of reflection is too painful, a teacher may consciously or unconsciously resist learning to reflect.

Similarly, professional and contextual factors can influence a teacher's capacity to engage with reflection. If a teacher needs to work many hours a week to barely make a living, there may be little time left for reflective thinking or writing.

When personal, professional and contextual factors are stable and they are curious about learning the process of reflecting on their teaching, teachers can engage with reflection.

Thinking reflectively

Many teachers' initial reaction to reflection is simply to think back on a classroom situation and describe what happened and how they felt about it. However, to think reflectively needs more than descriptive thinking and feeling responses. The following excerpt taken from Stanley (1998: 586) in her article '*A Framework for Teacher Reflectivity*' illustrates a teacher's spontaneous effort to think reflectively:

I didn't feel nervous but somehow I didn't know where I was heading. And I should have taken that sentence and written it on the blackboard and started from there. But I don't know why I left it. I didn't take advantage of that sentence. Instead I kept on talking... Well, starting from there everything, well I think it was a mess although I tried to sort of organize things later. But again, somehow I felt it was not working.

To develop the reflective thinking, this teacher needs to ask herself more questions. These include: What had been written on the board? Why did she need to go back to it? How did it connect to the rest of the lesson? What data did she observe in order to come to the conclusion that "It was a mess"? Where are the students and their reaction? How does this lesson fit within a larger whole or syllabus? What possible alternative action could she have taken in the lesson? What will she do the next time she teaches this particular lesson or this group of students? These questions and many others would help this teacher develop the skill of thinking reflectively.

Richards (1998: 169-170) suggests a set of reflection questions for teachers to use as a guide when **reflecting about what happened** during a lesson. He categorizes them into questions about your teaching, and questions about the students:

Question about your teaching

1. What did you set out to teach?
2. Were you able to accomplish your goals?
3. What teaching materials did you use? How effective were they?
4. What techniques did you use?
5. What grouping arrangements did you use?
6. Was your lesson teacher dominated?
7. What kind of teacher-student interaction occurred?
8. Did anything amusing or unusual occur?
9. Did you have any problems with the lesson?
10. Did you do anything differently than usual?
11. What kinds of decision making did you employ?
12. Did you depart from your lesson plan? If so, why? Did the change make things better or worse?
13. What was the main accomplishment of the lesson?
14. Which parts of the lesson were most successful?
15. Which parts of the lesson were least successful?
16. Would you teach the lesson differently if you taught it again?
17. Was your philosophy of teaching reflected in the lesson?
18. Did you discover anything new about your teaching?
19. What change do you think you make in your teaching?

Question about the students

1. Did you teach all your students today?
2. Did students contribute actively to the lesson?
3. How did you respond to different students' needs?
4. Were students challenged by the lesson?
5. What do you think students really learned from the lesson?
6. What did they like most about the lesson?
7. What didn't they respond well to?

Using reflection

When teachers have understood what reflection is and how to think reflectively, they can use it as a tool. Just as in learning any skill, there is a phase of experimentation and joy in seeing how many different shapes reflections can take and when, how and with whom it can be done. Is it an activity best done alone and through writing, or is it also beneficial to shape reflective dialogues with colleagues, friends, and supervisors? In the phase of using reflection, teachers begin to sort out the forms and feelings of the process that are most beneficial to their practice.

Sustaining reflection

In the midst of using and experimenting with reflection, teachers encounter difficulties that they need to overcome in order to sustain their commitment to developing a reflective teaching practice. One of the greatest difficulties is usually emotional reactions to what is uncovered through the investigation of classroom teaching. In going deeper into reflection on one's teaching, it is not unusual to begin to find issues of prejudice or favoritism toward certain students, learning styles, or theories of teaching and learning. In fact, it is precisely to this end that critical reflection must come.

However, teachers can find it difficult to accept evidence in their classroom teaching of pedagogical issues, such as a high percentage of teacher talk and lack of clarity in classroom procedures. At this point, they may want to retreat to a safe haven of distance and choose not to reflect at this point more introspective level for a while until they have sorted out the emotions of fear, anger, or shame triggered by these discoveries. Teachers may be able to sustain reflection at a more externally oriented level at this time through reading, workshops, or dialogues with other teachers or professionals.

Practicing reflection

With time and practice, as in the development of any skill, reflection becomes an integral part of practice. Contextual factors, such as having at least one other person with whom reflective conversations are possible or having time for reflective writing on a weekly if not daily basis, are important for further development of a reflective teaching practice.

If a teacher is struggling to engage with reflection, it is helpful to examine personal and contextual factors that could be detrimental to reflection. For example, if the teacher's reflective thinking is mostly descriptive, it is useful to work with a transcript or videotape of a

class in order to examine all the data present in a teaching moment. This can lead to an investigation of the **decisions made at the time** and the beliefs and the values that supported those decisions.

After experimenting with the use of reflection for some time, teachers often develop frameworks and procedures for continuing reflective thinking that leads to reflective action in their classrooms. Working with this kind of analytical framework, a teacher can begin to see the multiple influences on the lesson in a way that allows for greater clarity as to the source of problems in the classroom.

The five-phase framework of reflectivity can be illustrated as shown in Figure 3.2

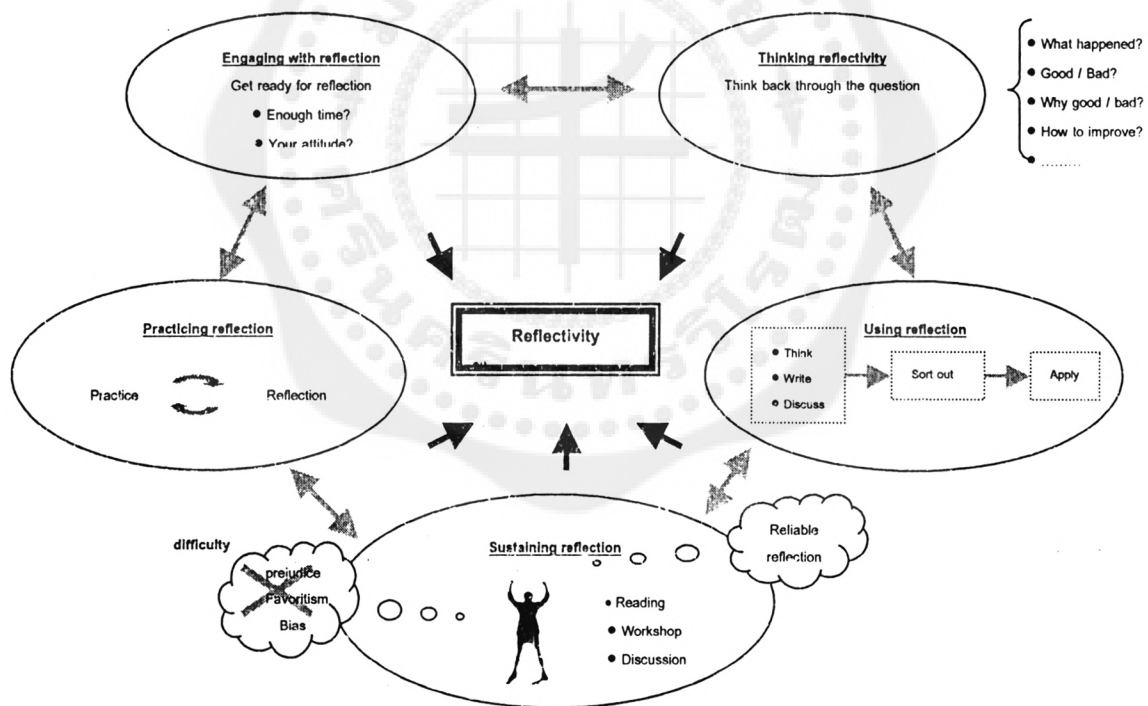


Figure 3.2: The framework of teacher reflectivity

Conclusion

By understanding the concept of phases in the development of a reflective teaching practice along with the types of reflection previously discussed, it is hoped that teachers would be able to implement reflection and reflective action in their teaching at a certain extent. Since teachers need to work on different aspects of reflection, reflective thinking and action depend on which part of development they are in.

By using the framework of phases, teaching will be able to more accurately assess their development of a reflective teaching practice and respond in more precise ways in order to sustain and internalize that practice.

Reflective task 3.2

Referring to Stanley's framework of teacher reflectivity, how would you modify the framework for use with the in-service teacher development program?

Professional development activities

Teachers who seek to develop themselves and their practice will benefit both their students and themselves far more than those who, by constant and unthinking repetition, gradually become less engaged with the task of language teaching. Development may be brought about by breaking our own teaching rules, or it may involve investigating some things that we do not know about. But in all cases, the teachers, of course, improve their practice as well as learn more about teaching and themselves (Harmer. 2001: 344).

Apart from formal training (such as M.A. in TESOL/ Applied Linguistics), there is a great deal teachers can do to ensure that they continue to develop and grow. These options (Anderson. 2004, Angelo; & Cross. 1993, Bowman; et al. 2000, Diaz-Maggioli. 2003, Gebhard; & Oprandy. 1999, Harmer. 2001, Head; & Taylor. 1997, Richards; & Lockhart. 1994, Wallace. 1994) can be either collaborative or individual as shown in Figure 3.3.

Collaborative activities	Individual activities
1. Workshops and short courses 2. Collaborative study groups 3. Peer observation 4. Peer (team) teaching 5. Peer coaching 6. The virtual community teacher's associations * Action research * Classroom assessment * Cooperative development	1. Portfolios 2. Self-monitoring 3. Journal/Diary writing 4. Professional Literature * Classroom assessment * Action research

Figure 3.3 Reflective professional development activities

* both collaborative and individual activities are used.

Workshops and short courses

One of the supportive environments for teachers where teacher development takes place is attending an intensive short-term learning activity led by an expert or the one who has relevant experience. Participating in the course / workshop will allow teachers to get hands on experience with the topic and at the same time contribute actively.

Collaborative study groups

Collaborative study groups are small groups of colleagues (not more than 10 participants) who get together on a regular, long-term basis (at least once a month for an academic year) to explore issues of teaching and learning. In doing so, they support each other at the personal and professional levels and create new learning opportunities from within the profession. Collaborative study groups are also referred to as support groups, teacher networks and learning circles.

Leadership in collaborative study groups is shared. Even though the group as a whole decides on the agenda, participants take turns chairing the meetings. Every session has a pre-determined schedule and three participants (facilitator, recorder and chairperson) play the key roles. For a sample of collaborative study groups, see Appendix A.

Peer observation/ peer (team) teaching

Peer observation and peer (team) teaching involve colleagues, who are equal, watching and teaching together so that both may be helped in their understanding and practice.

A formal way of organizing peer observation and teaching is for two teachers to plan a lesson which one of them then teaches. After the lesson they both describe what happened to their joint plan and give details of the lesson. They can then discuss how it could be improved. For the next class, the position is reversed.

When working with peers, teachers reduce their nervousness and, thus, the result of their contribution helps each participant to develop as teachers and as people.

Peer coaching

Peer coaching can be defined as a voluntary process of observing teaching then sharing perspective and advice based on that observation. In order to become involved in this process, participants need adequate training in coaching and the skills necessary to help establish confidentiality and trust. Most peer coaching models are based on the three-part clinical supervision framework – pre-conference, observation and post-conference (See Chapter 5).

The virtual community

There are now a number of channels on the internet by which teachers can “talk” to each other, exchanging ideas and options, and asking for help. Some of these, like TESL-L, are extremely large, with daily postings of anywhere. Some of them, on various more or less formal sites, are smaller.

E-mail peer mentoring groups

E-Mail support group for teachers. This structure could involve teacher learners who are in the same/ location or in different locations around the world. The function of the peer mentoring is for a teacher to pose a question of problem found in his/her language teaching and to then solicit input from peers.

Sample Mentoring E-Mail Schedule

- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| Week 1: | The star teacher poses a question. |
| Weeks 2 and 3: | The other teachers write and send responses to the star and all group participants. |

- Week 4:** The star reflects upon and summarizes the responses.
- A few weeks later:** The star writes a post-reflection discussing how the feedback has been implemented.

Data Source: Bowman, I; et al. 2000: 15-18.

Teachers' associations

There are many teachers' associations around the world. Some of them are international such as TESOL, based in the USA and IATEFL based in Britain; some are country-based such as Thailand TESOL, JALT (Japan), KOTESOL (Korea), FEELTA (Russian Far East), ETA-ROC (Taiwan).

Teachers' associations provide at least two possible development opportunities: conference and presenting. Attending conferences allows teachers to hear about the latest developments in the field, take part in investigative workshop about current issues in theory and practice. Best of all, teachers have opportunities to meet other teachers from different countries and share experience, similar problems and search for solutions. Presenting a paper moreover, is one of the most powerful catalysts for reflecting upon the practice. Teachers who present work usually find their self-esteem enhanced, their belief challenged and expanded.

Action research

Action research is a teacher-conducted classroom research that seeks to clarify and resolve practical teaching issues and problems. Its primary goal is to improve teaching and learning in schools and classrooms and can be carried out by an individual teacher or in collaboration with other teachers.

Action research takes place in the teacher's own classroom and involves a cycle of activities centering on identifying a problem or issue, collecting information about the issue, devising a strategy to address the issue, trying out the strategy, and observing its effects (See Chapter 7).

Classroom Assessment

There are many ways teachers can reflect on their teaching. They can simply make a note or write a journal. Classroom assessment techniques are to help teachers look back what happened in the class. A set of questions/statements are prepared for teachers to answer. Through their reflection/evaluation of their own and their friends' teaching

performance, teachers are expected gain better understanding of what they have done. Sample of classroom assessment techniques are Application Cards, Minute Paper, 3-2-1 Summary, and Group Evaluation Form (See Appendix A).

Journal / Diary writing

Journals / diaries are written or recorded accounts which teachers write or audiotape their responses to teaching events. They are reflective tools that teachers used to chart their concerns in the classroom. Journal / diary entries usually cover specific classroom teaching topics and include analyses of experience and reactions to classroom events. A typical journal / diary entry may include some of the following:

- A description of what went on in the classroom
- Reflection on the effect of those actions on student learning
- Some tentative explanation for this effect
- A proactive account of how this experience may impact future teaching decisions

Cooperative / collaborative development

Cooperative / collaborative development give chances to teachers to express their experience and practice to colleagues who help them to sort things out in their own mind. In cooperative development, speakers interact with understanders; a teacher in this case talks to a colleague who plays a crucial role of a listener who listens in a non-judgmental, respectful and empathetic way (See Chapter 6).

Self-monitoring

In self-monitoring, teachers document or record information about their teaching in order to review or evaluate their teaching. Self-monitoring activities include lesson reports, audio-recording a classroom, and video-recording a lesson.

Case studies

A case study is an account of how a teacher / practitioner carries out his/her practice and resolves the issues that he/she confronts. It usually has the following characteristics:

- focuses on collecting information about a real-life situation that can be used to discuss a problematic issue in teaching;

- focuses on an instance or example of something we wish to learn more about;
- has implications beyond the situation described;
- can be an instructive example for other teachers;
- involves detailed description of a situation but does not necessarily analyze or interpret it.

Teaching portfolios

A teaching portfolio is a collection of documents and other items that provides information about different aspects of a teacher's work. It describes and documents a teacher's performance for further investigation and development. It is potentially beneficial in that it recognizes and gives credit for what a teacher has achieved. It also contributes to a teacher's development and progress by improving his/her motivation providing encouragement and awareness of strengths, weakness and opportunities. A portfolio can be of a working one or a showcase one.

Conference plan

A conference plan is one way to help teachers who attend conferences or seminars focus during and after the event. This may it may result in better self-directed learning.

Before the conference, teachers set personal goals about what they expect to gain from the event. The aim is to aid reflection on the reasons for attending the event. Teachers build their individual agendas for the event and follow them during attendances. Upon completion of the event , teachers implement action in the classroom, reflect upon these, and finally share them with other colleagues. For a sample of a conference plan, see Appendix A.

Individual development plan

An individual development plan is based on the underlying belief that teachers have a lot of expertise they can share to create knowledge. The plan is a structured series of actions aimed at enhancing teacher performance. It should include clear goals and objectives, a schedule of activities for the academic term, specification of learning outcomes and an evaluation. For a sample of an individual development plan, see Appendix A.

Conclusion

All approaches to professional development discussed have as their main focus the needs of the teachers and the desire to improve the quality of teaching and learning. By adopting some or all of these approaches for their own professional development, teachers will be better equipped to cope with all challenge confronted.



CHAPTER 4

Classroom Observation for Professional Teacher Development

Objectives

1. To broaden participants the concept of classroom observation for professional teacher development
2. To help participants learn how to conduct classroom observation
3. To enable participants to explore classroom observation tools and techniques, and develop observation tools for using in actual classrooms
4. To provide participants a chance to work out and reflect on the focused data from the actual teaching-learning situation

Key concepts

1. The definition of "classroom observation"
2. The purpose of classroom observation
3. Approaches for observation
4. Classroom observation techniques and tools
5. The collection and analysis of observation data
6. The interpretation of observation data

What is classroom observation?

Classroom observation involves visiting a class to get direct information on the classroom behavior of both teachers and learners. It provides opportunities for teachers to understand by what they see rather than what they are told. A number of teacher educators have given their views on the roles of classroom observation as follows:

Classroom observation is a procedure for keeping a record of classroom events in such a way that it can later be studied, typically either for teacher training or for research purposes.

(Allwright, D. 1988 : xvi)

Observation is a multi-faceted tool for learning. The experience of observing comprises more than the time actually spent in the classroom. It also includes preparation for the period in the classroom and follow-up from the time spent there.....

(Wajnrub. 1992: 1)

.....(classroom observation) is non-judgmental description of classroom events that can be analyzed and given interpretation.....

(Gerhard, J. 1999 : 35)

.....It (the classroom) is there the effectiveness of innovative thoughts on teaching is tried and tested. What actually happens there largely determines the extent to which learning potential is realized, and desired outcomes are achieved. The task of systematically observing classroom events, therefore, becomes central to the goal of monitoring teaching acts.

(Kumaravadivelu. 2003: 287)

From what have been quoted above, we can see that classroom observation is regarded as an exploring tool for teachers to describe, analyze and interpret their observed teaching which will finally lead to their awareness of teaching. Fanslow (1990: 184) makes the point that one can gain self-knowledge and self-insight by observing what teachers and students do in classroom, and when he/she generates his/her own alternative ways to teach based on our observations of what others do, he/she is constructing his/her own knowledge.

What are the purposes of classroom observation?

Following the lead of those who have written about observation, classroom observation has served various purposes as follows:-

1. Observation as a learning tool

For this purpose, classroom observation is regarded as a learning tool in which teachers act as observers in the language learning classroom and learn from the observation about their own teaching through collecting, analyzing and interpreting descriptions of their own teaching (Wajnrub. 1992: 1, Gebhard. 1999: 36).

2. Observation as the basic research procedure

Classroom observation, in this sense, serves as a data collection for research

purposes. In this regard, classroom observation provides rich data of actual classroom behavior for teachers to reflect on their teaching (Allwright. 1988 : 11, Allwright; & Bailey. 1991: xvii, Gebhard. 1999: 37, Nunan. 1989: 97,).

3. Observation as a feedback tool in teacher training

The purpose of classroom observation in this regard is to evaluate teaching. The goal is to help the teachers to improve their teaching and become effective teachers (Maingay. 1988, Gebhard. 1999). Allwright (1988: 105-106) points out that the focus of supervision and evaluation on teaching practice should be shifted to self-observation and self-evaluation as agents of behavioral change in teachers. It is a move towards a more trainee centred approach to teacher training.

4. Observation for assessment

Classroom observation for assessment takes place in teacher training courses leading to qualifications such as RSA certificates and diploma or during probation periods or for employment related matter (Rea-Dickins. 1994: 80). It is usually value-based, directive, externally imposed by factors not necessarily related to learning (Wajnrub. 1992: 2).

5. Observation for teacher development

The purpose of classroom observation in this respect is to allow teachers to see teaching differently, and become more self-aware. The goal of the observation is to help teachers construct and reconstruct their own knowledge about teaching and thereby learn more about their teaching attitudes, beliefs and classroom practices. The more the teachers observe and develop their teaching, the freer they become to make their own informed teaching decisions (Gebhard. 1999: 38)

There are a number of approaches for teacher development which classroom observation is implemented as a crucial component. Among these are action research, clinical supervision, and reflective teaching. (Barlett. 1993: 208- 209, Gaies; & Bowers. 1993: 177, Nunan. 1989: 12, Richards; & Lockhart. 1994: 12)

In the content of teacher development, classroom observation should be used as a way of gathering information about teaching, rather than a way of evaluating teaching. The observation can be carried out either through self-observation or peer observation. In self-observation, the teachers audio tape or videotape their own lessons to find out more about the way they teach (Allwright. 1988: 37, Day. 1990: 46).

In peer observation, the teacher observes each other's teaching. The observer helps collect data of what is actually happening in the classroom by working on an observation sheet or checklist focusing on a particular aspect of the lesson without judgment. This mutual observation system would be highly effective if the collaborative group of teachers teaches the same subject or level because the areas of problems may be similar, which makes it easier for them to discuss teaching and its consequence helps teachers to become more reflective and better teachers (Nunan. 1989: 114, Barlett. 1993: 204-205, Richards. 1994: 12).

However, there are some crucial points to be considered in peer observation (Hopkins. 1985: 88-89):-

1. The climate of interaction between teachers and observer needs to be non-threatening, helping and mutual trust. These can be led to improvement in teaching and observational skills for both.
2. The focus of activity should be on improving teaching and the reinforcing of successful patterns, rather than on criticism of unsuccessful patterns or changing the teacher personality.
3. The process depends on the collection and use of objective observational data not value judgments.
4. Teachers are encouraged to make inferences about their teaching from the data, and use the data to construct hypotheses that can be tested out in the future.

Approaches for observation

Nunan (1989), Day (1990), and Kumaravadivelu (2003) classify classroom observation approaches into two types: quantitative or product-oriented approaches and qualitative or process-oriented approaches. Furthermore, they use qualitative methods of analysis, along with quantitative method to interpret classroom data.

Most of the qualitative/process-oriented approaches are also intended to observe, describe, classify and assign certain numerical values to verbal behaviors using a preselected and predetermined set of categorical items. However, they are different from the quantitative/product-oriented approach in at least two ways. First, through a qualitative or ethnographic method of analysis (such as interviews), they seek to interpret classroom events, not describe them. Second, in order to achieve the goal of interpretation, some of them attempt to go beyond the perspective of classroom events.

These approaches, however, have certain shortcomings:-

1. although they are meant to help teachers, they are designed primarily to be used by researchers, supervisors, and teacher educators;
2. although they emphasize qualitative or ethnographic techniques, they are dependent to a large extent on quantification of classroom events;
3. although they emphasize explanation and interpretation, they offer little guidance about how to explain or interpret the observed phenomena.

Despite the distinction between the two approaches, the combination of both are encouraged to be used for teacher development.

Quantitative/ product-oriented approaches

Quantitative approaches of classroom observation are product-oriented. The approaches are based on the assumption that a description of teacher behavior is necessary in order to build a classroom behavior profile of the teacher. These approaches use a finite set of reselected and predetermined categories for describing certain verbal behaviors of teachers and learners as they interact in the classroom. They are intended to help observe, describe, classify, and, through quantitative or statistical method of analysis, assign certain numerical values to verbal behaviors.

These approaches are useful for a partial understanding of classroom activities. However, they share some crucial limitations:-

1. they focus exclusively on the product of verbal behaviors and give little consideration to classroom learning and teaching process that prompt those verbal behavior;
2. they depend on quantitative measurements, thereby losing the essence of communicative intent that cannot be reduced to numerical codification

By their scope, the quantitative/product-oriented approaches can offer only a narrow view of classroom procedures and practices.

Qualitative/process-oriented approaches

Qualitative approaches of classroom observation are process-oriented. The approaches are based on the assumption that an interpretator of classroom activities is necessary in order to understand classroom processes and practices. With that objective,

they focus on classroom input as well as interaction, and also on managerial as well as cognitive aspects of classroom activities.

Exploratory task 4.1

Study the observation tools in Appendix C and divide them into quantitative (product-oriented) type and qualitative (process-oriented) type. Give reasons for the choices.

Classroom observation techniques and tools

Since such a lot occurs in the language-learning classroom, there is a lot of observe: teaching- learning behaviors, patterns of interaction, pattern of group dynamics and more. The use of observation tools is one efficient way to collect such classroom data. Using the observation tools helps the observer is at least two important ways (Wajnrub. 1992: 8)

1. It helps the observer to limit the scope to what to observe as well as to focus on one or two particular aspects.
2. It provides a means of non-judgmental data collection. The judgment and interpretation, which come later, will be based on the data collected.

There are a number of observation tools through which to make the classroom data collection and analysis more systematic and focused. These include checklists, tally sheets, structured narratives, rating, transcripts, category systems, diary studies, and ethnography. (Bower. 1987, Nunan. 1989, Day. 1990, Wallace. 1991, Gebhard; & Gprandy. 1999)

1. Checklists

In this system one or more features of teaching-learning behaviors are listed in advance. The observer then check off the behaviors as they occur (Gebhard. 1999: 41). A sample of a checklist observation tool is shown in Figure 4.1.

A partial checklist:: Observing vocabulary Lessons

	Yes	No
1. Teacher introduced new vocabulary by	_____	_____
a. giving definition	_____	_____
b. giving synonyms/ antonyms	_____	_____
c. teaching prefix/ suffix	_____	_____
d. giving translation	_____	_____
e. having students guess from context	_____	_____
f. writing the word in a sentence	_____	_____
g. demonstration meaning through gesture	_____	_____
h. other: _____	_____	_____
2. Teacher used audiovisual aids		
a. realia (things we use every day)	_____	_____
b. tape record	_____	_____
c. flash cards	_____	_____
d. overhead projector	_____	_____
e. handouts	_____	_____
f. computer	_____	_____
g. other: _____	_____	_____
3. Teacher taught vocabulary through		
a. drills	_____	_____
b. Total Physical Response	_____	_____
c. a game	_____	_____
d. crossword puzzles	_____	_____
e. information gap activities	_____	_____
f. translation/ explanation/ lecture	_____	_____
g. other: _____	_____	_____

Figure 4.1: Observation tool: A checklist based system

Data Source: Gebhard; & Oprandy. 1999: 41.

2. Questionnaire

Questionnaires can be utilized to explore the aspects of teaching and learning processes. However, the problem with questionnaires is that, having developed the categories and questions before collecting the data. We may predetermine what we actually find.

3. Tally sheets

A tally system works like a checklist expect that each time a behavior is observed, a tally mark is used. The system can be devised in various forms depending on the particular features being observed.

3.1 Count- coding

In count-coding system, one or more features of teaching-learning behaviors are predetermined according to the relevancy to a given purpose. The observer then records the number of occasions on which the specified event actually occurs during the observational period. A number of different types of event can be recorded simultaneously. The observation results in a frequency count of specified categories of behavior (Bowers. 1987: 146; Gebhard. 1999: 42). A sample of the observation tool based on count-coding system is shown in Figure 4.2 below.

Sample observation tool: Classroom Interaction

	Tallies	Total
1. Teacher asks a display question (i.e. a question to which she knows the answer).		
2. Teacher asks a referential question (i.e. a question to which she does not know the answer).		
3. Teacher explains a grammatical point.		
4. Teacher explains meaning of a vocabulary item.		
5. Teacher explains functional point.		
6. Teacher explains point relating to the content (theme/topic) of the lesson.		
7. Teacher gives instructions / directions.		
8. Teacher praises.		
9. Learner asks a question.		
10. Learner answers question.		
11. Learner talks to another learner.		
12. Period of silence or confusion		

Figure 4.2: Observation tool: A count-coding system

Data Source: Nunan. 1989: 78

3.2 Time-lapse coding

In **time-lapse** coding, the behaviors observed are recorded at a fixed time interval throughout the period of observation. This approach involves picking appropriate classroom behaviors, producing workable categories of behavior into which to classify observed activity, and selecting and time-lapse suitable for the behavior being investigated (Bowers. 1987: 147, Gebhard. 1999:42). A Sample of the observation tool based on time lapse coding system is shown in Figure 4.3 below.

Sample observation tool : Student Talk Time & Teacher Talk Time

Activity	First ten minutes														
Teacher talks to class															
Teacher talks to individual															
Students talk in chorus															
Student talk to other students															

Activity	First ten minutes														
Teacher talks to class															
Teacher talks to individual															
Students talk in chorus															
Student talk to other students															

Activity	First ten minutes														
Teacher talks to class															
Teacher talks to individual															
Students talk in chorus															
Student talk to other students															

Who had more talking, the students or the teacher?

Note down any other points you noted about the pattern of speaking during the class.

Note: _____

Figure 4.3: Observational system: A time-lapse coding system

Data Source: The University of Waikato. Language Institute. n.d.

4. Rating System

A rating system allows an observer to react to evidence in order to come up with a single assessment from a set of sealed judgments of some ongoing feature of classroom activity. Particular categories of behavior are chosen and charted on a scale from very formal to very casual eg. a set of five points (1 to 5, or a set of terms such as Very frequent/ Frequent/ Average? Below normal? Frequency/ Rare) with an explanation of their meanings. The observer, during observation, makes an immediate assessment according to a clear rating scheme (Bowers. 1987; 148). A sample of the observation tool based on the rating system is shown in Figure 4.4 below.

Sample Observation Tool: Classroom Management

Rate the lesson according to the following key:

Key:

1	Does not at all reflect what went on
2	Only marginally reflects what went on
3	Neutral
4	Describes rather well what went on
5	Is a totally accurate reflection of what went on

1. There were no cultural misunderstandings.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The class understood what was wanted at all times.	1	2	3	4	5
3. All instructions were clear.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Every student was involved at some point.	1	2	3	4	5
5. All students were interested in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The teacher carried out comprehension checks.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Materials and learning activities were appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Student groupings and sub-groupings were appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Class atmosphere was positive.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The pacing of the lesson was appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
11. There was enough variety in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The teacher did not talk too much.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Error correction and feedback was appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
14. There was genuine communication.	1	2	3	4	5
15. There was teacher skill in organizing group work.	1	2	3	4	5
16. There was opportunity for controlled practice.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Students were enthusiastic.	1	2	3	4	5
18. General classroom management was good.	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 4.4: Observation tool: A rating system

Data Source: Nunan. 1998: 63

5. Transcript systems

A transcript system, unlike the systems previously discussed, takes a record of the language as it happens and analyses it for a better understanding. Since the speed of interaction in the classroom makes it hardly possible to write everything down on the spot, audio-videotaping the lesson can be a lot of help for the observer to reply and complete the transcription afterwards. (Bowers. 1987: 149). A sample of observation tool based on transcript system is shown in Figure 4.5.

Sample Observation Tool: Eliciting

Watch when the teacher elicits language from the students and take notes under the following headings.

Teacher prompt- what is the original prompt used, e.g. a picture, a mime, can you give me another word for.....etc.

Student response- what exactly did the students say- word for word, right or wrong.

Teacher response- what did the teacher say back e.g. *That's right, Nearly*, ignore the student etc. There may be a series of student and teacher responses from a single prompt.

Non-verbal signals- what else did the teacher do? Hand signals? Smile? Point?

Teacher prompt	Student response	Teacher response	Non-verbal signals

Figure 4.5: Observation tool: A transcript system

Data Source: The University of Waikato. Language Institute. n.d.

6. Diary studies (Journals or Field notes)

Diary studies, journals and field notes are used interchangeably (Nunan. 1989: 55) it is an unstructured observation which requires an observer to enter with a blank sheet, to note down whatever captures his notice, and to end up with a narrative or diary of a lesson. A sample of the observation tool in a form of a diary study is shown in Figure 4.6.

5th May

Today's lesson in Grade 5 did not go particularly well. Until one of the kids in the first row of seats saw the thermos in my briefcase and what was in it. I said tea. English tea? In fact, it was. With milk in it. Ugh. Was I serious? I said I was and promised to show it to them after we had finished our exercise. Then I went round with a plastic cup of demonstration liquid. The lesson came alive.

Figure 4.6: Observation tool: A diary study

Data Source: Appel, J. 1995: 40.

7. Structured narrative and case studies

In this system, an observer writes a narrative under the headings and subheadings in accordance with some prediction of the order of events provided in an observation sheet. The observer can also add sub-heading during the observation. A sample of the observation tool in a form of structured narrative is shown in Figure 4.7.

Sample Observation Tool: Teaching a Structure or Function

	What happened	Comment
What is the new language being presented?		
How is the language contextualized?		
How is meaning checked?		
Is the meaning clear to all students?		
How is the form highlighted?		
Are the students given a clear record?		
Does the teacher use clear terminology?		
Do the students get a clear pronunciation model?		
Are aspects of pronunciation highlighted?		
What controlled practice is there?		
Does the teacher correct errors effectively?		
Do the tasks practice what has been taught?		
Is there enough variety?		
Did any unanticipated problems arise?		
Was this a useful lesson for the students?		

Figure 4.7: Observation tool: A structure narrative

Data Source: The University of Waikato. Language Institute. n.d.

8. Audio and video recordings

It is possible to audiotape or videotape a class. The advantage of taping is that the observer can later review what went on the class. The drawback of this, system, however, is that they are intrusive, especially video recordings. Thus, the students should be made familiar with the equipment before the class begins. Though listening to tape or viewing video lessons is certainly time consuming, it provides opportunities to study classroom interaction in more depth.

9. Ethnography

The ethnography technique is of a qualitative type to the study of classroom interaction. The goal of ethnography is "to provide a description an interpretive-explanatory account of what people do" (Watson-Gegeo. 1988: 576; citing Gebhard. 1999: 57). The system is open-ended where the observer first identifies areas of concern and devise what kind of data collection might seem appropriate. The observer is required to attempt to capture and at the same time record all the classroom events occurring without judgment and evaluation. Thus, in order to gain a competent and reliable observation, highly- trained observers are needed because of the complexity of written ethnography. (Wallace. 1994: 76, Gebhard; & Oprandy. 1999: 50-52). A sample of ethnography is shown in Figure 4.8.

Ethnographic observation

Ethnography of an ESL classroom	
Advanced Academic Listening and Speaking Class: March 1, 1988	
Background: The class is a bi-weekly, university level, advanced, academic language skills class for non-native speaker of English. There are fifteen students from various Asian cultures. In the last class period, the students handed in homework in which they listed topics they would like to work on for group in-class presentations (one of the course objectives). The lesson plan is to have the students decide on their presentation group and their topics. Today's class is being video-taped by the observer.	
BEGIN	
12:00	The teacher comes in the room and sets up the desk area. He seems a bit nervous, perhaps due to being video-taped. The students are sitting down and talking among themselves. The teacher silently draws in a seating chart of the class.
12:03	He takes roll, calling students one by one as he fills in the seating chart. Meanwhile, two students are getting their discussion question sheets ready to give to the other students (this is for the next class, when they will lead a discussion). The teacher says he wants to do some house-keeping. He writes on the blackboard and says, "No more <i>Science Editor</i> tape notes." Oohs and aahs come from the students. The teacher smiles. He says, "I wrote "Yeah" in my lesson plan by this, so you guys did just perfectly," as he points to the piece of paper. He says they will be busy enough with their other homework, such as the workbook, the discussion questions,
12:06	

Figure 4.8: Classroom observation tool: Ethnography

Data Source: Day, J. 1990: 54-55

10. A selected ethnography

This approach is the modification of written ethnography and audio-video recording techniques. Only a single behavior or a set of behaviors is selected for observation or some verbal. Statements are transcribed and examined later. The technique is, thus, easy to conduct by observers without being trained and the data collected are simple to interpret. However, there is one disadvantage in that it is focused on a particular point, not on what happens in the class as a whole.

Reflective task 4.1

1. Locate a teacher who is willing to invite you to observe his or her class. Choose one of the observation tools in Appendix C, meet with the teacher to learn what aspects of his/ her teaching should be explored. Select the way to collect the data collected.
 2. Meet the teacher and ask him/ her to react to the data collected; use the following questions as a guideline.
 - a. What are your reactions do this data on your lesson?
 - b. Do you think that this data is helpful to you as a teacher?
-

Collecting and analyzing observation data**Conducting classroom observation**

To conduct classroom observation successfully, an observer should be aware of the following general principles. (Richards; & Lockhart. 1995: 24)

1. Observation should have a focus. The value of observation is increased if the observer knows what to look for.
2. Observers should use specific procedures. Lessons are complex events with many different activities occurring simultaneously. So the observer needs to use a variety of procedures to make the observation more effectively.
3. The observer should remain an observer. An observer who is also a participant in the lesson cannot observe effectively.

Richards(1994: 5) suggests procedures for classroom observation as follows:

1. Before observation (Pre-observation)
 - The two teachers, the observer and the observed meet to discuss the nature of the class to be observed, the kind of material(s) used, the teaching approach, typical patterns of interaction and class participation and any problems that might be expected.

- The observer must have a clear idea why he/she is there, what is the goal for observation, and what task assigned by the observed must be accomplished.
- The observation task concerns collecting information about some aspects of the lesson without any form of evaluation or judgment.

2. During observation

The observer visits the class and completes the observation task using the procedures having been agreed on. During observing the class, the observer must not get involved in any way with what is going on.

3. After the observation (Post-observation)

The observer presents the observed the information that has been collected to perceive what actually took place in the lesson. The observed then interprets and reflects on it so as to evaluate himself/herself and make decision for change for his/her professional growth. It would be more beneficial for both the observer and the observed to discuss between themselves about the information collected.

Collecting and analyzing data

The observers can collect the classroom data in a number of ways. To keep records while observing classroom, the observers must be provided with observation tasks or tools. Fanslow (1990), Richards; & Lockhart (1992), and Nunan (1989) agree that observation tasks with clear objectives facilitate the process of becoming a reflective teacher. Harris (1986: 151) suggests some basic concepts on classroom observation that need to be recognized as follows:-

1. Observing in gathering not judging or even evaluating;
2. Observing must involve recording because memories are not capable of adequate recall;
3. Observing is the systematic, objective procedure guided by explicit performance criteria; and
4. Observing when done properly, is not casual, social or surreptitious.

Below is an example of classroom observation process through the framework of pre-observation, during-observation and post-observation taken from the book entitled *"Classroom Observation Tasks"* by Wajnryb (1992: 96-98). The observation focuses on

elicitation: teacher responses. The procedure covers all stages of classroom observation namely before, during and after the lesson. A guide to the reflection of the teaching is also included.

Eliciting: teacher responses

Task objective

This observation task is designed to help you find out more about patterns of teacher responses to learners in an elicitation context.

Procedure

Before the lesson

1. Arrange to observe a lesson in which the teacher engages in some eliciting. If possible, speak to the teacher before the lesson and seek a list of possible prompts that the teacher plans to use.
2. Make yourself familiar with the chart overleaf.

During the lesson

1. Pay close attention to the eliciting prompts that the teacher use and record them in the chart, under **Teacher prompt**.
2. In the next column, record how the student responds.
3. Then record the teacher's response to the student's response.
4. Make a note of any non-verbal signals (N/V **signals**) that accompany the teacher's verbal response.

*(Note: the last column, **A/R**, is to be used after the lesson.)*

Collect about five exchanges.

Teacher prompt	Student response	Teacher response	N/V signals	A/R
 'How does he feel?'	'Sad'	'Mm, that's right'.	Pointing to face on board nodding at S	A

After the lesson

1. Now consider carefully your record of the language and other signals the teacher used in responding to student responses. You may have noticed that the teacher responses do not necessarily fall into a neat pattern of 'accept' or 'reject'. Consider your record of teacher responses and make them A (= accept), R (= reject), or A/R (partial accept, partial reject) in the last column on the chart. Discuss these findings with the teacher.
2. How important is the teacher's response to learners' contributions? How can a teacher respond positively to a contribution that is only partially correct? Is it possible to reject (part of) the response without rejecting the learner?
3. Consider the following:
 - a. What do you notice about any A/R responses?
 - b. Are you able to **generalize** about features of the teacher's responses?
 - c. How might the students have **felt** during or at the end of the lesson?
 - d. What effect did the teacher's behavior (verbal and non-verbal) have on the students?
4. Are there times when a teacher ought to accept only the answer wanted, and times when any contribution is to be valued? How does this link up with the purpose of the eliciting?

Reflection

What have you learned about effective teacher responses to student responses in an elicitation context? Using this observation task as a mirror to your own teaching, what application can you make to your own practices?

Interpreting observation data

There are various ways to interpret the classroom data collected. Some observers interpret the data they gather through theories of second language acquisition. In other words, they ask if students have chances to use language in a way that promotes acquisition to take place. Some observers use the theory of effective teaching and learning as a basic for interpretation. Some might do by simple asking questions like: "How are opportunities possible provided for students to develop fluency? How does the interaction possibly block them from doing this?" (Gebhard. 1999: 53)

Here are two examples of data interpretation. The first sample is from the observation Gebhard did with a group of pre-service teachers. The second one is taken from the report done by an MA. Participant in The TEFL program at Srinakharinwirot University during her classroom observation field work.

Sample 1

This sample of data interpretation/ analysis is given by Gebhard from his book: *Language Teaching Awareness* (Gebhard and Gpvandy. 1999: 55-57). He observed a class using SCORE (Seating, Chart, Observation, Record). His purpose was to consider how the teacher provided or blocked opportunities for the students to learn English in the classroom through his questioning behaviors.

The teacher's questioning behavior: SCORE

Teacher					Key: F = Female M = Male				
↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑					↑ = teacher asks question to whole class				
↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑					↑ = teacher asks question to individual student				
↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑					↓ = student answers whole-class question				
↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑					↓ = student answers individual question				
Student									
↓↓↓↓↓	↓↓↓↓↓	↓	↓↓↓↓	↓↓↓↓↓					
F1	F2	F3	F4	M5					
			↓	↓↓↓↓↓					
F6	F7	F8	M9	M10					
			↓↓↓	↓					
F11	F12	F13	F14	M15					
↓↓↓↓↓									
M16									

Reflective task 4.2

- A. Study the data from the observation tool above and reflect what happened using the following questions as a guide:
1. How many questions did the teacher ask the whole class?
Individual students? Who answered these questions?
 2. How many responses are there in relation to the number of whole class questions? Individual questions?
- B. Read on to see if your reflection/ analysis is the same as Gebhard's.
-

Here is what Gebhard discovered:

During the one-hour class, the teacher asked fifty-five questions. Thirty-one questions were to the whole class and twenty-four to individual students. There were twenty-six responses to the teacher's whole-class questions, indicating that for some questions, no one volunteered to answer. When the student could not answer a question, the teacher redirected it to another or answered it himself.

Here's what we discover. During the one hour class, the teacher asked fifty-five questions were to the whole class and twenty-four to individual students. There were twenty-six responses to the teacher's whole-class questions, indicating that for some questions, no one volunteered to answer. We also discovered that when the student could not answer a question, the teacher redirected it to another or answered it himself.

In addition, we noticed that eight of the sixteen students answered the teacher's whole-class questions and that most whole-class and individual questions were answered by only five students (1, 2, 5, 10, 16), three of whom sat in the front row. We also observed that the teacher asked nine students individual questions, and that the teacher called on those students who answered whole-class questions more than students who did not. Furthermore, the teacher interacted with all five male students in the class but only with five of the eleven female students.

Since our purpose in doing the observation was to consider how the teacher provided opportunities for students to use English through his questioning behavior, we interpreted what we observed by asking, "How did the teacher's questioning behavior possibly provide chance for the students to learn English? How did it possibly block them from learning English?"

Some observers, including me, decided that students really did not have many chances to learn English in this class. The kind of interaction that promotes language learning was missing from the interaction. For example, many of the students were never directly involved in the questioning process. Instead, they sat passively. In addition, the teacher's questions were mostly display questions (ones the teacher already knows the answer to), interaction that did not generate much real negotiation of meaning, something we considered important to the language-learning process.

One other hand, other observers thought that many of the students had chances to learn English, especially those who were actively answering the teacher's questions. They thought that the quick pace and many questions held the students' attention. They referred to their own experience as language learners, saying that even the students who were not answering questions were involved in following the meaning in the interaction, and that this provides an opportunity to process and learn English.

We all agreed that students sitting in front of the classroom had more chances to learning English because the teacher selectively called on them. Likewise, we thought that the males had proportionately more chances than the females in this class because the teacher interacted more with males through the questions, even though eleven of the sixteen students were females.

As for outlandish interpretations, we surmised that the students who never answered questions were actually learning the most because they were daydreaming in English, having conversations with people in their heads. Likewise, the students who never volunteered to answer questions were already so good at English that they really did not need to be there. They were too bored to participate. Another outlandish interpretation is that the teacher was selecting those students whom he knew needed the most practice. Outlandish interpretations such as these lead, in my experience, to fresh perspectives on teaching and learning. They thus create new conversations from the usual ones, which is congruent with the kinds of exploration we promote in this book.

Sample 2

The observer was the participant in the MA. (TEFL) program at Srinakharinwirot University. She observed a class of 35 students at secondary level and chose the area of classroom interaction and the tally-based system for the data collection. Her purpose was to consider how the teacher interact with the students in the classroom through his questions, praising, drilling and giving instruction behaviors.

Classroom Observation Tool 5: Classroom Interaction

Watch the lesson, and place a tally mark against the following events each time they occur.

	Tallies	Total
1. Teacher asks a display question (i.e. a question to which she knows the answer).	///// (individual) ///////// (class)	6 13
2. Teacher asks a referential question (i.e. a question to which she does not know the answer).	// (class)	2
3. Teacher explains a grammatical point.	///	3
4. Teacher explains meaning of a vocabulary item.	/	1
5. Teacher explains functional point.	////	4
6. Teacher explains point relating to the content (theme/topic) of the lesson.	///	3
7. Teacher gives instructions / directions.	//	2
8. Teacher praises.	/ (individual) / (class)	1 1
9. Teacher criticizes.	/ (individual)	1
10. Learner asks a question.	-	-
11. Learner answers question.	///// (individual) ///////// (class)	5 10
12. Learner talks to another learner.	//	2
13. Period of silence or confusion	////	4
14. Teacher answers questions herself	//	2
15. Learner repeats.	/////////	11
16. Learner says the sentences from the cues	///////// (individual) ///// (class)	11 6

Reflective task 4.3

- A. Study the observation data above and give the analysis on the strong points and weak point of the teacher.
 - B. Read on to see if your analysis is the same as the one below.
-

After the observation, the teacher was asked to go through the data and react to it. The observer then analysed the data together with the teacher's reaction.

Here is what the observer discovered:

The strong points

1. *The teacher interacted with students by asking a lot of questions. The lesson was more learner-centered than teacher-centered. This can be seen from items 11 and 16. The students had a chance to think and give their ideas, not just listened to the teacher only.*
2. *The teacher encouraged the students to speak by using the cue pictures as shown in item 16. The teacher didn't spend much time on explaining the grammatical point, meaning of vocabulary, functional point, nor the topic of the lesson as shown in items 3-6.*
3. *The teacher asked the questions to both the whole class and individuals. Asking the student individually could help the teacher check if the students understood the lesson.*
4. *The students had a chance to repeat the words and sentences from the teacher. When the students made the error, the teacher didn't criticize but asked them to repeat the correct one as shown in item 15.*

The weak points

1. *The data shows a preponderance of display questions, which may or may not be what the teacher intended when planning the lesson. Most of time, the teacher used display questions; she rarely used the referential questions. She asked only 2 referential questions but 19 display questions to both individuals and the whole class. Although I quite agreed with her that she needed to ask display questions during the presentation of structure, she should have encouraged the*

students to think more by asking some referential questions. At the beginning, the teacher might use display questions to encourage the students to answer the question. Then the teacher should try to use the referential question to provide the students the opportunities to think more. Since in their real life, the students have to encounter a variety of questions from the others, the teacher should train them to think and give ideas so that they can enter the real world of communication efficiently.

- 2. The teacher didn't provide the chance for the students to ask the questions. As a teacher, she should encourage the students to not only answer the questions but also ask the questions, especially when they have problems.*
- 3. The teacher rarely praised the students even when they could answer the questions. The data showed that teacher praised the students only 2 times. In the lesson, she asked the students 19 questions to the individuals and the whole class, and the students could answer 15 questions. She should have praised the students more than she did as it could motivate and encourage the students to study.*

Conclusion

Classroom observation is one way to explore what occurs in the classroom. Through the use of observation tools and techniques, the teachers gain information on their teaching in which they analyze/ interpret and learn about themselves as teachers. To achieve the goal, the careful use of the approaches and techniques needs to be taken.

CHAPTER 5

Teacher Supervision for Professional Development

Objectives

1. To provide participants the concept of teacher supervision for professional development
2. To enable participants to share their experience and discuss the format of supervision implemented in schools
3. To broaden participants' knowledge about clinical supervision

Key concepts

1. The nature of supervision
2. Models of supervision
3. Clinical supervision

The nature of supervision

Supervision plays an important role in professional teacher development. Its main purpose is to give advice and guide teachers to become an effective teacher, which in turn improves the quality of both teaching situation and students' learning situation. The goals of supervision, thus, are 1) to provide the objective feedback on teachers' performance, 2) to diagnose and solve instructional problems, 3) to help the teachers develop necessary skills, and 4) to help the teachers develop a positive attitude for continuums of professional development. Various words and phrases are used to characterize the roles of supervisors: to direct or guide, to offer suggestions, to model teaching, to advice teachers, to evaluate (Gebhard. 1990: 156); and to perform functions as an arbitrator, a commentator, an evaluator, a helper, and a provider (Freeman. 1982: 21).

Models of supervisions

Many distinctions have been made to describe the term "supervision". One model classifies the supervision into a surface level and a deep level. The supervision at a surface level, often referred to "surface supervision" involves examination and development of the

teacher's practical teaching skills such as improving questioning technique, developing the students' reading and writing skills etc. Such surface supervision usually encompasses microteaching, which is commonly used within pre-service teacher education.

The second stratum of supervision lies at a deeper level, and is of particular significance as it provides the rationale for teachers' professional growth. It is essential for experienced teachers at the in-service stage. With experience, they are ideally placed to facilitate their own professional development.

Gebhard (1990: 156-166) identifies six models of supervision according to the teacher's particular needs including 1) directive, 2) alternative, 3) collaborative, 4) nondirective, 5) creative, and 6) self-help-explorative. Each model will be highlighted with regard to its strengths and weaknesses.

Directive supervision

A directive supervision imposes authoritative instruction and direction. The role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher model teaching behaviors and evaluate the teacher's mastery of defined behaviors. Many argue that the model is necessary for pre-service and novice teachers who require considerable guideline in the early stages of their teaching career. There are at least three problems of directive supervision. First, that is how the supervisor defines "good" teaching. Second, the model may cause the teachers to be defensive and to decrease their self-esteem. Third, the teachers will be unable to assign ultimate responsibility for what goes on in the classroom. The directive model forces the teachers to comply with what the supervisor thinks they should do: thus keeps the responsibility for decision making with the teacher trainer, instead of shifting it into the teacher.

Alternative supervision

Freeman(1982) proposes the role of a supervisor not to direct what teachers should do, but suggest a variety of alternatives to what the teacher has done in the classroom. Teachers with a limited number of choices to choose feel more relaxed and secured. Yet it still leaves them the responsibility for decision-making. The alternative supervision works best when the supervisor does not favor any particular alternative and is non-judgmental. The purpose of giving choices is to widen teachers' scope of what they will consider doing.

Fanslow (1987: 182-183) suggests that the supervisor use an alternative approach to guide novice teachers by having them try the opposite of what they usually do. For

example, if students usually read silently, the teacher should prepare a lesson to allow **students to read aloud to class or their pairs**. The fundamental aim for the teachers is to try alternative behavior and to pay attention to the consequences. If the teachers are provided with strategies that lead them to the consequence of what they do, they can gradually rely on themselves to make teaching decisions.

Collaborative supervision

Collaborative supervision involves teachers and supervisor working together, making joint decisions. Cogan (1973; citing Gebhard. 1990. *Second Language Teacher Education*. p. 159) advocates this model, which he calls "Clinical Supervision". In the collaborative supervision, the teacher and supervisor help addressing a problem occurred in the classroom. They pose a hypothesis, experiment, and implement strategies that appear to offer a reasonable solution to the problem under consideration. This approach clearly has many advantages, particularly for more experienced teachers, because it encourages individual reflection, which in turn contributes to the teacher's professional development.

Nondirective supervision

Nondirective supervision works on the basis that a supervisor listens and demonstrates an understanding of what the teacher has said. Curran (1978; citing Gebhard. 1990. *Second Language Teacher Education*. p. 160) defines this process as "an understanding response" which acts as a "re-cognized" version of what the Speaker has said. In supervision, the supervisor does not repeat word-for-word what the teacher has said, but rather restates how he/she has understood the teacher's comments. This works along the same way when an Understander reflects a Speaker's comment in the Cooperative Development technique introduced by Julian Edge (1992).

To implement nondirective supervision, the supervisor needs to understand the important of working with the "whole" person of the learner (Curran. Ibid.). The nonjudgmental "understanding response" has to be applied to break down the defenses of learners, to facilitate a feeling of security, and to build a trusting relationship between the teacher and the supervisor. This trusting relationship allows the supervisor and the teacher to work together to find answers to the problem raised.

Creative supervision

Creative supervision follows De Bono's concept that any particular way of looking at things is only one from among many other possible ways (De Bono. 1970; citing Gebhard. 1990. *Second Language Teacher Education*. p. 162). The creative model encourages freedom and creativity in at least three ways: 1) a combination of model or a combination of supervisory behavior from different models, 2) a shifting of supervisory responsibilities from the supervisor to other sources, and 3) an application of insights from other fields that are not found in any of the models.

A combination of models helps make supervision more flexible. The supervisor can choose a particular supervisory technique according to the type of information the teacher is seeking for. For example, if novice teachers are trying to find out "what" to teach, the supervisor will use a directive approach. If they want to know "how" to teach, he/she will use an alternative approach. If they want to know "why" they teach, he/she will use a nondirective approach (Freeman. 1982).

The second alternative is when a supervisory responsibility is shifted from the supervisor to another sources. Rather than the supervisor acts as a resourceful person to the teachers, they need to go to the resource centers. Another way to shift responsibility away from supervisors is to have peer supervision, where colleagues observe each others' classes.

The third way that creative supervision can be used is through the application of insights from other fields. One is to adapt observation systems originally developed for other fields such as research. The application of observation system (see Chapter 4) allows supervisors to describe rather than prescribe teaching, as well as provide a means through which teachers can monitor and study their own teaching.

Self-help-explorative supervision

The Self-help-explorative supervision is an extension of creative supervision. Its application is on the basis of providing opportunities for both teachers and supervisors to gain awareness of their teaching through observation and exploration. Fanslow (1990: 183) proposes the term "self-exploration" as seeing one's own teaching differently. He additionally states, "Observing others or ourselves to see teaching differently is not the same as being told what to do by others. Observing to explore is a process; observing to help or to evaluate is providing a product."

Some crucial guidelines are offered to provide opportunities for teachers to more systematically explore teaching (Gebhard; Gaitan; & Oprandy. 1990: 16-25). The teachers are encouraged to select some aspects of their teaching they want to learn more about (e.g., the consequence on classroom interaction of using space in different ways). Then the teachers are asked to video/audiotape the lesson pertinent to their teaching interest, make transcription and code the interaction relevant to the investigation, study the coded transcription for behavioral patterns, and describe how the teaching affects the interaction. The teachers subsequently decide on changes in teaching behavior to break their teaching patterns, implement the changes while taping the classroom interaction. They again transcribe, code, and study the interaction for the patterns and consequences. They finally compare the consequences of the old as opposed to the new pattern. Through the investigation, the teachers learn not only about their teaching, but also about a process that provides a means for them to explore their teaching.

Exploratory task 5.1

Study models of supervision presented by Gebhard and complete the following chart:-

Model	Characteristics	Advantages	Disadvantages
Directive			
Alternative			
Collaborative			
Nondirective			
Creative			
Self-help-explorative			

The other framework of supervision is offered by Heron (1990; citing Randall, 2001. *Training Development: Principles and Practice from Language Teacher Training*. pp. 162-163). Heron examines the ways in which the supervisor can intervene or supervise in order to help teachers achieve the state of understanding. The interventions are grouped into six broad categories and classified into two broad dimensions, the Authoritative and the Facilitative. Heron's descriptions of the two categories are as shown in Figure 5.1:-

Authoritative	Facilitative
1. Prescriptive Referring to interventions in which the trainer tries to directly tell the trainee what s/he should do, how to improve or modify the way s/he teaches.	4. Cathartic This type of intervention seeks to allow a client to discharge their Emotions and feelings of grief, fear and anger.
2. Informative The trainer gives the trainee information or knowledge about the situation on which to base a new awareness and to facilitate personal growth	5. Catalytic This type of intervention from the trainer tries to encourage self-discovery by the trainee.
3. Confronting The trainer tries to raise the trainee's consciousness about certain aspects of teaching and through this knowledge to improve his/her teaching skills.	6. Supportive In a supportive intervention, the trainer affirms the worth of the trainee, primarily by praising and valuing what has been done.

Figure 5.1 Supervision framework: Authoritative & Facilitative approaches

The distinction between the Facilitative and the Authoritative supervision is the degree of control exercised by the supervisor or the teacher. For example, a catalytic intervention attempts to get the teachers to discover things by themselves and is thus seen as "Facilitative"; whereas a prescriptive supervision is provided by the supervisor and is this more "Authoritative."

Heron (Ibid: 163) stresses that there is nothing inherently “better” about the Facilitative interventions over the Authoritative. He proposes that there are different “agenda types” ranging from the technical through to the interpersonal and psychodynamic and that these agenda types will tend to use different models of supervision or interventions. The decision to use one intervention over another depends on several factors such as the school situation, the professional level of the teacher and other sociolinguistics (such as age and gender).

As one can see, there are a variety of supervisory choices that supervisors can choose. It is the supervisors who have to discover which models work well and apply them to the benefit of professional teacher development.

Reflective task 5.1

Compare the six models of supervision by Gebhard and the framework of supervision/interventions offered by Heron. What points of similarity and difference can you find?

Clinical supervision

Teacher supervision can take many forms according to a teacher’s particular needs. This variation in teacher supervision includes individual supervision between a supervisory and teacher group supervision, collaborative supervision between supervisors, peer observation, and self-supervision.

One popular form of individual supervision is “clinical supervision”. Clinical supervision is defined as the collection of data from observation of class teaching and face-to-face interaction between the supervisor and teacher to analyze the data and plan for instructional improvement (Goldhammer et al. 1980).

The term “clinical supervision” was introduced by Cogan (1973 citing Moran. 1999. *Language Teaching: New Insights for the Language Teacher*. p. 15). It has proved to be an effective means of supervising teachers as interactive rather than directive, democratic rather than authoritarian and teacher-centered rather than supervisor-centered (Acheson and Gall. 1987). Clinical supervision incorporates three phases of observation of the

teacher: planning conference or pre-observation, classroom observation, and feedback conferences or post-observation. The process can be illustrated as follows:

1. Planning conference: In a planning conference, the teacher and supervisor discuss the lesson plan, which the supervisor is going to observe. At this stage, the teacher also has an opportunity to state his/her personal concerns and needs on the teaching. The teacher and the supervisor then decide what to observe in accordance with the lesson plan. The physical and technical aspects of the observation, data collection and plans for the observation are also discussed.
2. Classroom observation: At this stage, the supervisor observes the lesson, focusing on the targets set at the planning conference, and collects all data needed by appropriate observation tools.
3. Feedback conference: At the final stage, the supervisor and the teacher review the data gained from the observation. The supervisor's role is to encourage the teacher to make his/her own inferences about his/her teaching effectiveness and help make adjustments where necessary before the cycle begins again.

After the entire cycle of clinical supervision has been completed, the teacher in collaboration with the supervisor, is expected to put a plan of action into place to continue the process of improvement of instruction and personal development.

Different forms of the clinical supervision can be applied by supervisors. An example of three stages is given as follows:

1. One stage only—class observation
2. Two stages—class observation and feedback conference (post-observation)
3. Three stages—planning conference (pre-observation), class – observation, and feedback conference (post-observation)

To fully benefit from this system of supervision, (Goldhammer et. al 1980; citing Moran. 1999. *Language Teaching: New Insights for the Language Teacher*. p. 16) and Abbott and Carter (1985; citing Moran. 1999. *Language Teaching: New Insights for the Language Teacher*. p.16) point out that the clinical supervision should include five stages, as the three stages outlined previously do not go far enough for professional development purpose. They suggest that after the classroom observation stage, there should be an analysis and strategy stage in which the supervisor will analyze the data collected during the classroom observation to come up with the solution of how to deal with the teacher at

the feedback conference. This stage requires the supervisor to evaluate the effectiveness of the lesson observed in the light of his or her own teaching experience. The fifth stage recommended is a post-conference analysis stage, after the feedback conference with the teacher. This stage acts as a means for monitoring the supervisor's performance. With this extension, supervisors gain feedback which they could use as a basis for modifying and improving future supervisory practice.

Gaies and Bower (1990: 177-178) present a model of clinical supervision which emphasizes the importance of careful consideration and analysis of the teacher's performance before the final feedback session. This model is referred to as H-O-R-A-C-E. The model is illustrated as shown in Figure 5.2 below.

H – Hear	Listen to the teacher and what the teacher says about objectives, methods, content, procedures for evaluation.
O – Observe	Watch the teacher in action, in as representative a set of classroom situations as possible.
R – Record	Use a variety of techniques to record for subsequent discussion the events and skills observed.
A – Analyse	Use a variety of techniques to make sense of the data collected.
C – Consider	Think about the findings trying to justify all that has happened. Consider the intentions and limitations of the teacher, the objectives and constraints enforced by the system, and the recognized principles of good teaching.
E – Evaluate	Only then reach a judgment of the teacher's performance. Give praise where due, and criticize areas where adjustment is not only desirable, but also feasible.

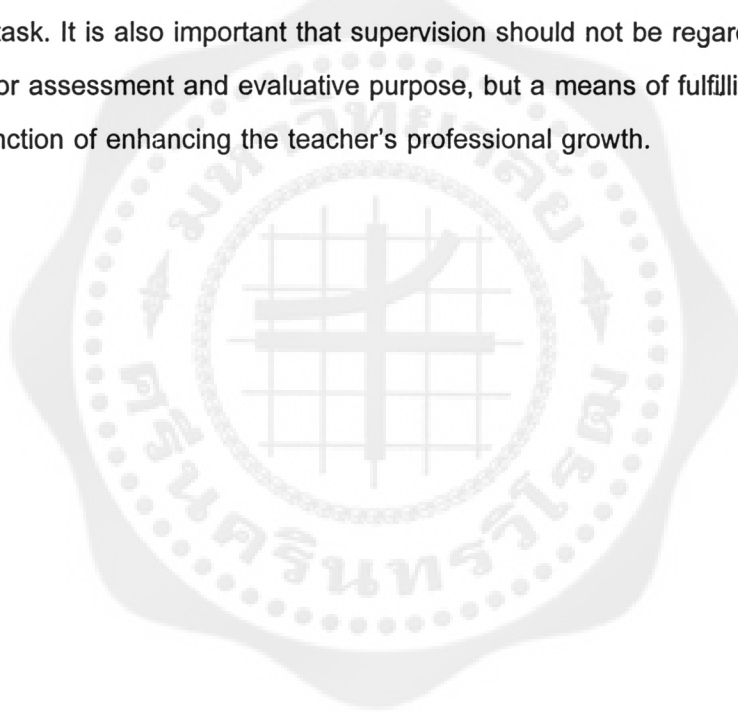
Figure 5.2: Model of clinical supervision: HORACE

Reflective task 5.2

How does H-O-R-A-C-E model of clinical supervision differ from the typical clinical supervision model? In your opinion, is it justified? Why?

Conclusion

Due to the complex and varied nature of supervision, it demands that training of supervisors should be a priority in order to prepare the supervisor adequately for the supervisory task. It is also important that supervision should not be regarded as purely judgmental for assessment and evaluative purpose, but a means of fulfilling its main executive function of enhancing the teacher's professional growth.



CHAPTER 6

Cooperative Development

Objectives

1. To provide participants knowledge about Cooperative Development as an innovation for professional development
2. To raise participants' awareness of self-development through the involvement and improvement of Cooperative Development
3. To involve participants in the simulation of Cooperative Development

Key concepts

1. What is Cooperative Development?
2. Who plays the important roles in Cooperative Development?
3. What qualities are needed in Cooperative Development?
4. How effective does Cooperative Development work in the actual situation?
5. How effective is Cooperative Development in implementation?

What is Cooperative Development?

Cooperative Development is a concept discussed by Edge (1992). He proposes the model as a way of working together with someone in order to become a better teacher in your own way: two people cooperate for an agreed period in order to allow one person to work on his or her (self-) development. This type of interaction involves learning some new rules for speaking, for listening and for responding in order to cooperate in a disciplined way. Edge suggests that Cooperative Development is essentially a mixture of awareness raising and disciplined co-operation between teaching colleagues for professional development purposes.

Edge (1992: 6-8) believes that different ways of learning produce different types of knowledges and points out 3 important areas of learning:

1. Learning through our experience.
2. Learning through our intellect.
3. Learning through the formulation and expression of our ideas, the articulation of what we think and feel.

Cooperative Development encompasses the third area by focusing on the power of learning through expression of our experience and understanding. As Edge (1992) puts it: "We learning by trying to put our thoughts together and express them so that someone else can understand them." He states that we bring together intellectual and experiential knowledge into a coherent, individual statement which we learn as we formulate. Through this formulation, we can also prepare to act. Through action, we learn again.

Who plays the important roles in Cooperative Development?

The Cooperative Development is designed to facilitate interaction between two people of helping one of the pair to develop his/her own ideas and plans supported by the other listening and attending in a facilitative manner.

Thus, two persons namely the 'Understander' and the 'Speaker' are involved in this scenario. For each pair, one teacher acts as the Speaker, and the other as the Understander. The role of the Understander is to help the Speaker develop his/her own ideas as the Speaker clarifies them and discovers where they lead. Thus, the Understander takes the more passive teacher partner adopting the role of listening, observing and eliciting further information from his/her colleagues, whereas the Speaker adopts a more action 'lead role' in expressing his/her ideas and options about the teaching experience.

The way of interacting in cooperative development is deliberately different from a normal conversation and a discussion (See Figure 1). This way of behaving requires a lot of discipline. It is carried out as a mixture of awareness raising and disciplined cooperation between a teacher being the Speaker and the other being the Understander whose role is to listen and help the Speaker develop his or her own ideas.

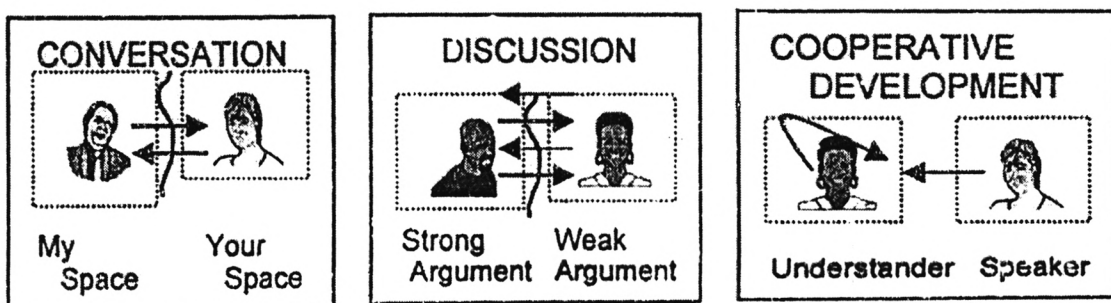


Figure 6.1: Ways of Interacting

What qualities are needed in Cooperative Development?

Like any form of cooperation, Cooperative Development requires a relationship of trust and confidentiality. Edge (1992: 9-14) suggests that three particular qualities must be present during the interaction between the Speaker and the Understander for Cooperative Development to take place. The three qualities are as follows:

1. Respect
2. Empathy
3. Honesty

Respect

The Understander accepts the Speaker's decisions on what should be talked about and worked on as what the speaker has to say. He/she also accepts the Speaker's evaluation, opinions and intentions without judging them according to the Understander's knowledge or values. The Speaker needs to feel that ideas can be pursued safely, without him/her being attacked if he/she shows some weakness to someone else, or because someone else has other views. Development takes place when the Speaker recognizes his/her own real views, and then see something in there which he/she wishes to investigate, or to take further, or to change.

One essential attitude for the Understander is **nonjudgmental respect** for the speaker's views and purposes.

Empathy

Empathy works when the Understander attempts to see things through Speaker's eyes, and to understand the classroom, the learning and the teaching, in the Speaker's frame of reference. Through an act of acceptance and imagination, the Understander makes an effort to get into Speaker's shoes, share his/her experiences, understand his/her feelings and adopt his/her objectives. Thus it helps the Speaker see and hear a position clearly in a supportive environment.

Honesty

The Understander's role is to respect the Speaker's ideas and try to emphasize with his/her position. Honesty is when the Understander has genuine Respect and Empathy in order to help the Speaker develop. Dishonesty is when the Understander pretends Respect and Empathy in order to manipulate the Speaker into his/her way of thinking.

The use of Respect, Empathy and Honesty in order to move the Speaker toward the development can be done through cooperative skills, which will be discussed.

What cooperative skills need to be developed in order to reach the goal set?

Edge has identified nine abilities or techniques one needs to develop through the Cooperative Development interaction as follows:

1. Attending
2. Reflecting
3. Focusing
4. Thematising
5. Challenging
6. Disclosing
7. Goal-setting
8. Trialing
9. Planning

In a cooperative interaction, there is no suggestion that these categories represent a rigid order to be followed. The interaction between the Speaker and the Understander through those nine abilities can be illustrated as shown in figure 6.2 below.

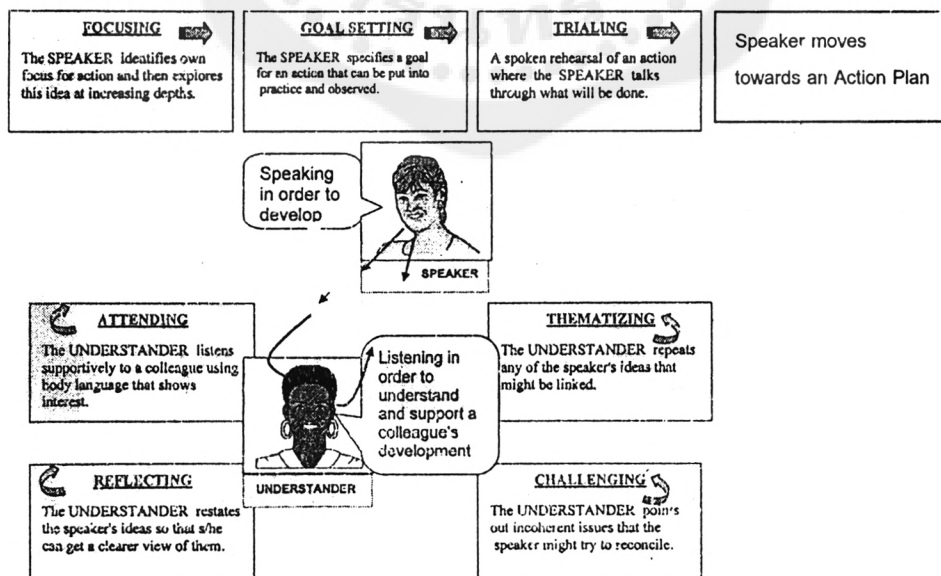


Figure 6.2: The use of Respect, Empathy and Honesty to support the development

1. Attending

Attending is the ability to make someone feel listened to. It relates to the quality of nonjudgmental Respect mentioned earlier. The Understander listens supportively to the Speaker. He/She maintains eye and uses body language that shows interest and is not judgmental. In other words, the Understander makes the Speaker know that he/she is interested, that he/she is not making judgments, either positive or negative, and that he/she is making every effort to understand as fully as he/she can.

Attending, then, is the time the Understander helps the Speaker by listening actively and sympathetically.

2. Reflecting

A further method of helping the Speaker to develop is to act as a mirror in order to restate the Speaker's ideas so that he/she can get a clear view of them.

Reflecting, then, is when the Understander says to the Speaker something like:

* Example 1

Speaker: My English class last term was a really good one. I mean it was so fun to teach. This meant that less teacher talk and policing were necessary from me.

Speaker: It sounds like you're saying the course was fun to teach because you didn't have to talk or police so much. Are these issues you'd like to explore more?

** Example 2

Let me see if I've got this right. You think that it's really important to insist that the students read the reading passage before they come to class. What's going wrong at moment is that a number of them aren't doing so, and that's what you want to do something about.

Reflecting also has to catch the attitude of the Speaker because the unspoken emotion might turn out to be more important than the pain facts. So in the same situation just referred to, the Understander might continue:

* Data Source: Pleisch, G. & Stewart, J. 2004.

** Data Source: Edge, J. 1992.

****** Example 3

You are pretty fed up about these students who don't do the reading you ask them to. You feel that you are doing your best and they are getting in the way of your teaching as well as you can. It's unfair, because they are spoiling the class for everybody.

What is not wanted is any element of interpretation or the Understander. The Understander needs to say:

This is what I am hearing. This is what I have understood. Have I got it right?

The Speaker can then correct the Understander's Reflection, or accept it as accurate. If it is the former, communication is enhanced. If it is the latter, Empathy is enhanced and the Speaker has a real opportunity to evaluate his or her own position. It would be dishonest if the Understander reflects an idea with the thought or implication that this is something, which the Speaker should reconsider. Evaluation must come from the Speaker. At this point, exploration begins to develop a potential for discovery.

3. Focusing

After a period of Attending and Reflection, the Understander can often help the Speaker work on the Speaker's understanding of experience by Focusing the Speaker's attempts at expression. The Understander can either elicit a Focus from the speaker, or provide one directly.

After some talk about part of a lesson which the Understander has observed, the Understander might say:

Right. Out of all that, what's the most interesting part for you?

This asks the Speaker to think back and choose a focus for further work. Between people who have developed a feeling of trust and Empathy, the Understander might want to say something like:

Shall we go back to when you were talking about eliciting vocabulary from the students? Do you want to say some more about that?

****** Data Source: Edge, J. 1992.

The Understander may try an explicit Focus because of the impression that the Speaker's own interests and purposes can best be served in this way. Perhaps there was an impression that the Speaker could have said more about this aspect of the topic but decided at the time to move on. What the Understander must not is try to hijack the Speaker's development towards the Understander's interests and purposes. As well as depending on Empathy, the ability to focus the Speaker's discourse makes direct demands on the Understander's Honesty in the interaction.

4. Thematising

The Speaker may make separate point which the Understander may think is connected, or at least related, to each other. When this happens, the Understander can introduce this possibility that there might be a common theme linking two points explicitly mentioned by the speaker.

* Example 1

Understander: You just now mentioned about policing and teacher talk again, and I wonder how these two issues might be related in your course?

Speaker: Mmm, let me see. I don't like having to go around making sure people are on task all the time. I guess it's the issue of power and control.

** Example 2

Speaker: They do good grammar exercises, but they don't have anything to say for themselves when they write.

Later, the speaker may say:

Speaker: They drive me crazy in reading classes. They're forever asking what all the separate words mean.

Understander: On that last point, I hear you saying that there are usually quite a few words they don't know. Is that right?

* Data Source: Pleisch, G. & Stewart, J. 2004.

** Data Source: Edge, J. (1992).

Speaker: Yes, I guess so. I tell them to read on, but it doesn't work.

Understander: Well, you said a while back that they don't have anything to say When they write. Do you think that there's a connection between the two points?

The Understander has brought together two statements made by the Speaker in order to see if there is any thematic relationship between them. Various possibilities may follow.

Firstly, the Speaker may deny relationship, in which case none exists, at least for the time being, Secondly, the Speaker may recognize the relation as something well known, but perhaps insignificant. As with the first possibility, there may be later developments, but for the time being the major function is clarifying communication. Thirdly, the Speaker may acknowledge a connection that had been seen before. This connection may provide a basis for development.

Based on the example above, the Understander might have wanted to suggest that the speaker spend more time on vocabulary enrichment exercises. However, working on the intuition that there is a connection between the phenomena, the Speaker might find a solution in using topics of greater personal relevance to the learners, without necessarily concentration overtly on vocabulary enrichment.

The Understander holds off with advice and suggestions, because these will constrain the Speaker's ideas. The Speaker needs space to grow into. There may be some frustration involved in that space, as well as time and silence, but these are necessary ingredients of development. As long as two people agreed on this mode of interaction in a sense of Respect, Empathy, and Honesty, the frustration is a positive sign of a point for development. Just as the Understander does not come forward with advice and suggestions, the Speaker does not ask for them they are not what the Understander is there to provide.

5. Challenging

Challenging is the opposite of Thematising. That is to say, the Understander may hear the Speaker make two statements and, as the Understander, he/she present the Speaker with these two statements and ask him/her to reconcile them. In other words, the Challenge comes from the Understander, but only in items of the coherence of the

Speaker's own views. The Understander is still trying to work inside the Speaker's frame of reference.

* Example

Understander: Earlier you raised a point about the time pressure that teachers feel given what we hope to accomplish in classes, and then you talked about you need to pace your teaching better. So these any sort of connection there?

Speaker: Well of course I.....mmm.....maybe, I'm rushing lessons to meet objective. I don't always but to cover the material.....

Another example, the Speaker might be talking about how he/she teaches vocabulary. He/She might say how he/she detests the use of word-lists, and what a waste of time they are. Later on, the Speaker might mention the importance of catering for difference learning styles among the learners. An Understander might say:

I hear you say that it is important to allow for different ways that the students have of learning. How does that match up with what you were saying earlier about not using word-lists?

If the Speaker can reconcile these two statements to his/her own satisfaction, then the Challenge was in that it clarified for both of us exactly what the Speaker thinks. If he/she cannot reconcile the two positions then, as speaker, He/She has some work to do on what it is he/she actually believes and how that is to affect his/her teaching. This is a basis for development.

6. Disclosing

All the previous moves available to the Understander has stressed the importance of working in the Speaker's frame of reference. This emphasis remains in place here, which makes disclosing a very difficult skill to use effectively.

As Understander, he/she will disclose his/her own experience only to the extent that it may be useful to clarify exactly what the Speaker is trying to say. The Understander may

* Data Source: Pleisch, G. & Stewart, J. 2004.

offer his/her experience in order for the Speaker to use it as a comparison or a contrast with the Speaker's own. The frame of reference remains that of the Speaker. So, there might be an exchange such as this:

* Example

Speaker: I always go through homework tasks carefully and check that everyone knows what to do, and we agree that they're going to do it, I find it really difficult to work with that person for a while in the next lesson.

Understander: Mmm. If I've put that much effort in, I feel insulted. Is it like that?

Speaker: Oh, no, I wouldn't say insulted. But there's a disappointment that makes things awkward for a while.

The offering of a personal emotion from the Understander has given the Speaker a point of comparison, and thereby an opportunity to be more exact about what he/she intended to express.

7. Goal-setting

In the self-motivated drive to develop, it becomes essential for the Speaker to decide on a course of action for the classroom, followed by the investigation of that behavior as to its success on moving the Speaker closer to what Speaker wants to be doing and achieving.

Cooperating in a regular teaching routine helps to keep goals to a moderate scale: the smaller the goal, the better the chance of acting towards it and being able to evaluate its worth. Working to such small-scale goals, along with the resultant early feedback, is itself motivating and helps to keep cooperative development on the move. So, while Goal-setting may begin with a broadly-conceived goal, it must be narrow down to something that the speaker can undertake as a specific piece of action. The process might sound something like this:

* Data Source: Pleisch, G. & Stewart, J. 2004.

* Example 1

Understander: Okay, so what is it you think you'll do?

Speaker: Well, er, let me see. I want my students to become more autonomous.

Understander: That's a pretty big piece to chew. How might this come about?

Speaker: Yeah, um.....i think I see it as a question of how I manage the classroom. Perhaps, if I release a bit of control, my students will respond differently.

** Example 2

Speaker: I want to make them see that the story is relevant to them.

Understander: Have you got any idea of how to go about it?

Speaker: Well, I thought of taking the idea of jealousy. That's central to the story.

Understander: Mm-hm

Speaker: I thought I'd get them to talk about jealousy in their own lives, and then get them to see it in the story.

Understander: So the first thing you want to do is to have them discuss their own feeling of jealousy?

Speaker: Maybe their own jealousy, but also other people's and the effects it can have.

Understander: Yeah. Didn't you say before, jealousy in their own lives?

Speaker: Sure. Yes, I did. I mean, it might be their own actual feelings, or it might be what they've seen happen because, say, their sister's boyfriend got jealous, or something like that.

Understander: Got it. So, when they talk about the effects of jealousy, you want it to be effects they've actually seen or felt, rather than what they've heard, you know, what everybody says. Is that it?

Speaker: I don't think you can keep them apart, but I do want to get their own experiences involved really, that is the main point.

* Data Source: Fleisch, G. & Stewart, J. 2004.

** Data Source: Edge, J. 1992.

- Understander:* OK, so have you got an immediate goal for the next class?
- Speaker:* Yeah, I think so. I want to set up some sort of discussion activity that will get them talking about their experiences of jealousy in themselves or people they know, and its effects.
- Understander:* OK, let's work on that.

8. Trialing

Once a Goal has been set, the work of the Speaker and Understander turns to a detailed, step-by-step blueprint for implementation. The idea is to give the Speaker a chance to talk through what will be necessary before actually having to do it.

What the Understander must not do is to reflect an idea with the thought or implication that this something which the Speaker should reconsider. Evaluation must come from the Speaker him/herself. Also, what is not wanted is any element of interpretation or explanation by the Understander. Thus, the Understander needs to say: "This is what I am hearing. This is what I have understood./ Have I got it right?" If the speaker accepts it as accurate, Empathy is enhanced and at this point, exploration begins to develop a potential for discovery.

In a mood of Honesty, Empathy, and Respect, the Understander has to insist on clarity and detail. During this trialing process, it should become very clear that the relationship between the Speaker and the Understander is not one of wishy-washy warmth and positive about anything and everything. The Understander wants to accept exactly what the Speaker wants to do, but there is a discipline and a rigor involved in making sure that the Speaker is clear about what that is. The cut-off point is when the Understander has understood, or when the Speaker says, "That's enough. That's how I want to leave it."

* Example

- Understander:* All right, what are you going to do first?
- Speaker:* First, I'll have groups make a week plan for their lessons themselves. I'll give them the objective, which they already knew, and let them plan their own path. Then I'll sit back and watch it unfold and try not to be intrusive.
- Understander:* And do you have anything to prepare?

* Data Source: Pleisch, G. & Stewart, J. 2004.

Speaker: Yes, I need to set up a video camera and I should design an observation form.....

9. Planning

This is the final stage of each period of interaction. It might involve details of a class to be watched, and where the focus of the observer is to be. It might involve plans to read something, or consult a particular colleague for advice or suggestions before the next meeting. This is where the administrative arrangements for continuity are made. It means at least arranging when and where the Speaker and the Understander will meet again. In order to agree this last point, they clearly need to come out of their roles and to plan as mutual in a conversation.

At this stage, professional development occurs when the Speaker moves toward an action plan in which he/she plans, sets, observes, and reflects. How effective does the Cooperative Development work in the actual situation?

Kirathi (Head, K.; & Taylor P. 1997: 78-79; citing Kirathi. 1993. *Teacher Development Newsletter*. Pp. 7-9) proposed an account by a teacher in Turkey of how she and her colleagues have used Cooperative Development to prepare for peer observation, and provided an example of its effectiveness.

A group of colleagues in my institution and I found a very effective means to teacher development. Through the idea of Cooperative Development (Edge. 1992), which offers an accessible but rather disciplined framework that teachers can use to draw on their own experience and understanding of their own situation, we all became aware of the most important thing in teacher development: that is self development. What attracted us in Cooperative Development was the idea that your development is in your own hands and this can be best achieved by co-operating with your colleagues. Working together with colleagues in order to develop ourselves to become a better teacher in our own way, we discovered the importance of listening to each other.....

In 15 hours, we carried out the tasks in the book, in the roles of Speaker, Understander and Observer, which helped us develop certain techniques or abilities that we need. There are nine such abilities grouped into three blocks of three. They are:

Exploration	Discovery	Action
<i>Attending</i>	<i>Thematizing</i>	<i>Goal-setting</i>
<i>Reflecting</i>	<i>Challenging</i>	<i>Trialling</i>
<i>Focusing</i>	<i>Disclosing</i>	<i>Planning</i>

At the final stage, planning, we discussed how to proceed with observation. We decided on which class would be observed and talked about the focus of the observer. Most of us observed each other in class and then held feedback meetings.

Before starting such a co-operative project in our school we used to have observations only for evaluation, which really made us feel nervous and anxious while we were being observed. However, when we had our colleagues watching us teaching in class, all of us.....felt so relaxed and confident because we know why our colleague was there and that we would not be judged but would get feedback after the lesson..... I prefer Cooperative Development as a starting point because..... "the aim is not to change each other but to make each other be aware of their opinions and ideas"

Another report on the effectiveness of Cooperative Development is accounted by a group of graduate students in the TEFL program, the Faculty of Humanities at Srinakharinwirot University, who have involved in a situation of the Speaker and the Understander. Here are some of their reactions.

As a Speaker:

I acted a teacher who was a bit overconfident, and such confidence prevented the Speaker to see the real problem occurred in the classroom.

Though I did not explain what kind of teacher I was pretending, the Understander performed the Understander's role well and made me reflect my teaching as well as what really happened in the classroom without feeling offended or judged by the Understander.

Conversation was carried out very smoothly, and I felt never offended, judged nor evaluated by the Understander, and this "understanding" atmosphere helped me to reflect deeper not only the lesson I did but also about myself.

As an Understander:

..... It was quite difficult to listen without making any suggestion or giving my opinion to the Speaker, because as a teacher myself, I have been through the same kind

of practice and I tended to think "if I were her, I would not do in that way" many times while I was watching that video.

But I kept myself with bounds not making any comment or suggestion. Therefore, sometimes I felt that I didn't know what to say. I was afraid of saying something to the Speaker, because it might affect his point of view upon his teaching or I may guide him to my belief of "what to do" and "what a good teacher is". So, I kept acting as a mirror to the Speaker to help him for the self-reflection in case I felt I didn't know what to say.

I could use 5 skills (At first I thought I did 6 skills though) in this feedback simulation. The most difficult skill for me was reflecting, acting as a mirror, nothing else but being a mirror.

Just in my opinion, this cooperate development is good for teachers who need someone to talk with, someone who listen to them attentively without any judgment or evaluation. Sometimes teachers are tired of teaching and daily routine work. Those teachers just want to talk, nothing else but talk to someone without receiving someone's opinion, comment or advice. So, for those teachers who have experience of teaching, I think this cooperative development work well, since it involves self-reflection and they have opportunity to see themselves through talking to someone comfortably.

But it may not work well with pre-service teachers because they may not be able to see themselves clearly or aware of their problems through the conversation. Speaker's self-reflection and self-awareness is the key to success in this development, but pre-service or novice teachers need guidance and advice from the experienced teachers or trainers.

This is what I felt about this cooperative development after I experienced the feedback simulation with my friends.

Conclusion

As a way of working with some one, the purpose of Cooperative Development is action. Through the use of various techniques under the conditions of respect, empathy and honesty, the Understander helps the Speaker decide on just what action would aid the Speaker's own potential development. To benefit from this potential of self-help peer group model, Charles Lansley (Harmer. 2001.; citing Lansley. 1994. *ELT Journal*) raises an interesting suggestion that people do not progress, just by pairing listeners who agree with them all the time- and that just listening doesn't change anything. What is needed is collaborative development where colleagues challenge what each other says, discover what they mean, and subject their belief to their teaching situation.

Reflective task 6.1

A. Individual task

- Read the following story.

Lima was a student teacher in her final year. Her father had brought her up alone after her mother's death and, although very poor, he had made every sacrifice in order to provide for her education.

Lima had lots of fun at college, but did very little work. When the time came, it was clearly going to be impossible for her to pass the final examinations. Without her teaching certificate, she would not be able to get any kind of job.

She asked her tutor what she should do. This woman said that it was too late to think about such things now and that Lima should have worked harder. Lima asked another lecturer. He said that he would give her the examination questions if she would go to bed with him. She did so, and passed the examinations.

However, Lima also became pregnant. When her father found out, he threw her out of the house and refused to have anything more to do with her.

Now homeless, penniless and expecting a baby, Lima met a much older man who was a widower with three children. He said that he would be prepared to marry her as long as she stayed at home and looked after his house and children.

- Now number the characters from 1 to 5 according to how easy you find it to sympathise with their actions. Number 1 is the character with whom you can most easily sympathise. *Do not talk about your sequence with anyone.*

Lima	Father	Tutor	Lecturer	Widower
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B. Group task

- Sit in a group of three and decide who will be Speaker, Understander and Observer. Carry out the following task:
 - **The Speaker:** Talk briefly through your numbering of the characters in the story, giving reasons for this sequence and any comments on the task. Do not speak for more than five minutes.
 - **The Understander:** Listen actively. Make the Speaker feel listened to. Reflect the Speaker's sequencing of the characters and the reasoning

behind it, also any feelings the Speaker had while carrying out the task. You can either wait until the Speaker has finished before reflecting, or come in while the Speaker is talking. The purposes of Reflecting are:

- to check comprehension and communication of ideas and feelings;
 - to demonstrate respect and increase empathy;
 - to provide a basis for development of the Speaker's ideas.
- **The Observer:** Pay particular attention to the Understander, noting any non-linguistic communication. Also pay special attention to the Understander's attempts to reflect, noting anything that seems particularly successful or unsuccessful. Remember, it should not be possible for you to tell what the Understander thinks about the Speaker's sequencing and reasons for that sequencing.
- After not more than ten minutes, lead a feedback session, contributing the above information and asking for the reactions and contributions of Speaker and Understander. The following questions are central:
- Did the Speaker feel "understood", in the sense that we are using the term?
 - Did the Speaker understand his or her own ideas better after having expressed them?
 - Did the Speaker's ideas develop at all as they were being expressed?
 - What were the Speaker's reactions to the Understander, especially with reference to reflecting?
 - How did the Understander feel while trying to reflect without revealing his or her own opinions (i.e. with respect and empathy)?
 - How does the Speaker feel about not having heard the opinions of the Understander and Observer? There are further comments on this activity in Chapter 15.

Data Source: Edge, J. 1992: 33-34.

Reflective task 6.2

A. Individual task

- Think about the following statements and make a few notes to indicate the extent to which you agree with them.
 - a) In order to maintain a reasonable atmosphere at work, it is necessary to put up with things from colleagues that one doesn't actually approve of.
 - b) What is essential to a successful language learning group is that the learners feel secure, that they feel the teacher cares about their progress, and that they feel there is some purpose to their work.
 - c) The most common problem faced by teachers has nothing to do with methods, materials or learners: it is their hopelessly low pay.
 - d) We look to Colleges and Faculties of Education to provide trainee teachers not only with theories, but with the fundamental techniques of language teaching: the ability to analyse, present and practice language.
 - e) If someone I work with is unhappy about something I have said or done, I like them to come and tell me about it openly.
 - f) It is unfair to expect teachers to behave as if they are the friends, parents or guardians of their students. One tries to treat students as well as one would treat anyone that one works with, but that is as far as it goes.

B. Group task

- Form a group of three and take it in turns to be the Speaker, the Understander and the Observer.
- The first Speaker speaks about **a** and **e**. The second Speaker speaks about **c** and **f**. The third Speaker speaks about **b** and **d**. The Speaker tries to put across exactly what they think about each statement.
- The Understander supports the Speaker: attending, reflecting and focusing, and listening particularly for opportunities to thematise and to challenge.

Remember that the particular purpose of challenging is to ensure that the Speaker's developing ideas are coherent in the Speaker's own terms.

- The Observer makes notes on what happens and leads feedback afterwards.

Central questions are:

- What facial expressions or elements of body language did the Observer notice?
- Did the Speaker feel well listened to?
- What moves did the Understander make? What language was used?
- Particularly, was there any thematising or challenging?
- Did the Speaker find the Understander's work helpful?
- How did the Understander feel?

Data Source: Edge, J. 1992: 54-55.

Reflective task 6.3

Study the transcript of the Cooperative Development simulation in Appendix C. Which abilities of cooperative interaction does the Understander use? Analyze those abilities in terms of their effectiveness. Support your argument with the sample sentences from the transcript.

CHAPTER 7

Action Research

Objectives:

1. To introduce participants the concept of action research
2. To acquaint participants with the process of action research, techniques for observation and triangulation
3. To develop participants' analytical thinking skills through discussion, exploratory and reflective tasks on action research

Key concepts:

1. The definition of "action research"
2. Steps in action research
3. Techniques for observation

The definition of "action research"

Action research is becoming significant in language education as a tool for teachers to investigate their own teaching. Often, action research is a collaborative activity among colleagues searching for solution to everyday, real problems experienced in schools, or looking for ways to improve teaching and increase student achievement. Rather than dealing with the theoretical, action research allows teachers/practitioners to address their concerns that are closest to them, ones over which they can exhibit some influence and make change. Here are some of the definitions of action research that have been offered:

Action research is to study a real situation with a view to improve the quality of actions and results within it. It aims to improve one's own professional judgment and to give insight into how better to achieve desirable educational goals. Action research offers a means for changing from current practice toward better practice.

(Schmuck, R. 1997: 28)

Action research is a form of self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own practices, their understanding of these practices and the situations in which these practices are carried out...

(Carr; & Kemmis. 1995: 220 -1)

Action research involves the collection and analysis of data related to some aspect of our professional practice. This is done so that we can reflect on what we have discovered and apply it to our professional action.

(Wallace, M. 1998: 16 -17)

The important feature of action research is that it is carried out by those who are best placed to change, and hopefully to improve their practice. It is thus problem-based. The main concern is to come up with solutions to a given problem; it is usually concerned with a single case in a specific situation.

Action research can then 'be' characterized as:

- small, localized in context
- participation, collaboration (teachers as well as researchers)
- critical, problematizing evaluation, reflection
- change-oriented

Action research can be as simple as raising a question about some educational practice/teaching and collecting information to answer the question, or can be as complicated as applying a t-test to determine whether or not post-test results from an experimental group are statistically significant. Since action researchers usually use very small samples, results are almost never generalizable.

Steps in action research

As an evaluative process, action research is viewed as essential cyclical. Kemmis; & McTaggart (1985: 7) outline four developmental phases of action research. These are as follows:-

- | | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Phase 1: Plan | - develop a plan of action to improve what is already happening |
| Phase 2: Act | - act to implement the plan |
| Phase 3: Observe | - observe the effects of action in the context in which it occurs |

Phase 4: Reflect

- reflect on effect as a basis for further planning, subsequent action and so on, through a succession of cycles

These four phases form part of an ongoing cycle. Figure 6.1 illustrates how the four phases recycle to form an action research spiral in action.

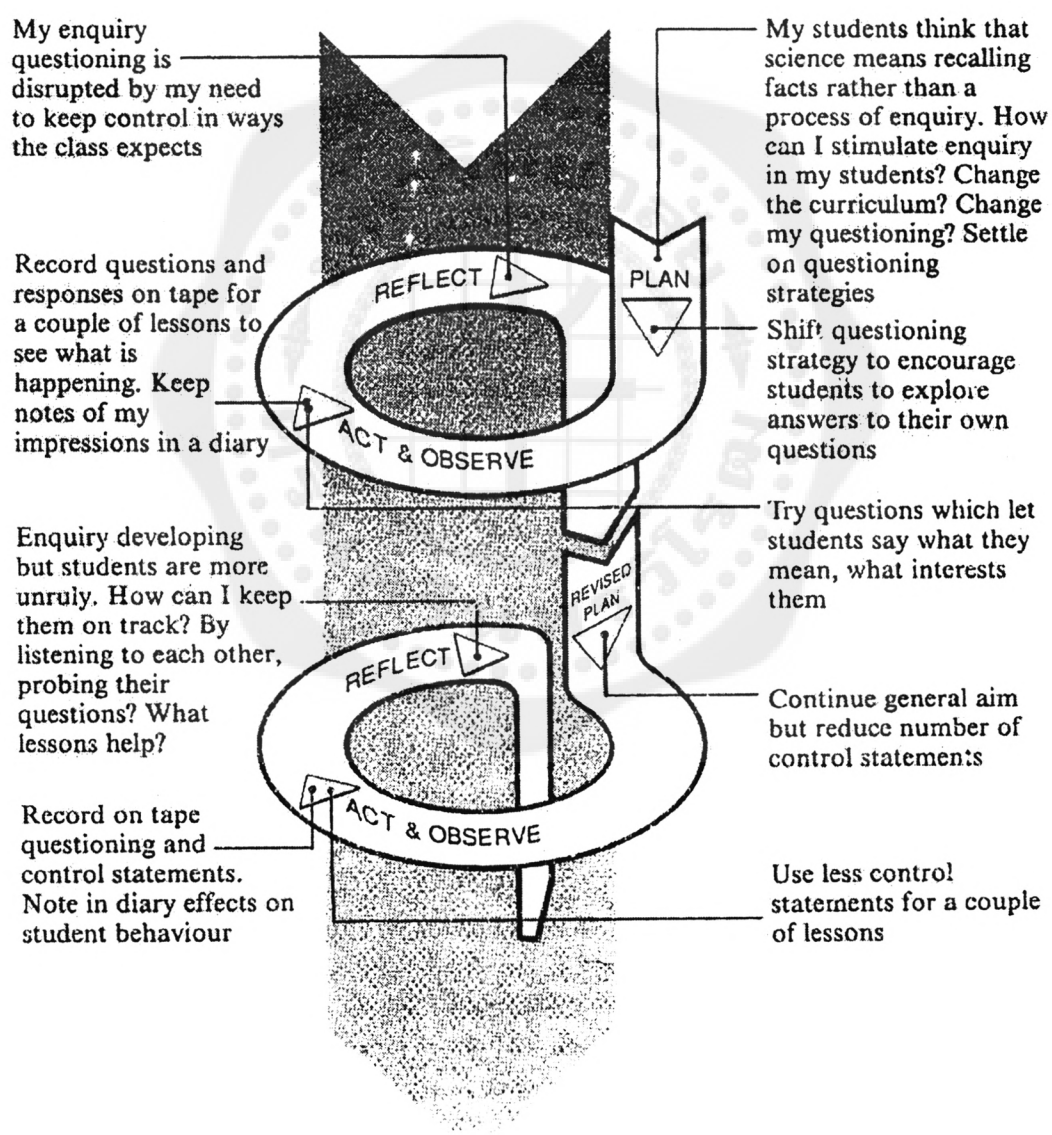


Figure 6.1: An action research cycle (Kemmis; & McTaggart. 1985: 11)

Action research can be processed through the following steps:

1. Setting a goal - identify issues, problems, challenges
2. Planning an action - devise action research plan, research question
3. Acting on the plan - carry out the plan
4. Observing the action - collect the evidence
5. Reflecting on the observation - describe and explain the evidence, draw conclusions
6. Setting the next goal - reidentify and posture the problem concerned

Setting a goal

To start an action research project, one needs to identify a problem, issues or a challenge. It is important to limit the problem to the one that is meaningful and doable in the confines of their daily work. Careful planning at this stage will limit false starts and frustration. Some questions for getting started are:

- What is the area or question that interests you? Why is it of interest
a) to you b) to others?
- What are your questions? Are they specific enough to enable them to be investigated in a classroom?
- What aspects of behavior/practice are you interested in? (yours, your learners? both? yours and other teachers?)
- What aspects of behavior do you want to change? How will you do this?

Problem areas to be explored are:

- Problems of classroom management
- Problems of appropriate materials
- Problems related to particular teaching areas
- Problems relating to student behavior, achievement or motivation
- Problems relating personal management issues (e.g. time management, relationships with colleagues/higher management)

Some preliminary observation and critical reflection is usually needed to convert a broad concern to an actionable theme. A concern does not often directly suggest the remedy. The changes teachers might make can fall into one of the following categories:

- changes to the syllabus or curriculum
- modifications to your teaching techniques or adaptation of a new method
- changes to the nature of the assessment

Once the area is identified, the problem is explored. Here are some examples of general problems or concerns (Richards; & Lockhart. 1995: 27) :

1. The students in my speech class seem to have great difficulty when I ask them to do oral presentations.
2. When students write compositions, they make little use of the revision strategies I have presented.
3. The answer students give in examinations in my literature class are mostly reproductions of my lecture notes – there is little sign of any reading.

For these concerns to become the focus of action research, they need to be made more concrete, so that they become susceptible to change or improvement. More specific questions for the above concerns might be something like:

1. What changes could be made to the speech curriculum to give students the prerequisite skills that are needed for oral presentations?
2. Are there any different teaching techniques which would better prepare students for using revision strategies in writing?
3. How can the examination questions be changed so that additional reading is encouraged?

Here are some examples of the action research projects based on problems and concerns that are real for teachers and seen as relevant to student learning:

Research problems

Students don't talk very much in class. They seem reserved and reluctant to express themselves in English.

Corresponding Questions

How much do students talk?
 How much do I talk? Does my talking block students from talking? What kinds of activities promote student talk? Which one possibly block it? Does not talking mean not learning?

Some students are disruptive. They talk with each other in their native languages during group work and take classmates off task.

When do these students talk loudly?

What possibly trigger this behavior? What exactly happens when this disruptive students are in a group? Are these students disruptive only when they are with certain students? What happens if I keep them apart? What other ways are these students disruptive?

After I give instructions for students to do a group work activity, they don't seem to know what to do.

How do I give instructions? What do students do and say just after I give these instructions? Do they ask each other what they are supposed to do? Ask me? Talk about other things? Begin in the task? If students don't understand what to do, how can I change the way I give instructions so that they can more fully comprehend them?

I best most of my students would enjoy learning songs and experiencing other authentic listening materials.

What songs and other authentic materials should I use? Are there any authentic songs published for ESL students? How can I use these materials so they are comprehensible to the students?

I'm confused about whether or not to treat students' spoken language errors. When I treat their errors, I feel like I'm at Interfering with

What happens when I don't correct students' spoken language errors? What happens when I do? At present, when do I correct errors?

communication, and I'm not sure it actually makes a difference. But, students tell me that they want me to correct their errors.

The kinds of activities and exercises in the assigned textbook don't match the goals of the course objectives set by the curriculum committee. The text is grammar exercise-and explanation-based. The goals of the course are to teach students to communicate.

Many of the students at this language institute seem bored. They don't really seem interested in learning the language.

What errors do I correct? How? do I correct the errors? Do students know when I correct their errors?

What exactly happens when we follow the text? Is there any "real" communication? What are the patterns of interaction in the classroom when we follow the Text? How can I adapt communication activities to the text? If I (and others who use the text) decide that the present text does not meet the needs of the students or course goals, can we change texts? How can we convince the curriculum committee to allow us to select our own texts?

What do the students feel about their language-learning experiences in my class? In other language classes? Are they bored? If so, why? If they are bored, how can I motivate them to take interest? What can the school do to motivate them

Data Source: Gebhard. 1999: 72-73.

Recording existing situation

In action research you are promoting change. To report the effects of the change you need a record of the situation before and after the change. What were the observations

which promoted your concern? What are the current practices and the current situation? Some observation techniques can be used before and after a change takes place to **examine the effect of the change.**

Finding relevant literature

As part of your initial reflection, you should find out whether there is any relevant literature to aid your action research.

Planning an action

The most important outcome of the planning phase is a detailed plan of the action you intend to take or the change you intend to make. Who is going to do what, and by when? How do you intend to implement your revised teaching strategies? Try to work out whether your plans are practicable and how others will react.

You also need to make plans for observation or monitoring your changes. Look through techniques for observation and decide which you will use. Make sure you choose the right tools for data collection.

Acting on the plan

In carrying out your plan, things will rarely go precisely as expected. You may have to make minor deviations from your plan in the light of experience and feedback. Make sure that you record any deviations from your plan, and the reasons you made them.

Observing the action

The detailed observation, monitoring and recording enables you to report your findings to others. Here are some issues to consider in data collection:

- What data collection methods will you use? What will the data look like?
- Who else do you want to/need to involve? How will you do this?
- What support resources do you need (time, books, professional readings, materials, equipment, advice, other people to share ideas with)? Do you have access to the necessary resources? If not do you know where/how to find them?
- What ethical issues need to be considered?
- How will you analyse the data?

Reflecting on the observation

At the end of an action cycle, reflect critically on what has happened is needed. How effective were your changes? If there is important, do the data clearly provide the supporting evidence? If no, what are the barriers to change? What changes can be made to the actions to elicit better results? The answer to the last question or two will usually lead you towards a further cycle.

Critical reflection usually takes place within small group discussions. The aim is to develop changes in attitude and practice in those concerned with the innovation.

Setting the next goal

The teacher, by now, has identified and searched for knowledge about a problem, planned an action that aims at solving the problem or concern, and implemented, observed, and reflected on the planned action. The next step is for the teacher to address the problem, concern or challenge initially identified. This stage may be the legitimate end of the process, except for subsequent re-evaluation and possible new cycle. The cycle then continues through planning, acting, observing and reflecting.

Reporting

An important part of doing action research is that of reporting to share results, methodology and professional empowerment. This can be done through various settings:

- Staff/group meeting
- Electronic discussion list
- Conference presentation
- Newsletter or referred journal

Techniques for observation

Generally qualitative methods are used in action research. These include both observational and non-observational techniques.

Observational techniques

Observational techniques involve close documentation of behaviors and interactions through the following:

1. **Field notes:** observation notes made during or after a class (for example, on the effectiveness of whole group or paired tasks, use of classroom materials, behavior of different groups of students or individuals)
2. **Diaries/journals:** more personal responses to classroom events, including evaluation or reactions and reflective comments (student diaries are also an invaluable source of data)
3. **'Jottings':** a stream-of-consciousness record of classroom events or happenings, which map what is occurring as an aid to memory.
4. **Video and audio-recordings:** verbatim records of classroom interaction and behaviors
5. **Transcripts:** written representations of classroom interactions taken from video or audio-recordings.
6. **Photographs/diagrams:** visual records that recreate classroom layout, the physical context and students' location in the classroom.

Non-observational techniques

Non-observational techniques involve exploring people's perspectives, beliefs or attitudes. The techniques include:

1. **Questionnaire:** sets of closed, ranked option or open-ended written questions used in non face-to-face situation to gather responses to research issues
2. **Interviews:** face-to-face structured, semi structured or unstructured interactions between researcher and individual student which generate or gather data about the research issue (for example, students' opinions or reactions to new teaching techniques, reflections on their own progress and so on)
3. **Discussions:** face-to-face, open-ended interactions with groups or sub-groups of students on issues related to the research topic
4. **Life/career history:** an account of students' previous life and learning experiences told from the perspective of the individuals involved and built up in increasing detail over a period of time.
5. **Letters:** personal accounts of learning experiences related to the research issue written from current to future students.

6. **Written texts:** sample of students' work collected in a portfolio or over a series of drafts to trace progress/responses to tasks.

Select or devise the appropriate techniques for the research project. List them together with the particular kinds of questions which they will be used to address. Start modestly but carefully and thoughtfully. The following questions might be helpful when one begins choosing the approach most suited to his/her strategy and situation.

1. Is it one that you can do?
2. Do you need a colleague to assist?
3. Will it provide information useful for reflection? For your next action step?
4. Will a different technique be more appropriate?
5. With what technique should you combine this one?
6. How soon will the technique provide data?
7. Can you maintain the technique over time?
8. Can you set aside the time to gather data and process it as a basis for reflection?
9. What are the physical implications of your techniques?
Is there enough space to use it regularly? Can you get the equipment regularly?
10. How useful is the technique for group/personal reflection?
11. Has the technique the potential to become second nature in your daily routine?
12. What will be the political effects of gathering this data in your classroom, department, school or community?
13. Who should know (not know) about it?
14. What are the risks to you or others through you having the data?

Data Source: Kemmis; & McTaggart. 1988

Triangulation

Triangulation is not a specific observation technique, but is the process of comparing and justifying data from one source against that from another. If you do just a handful of interviews, your conclusions may be viewed with skepticism. But if the interview results concur with findings from a questionnaire, examination results and evidence from

your journal, then the conclusions are much more convincing. The message is simple; use more than one observation techniques and hope that the results agree.

Conclusion

Action research may not provide all answers to our questions about how students learn or what teachers can do to improve their teaching. But action research happens at the place where these questions arise; it happens where the real action is taking place; and it allows for immediate action. If done carefully and thoughtfully, action research can improve an individual's teaching. If done by multiple teachers at a school, it has the potential to enhance the overall quality of the school.

Reflective task 7.1

1. Read the following situations. Which of the procedures discussed in this chapter would be most appropriate for gathering information about it? What are the advantages and disadvantages of the procedure you selected?
 - a. You are concerned about your students' attitudes toward English and toward language learning. You try to promote positive attitudes toward learning English. You wish to find out what your students' attitudes are and whether they change throughout the duration of a language course.
 - b. You are very conscientious about planning your lessons, but somehow they never seem to go according to plan. You rarely have time to get through all the material that you had planned. You want to find out why this is happening.
 - c. You are concerned about one of your students who always avoids sitting near the front of the class. This student seems to be paying attention, but rarely participates actively in lessons. You are not sure why. Since you have a large class, it is difficult for you to monitor individual students. You want to find out what this student's attitude is toward the class, how the student approaches learning, and whether the student is benefiting from the class.
 - d. You have been teaching English to elementary students for several years, and colleagues point out that you have developed a special kind of

“teacher’s English.” You want to investigate whether this is true, what these features are, and whether it helps or hinders your teaching.

- e. You have been experimenting with a process approach for teaching writing (i.e., one in which you encourage students to go through a number of stages when completing a writing task, from planning to drafting to reviewing and revising). You want to find out if students actually find this approach useful and whether they use it on writing assignments outside of class.
- f. Which of the issues in question 1 would be suitable for action research? Discuss how an action research project could be develop.

Data Source: Richards, J.; & Lockhart, C. 1995: 14-15.

Exploratory task 7.1

Study the action research case studies in Appendix D and answer the following questions:-

1. What is/are the research question(s)?
 2. What are the tools used to collect the data?
 3. What is/are the result(s)?
-

Reflective task 7.2 (workshop)

Identify areas for research in your context.

1. What is your research topic? (What is the general area of interest?)
 2. What is the focus of your research? (What is the specific problem/issue that you are interested in examining?)
 3. What is the rationale for your research? (Why is this of interest?)
 4. How would you collect the data? (What methods and techniques might be appropriate for collecting data to address this issue?)
 5. Who will be the participants in the research? (Will you conduct this research on your own, with a group of learners, with other teachers, as part of a professional group?)
-

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APPENDIX A: Samples of professional development activities

Samples: Assessment techniques

1. Sample: Collaborative Study Group Meeting

Date: Time: Place:
 Participants:
 Facilitator: Recorder: Chairperson:
 Purpose of meeting:

1. Welcome and housekeeping (5 minutes)

Agenda is read and accepted, roles are enforced, and materials are made available.

2. Presentation of the artifacts for study (10 minutes)

These artifacts may include: journal articles, videos, book summaries, samples of student work, samples of teacher's work, official documents, etc. They are selected and presented by one of the group members, but shared with the rest of the group before the meeting if possible. Group participants are silent. The facilitator keeps time and the recorder records the key points of the presentation on a flipchart for all members of the group to see.

3. Group members give their views on the artifact.(10 minutes)

Different group members discuss and appraise the selected artifact. They tackle issues such as adequacy and potential for student learning. The presenter is silent but notes the group's reactions. The recorder writes the group's reactions on a different piece of paper. The chairperson leads this discussion trying to involve all group members in giving their opinion.

4. Break (5 minutes)

During the break the presenter reviews the arguments given by the group and prepares to report back on these. The recorder helps the presenter by providing notes and information. The chairperson calls the group back to work.

5. Initial summary (5 minutes)

The chairperson offers a summary of what has happened so far, trying to synthesize the views of group using the recorder's notes. The chairperson then invites the presenter to report back.

6. Presenter's report (10 minutes)

The presenter gives his or her views on the issues raised by the group by citing evidence from the artifacts, thus clarifying and expanding. During the report the group is silent.

7. Group questions (10 minutes)

Group members question the presenter using the frame, exploratory, or sensing questions. The aim of this stage is to help the presenter reflect.

8. Lessons learnt (5 minutes)

The chairperson involves the group in reflecting about the lessons learnt during this meeting. The recorder records these in the group's log.

9. Adjourning (5 minutes)

Before the facilitator adjourns the meeting, decisions regarding the next meeting are made. Participants decide on rotation of the roles. After this is done, all present contribute an assessment of the meeting, thus helping the chairperson and facilitator make changes or additions in subsequent meetings.

2. Applications card

STEP 1: Please take a moment to recall ideas, techniques, and strategies we've discussed-- and those you've thought of -during the workshop. Quickly list as many possible applications as you can. Don't censor yourself! These are merely possibilities. You can always evaluate the desirability and/or feasibility of these application ideas later.

Interesting

IDEAS / TECHNIQUES

From this session

Some possible

APPLICATIONS of those

ideas / techniques to my work

Applications card (continued)

STEP 2: Review the list above and select **one** or **two** activities that you will use within the next month to engage the teachers you work with in a metacognitive activity.

I will use the following activities in my class(es) within the next month:

STEP 3: Following the lesson in which you implement the above activity, take time to record in Reflective Journal your reactions. How did the students respond? What was successful about the activity? What challenges did you face? What do you need to change in preparation for using the activity again?

STEP 4: Share your Reflective Journal entry with the teachers you work with at an appropriate time soon after the activity.

Data Source: Angelo, T. A.; & Cross, K. P. (1993). Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers. 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. pp. 236-239.

3. Minute paper

Please answer each question in one or two sentences:

1. What is the most useful, meaningful, or intriguing thing you learned from today's class discussion?
2. What questions do you have about today's discussion that you would like answered before we move on?

Data Source: Angelo, T. A.; & Cross, K. P. (1993). Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers. 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. pp. 148-153.

4. 3 – 2 – 1 Summary

What are three ideas that have captured your attention from today's class?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

What are two questions that you are still thinking about related to these topics?

1. _____

2. _____

What is one thing that you will remember long after this class is over?

1. _____

Data Source: Anderson, N. (2004). *From Egg Crate to Omelet: Prioritizing Teacher Development by Making Teaching Public*. (Paper presented at The 24th Thailand TESOL International Conference, January 29-31). KhonKaen, Thailand.

5. Group work evaluation form

1. Overall, how effectively did your group work together on this assignment? (circle the appropriate response)

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	poorly	adequately	well	extremely well

2. How many of the five group members participated actively most of the time? (circle the appropriate number)

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

3. How many of you were fully prepared for the group work most of the time?
(circle the appropriate number)

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

4. Give one specific example of something you learned from the group that you probably wouldn't have learned on your own.

5. Give one specific example of something the other group members learned from you that they probably wouldn't have learned without you.

6. Suggest one specific, practical change the group could make that would help improve everyone's learning.

Data Source: Angelo, T. A.; & Cross, K. P. (1993). *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers*. 2nd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. pp. 349-351.

6. Sample: Conference Plan

Teacher:

Event: Dates:

Personal goals (What do I expect to get from attending the event?)
.....

Means for attaining the goals (What actions will I take during the event?)

- Lectures
- Workshops
- Courses
- Contacts
- Visits
- Interviews
- Summary of the event (What did I get out of attending the event?)

Proposed actions resulting from attendance (What do I intend to do as a result of attending the event?)

OBJECTIVES TO ACCOMPLISH	ACTIONS TO BE TAKEN AND BY WHOM	RESOURCES NEEDED	SUCCESS CRITERIA	PROPOSED DATE FOR COMPLETION

Ways of sharing my development
.....
.....
.....

Data Source: Diaz-Maggioli; & Gabriel H. (2003, April). *English Teaching Forum*. 2(41): 11.

7. Sample: Individual Development Plan

1. Summary of the plan

A. Goals

B. Objectives

C. Summary of activities

Specify the academic, professional, community, and personal activities to be done during the fall and spring semesters.

D. Schedule of activities

Month	Academic	Professional	Community	Personal
1ST Semester				
September				
October				
November				
2ND Semester				
January				
February				
March				

E. Budget

Specify the sources of funding and proposed expenditures.

2. Breakdown of goals, objectives, and activities

Indicate which activities support each of the goals and objectives specified above in terms of students' learning.

Goal 1:		
Objective 1:		
Activities	Fall Semester	Spring Semester
Objective 2:		
Activities	Fall Semester	Spring Semester

APPENDIX B: Samples of classroom observation tools**Classroom Observation Tools**

COT. No.	Topic
1.	Blackboard Organization
2.	Teacher Position
3.	Varying the Focus
4.	Class and Individual Response
5.	Classroom Interaction
6.	Teacher Talk : Domination
7.	Student Talk Time & Teacher Talk Time
8.	Student Activity
9.	Evaluation : Positive and Negative
10.	Question Wait Time
11.	Eliciting
12.	Pronunciation Errors
13.	Instruction
14.	Correction
15.	Marking Transition
16.	Timing
17.	Questioning : Cognitive types
18.	Getting Meaning Across
19.	Teaching a Structure or Function
20.	Tasks and Objectives
21.	Skills Work
22.	Task Analysis
23.	Classroom Management

Classroom Observation Tool 1**Blackboard Organization**

Watch the lesson, copy everything the teacher wrote, draw or put on the blackboard in the box below.



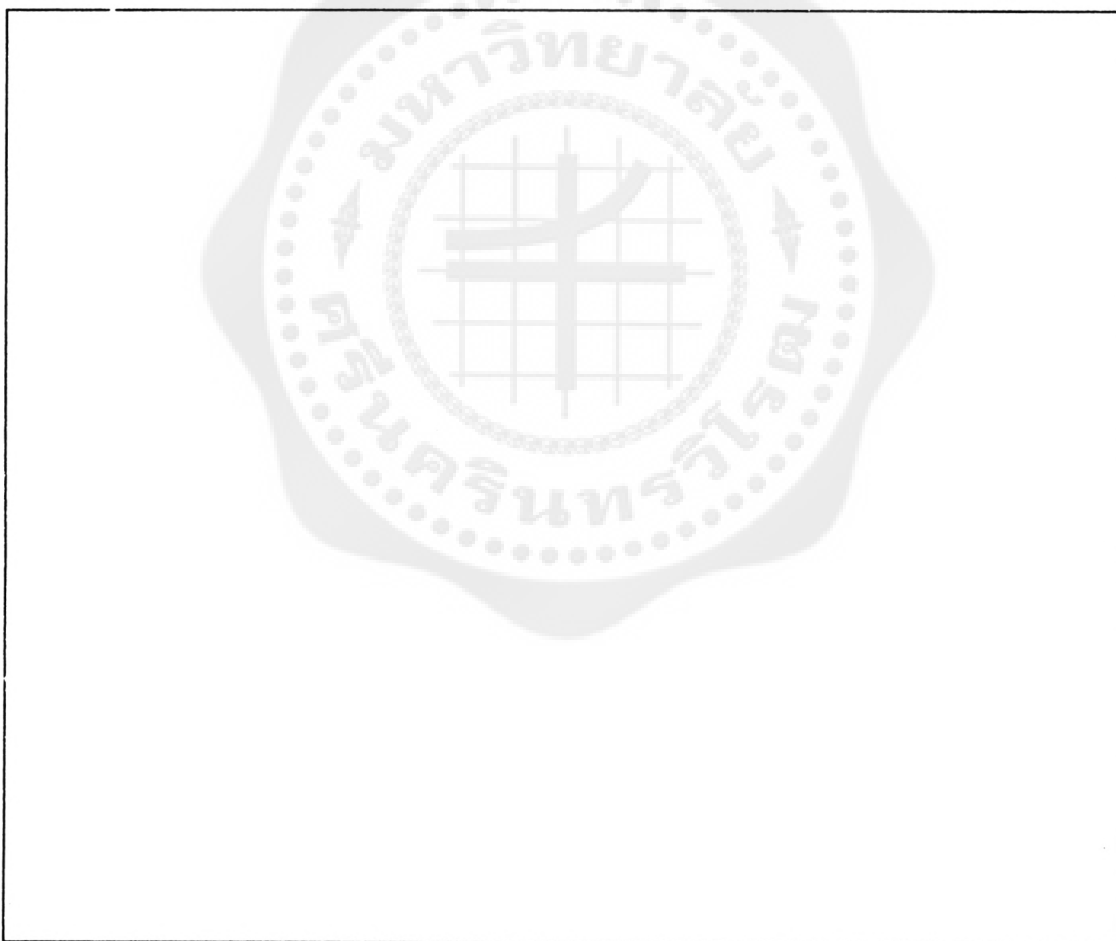
Classroom Observation Tool 2

Teacher Position

1. Before the lesson, draw a map of the classroom, labeling students by name,
e.g.

Manop

2. While watching the lesson, make a cross every fifteen seconds to show where the teacher is standing. Make brief notes about what was happening in the classroom.



Notes : _____

Classroom Observation Tool 3

Varying the Focus (visual)

Watch the lesson and do the following :-

1. During the lesson, note down where the students are expected mainly to be looking and tick the correct column. (Additional columns are possible.)
2. When a change takes place, note down the time.

Time	Students' focus changed to :					
	Teacher	Blackboard	Visual Aid	Textbook	Workbook/ Writing	Each other

Notes : _____

Classroom Observation Tool 4

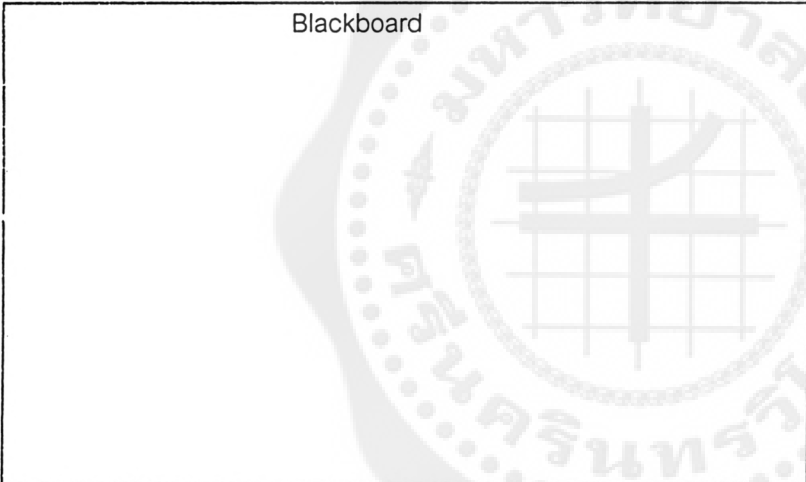
Classroom and Individual Response

A. Before the lesson, do the following : -

1. Before the lesson, ask the teacher for a copy of the lesson plan. Photocopy it for yourself.
2. Complete the form (Lesson Plan).
3. Draw the teacher and student seatings in the box for the classroom plan.
4. Put a circle to indicate each student's presence at his/her seat.

B. Watch the lesson and put a tick each time class response, group response or individual response occurs.

Classroom Plan

Blackboard 	<u>Class Responses</u> <u>Group Responses</u>
--	---

Lesson Plan

Activities	Individual response	Individual Question	Group response	Class response

Notes: _____

Classroom Observation Tool 5

Classroom Interaction

Watch the lesson, and place a tally mark against the following events each time they occur.

	Tallies	Total
1. Teacher asks a display question (i.e. a question to which she knows the answer).		
2. Teacher asks a referential question (i.e. a question to which she does not know the answer).		
3. Teacher explains a grammatical point.		
4. Teacher explains meaning of a vocabulary item.		
5. Teacher explains functional point.		
6. Teacher explains point relating to the content (theme/topic) of the lesson.		
7. Teacher gives instructions / directions.		
8. Teacher praises.		
9. Learner asks a question.		
10. Learner answers question.		
11. Learner talks to another learner.		
12. Period of silence or confusion		

Teacher Talk : Domination

1. Every five seconds, note down the following two marks in the box.

2. If several things happen at once, mark down only the main event.

A grid of graph paper with a faint watermark of the University of the Philippines seal in the center. The seal is circular with a five-pointed star in the middle and the text "UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES" around the perimeter. The grid consists of 20 columns and 15 rows of squares.

TT = _____% ST = _____% SI Neg. = _____%

Notes: _____

Classroom Observation Tool 7
Student Talk Time & Teacher Talk Time

Every 20 seconds, put a tick to show who spoke during that period. Many of your columns may be blank.

Activity	First ten minutes																			
Teacher talks to class																				
Teacher talks to individual																				
Students talk in chorus																				
Students talk to other students																				

Activity	Middle ten minutes																			
Teacher talks to class																				
Teacher talks to individual																				
Students talk in chorus																				
Students talk to other students																				

Activity	Middle ten minutes																			
Teacher talks to class																				
Teacher talks to individual																				
Students talk in chorus																				
Students talk to other students																				

Who had more talking time, the students or the teacher?

Note down any other points you noted about the pattern of speaking during the class.

Notes:

Tool 8

Student Activity

Every thirty seconds, put a tick in the box which shows what students mainly did during that period. You can tick more than one box, but try not to **unless** the activities were roughly equal time.

[illegible]

Classroom Observation Tool 9

Evaluation : Positive and Negative

Watch when teachers give students evaluation and do as follows :-

1. Tick the correct box whenever you hear an evaluation.
2. Note any favoured expressions on the right – hand side.

A. Extremely positive	
B. Positive	
C. Neutral (Ambiguous or mixed)	
D. Negative	
E. Extremely negative	

Totals

A+B = _____

C = _____

D+E = _____

Classroom Observation Tool 10

Question Wait Time

Note down examples of when the teacher asks questions, either of the whole class or of individual students.

Question: write down the actual question asked

Wait time: put a dash roughly every second the teacher waits for a response

Who speaks: did a student respond or did the teacher fill the silence by repeating or answering the question? Put either S or T

Response: what did the student(s) say in response to the question? or what did the teacher say if they answered themselves?

Question	Wait time	Who speaks	response

Classroom Observation Tool 11

Eliciting

Watch when the teacher elicits language from the students and take notes under the following headings.

Teacher prompt- what is the original prompt used, e.g. a picture, a mime, can you give me another word for.....etc.

Student response- what exactly did the students say- word for word, right or wrong.

Teacher response- what did the teacher say back e.g. *That's right*, *Nearly*, ignore the student etc. There may be a series of student and teacher responses from a single prompt.

Non-verbal signals- what else did the teacher do? Hand signals? Smile? Point?

Teacher prompt	Student response	Teacher response	Non-verbal signals

Classroom Observation Tool 12

Pronunciation Errors

Watch the lesson, particularly when the teacher deals with pronunciation errors and take notes under the following headings.

In this column, note: any L2 mistakes in pronunciation, word stress, sentence stress, intonation you hear – note whether you think this is a slip or an error.	Note here what you think is responsible for the mistake. If an error, is it due to: L1 interference, previous learning, inherent complexity of the English pronunciation system, is it T – or material – induced.....	Note here the T's response to the mistake: ignore, note for later or correct? If the latter, what approach to correction was taken. Is the T's model consistent?

Classroom Observation Tool 13

Instructions

Note down how the teacher gives instructions for activities.

Instruction/Activities What did T. do? Note down the actual words T. said	Gesture/Action Any gesture or action?	Demo? Yes/No?	Outcome What happened? Were the instructions successful?

Classroom Observation Tool 14

Correction

Listen and note down some examples of student mistakes, which the teacher could have heard.

Error Note down exactly what the student said

Stage When did this occur? Was it as part of a chorus? When they were called on as an individual in front of the class? In a circle drill? To a partner?

Response What was the response of the teacher? Did they get the student to self-correct (how?) Did they give the correction (how?) Did they notice it? Ignore it?

Outcome What was the outcome for the student? Did they understand the correction? Did they learn from it? How did they seem to react emotionally?

Error	Stage	Response	Outcome

Notes: _____

Classroom Observation Tool 15

Marking Transitions

A. Before the lesson, bring a tape-recorder into the classroom. Without interfering, record the lesson on the tape.

B. During the lesson, do the following:-

1. Note down the transitions you notice used by the teacher.
2. Also, note down the unmarked transitions.
3. After class, check with your recording and complete the transcript.

No	Transition Transcript
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	
16	

Notes: _____

Classroom Observation Tool 16

Timing

1. Before the lesson, ask the trainee for a copy of the lesson plan. Photocopy it for yourself.
2. While watching the lesson, complete the following form. Time each activity.

Activity	What teacher & student did	Time	
		Pian	Actual
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			

Classroom Observation Tool 17

Questioning : Cognitive Types

Watch the lesson and do as follows:-

1. Tick the correct box whenever you hear teacher's talk which requires a student response.
2. Note down any expressions on the right hand side.

A. Response is mechanical, Formal....	
B. Response requires thinking, factual content.....	
C. Response involves personal idea or emotion...	
D. Undecided (to think about them later)	

Totals : A _____ B _____ C _____ D _____

Classroom Observation Tool 18

Getting Meaning Across

Watch the lesson and take notes under the following heading.

1. Throughout the lesson which of the following ways were used to **convey meaning** of either vocabulary or grammatical structures:

☐ gesture

☐ mime

☐ picture

☐ explanation

☐ some kind of task

☐ text

☐ an imaginary situation

☐ opposites

☐ a diagram

☐ time lines

☐ other – describe:

.....

2. How did teachers **check** that Ss had understood meaning?

.....

.....

3. Note down any successful examples of language being **elicited** through questions and/or prompts. Give reasons for this success.

.....

.....

4. Note any moments in the lesson when meaning was less successfully conveyed or checked. Give possible causes for this lack of success. Suggest possible improvements in the technique used, so as to improve the chances of success.

.....

.....

5. Note down any moments when S participation in the lesson could have been increased.

.....

.....

Classroom Observation Tool 19

Teaching a Structure or Function

Watch the lesson and take notes under the following heading.

	What happened	Comment
What is the new language being presented?		
How is the language contextualized? How is meaning checked? Is the meaning clear to all students?		
How is the form highlighted? Are the students given a clear record? Does the teacher use clear terminology?		
Do the students get a clear pronunciation model? Are aspects of pronunciation highlighted?		
What controlled practice is there? Does the teacher correct errors effectively? Do the tasks practice what has been taught? Is there enough variety?		
Did any unanticipated problems arise? Was this a useful lesson for the students?		

Classroom Observation Tool 20

Task and Objectives

Watch the lesson and take notes under the following heading.

1. Note below some of the **task (A)** that are given in today's lesson.
2. For each task, state what you think the intended **objectives** was **(B)**.
3. **Evaluate** the success or otherwise of the task; in other words, did it achieve its objective(s) **(C)**? Account for the success or not of the task. Was this due to the planning: Was it the design of the task? The materials used? Or was it due to the execution: The way it was managed in class?

(A) Task	(B) Objective	(C) Evaluation

Classroom Observation Tool 21

Skills Work

Watch the lesson and take notes under the following heading.

PART 1: Reading/Listening

1. Describe the pre-text activities.

Did they motivate the Ss to read/listen?

.....

.....

2. When did the T set the tasks – before or after reading/listening?

Did they really check that students understood the text?

Did they involve language production or only comprehension?

.....

.....

3. What reading/listening sub-skill did the first tasks encourage Ss to practise?

.....

.....

4. Comment on the value of the second and any successive tasks.

Were the students gradually led to a greater understanding of the text?

Did the tasks help?

.....

.....

5. To what extent did tasks give Ss a reason for reading?

.....

.....

6. Evaluate the Ss' understanding and enjoyment of the text.

.....

.....

Classroom Observation Tool 21

Skills Work

Watch the lesson and take notes under the following heading.

PART 2: Speaking/Writing

1. Describe the pre-task activities.

Did they motivate the students to speak/write?

.....

.....

.....

2. What tasks were given to give Ss practice in productive skills? Describe how they were structured.

.....

.....

.....

3. What prompts were given? Were they effective? Did they give the right kind/level of help for the objectives of the task?

.....

.....

.....

4. How much control of language was there?

How much were Ss able to personalize the task?

.....

.....

.....

Classroom Observation Tool 22

Task Analysis

To what extent are the following statements and accurate reflection of the lesson?

Key:

1	not at all
2	slightly
3	very
4	completely

The teacher used realia and authentic materials.	1	2	3	4
Learners rehearsed, in class, skills they will need in real communicative situations outside class.	1	2	3	4
The objectives of the lesson were clear to the learners.	1	2	3	4
There were opportunities for controlled practice of specific language points.	1	2	3	4
The activities were challenging but not threatening.	1	2	3	4
Learners were required to do something (e.g. solve a problem, come to conclusion, complete a task).	1	2	3	4
Learners were required to cooperate.	1	2	3	4
Learners were required to share information (i.e. there was an information gap component to the lesson).	1	2	3	4
There was an evaluation component to the lesson which would allow learners to judge the degree to which they had succeeded or failed.	1	2	3	4
The activities would have been suitable for a mixed ability class.	1	2	3	4

Notes: _____

Classroom Observation Tool 23

Classroom Management

Rate the lesson according to the following key:

Key:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1 | Does not at all reflect what went on |
| 2 | Only marginally reflects what went on |
| 3 | Neutral |
| 4 | Describes rather well what went on |
| 5 | Is a totally accurate reflection of what went on |

1. There were no cultural misunderstandings.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The class understood what was wanted at all times.	1	2	3	4	5
3. All instructions were clear.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Every student was involved at some point.	1	2	3	4	5
5. All students were interested in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The teacher carried out comprehension checks.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Materials and learning activities were appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Student groupings and sub-groupings were appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Class atmosphere was positive.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The pacing of the lesson was appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
11. There was enough variety in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The teacher did not talk too much.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Error correction and feedback was appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
14. There was genuine communication.	1	2	3	4	5
15. There was teacher skill in organizing group work.	1	2	3	4	5
16. There was opportunity for controlled practice.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Students were enthusiastic.	1	2	3	4	5
18. General classroom management was good.	1	2	3	4	5

Notes: _____

APPENDIX C: A sample transcript of the Cooperative Development simulation

U = Understander

S = Speaker

- 1 U: How was your lesson?
- 2 S: I think I did very well. (*Very confidently*)
- 3 U: Oh, great!! (*Happily*)
- 4 S: Yes!!
- 5 U: That's good.
- 6 S: I was confident enough to do everything. (*In no doubt*)
- 7 U: Oh!
- 8 S: I did everything. Just following the lesson plan. (*In satisfaction*)
- 9 U: OK. That's a good thing to hear. Wonderful.
- 10 S: Yes.
- 11 U: How were the students?
- 12 S: They were quite active. I could hear a lot of voice from the students. They talked a lot.
- 13 U: They talked...
- 14 S: Yes.
- 15 U: Talked about what?
- 16 S: Talked about English. Yes. I think so.
- 17 U: Hmm.
- 18 S: I believe so, because I was a bit busy writing on the blackboard, but I could hear behind, you know, the students were talking.
- 19 U: You mean the students were talking when you were writing on the board?
- 20 S: Yes. I had to write because, you know, when we elicit vocabulary... First the meaning, I showed them a picture, right?
- 21 U: Yeah.
- 22 S: And then, model the pronunciation. And then, we have to write down the form. You know, I followed what I learned.
- 23 U: You mean you followed the teaching steps one by one.
- 24 S: Yes! (*With confident*)
- 25 U: That's good. While you were writing on the board, what were the students talking about? Did you give them some activities?
- 26 S: Yes. I let them read the textbook. I wanted to let them read without any problem.
- 27 U: So, it was a reading class then?
- 28 S: No. Reading first, and speaking.

- 29 U: Oh, speaking, too. You gave them a speaking activity, too?
- 30 S: Yes. Oh, yeah, right! Actually, I wrote a dialogue on the blackboard.
- 31 U: Oh, you wrote a dialog on the blackboard.
- 32 S: And let the students read aloud the dialogue. And I noticed that they just read aloud. No interest or no conversation style.
- 33 U: They just read...
- 34 S: Even though it was a conversation dialogue, they just...
- 35 U: Repeated?
- 36 S: No. But they just read. That's all. (*Reluctantly*) It was unnatural. Very unnatural.
- 37 U: You said that you wrote the dialogue and let the students read it. Have I got it right?
- 38 S: Right. But the students... (*Unhappily*) Ah, yes! (*Reminded of something*) Maybe they read unnaturally because even though it was a dialogue or conversation, they just read both Part A and Part B.... I don't know... (*Puzzled*)
- 39 U: When you let them read the dialogue, how did you do that? Did you model or...? What did you do?
- 40 S: Yes, first, I modeled when I wrote it down on the blackboard.
- 41 U: OK. You wrote first...
- 42 S: No. First, I tried to elicit, and the students said something. Then I wrote it on the blackboard.
- 43 U: After that, what did you do?
- 44 S: I let the students read aloud.
- 45 U: By themselves?
- 46 S: Yes, but it was so unnatural.
- 47 U: What do you think... how did the students feel about the dialogue?
- 48 S: Not interesting. (*Sighed*) They just read because I told them to read... (*Thinking*) There is one thing just stuck in my mind now. Why did they read so unnaturally??? Maybe I should have divided the class. A friend and a photographer. (*With a gesture to indicate two parts*)
- 49 U: There were two parts, two roles, then?
- 50 S: Or maybe I should have said...from the window part... (*Indicating a row beside the window*)
- 51 U: On the right hand side?
- 52 S: Yes, on the right hand side, they were photographer, and the left hand side, they were the friend. The photographer and the friend. Maybe they could read more naturally. Because it was a conversation.
- 53 U: Yes, it was a dialogue.
- 54 S: I didn't do that!! I didn't do that. (*Trying to convince herself*) What do you think? I just let follow all the parts. I let them read accordingly... Without any parts. So it was unnatural.
- 55 U: You mean you let them read altogether at the same time.
- 56 S: Yes. I didn't divide them.
- 57 U: The students might have thought that it was a story of one person instead of two.

- 58 S: Yeah. In the beginning, I forgot to write "Friend" and "Photographer" on the blackboard.
- 59 U: Oh, you forgot. Do you think the students knew who those people were?
- 60 S: Hmm, at first, I thought I did quite well...very well, you know. I felt I was a good teacher, but now....I think.... *(Disappointed)*
- 61 U: What would you like to do in the next lesson? Could you make it better?
- 62 S: Yes. When I present a conversation, I want to make it more real.
- 63 U: Real? What do you mean by real?
- 64 S: It means.....
- 65 U: Do you want to take your students outside of the class?
- 66 S: No, I didn't mean that. I want to let them read naturally. If there are two persons talking in a dialogue, I should divide the students into two groups for Person A and Person B. And then, I let them talk to each other, not just talk to the blackboard. Talking to the blackboard is so unnatural.
- 67 U: Sounds like a very good idea.
- 68 S: You think so? *(Delighted)*
- 69 U: Let's do it in the next lesson and see how it goes.
- 70 S: Yes!! I will do that. *(Happily)* Thank you for listening to me.
- 71 U: My pleasure.

APPENDIX D: Samples of action research case studies

Action research case study 1

Negotiating course content with learners

This project was carried out by a secondary school teacher in an EFL context.

INITIAL REFLECTION

I was interested in finding out whether my students would use English more if they had more say in what they were learning and how they were learning it. I felt that if students played a larger role in planning the types of activities used during lessons, they would be more motivated and hence use the target language to a greater extent. Since I was interested in how negotiation of the curriculum affects the use of the target language, I posed a question to guide my action project: Does negotiating the lesson and content and structure with students increase their use of the target language?

PLANNING

I first wanted to know what my students wanted to do in their lessons, so I wrote a simple questionnaire for them. I also asked them to suggest activities they would like to do for the next unit of work. The results of the questionnaire showed that games were the most popular type of activity. The students felt that games encouraged them to learn and speak English.

This discovery made me think about how I used games in the classroom. I thought I had been encouraging games during lessons, but what had been happening was that games were used only after the students had completed the set activities. So I planned a variety of games that I could incorporate into my lessons.

ACTION

I used a series of four different activities which were, or resulted in, games. When I implemented these activities in class, I invited a colleague to observe my class and focus on the students' use of the target language. I also collected information using a personal diary, tape recordings, tally sheets, and interviews.

OBSERVATION

From the information collected, it seems that the students were actively involved in speaking English, everyone was participating, and that they enjoyed doing a variety of

activities in each lesson. My diary entries also indicated that I was spending more time planning my lessons and thinking about how I could integrate the games into my lessons.

REFLECTION

I feel that the negotiation of activities with my students was successful. The students' use of the target language increased as well as their motivation to learn English. This project confirms my beliefs that (a) students learn best by doing, and (b) students will learn a language successfully if they are able to have some input into what and how they are learning.

Data Source: Richards, J.; & Lockhart, C. (1995). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classroom*. New York. University Press. pp. 91-92.

Action research case study 2

Grouping arrangements in the classroom

This project was carried out by a teacher in a private language school teaching adults in an EFL context

INITIAL REFLECTION

I teach a class of mixed abilities and was worried about the amount of oral practice that less able students were getting during lessons. These students are generally reserved and reluctant to use English. Many of them also become embarrassed if they make a mistake when speaking in front of the other students. I wanted to find some way to boost the students' self-confidence, and thereby improve their fluency. I believe that using pair work is a good way of providing students with opportunities to practice English and regularly employ pair work in my class, but I was unsure about who the less able students should be paired with. I thought that if a less able student has a partner of better ability, the more fluent student might be able to help the other one during pair work. On the other hand, the less able student might feel embarrassed talking to such a student and might feel more comfortable working with a partner of the same ability. I decided to explore the effects of various types of pairing arrangements.

PLANNING AND ACTION

I began by giving students a questionnaire about their learning preferences and observing how much the less able students actually said in English during pair work. For two weeks, I

noted when each student said a word, a phrase, a sentence, or several sentences in English and compared their performance in three different situations:

a less able student working with a more fluent student

a less able student working with a student of the same ability

a less able student working with the teacher

I also audio recorded one of the less able students when he was doing pair work in each of the above situations.

OBSERVATION

I was not surprised to find that students spoke the least amount of English when working with the teacher. However, I was very surprised to find out that the less able students spoke three times more English when working with a student of the same ability than when they had a more fluent partner. I concluded that the students were motivated to speak English, but perhaps felt intimidated when working with someone of much better ability.

While listening to the taped conversation of two less able students I observed that they generally took turns to speak, that no individual was dominant, and that they helped each other with vocabulary. The conversations were quite fluent and accurate. However, the tape of the less able student paired with the more fluent student indicated that, although the better student was very cooperative and tried to help his partner, he tended to dominate the conversation and overcorrect his partner without giving his partner much chance to practice.

From my questionnaire, I found out that students have more confidence to use English when they can help each other, when they have to be self-reliant, when the teacher is not always present, when they are not being corrected all the time, and when they are not being tested or monitored.

REFLECTION

During this investigation I learned a lot about my students' attitudes towards and abilities in using English. Gathering information from the students about how they use English was important to me. I discovered a way to deal with a class of mixed abilities and found a way to motivate and encourage my less able students. This project confirms my

beliefs about the value of using pair work and has reduced my anxiety about pairing less able students together.

Data Source: Richards, J.; & Lockhart, C. (1995). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classroom*. New York. University Press. pp. 157-158.



