EXPLORING THE DIMENSIONS OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHER SCHEMATA

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And the end of all our exploring
Will be to arrive where we started
And know the place for the first time

T. S. Eliot
Four Quartets
Little Gidding (1943)

ABSTRACT

The manner in which teachers teach is generally acknowledged to be controlled by various *schemata* which encapsulate all of what they "know" about teaching. The purpose of this study was to explore the nature and extent of the schemata of pre-service teachers in an effort to gain insights into the reasons why they behave as they do in the classroom; and from this to gain further insights into ways to improve teacher training. The study was based on in-depth case studies of four pre-service English language teachers in Singapore. Data collected included all of the lesson plans which they prepared during the 10-week practicum; transcriptions of four lessons observed by the supervisor-cum-researcher; and extensive textual information arising out of journals, pre- and post-conferencing of lessons, and interviews.

Findings indicated that pre-service teacher behaviour during the practicum is largely a function of five major schemata related to their view of *pupils, subject, methodology,* school *environment,* and *teaching* in general, all of which influence individual teaching style. Classroom dilemmas may be seen as arising out of value conflicts which may exist between these various schemata.

The research also revealed that lessons are structured as a goal-driven hierarchy comprising five levels of increasing pedagogical abstraction. The topmost level or *(1) lesson agenda*, representing the basic overall objective of the lesson, subsumes lower levels corresponding to *(2) lesson phases* which comprise basic instructional functions such as focusing, clarifying, reviewing, etc. *(3) phase segments* which represent the sequential steps involved in effecting a lesson phase; *(4) segment chunks* which comprise teaching cycles or other topic-related groups of speech acts; and finally *(5) speech acts* as the most primitive elements of classroom discourse. In addition to the planned elements of a lesson, various unplanned *lesson interrupts* occur during presentation of the lesson due to the need to maintain class control, make repairs to faulty instructions or explanations, give advice, or engage in informal interactions with the pupils. The manner in which pre-service teachers handle these impromptu elements of a lesson is a major reflection of their "teaching style".

At a more detailed level of analysis, classroom discourse parameters may be assigned to each speech act to characterise it in terms of teacher/class *interaction*, type of *speech act,* focus or *aspect,* degree of *continuity* with other parts of the lesson, and the *teaching aids* and *materials* being utilised at the time. Statistical analysis of these discourse parameters provides useful insights into other aspects of "teaching style".

The above findings have various implications for teacher training methodology. Recognition of the role of schemata can help to promote self-awareness on the part of student teachers as to the nature of the factors which influence their teaching style. Explicit recognition and definition of the five pedagogical levels of the lesson hierarchy, development of a typology of lesson phases and interrupts, and a means of carrying out in-depth analysis of classroom discourse at the speech act level provide the teacher trainer with useful tools for the observation, evaluation, and discussion of pre-service teaching behaviour.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

1.0 THE PROBLEM

Improvement in the effectiveness of pre-service teacher training[1] has been a continuing goal of teacher educators. However, in spite of the considerable research which has been carried out in this area, we still do not have a sufficiently clear picture of the many factors which bear on the success or failure of novice teachers in the classroom to make assured statements about the best ways to optimise the training experience.

Teaching is a highly complex activity involving a plethora of subtle and intangible classroom skills interlinked with an array of sociological and pedagogical knowledge. Such expertise, as Berliner (1986:12) observes, "is developed only over long periods of time, say hundreds, perhaps thousands of hours of learning and experience." He cites a study by Huberman (1985) designed to find out how long it took experienced teachers to master 18 basic problems that had perplexed first-year teachers in areas such as discipline, effectiveness with both slow and able pupils, sustaining the interest of poorly motivated pupils, etc. He found that these skills were developed in no less than five years for the majority of the experienced teachers studied, and that "... only 5 of the original 18 problems of first-year teachers were adequately solved by the majority of teachers in less than three years."

The fact that extensive classroom experience is required to convert a novice into a competent teacher reflects the nature of experiential learning, the essence of which is that skills develop only slowly over time as the complex cognitive structures which underlie behaviour are modified by the input of new hands-on experience. It follows from this that coursework is of limited effectiveness in honing such skills; hence, it is not surprising that the precepts of educational psychology and other theoretical inputs appear to be "washed out" during the practicum which follows (Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1981).

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[1] The terms "teacher training" and "teacher education" will be used interchangeably.

To complicate the problem, student teachers literally and figuratively "come in all shapes and sizes", each reflecting a unique profile of individual background and personality. The nature of experiential learning is such that each student will absorb new experience in different ways; hence, each student's cognitive structures may be thought of as a kind of filter which acts to selectively absorb, reject, or modify new input as seems appropriate. This degree of diversity demands that a high degree of personal attention be paid to the individual needs of the learner throughout the training process if optimal results are to be achieved, thus adding a further complicating factor to teacher education.

If hands-on experience is the key to converting a novice into an experienced teacher and if, as Berliner observes, it can take from 3 to 5 years of such experience to develop competency, teacher educators indeed face an uphill battle in inculcating any significant degree of expertise during a practicum which typically spans a matter of weeks. The problem of concentrating any meaningful degree of experiential learning into so short a time can be exacerbated by a sequence of personal concerns (Fuller, 1969) which overshadow and inhibit the learning process; by infrequent supervisory visits; by inadequately trained co-operating teachers; and by a variety of curricular and social constraints (Lacey, 1977) which tend to foster socialisation rather than serve as catalysts for professional development.

A major question facing teacher educators would therefore appear to be:

> *Given the time limits of the practicum, is there any way that we can optimise and/or accelerate the pace of experiential learning that takes place during this period?*

1.1 RESEARCH APPROACHES TO THE PROBLEM

In order to explore the characteristics of teaching effectiveness with a view toward improving pre-service teacher training, considerable research has been carried out in an effort to understand why teachers do what they do. This research has undergone several shifts in paradigm during the past few decades. Earlier approaches were conducted along process-product lines, utilising observation of classroom behaviours in an attempt to identify teaching strategies which appeared to result in increased pupil learning.

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Presumably such strategies, once identified, could in some way be inculcated into student teachers. Unfortunately such an approach has been found to be of limited effectiveness since each teacher tends to develop her[2] own individual "style" and does not easily absorb the product of other teachers' experiences.

Commencing in the mid-70's, the emphasis shifted to the study of teacher thinking in an effort to better understand the rationale for teachers' personal approaches to the curriculum. All of this research focused on discrete elements of what was in reality a complex phenomenon: the inner workings of a teacher's mind. The resulting findings fell short of establishing in concrete terms just how one might best go about optimising pre-service teacher education. As Peterson and Comeaux (1987:329) noted:

> "...the examination of expertise in complex domains calls for complex paradigms, not simplistic ones. The expert-novice paradigm as it existed 15 years ago was useful in delineating gross differences between novice and expert teachers and expanding the field of research to include more than process-product variables. What may be needed now is a new paradigm that incorporates the best of the goals, methodology, and assumptions of the old with others that reflect the complexity of the study of teaching."

Of late, and in keeping with the growing influence of computer science throughout the professional disciplines, research has focused on the information-processing aspects of teaching and, in particular, the nature of the *schemata* which appear to govern teaching behaviour.

1.2 IN PURSUIT OF THE ELUSIVE SCHEMATA

What exactly are "schemata"? Rumelhart (1980:33), refers to them as the "building blocks of cognition", containing all of what we "know" about any given subject. Schemata guide and control all aspects of our behaviour through the functions which they perform in:

> "...interpreting sensory data (both linguistic and non-linguistic), in retrieving information from memory, in organising actions, in determining goals and subgoals, in allocating cognitive resources, and, generally, in guiding the flow of processing in the system."

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[2]   "Her" will be used throughout the text when referring to teachers or student teachers

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The slow acceptance (as of 1980) of the concept of schemata by the rest of the academic community was acknowledged by Rumelhart:

> "... because our understanding of none of these tasks that schemata are supposed to carry out has reached maturity, it is little wonder that a definitive explication of schemata does not yet exist and that sceptics view theories based on them with some suspicion."

In the last decade, however, an increasing number of researchers have tacitly accepted schemata as the driving force for teacher behaviour. For example, after comparisons of the classroom performance of novice versus expert teachers, Peterson and Comeaux (1987:329) conclude:

> "Presumably, schemata for classroom events and life in a high school social studies classroom affect the teacher's perception of events during interactive teaching, affect the teacher's perception of students, enhance the teacher's understanding of events that may occur during interactive teaching, and aid the teacher in problem-solving and decision-making during interactive teaching."

More recently, after a study of novice teachers during their first year of teaching, Bullough et al. (1991) observe:

> "... beginning teachers bring with them to teaching a schema for teaching, embedded in the teaching self, which, like all schema, 'provides the skeleton [of meanings] around which the situation is interpreted' and made meaningful (Rumelhart, 1980:37). This schema, operating as an 'implicit theory' of teaching (Clark, 1988), is formed over years of experience interacting with teachers in various capacities and perhaps of prior teaching. It reflects a model of what the individual believes that teaching is 'supposed' to be. It includes meanings about students and the student role, about parents and the nature of schooling, knowledge, and knowing."

The researchers go on to observe (1991:11) that "the teachers who had the most difficulty teaching had only weak or a deeply contradictory teaching schema", with the consequence that "these persons encountered extreme difficulty when facing teaching situations that demanded decisive and consistent action". They conclude (1991:168) that:

> "... for each of these teachers, the story of their first year of teaching was one of building a more comprehensive, cohesive, fitting, and productive teaching schema initially and primarily through trial-and-error testing and adjustment of meanings..."

A large percentage of this teaching-related experience has arisen out of thousands of hours of classroom exposure, giving rise to what Lortie (1975) refers to as an "apprenticeship of observation", i.e., preconceived images of the nature of teaching. Whether these images are subsequently responsible for the teacher-centred approaches which novices appear to adopt during the initial stages of the practicum is open to debate. Nonetheless, there can be no doubt that the pre-service students have accumulated a large body of experience which has contributed to their teaching schemata; that such schemata are by their nature resistant to change; and that these factors must somehow be taken into account during the teacher training process.

1.3 RATIONALE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH INTO PRE-SERVICE SCHEMATA

Peterson and Comeaux (1987:330) provide a clearly stated rationale for the pursuit of further information related to pre-service teacher schemata:

> "... if sufficient knowledge existed about teachers' schemata, educators might develop ways to facilitate the development of beginning teachers' schemata to a more sophisticated level similar to that of the experienced teacher... Thus, rather than leaving the beginning teacher to develop expert schemata through practice and error over time... teacher educators might design courses and methods aimed at aiding the development of beginning teachers' schemata for classroom teaching and learning."

Given the foregoing, it would appear worthwhile to explore the nature of the schemata which pre-service teachers appear to bring to the training experience and to ascertain the manner in which these schemata influence behaviour during initial teaching practice.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Relevant research questions bearing on this area of inquiry would appear to be:

1. **What is the nature of the schemata which guide the manner in which pre-service teachers approach teaching?**

2. **To what extent do these schemata tend to filter out or facilitate the absorption of pedagogical knowledge during pre-service training?**

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3. Do such schemata evolve over the training year or do they remain static?

4. How are such schemata manifested in the form of an individualistic teaching style[3] during the practicum?

1.5 PROPOSED APPROACH

As reflected by the research questions listed above, the object of this study is to attempt to gain further insights into the schemata of pre-service teachers, and to "map" these schemata in order to permit one to draw conclusions about their nature. Arising out of these findings, one might then hypothesise ways in which such schemata might more effectively be modified during the training process.

Since schemata are by their nature somewhat nebulous and intangible, it would seem that they must be approached in an indirect manner. A detailed study of classroom behaviour may be expected to produce insights into the schemata which produced the behaviour. More specifically, the kinds of actions which a teacher carries out during the course of an interactive teaching session reflect the pedagogical and/or social goals which she is pursuing at the moment; these in turn should reflect the nature of the schemata which are generating them. The most basic data for this purpose are transcripts of video-taped lessons, which will be analysed in detail at the speech act level in order to ascertain the hierarchy of lesson goals being pursued by the teacher. Also, lesson plans will be reviewed to see whether the patterns match those observed in the classroom.

Other sources of data will be analysed in order to flesh out the findings from the video-taped lessons. Textual material such as interviews, journals, etc. will be reviewed in order to extract further clues to the attitudes, beliefs and knowledge embedded in the teaching schemata.

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[3] For purposes of this study, the term "teaching style" refers to a teacher's preferred way of doing a teaching task

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 COGNITIVE DEMANDS OF THE CLASSROOM

As noted above, schemata appear to embody the complex cognitive and affective structures which guide and control the manner in which teachers engage in interactive teaching. As the first step in exploring the nature of such schemata, it is therefore useful to look more closely at the details of classroom interaction. These can be expressed in terms of (1) the way in which a lesson evolves, (2) environmental factors, and (3) the kinds of goals which the teacher appears to be pursuing in the course of presenting the lesson.

2.1 THE LESSON AS AN EVOLVING SCENARIO

The basic unit of the teaching process is the *lesson*, which may be defined (Green et al., 1988:12) as:

> "a product of the interactions among participants (teacher, students, texts/materials) as they work together to meet the goals of the curriculum."

A lesson can be said to *evolve*, in the sense that interaction between the participants causes it to progress in stages, some of which are not entirely predictable. Green et al. (1988:13) liken this process of evolution to the construction of a group composition which is simultaneously being written, read, and revised. They further expand the metaphor of the lesson as an evolving text by positing the development of an underlying *social text* and an *academic text*.[1] The social text refers to information about expectations for participation (e.g., who can talk, when, where, in what ways, with whom, for what purpose) which in turn sets the procedures for lesson participation (e.g., answer in turn, wait to be called upon, etc.). The academic text refers to the content of the lesson and the structure of this content. The texts co-occur and are interrelated in the sense that as teachers present academic content, they are simultaneously signalling how the learning is to be accomplished. Expressed in another way, the academic text can be viewed as being embedded in and realised through the social text.

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[1] See also Willis (1981) and Christie (1992).

As teachers and pupils interact through the development of these social and academic texts, a series of lesson-specific "frames of reference" - local, academic, social, instructional, and material - are constructed which influence the nature of the interactions which take place in the evolving lesson. The local frame refers to the context-bound nature of meaning; the academic frame includes all academic content available from the beginning of the lesson to the point under consideration; the social frame consists of the norms or expectations for participation which are signaled by the teacher as the lesson progresses; the instructional frame is related to the nature of the task being accomplished at any given point in the lesson; and the material frame refers to the fact that materials have form and content that are constructed and presented in particular and deliberate ways. Green et al. point out (1988:16) that "The dynamic nature of lessons means that frames of reference are not static but are subject to modification, reinterpretation, suspension, and so forth, within and across developing lessons."

By virtue of its interactive nature, the lesson is therefore an ongoing process involving action, reaction, and negotiation between the participants in an evolving scenario which Clark (1988:9) has described as being "complex, uncertain, and peppered with dilemmas." Inevitably, a considerable amount of teacher decision-making is involved during this process. This decision-making is related to the teacher's multiple responsibilities, which are concisely summarised by Green et al. (1988:14):

> "The teacher's role is to set the conditions for learning, select appropriate
> content, guide, or orchestrate the way in which the lesson develops, and
> maintain the coherence of both the social and academic texts being
> constructed. To guide text construction, teachers must monitor what
> information is being presented, signal how students are to participate,
> monitor student interpretation of academic content, and adjust the develop-
> ing lesson text to insure access to lesson content. The teacher must also
> monitor the group as well as the individual... and must consider what to do
> when the lesson does not go as expected. In other words the teacher has to
> make decisions both prior to and during the lesson about how to (a)
> establish a common understanding of lesson content, (b) maintain direction
> of the developing lesson, and (c) insure the academic and social coherence
> of the lesson text on a moment-by-moment basis."

Each of the many decisions which are required at various points in time throughout the evolution of a lesson can be thought of as being subject to the constraints of the various

frames of reference which bear on the decision at that exact point in time, as illustrated in Fig. 1 below:

```
        local          academic         social
        frame           frame            frame
           \              |              /
            \             |             /
             ↓            ↓            ↓
  evolving       ┌─────────────────────┐
  lesson         │                     │
                 │   Decision-         │    time  ──→
  ──────────────→│   Making            │  ───────────────→
                 │   Point             │
                 │                     │
                 └─────────────────────┘
                    ↗              ↖
                   /                \
                  /                  \
         instructional          material
           frame                 frame
```
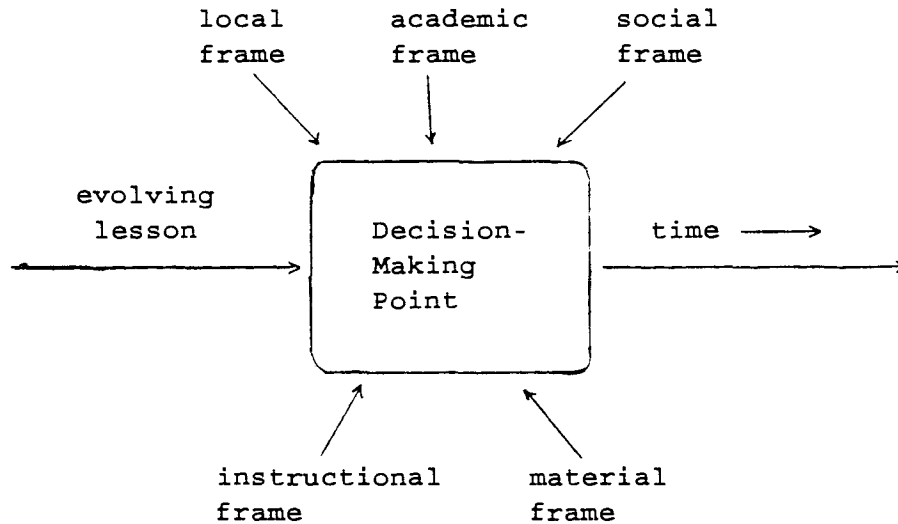
Fig. 1 Decision-Making Frames of Reference

The nature of the decision which is made will be a function not only of these external frames of reference, but also of the cognitive mechanisms being brought to bear by the teacher to assess the situation, weigh possibly competing factors, and reach an appropriate decision.

2.2 TEACHING AS A GOAL-DRIVEN PROCESS

The principal aim of the present research is to attempt to gain insights into the schemata used by pre-service teachers. Since schemata are felt to be the driving forces which generate behaviour, a logical starting point for such research is to look closely at the classroom behaviour of such teachers in order to glean clues as to "where they are coming from". The actions which they carry out in the classroom should provide an indication as to the kinds of social and pedagogical goals which they are pursuing; these in turn should provide some insights into the schemata which are generating the goals.

2.2.1 The Connection Between Goals and Schemata

Research described in the previous section highlights certain aspects of the evolving lesson which relate to the cognitive demands placed upon the teacher. These demands arise out of the fact that the course of a lesson is not predictable and that a continuing process of decision-making is involved, the outcome of which will partially depend on the various frames of reference which have developed up to that point in time. However little research has been carried out to illuminate the manner in which teacher's schemata process all of this information to arrive at a decision.

There would appear to be three principal factors involved in the decision-making which takes place at any point in time: (1) the status of the frames of reference mentioned previously; (2) current cues from the classroom; and (3) the nature of the teaching schemata which is making sense of all this input and generating a response to it. It would seem that to the extent one can analyse the first two of these factors, the actions which the teacher takes in the classroom may provide clues to the nature of the schemata which is generating these actions.

A useful perspective in pursuing this investigation involves the *goals* which the student teacher appears to be pursuing during the course of the lesson. Given a similar input of data, different teaching schemata may be expected to generate different goals. To the extent such schemata are those of an experienced teacher, such goals might be expected to reflect a broad awareness of the many factors which bear on competent teaching, i.e., knowledge of subject, knowledge of the particular pupils being taught and their learning needs and, arising out of these, knowledge of appropriate pedagogical strategies to best promote learning. To the extent such schemata are those of a novice teacher, a differing set of classroom goals might be generated which, one would hypothesise, would lack some of the dimensions of awareness displayed by the expert teacher.

As outlined below, various researchers have investigated the nature of goals and the manner in which these direct behaviour.

2.2.2 Schank and Abelson

Working from an Artificial Intelligence perspective, Schank and Abelson (1977) have explored the nature of the schemata which people use to make sense of their life situations. Much of their work has revolved about the manner in which people utilise *scripts* (an episodic form of schemata; see Section 3.5) as a mechanism for understanding events and predicting what will happen and how to best react in stereotypical situations. In addition to scripts, an understanding of people's *goals* and the plans they formulate to attain these goals is useful in understanding why people do what they do. Schank and Abelson (1977:227) summarise the relationship between goals and scripts in terms of their role in the general development of human knowledge:

> "To summarise the pattern of learning would seem to be that first,
> definitions of objects are learned as episodes. Then, scripts are learned to
> connect events. Finally, scripts are organised by goal structures that are
> used to make sense of the need for them."

Schank and Abelson, building upon Maslow's (1970) "hierarchy of needs" concept, have identified various kinds of goals, including Satisfaction Goals (biologically-related, i.e., hunger, sleep, shelter, etc.), Enjoyment Goals (travel, entertainment, etc.), Achievement Goals (personal power, social relationships, skills, possessions, etc.) Preservation Goals (preserving or improving the health, safety, good condition of people, position, or property), and Crisis Goals (health, fire, storm, etc.). As might be expected, certain types of goals tend to take precedence over others: basic Satisfaction Goals generally take the highest priority; however even these would by pre-empted by sudden Crisis Goals.

The manner in which goal hierarchies may be related to classroom situations is considered below.

2.2.3 Classroom Goals

One can hypothesise that the teacher comes into the classroom with the basic top-level goal of conducting the lesson more or less along the lines laid out in the daily lesson plan or, more informally, in accordance with a sequence of classroom activities laid out in the teacher's head. Although an explicit hierarchy of lesson goals would not likely be conceived of as such in the teacher's conscious thoughts, nonetheless for all practical

purposes the lesson would probably be structured along the lines of the following hierarchy:
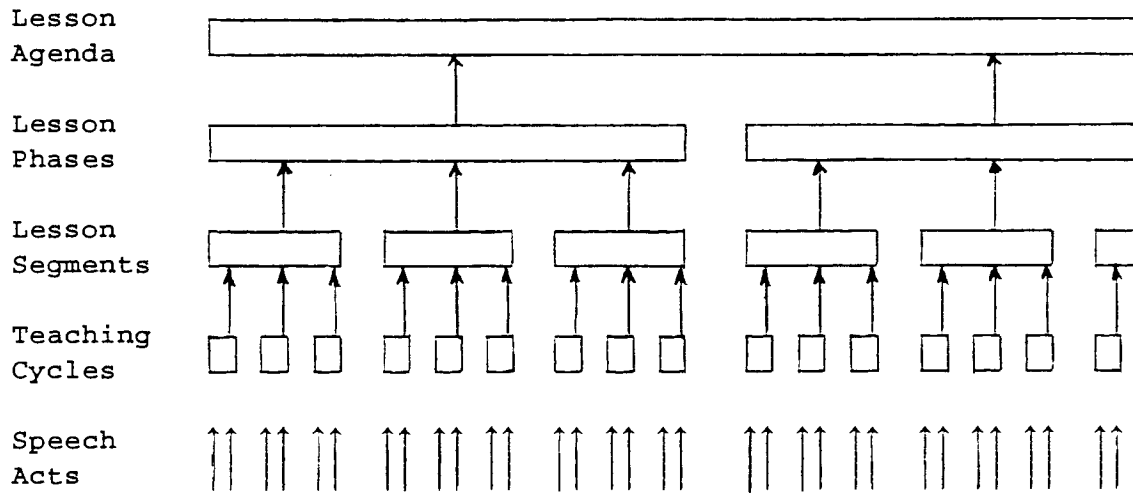
Fig. 2 A Hierarchy of Lesson Goals

At the top level of the hierarchy is the overall general goal of the lesson, which will be referred to as the *Lesson Agenda* following Green et al. (1988).

In order to achieve this global goal, a teacher would typically break the lesson down into major sub-components, which may be thought of as *Lesson Phases*. These might broadly correspond to what Rosenshine and Stevens (1986:379) refer to as the six fundamental "instructional functions":

> Review
> Presentation
> Guided Practice
> Correctives and Feedback
> Independent Practice
> Weekly and Monthly Reviews

Their observations about the use of these functions (1986:380) are of interest to the extent that they highlight some of the differences which may be expected between novice and experienced teachers:

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"Although all classrooms have these components, they are not always carried out effectively. All classrooms have demonstrations, but frequently they are too short, there are too few examples, and the examples are imprecise or unclear. All classrooms have guided practice, but often it is infrequent or too brief, there are too few questions and examples, and too little checking for student understanding. All teachers also correct student errors, but frequently the corrections are uninformative, consisting of only a single word or sentence; reteaching in small steps occurs seldom; and there is insufficient systematic guided practice to ensure error-free performance. All classrooms have independent practice, too, but frequently too great a proportion of classroom time is allocated to independent practice, especially without immediate feedback, and students are expected to learn too much from worksheets. Frequently the teacher does not circulate to help students during independent practice and does not reteach when necessary. All classrooms have review, but frequently there is insufficient reteaching of material missed during review, and the review and practice does not continue until student responses are rapid and firm."

At the next lower level of detail, any one of these lesson phases might logically be broken down into *Lesson Segments*. For example, a lesson phase dealing with review might be broken down into segments involving, respectively, checking to see that pupils have brought in their homework, going over the answers, and eliciting classroom discussion of some of the more problematic aspects of the homework.

At the lowest level of detail would be the interactive units of exchange between teacher and pupil(s) which could be termed *Teaching Cycles*, after Bellack et al. (1966:5). The start of a teaching cycle, which represents the smallest unit of meaningful exchange between the participants, is typically flagged out by a boundary marker such as "Now...", "All right..." etc.; and the end of the cycle is delimited by the start of the next following cycle.

Finally, the primitive units of classroom discourse would be the *Speech Acts* (and perhaps other unspoken actions) that take place during the course of the lesson. A useful survey of research into classroom discourse is provided by Cazden (1986).

Analysis of the goal-driven actions which are taking place in the classroom can be carried out through a simultaneous bottom-up and top-down approach. From a bottom-up perspective, each group of speech acts constitutes a teaching cycle which has some

specific social or academic purpose. Such purpose may not always be self-evident at the teaching cycle level, but can be understood in the context of the global aims of the lesson and of the lesson phases and segments in which the teaching cycle is taking place. Hence, the top-down perspective helps to establish the context of whatever is taking place at lower levels. In like manner, groups of teaching cycles can be seen to make up a lesson segment; groups of lesson segments to make up a lesson phase; and sequences of lesson phases to constitute the overall lesson agenda.

From the above type of analysis, the teacher's apparent goals at all levels of the lesson can be inferred. These goals - or the lack of them - should cast light on the nature of the schemata which is generating them.

2.3 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- A lesson is an ongoing interaction between teacher, pupils, and the texts and materials which are being used

- Teacher decision-making is influenced at any point during the lesson by the status of various "frames of reference" which exist at that point, and which include local, academic, social, instructional and material factors

- A lesson is structured in the form of a hierarchy ranging from speech acts as the most primitive element to ever higher levels of pedagogical abstraction

- Teaching is a goal-driven process

- Goals being pursued at various levels of the lesson hierarchy are a reflection of the schemata which is generating them

- Hence, the nature of the schemata which affect teaching may be inferred from the goals which teachers appear to be pursuing in their lessons

3.0 COGNITIVE STRUCTURES

In order to further explore the nature of the schemata which appear to guide and control pre-service teacher behaviour, it is useful to review the status of current research into the manner in which human cognitive structures are organised. Studies of problem solving (Newell and Simon, 1972) appear to indicate that reasoning is structured in a hierarchical manner, utilising increasingly abstract cognitive mechanisms ranging from the most elemental concepts to the most elaborate schemata. These elements will be reviewed in order of increasing cognitive complexity.

In discussing the intangible concepts related to the workings of the mind, there is a source of potential confusion in the use of the terms "cognitive", "knowledge", "beliefs", and "thoughts". We will define "cognitive" as relating to any aspect of the manner in which the mind stores and processes information. As regards "knowledge" and "beliefs", the former can be taken to relate to concrete factual matter which is not subject to subjective evaluation, whereas "beliefs" refer to an individual's (probably biased) subjective views of the world. Various other features which differentiate the two are concisely defined by Abelson (1979). As regards "thoughts", the term simply refers to the activity whereby an individual mentally processes information.

3.1 CONCEPTS

At the most basic level of the cognitive structure are primitive elements which may be referred to as *concepts*. These basic elements may be represented symbolically by nouns (classroom, teacher, pupil); attributes (smart, yellow, big); actions (talk, give); locations (in, at, on); etc. Standing alone, concepts have limited cognitive significance; however when related in terms of *propositions* (see 3.2 below) they take on increased meaning.

Sperber and Wilson (1986:85) appear to agree that concepts are the smallest primitive constituent of knowledge, although they state this somewhat obliquely:

> "It seems reasonable to regard logical forms, and in particular the propositional forms of assumptions, as composed of smaller constituents to whose presence and structural arrangements the deductive rules are

sensitive. These constituents we will call *concepts*. An assumption, then, is a structured set of concepts."

Sperber and Wilson (1986:86) have an interesting conceptual view of the manner in which concepts are stored in memory:

> "The information that may be stored in memory at a certain conceptual address falls into three distinct types: logical, encyclopaedic and lexical. The *logical entry* of a concept consists of a set of deductive rules which apply to logical forms of which the concept is a constituent. The *encyclopaedic entry* contains information about the extension and/or denotation of the concept: that is, about the objects, events and/or properties which instantiate it. The *lexical entry* contains information about the natural-language counterpart of the concept: the word or phrase of natural language which expresses it. On this approach, a conceptual address is thus a point of access to the logical, encyclopaedic and linguistic information which may be needed in the processing of logical forms containing that address."

Hence, for a concept such as "pupil" the logical entry would contain pointers to the collection of IF-THEN rules which include "pupil" as a component; the encyclopaedic entry would consist of a kind of schema containing all kinds of assumptions about pupils (perhaps calling up visual, sound, smell, and touch representations as well), and the lexical entry would correspond to the word "pupil".

3.2 PROPOSITIONS

A *proposition* represents a simple fact about a concept, or a simple relationship between one or more concepts. As described by Anderson (1990:123):

> "A proposition is the smallest unit of knowledge that can stand as a separate assertion; that is, the smallest unit about which it makes sense to make the judgement true or false."

The idea that information is represented in terms of propositions is, Anderson (1990:12) claims, "the most popular concept of how meaning is represented in memory." As regards the manner in which propositions can be linked to higher order cognitive structures, he also notes that:

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"The meaning of a sentence or picture can be represented as a network of propositions. Often propositions enter into hierarchical relationships in which one proposition occurs as part of another proposition. Propositional networks reveal in graphical form the associative connections between concepts."

Beaugrande (1980:29), in his discussion on the text-world model as a representation of communication between the participants, posits that such a model "is composed of propositions, the format in which some researchers believe that all knowledge is stored and used." He puts forth a definition generally similar to that of Anderson:

"Without insisting on logical rigor, we can define the proposition as a relation obtaining between two concepts (e.g., in 'the sky is blue,' the relation "attribute-of" obtains between the concepts evoked by 'sky' and 'blue'.) The connectivity of a textual world requires that there be at least one relation linking every concept to the overall knowledge space."

The propositional concept was also elaborated on by Kintsch (1974), who devised a microlevel proposition-based system for the analysis of discourse in terms of the propositions contained within it. Harker (1988) used a modified version of this system to compare two story-reading lessons, and drew conclusions as to the difference between teaching styles based on the nature and complexity of teacher utterances as a function of their propositional complexity.

3.3 ROUTINES

Frequently encountered teaching situations lead to often repeated sequences of actions which, over time, become routinised to the point where they are carried out in an automatic manner. Research has indicated that teachers do develop such routines, and that they serve to facilitate the teaching process. Bullough (1987:225), in a one-year case study of one student, observed that :

"A third way in which [the student] simplified the environment was by routinising or systematising much of it to reflect her values as much as possible. She did this through an extended and difficult period of trial and error. It should be noted that the identification of acceptable routines and their implementation requires considerable skill and is one of the signposts marking the transition from the survival to the mastery stage of teaching."

The benefits derived from the development of such routines were seen (1987:226) as being significant:

> "By establishing routines - for beginning classes, for making transitions from one activity into another, for grading, for passing out materials, for marking assignments, and for disciplining students - she was better able to control the pace of work and keep the students on task. In this way she was able to impress a pattern of acceptable behaviour on the students that simplified management while having the added benefit of enhancing student learning."

By the nature of the term, "routines" imply stereotyped sequences of activity. To the extent classroom interaction follows the expected path, such routines may indeed reduce much of the decision-making to a semi-automatic process. However the teacher must at any moment be prepared to deviate from the routine when necessary. Copeland (1987:232) quotes a model of teacher decision-making developed by Shavelson and Stern (1981):

> "This model posits, as the teacher carries out well-established routines, he or she observes the classroom for cues to determine if instruction is proceeding as planned. When a cue is observed a series of actions is initiated, first to determine if the cue is outside tolerance and, if it is, to determine what teacher moves, if any, must be initiated."

In what is perhaps the most in-depth survey of routines among the existing literature, Leinhardt et al. (1987) observed the classrooms of six expert primary school teachers with a view toward quantifying and categorising their teaching routines, or "shared socially scripted patterns of behaviour" which were used by these teachers to "reduce the cognitive complexity of the instructional environment." They found that during the first week of teaching a new class, the teachers spent a considerable amount of time establishing a series of routines which would stand them in good stead for the remainder of the term. Routines were categorised into three classes (1987:143), as described below.

Management Routines "can be thought of as housekeeping, discipline, maintenance, and people-moving tasks... [which] provide a classroom superstructure within which the social environment and behaviors are clearly defined and well known. Failure of management routines results in a sense of disorder or lack of discipline." A total of 25 different such routines were identified. The management routines most frequently used by four or more

teachers included pencil sharpening (4), line up (6), "don't interrupt" (4) and no talking (4).
As regards establishment of these routines, the researchers noted (1987:165) that:

> "In the first few days, management routines were introduced by a precise,
> verbal description and occasional modelling of behaviour. Later they were
> cued by single words or gestures. The reasons for using them were not
> usually explained to the children. Having a large number of management
> routines suggests a controlled and trade-marked classroom. "In this room,
> this is the way we do things." Having too many management routines
> suggests no freedom or individuality."

Support Routines "define and specify the behaviors and actions necessary for a
learning-teaching exchange to take place; in other words they are set-ups for this
exchange... Failure in these routines leads to a sense that the teacher is not "with it" or well
prepared, or that students are having (or giving) a hard time. Failure also leads to loss of
time." A total of 44 support routines were identified. The most important support used by
four or more teachers included take out/put away (6), paper format (6), teacher
collects/distributes (6), student collects/distributes (4), wait to start (5), open/turn to/look
at/close [textual material], keep busy when assigned work is finished (4). Interestingly, the
researchers found relatively little overlap of specific routines by the different teachers, and
concluded that such routines reflect a teacher's personal style of teaching. As regards
establishment of support routines, they noted (1987:165) that:

> "As with the management routines, the vast majority were introduced in the
> first or second day [of the new term]. Support routines were introduced by
> demonstration and description or demonstration alone. They were
> maintained by practice and rejection of non-compliance. For the most part,
> in midyear, they were cued by the action that required them (e.g., the need
> to pass out papers) rather than by a teacher's verbal signals. Because
> support routines help to keep a lesson working without breaks, they can be
> critical time savers."

Exchange Routines "specify the interactive behaviors that permit the teaching-learning
exchange to occur. They are largely language contacts between teachers and students...
Failure of these routines leads to the appearance that teachers are talking to themselves,
with students not listening or at least not responding or vice versa." A total of 32 exchange
routines were identified. The most important exchange routines used by four or more

teachers included hand raising as a signal (5), call until a student gives a correct answer (5), individual exchange (6), teacher checks work (6), and choral exchange (6).

The researchers (1987:168) found that the management and support routines were most likely to occur in a transition between activities, while exchange routines tended to occur during guided practice and presentations. As regards the former situation, they note that:

> "For novice and student teachers, tenuous classroom management often breaks down during transition, resulting in classroom chaos and inefficient attempts to establish order. When this happens, the completion of each task becomes lengthy and demanding, so that time and student attention are lost. Even a small repertoire of routines (those most frequently used) which have been consistently taught and used would greatly facilitate a novice's management of transition. This would improve both the flow between the activities and the novice's rapport with the class."

The above observations would appear to have obvious implications for teacher education. There would surely appear to be a clear rationale for making pre-service teachers actively aware of the role of such routines in teaching and encouraged, whether through micro-teaching, other laboratory-oriented simulations, or actual experimentation during the practicum, to develop a modest initial repertoire of suitable routines to manage transitions and/or to cope with other teaching situations which they find particularly troublesome.

As well as reducing the cognitive demands of the classroom, routines are equally useful in the planning stage. In a study of teacher planning, Yinger (1977) found that:

> "Teaching routines emerged as another distinctive feature of the teacher's planning technology. Much of the teacher's planning behaviour could be portrayed as the selection, organisation, and sequencing of routines developed as a result of experience. Four types of teaching routines were described in this study: activity routines, instructional routines, management routines, and executive planning routines. Functionally, routines were characterised as methods used to reduce the complexity and increase the predictability of classroom activities, thus increasing flexibility and effectiveness."

3.4 SCHEMATA

The highest and most abstract level of cognitive activity may be considered to be the *schema*. Anderson (1990:113) defines schemata as "large, complex units of knowledge that encode properties which are typical of instances of general categories and omit properties which are not typical of the categories." He subsequently explains (1990:144) that:

> "Certain sets of propositions cohere together in larger-order units called *schemas*.[3] For instance, part of our knowledge about restaurants is not just that certain events happen there, but that they tend to occur together in certain sequences. Thus, schemas represent our knowledge about how features tend to go together to define objects or how events tend to go together to define episodes. This knowledge about what tends to occur with what is very important to our ability to predict what we will encounter in our environment."

He also (1990:135) refers to the concept of generalisation hierarchies, in which super-schemata may subsume lower level schemata. A lower level schema, unless contradicted, inherits the features of its super-schema. As an example, Anderson (1990:140) points to going to a drive-in theatre as a special case (sub-schema) of going to a movie, which in turn is a special case (sub-schema) of an entertainment event, etc.

Rumelhart (1980:39) makes a strong analogy between a schema and a procedure or computer program, equating schemata with "active computational devices capable of evaluating the quality of their own fit to the available data." He goes on to extend the analogy through the fact that both schemata and procedures may operate in a recursive manner:

> "The second characteristic that schemata share with procedures is a structural one. Procedures normally consist of a network (or a tree) of subprocedures. A particular procedure normally carries out its task by invoking a pattern of subprocedures, each of which in turn operates by invoking its subprocedures. Each procedure or subprocedure can return values that can serve as conditions determining which other subprocedures, if any, are to be invoked. So it is with schemata."

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[3]   The plural form "schemata" will generally be used except in instances where quoted material uses the form "schemas"

Rumelhart (1980:30) describes the manner in which schemata operate in a hierarchical manner, similar to computer programmes. Leinhardt and Greeno (1986:75) similarly consider that the main feature of the skilled teacher's knowledge structure is:

"... a set of schemata for teaching activities. These schemata include structures at differing levels of generality, with some schemata for quite global activities such as checking homework and some for smaller units of activity such as distributing paper to the class."

Their idea that knowledge for skilled performance consists of schemata at different levels of generality was derived from work by Sacerdoti (1977), who described a system which "constructs plans for performing tasks by choosing global schemata that satisfy general goals and then by choosing less global schemata that satisfy more specific goals and requirements of the higher level schemata" - a goal-driven approach in line with Fig. 2 of the previous chapter. In addition to their schemata approach, Leinhardt and Greeno (1986:76) stress that a major factor contributing to skilled performance is the large repertoire of routines which "... play an important role in skilled performances because they allow relatively low level activities to be carried out efficiently, without diverting significant mental resources from the more general and substantive activities and goals of teaching." They refer to the top-level schema which governs the overall conduct of a lesson as an *agenda*, of which they say (1986:76):

"The agenda includes the traditional "lesson plan". It also includes activity structures and operational routines that are specific versions of schemata in the teacher's general knowledge base. The agenda also includes decision elements that permit continuous updating and revision of the agenda itself."

Although practitioners of AI have explicit views of the nature of schemata, in educational contexts the term may be used somewhat more loosely. As pointed out by Cook (1990):

"We might note the extraordinarily wide applicability of the theory, and its power to generate interpretations of almost every field of human life. Emotion, personality, dreams, intelligence, language acquisition, second language learning, drug effects, madness, metaphor, art, music, political revolution and reaction, ageing... Explanations of such diverse areas as these could be attempted in terms of schema theory."

3.4.1 Formation of New Schemata

How are new schemata formed? Rumelhart (1980:52) notes three ways, involving (1) *tuning* of existing schemata, (2) *patterned generation* of new schemata, and (3) *induction* of new schemata. The first two are similar, and somewhat a matter of degree. As regards tuning, Rumelhart (1980:52) says:

> "Existing schemata may *evolve* or undergo change to make them more in tune with experience. Our concepts presumably undergo continual change as we gain more experience with new exemplars. This corresponds to the elaboration and refinement of concepts through continued experience. Rumelhart and Norman (1978) have called this sort of learning *tuning.*"

There are essentially three ways in which schemata can evolve through tuning. In the first case, variable constraints and default values can be modified to bring the schema more into line with current experience. The second sort of tuning involves replacing a constant portion of a schema with a variable one - that is, adding a new variable to a schema. This sort of schema modification amounts to *concept generalisation* - making a schema more generally applicable. The third sort of tuning is, in a sense, the opposite of the last one, namely, the process of making a variable into a constant or specialising the use of the concept; this would make the schema more specialised rather than generalised.

As regards patterned generation, Rumelhart (1980:54) says:

> "Patterned generation involves the creation of a new schema by copying an old one with a few modifications. Such learning is, in essence, learning by analogy. We learn that a new concept is like an old one except for a few differences. A new schema can differ from an old one by having variables where the old one had constants (a generalisation of the old schema), by having constants where the old schema had variables (a further specialisation of the old schema), or by substituting a new variable or constant for an old variable or constant of the original schema. Once a new schema is created by such processes, the process of tuning will continue to modify the newly created schema to bring it more into line with experience."

Induction of new schemata is a theoretical third possibility in which a completely new situation occurs which has no analogies with existing schemata; arising out of such an event a brand new schema would be created. Rumelhart acknowledges that this kind of

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situation is unlikely, and that most schemata would evolve by one of the first two mechanisms, i.e., tuning or patterned generation.

It would appear that in the case of teaching schemata, these would tend to evolve through patterned generation arising out of the naive schemata carried over from the "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975) and modified under the pressures and constraints of the practicum.

3.5 SCRIPTS

Nisbett and Ross (1980:34) describe the nature of *scripts* as being a special type of schema:

> "A script is a type of schema in which the related elements are social objects and events involving the individual as actor or observer. Unlike most schemas, scripts generally are event sequences extended over time, and the relationships have a distinctly causal flavour, that is, early events in the sequence produce or at least 'enable' the occurrence of later events."

They point out (1980:7) that:

> "Few, if any, stimuli are approached for the first time by the adult. Instead, they are processed through pre-existing systems of schematised and abstracted knowledge - beliefs, theories, propositions, and schemas. These knowledge structures label and categorise objects and events quickly and, for the most part, accurately. They also define a set of expectations about objects and events and suggest appropriate responses to them."

Schank and Abelson (1977) claim that over time people develop a variety of scripts which provide them with a way of framing expectations about and making appropriate preparations for coping with future events. As described by them (1977:41):

> "A script is made up of slots and requirements about what can fill in those slots. The structure is an interconnected whole, and what is in one slot affects what can be in another. Scripts handle stylised everyday situations. They are not subject to much change, nor do they provide the apparatus for handling totally novel situations. Thus, a script is a predetermined, stereotyped sequence of actions that defines a well-known situation."

As Schank and Abelson (1977:55) point out, every act in a script is potentially subject to obstacles and errors, each of which suggests its own appropriate prescriptions or "loops" in the script. A few of these will occur with sufficient frequency that a person repeatedly exposed to the script situation will learn them along with the rest of the script. They posit that this is the manner in which scripts grow over time and/or evolve into variants on the basic script.

Clandinin and Connelly (1991) suggest that there are some analogies between the "stories" involved in their theories of narrative inquiry and the concept of "scripts" as described by Schank and Abelson. The script concept would also appear to be useful in understanding the manner in which student teachers exhibit individualistic approaches to teaching. Copeland (1989:16) says:

> "To accomplish most typical goals - eating in a restaurant, preparing for work in the morning, finding a book in the library - humans resort to the application of routines that have been acquired over time and through experience. These routines can be encoded as scripts for action..."

suggesting that the schemata which novice teachers bring with them to training may be thought of as teaching scripts. He goes on (1989:16) to quote Shavelson:

> "Shavelson (1986) suggests that scripts are very useful in representing the clinical knowledge used by teachers as they invoke routines during teaching. Using the construct of scripts, Shavelson is able to describe observed differences in patterns of teaching behaviour across reading groups of different ability levels, suggesting that these differences derive from the teacher's decision to invoke different routines or scripts that he or she considers appropriate for the students. Likewise, Putnam (1987) finds the construct of scripts useful to explain the observed behaviour of mathematics tutors."

Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984:29) describe a related concept, *teaching ideology*, which appears to have some features in common with a script:

> "... most studies of student teaching have been limited to investigations of student teacher ideologies. Sharp and Green (1975:68-69) define a *teaching ideology* as "a connected set of systematically related beliefs and ideas about what are felt to be the essential features of teaching... a broad definition of the task and a set of prescriptions for performing it, all held at a relatively high level of abstraction."

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As student teachers increase in competence during the practicum, the basic "classroom script" which they brought to training undergoes modification in accordance with experience gained in the classroom. As a reflection of differing classroom situations, one may hypothesise the evolution of a series of sub-scripts corresponding to the basic categories of lessons commonly taught within any given subject discipline. Nested within such sub-scripts, one would expect to find a series of routines, fine-tuned through experience, which permit the teacher to carry out any element of the sub-script in a more or less routine manner so that cognitive resources can be concentrated on coping with class management and unforeseen contingencies.

Schemata and scripts therefore represent the most abstract level of the cognitive structure, incorporating and subsuming lower level elements as discussed previously. The concept of routines has been considered separately from schemata/scripts, principally because a large body of education literature refers to such routines. However in actual fact it would appear that routines are simply sub-schemata or sub-scripts of teaching scripts, the only difference being that they are implemented in an automatic and unconscious manner. Like schemata, routines might also be expected to gradually evolve over time.

Various researchers have explored different facets of teachers' cognitive structures such as principles of practice, images, metaphors, and pedagogical knowledge. These studies provide additional insights into the nature of schemata.

3.6 PRINCIPLES OF PRACTICE

Elbaz (1983), in an in-depth study of one Canadian teacher of high school English, investigated the nature of teacher belief systems. The study was based on a sequence of interviews and classroom observations aimed at gaining insights into the nature of a teacher's practical knowledge and how this knowledge is held.

Elbaz found that the knowledge could be categorised into five content areas (Curriculum, Subject Matter, Instruction, Milieu, and Self), with five orientations (Situational, Social, Personal, Experimental, and Theoretical). As to the nature of practical knowledge, Elbaz

posited three structural forms. At the lowest level are so-called *Rules of Practice*, which are somewhat analogous to condition-action systems (see Section 4.2.4), and which Elbaz defined (1983:132) as "a brief, clearly formulated statement of what to do or how to do it in a particular situation frequently encountered in practice." Explicit examples quoted by Elbaz included situations such as how to deal with a disruptive child, how to organise materials, and how to hand out assignments.

At a higher level of abstraction are *Practical Principles*, which Elbaz (1983:133) defines as a "more inclusive and less explicit formulation in which the teacher's purposes, implied in the statement of a rule, are more clearly evident." Practical principles are therefore broad reflections of an individual's personal beliefs and goals. At the most abstract level is *Image*, about which Elbaz (1983:134) states:

> "On this level, the teacher's feelings, values, needs and beliefs combine as
> she forms images of how teaching should be, and marshals experience,
> theoretical knowledge, school folklore, to give substance to these images."

Elbaz suggests that examination of these three levels of organisation of practical knowledge may be useful in assessing the level of a teacher's development and personal style of teaching. For example, (1983:135) "we might expect a beginning teacher to have fairly clear images, but few rules and inadequate principles to guide her work." Furthermore:

> "We can also imagine different styles in the use of practical knowledge,
> and the three terms help to illustrate this. The following of rules of practice
> involves the teacher in a methodical and straightforward carrying out of her
> goals (which may be articulated or not). The use of practical principles,
> however, is largely a reflective activity, while images are used by the
> teacher in an intuitive way to aid in the realisation of purposes.
> Undoubtedly, the use of knowledge is highly individual and there will be
> many different styles of knowledge use among teachers. But style will be
> determined, in part, by the choice of one or another level of knowledge as
> the preferred mode in which to work."

Two studies reported upon by Clark and Peterson (1986) focused on principles of practice. Using stimulated recall techniques, Marland (1977) identified five principles of practice that appeared to play a powerful role in influencing the interactive behaviour of

teachers. These included the principles of Compensation (discriminating in favour of the shy and low-ability pupils), Strategic Leniency (ignoring classroom infractions by pupils regarded as needing special attention), Power Sharing (using the informal peer power structure to influence students), Progressive Checking (periodically checking progress and identifying potential problems), and Suppressing Emotions (suppressing the emotional feelings that they experienced while teaching).

Connors (1978) replicated and extended Marland's work, also using stimulated recall techniques. He identified three principles of practice which appeared to guide and explain the teachers' interactive teaching behaviour, including the principles of Suppressing Emotions (generally similar to Marland's), Teacher Authenticity (presenting self in such as way as to foster good classroom relationships), and Self-Monitoring (remaining aware of their behaviour and its effects on pupils). In addition, Connors identified five general pedagogical principles held by teachers including Cognitive Linking (explicitly relating new information to past and future pupil learning experiences), Integration (requiring students to apply skills and concepts learned in one subject area to other subjects and contexts), Closure (summarising, reviewing, and tying together main points at the end of a lesson or unit), General Involvement (having all students participate fully in class activities), and Equality of Treatment (calling for fair and consistent treatment of each pupil).

3.7 THE ROLE OF IMAGE AND METAPHOR

At the most intangible level of cognition, other researchers have explored the nature and use of image and metaphor.

Elbaz (1983:134) uses the term "images" to describe the manner in which:

> "... the teacher's feelings, values, needs and beliefs combine as she forms
> images of how teaching should be, and marshals experience, theoretical
> knowledge, school folklore, to give substance to these images."

Elbaz points out that each of the three levels of knowledge reflects different ways of mediating between thought and action. As compared to rules of practice or practical principles, an image (1983:134) is "... something one responds *to* rather than acts *from*. If

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the rule pushes us along with a demand for assent, the image pulls us toward it, inspiring rather than requiring conformity." In summary, Elbaz (1983:137) sees the image as:

> "... a brief, descriptive, and sometimes metaphoric statement which seems to capture some essential aspect of [a teacher's] perception of herself, her teaching, her situation in the classroom or her subject matter, and which serves to organise her knowledge in the relevant area. The image is generally imbued with a judgement of value and often expresses in a particularly clear way some purpose [the teacher] works toward in her teaching."

An image seems to serve a purpose similar to that of a metaphor (Ortony, 1980), which may be simply defined (Tiberius 1986:145) as "... an implicit comparison, one which calls our attention to similarities between two things by speaking of one thing as if it were another."

Munby (1986:198) sees the study of teachers' metaphors as being a valid way to discover something about their beliefs from the perspective of the teachers themselves, citing metaphor as:

> "... a compelling alternative to conventional and formalistic approaches to the study of teacher cognitions... And, because imagery is often present in the language we use, it becomes important to decode the images if we are to come to terms with the substantive problems that teachers believe themselves to face."

A metaphor can provide an underlying image of teaching which shapes the manner in which a teacher approaches the problems of the classroom. Munby (1986:200) quotes Schon's views along these lines:

> "Crucial to problem-solving, he [Schon] argues, is the language used to describe the problem, and frequently the problem-setting is metaphorical. How one "sees" a problem, metaphorically or not, is significant to how one addresses it. It is in this sense, then, that the metaphor is generative; it generates the problem, putting it in language that portrays a situation as a problem."

Bullough (1991:43) sees metaphors as a reflection of the tacit patterns which give coherence to a teacher's conception of teaching. His paper reports on efforts to use

metaphor analysis as a way of helping pre-service teachers examine and refine their own conceptions of teaching.

3.8 PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE

If one purports to teach a subject to others, it must (hopefully) be assumed as a minimum requirement that one has a considerable store of knowledge in that field. However, merely having an extensive content knowledge of one's subject does not necessarily mean that one is competent to teach it to someone else. Another kind of knowledge is required, which Shulman (1986:9) refers to as pedagogical content knowledge, the essence of which is:

> "... an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult; the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons."

Among other things, such knowledge includes an awareness of:

> "...the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations - in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others."

A third kind of knowledge (1986:10) is curricular knowledge, which involves:

> "... the full range of programs designed for the teaching of particular subjects and topics at a given level, the instructional materials available in relation to those programs, and the set of characteristics that serve as both the indications and contra-indications for the use of particular curriculum or program material in particular circumstances."

Shulman suggests that the above types of knowledge take three basic forms: propositional knowledge, case knowledge, and strategic knowledge. The first category of knowledge is in the general form as discussed previously in Section 3.2, although Shulman points out that such knowledge is probably organised in terms of *lists* or *sets* of propositions, i.e., (1986:10):

> "In fact, although we often present propositions one at a time, we recognise that they are better understood if they are organised in some coherent form, lodged in a conceptual or theoretical framework that is generative or regenerative. Otherwise they become terribly difficult to recall or retrieve."

Shulman's comments would appear to support other researchers' views that such propositions are embodied within higher-level schemata.

Case knowledge, which Shulman categorizes as taking the form of prototypes, precedents, and parables, is knowledge (1986:11) of "specific, well-documented, and richly described events", which serves to illuminate the basic theory underlying the case. In this sense, such cases might be thought of as near cousins to metaphors. Strategic knowledge (1986:12) reflects the decision-making and professional judgement required to resolve problematic situations where simple rules or principles are inadequate as a guide, "when the lessons of single principles contradict one another, or the precedents of particular cases are incompatible."

In a later paper on pedagogical ways of knowing, Shulman (1990) stresses that a teacher needs to possess and continually develop a repertoire of representations - analogies, metaphors, examples, demonstrations, visualisations, stories - to build the necessary bridges between student knowledge and teacher knowledge.

Carter (1990:307) reviews the relatively limited research relating to teachers' pedagogical content knowledge that has taken place since 1985, and concludes that such knowledge cannot "...be formalised into a set of specific skills or preset answers to specific problems. Rather, it is experiential, procedural, situational, and particularistic." Carter (1990:307) echoes Shulman's views (see above) as regards the need to define the cognitive structures involved in pedagogical content knowledge as a basis for further improvement in teacher education:

> "It will be necessary, therefore, to develop forms of representation that capture these essential features of what teachers know with a high degree of situation and task validity."

3.9 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- Studies of problem-solving indicate that human reasoning appears to be structured in a hierarchical manner, utilising increasingly abstract cognitive mechanisms ranging from elemental concepts to complex schemata

- Concepts, as exemplified by simple nouns, attributes, or actions comprise the most primitive elements of cognitive structure

- Propositions represent basic facts about concepts or express simple relationships between two or more concepts, and represent the most popular view as to how meaning is represented in memory

- Routines constitute an important element of a teacher's classroom activities; development of such routines should be one of the aims of a teacher education programme

- Schemata represent the highest and most abstract level of cognitive activity, and operate in a hierarchical manner to solve problems and control everyday activities

- New schemata are mostly formed by modification of existing schemata under the influence of life experience

- Scripts are an episodic form of schemata, representing stereotyped sequences of common activities

- Rules of practice, practical principles, and images reflect increasingly abstract representations of the cognitive structures used in the course of teaching

- Pedagogical knowledge involves an understanding of what makes topics easy or difficult, as well as an awareness of the most useful forms of representation of ideas to be communicated to pupils

4.0 PLANNING AND DECISION-MAKING

The previous section considered the nature of teachers' cognitive structures, in particular the schemata which appear to guide and control their activities in the classroom. In order to cast further light on the nature of these schemata, it is of interest to explore the manner in which their workings are reflected in the processes of preactive planning and interactive classroom decision-making.

As noted previously, earlier research into teaching typically took the form of process-product studies which attempted to assess the effect of classroom behaviour on pupil learning. It was not until the 70's that the focus of research began to shift toward the study of teachers' thought processes. A number of factors contributed to this change in paradigm.

Firstly, there was a growing awareness of the importance of the teacher as a sentient individual trying to cope with a complex and at times hostile environment. This awareness was raised by a number of landmark works of sociological nature. Becker et al (1961) set the stage by exploring the feelings and attitudes of a group of medical school students to identify the changes in perceptions which they developed under the pressures of socialisation. More to the point of teacher education, a subsequent study by Jackson (1968) looked at life in a Tennessee elementary school and explored the role of teachers in the context of their relationships with pupils, other staff, administrators, and the community at large. A later study by Lacey (1977) focused on the processes of socialisation whereby novices acquired the values and attitudes of the teaching profession. Finally, Lortie (1975) considered all aspects of the teacher's professional life and relationships in an in-depth sociological study of life in secondary schools. This seminal work is often cited in the research literature precisely because Lortie managed to identify and describe in some depth practically every one of the pressing problems in teaching and teacher education which current research is attempting to address.

Secondly, as Ben-Peretz (1986a) has pointed out, a number of practical problems had to arise before researchers became aware of the importance of teachers' cognitions in school.

One of these problems related to the difficulties encountered during attempts to change the curriculum and improve teaching through the use of progressive approaches. Such "top-down" implementations, which ran up against teachers' entrenched styles of teaching, enjoyed only limited success. Other problems arose from the fact that the theory taught during coursework appeared to be forgotten when student teachers began the practicum; even experienced teachers later tended to denigrate the value of such coursework as compared to the "real" experience of the classroom. Both of these problems pointed to the need for research into teacher thinking in order to understand the nature of this resistance to change.

A third factor was the increasing influence of computer technology and the emergence of the new field of Artificial Intelligence (AI) which required that cognitive processes be understood before they could be built into intelligent machines. AI gurus such as Albert Newell, Herbert Simon, Roger Schank and others would soon find themselves increasingly cited by teaching research journals as the applications of their work to education became evident.

As Clark and Peterson (1986:255) point out, "It is an indication of the newness of this field that the vast majority of the work has been done since 1976. A very early summary of incipient research (Clark and Yinger, 1977:279) described the rationale behind this change in focus:

> "A relatively new approach to the study of teaching assumes that what teachers do is affected by what they think. This cognitive information processing approach is concerned with teacher judgement, decision making, and planning. The study of the thinking processes of teachers - how teachers gather, organise, interpret, and evaluate information - is expected to lead to understandings of the uniquely human processes that guide and determine teacher behaviour."

A sign of the increased research interest in this area was the formation of the International Study Association on Teacher Thinking (ISATT) in 1983, founded to provide a central forum for the exchange of information on this subject. A total of five internationally attended symposiums have been held between 1983 and 1994. The published proceedings

of these symposiums (selected papers) have provided pointers into the more important literature on teacher thinking and form the basis for much of this review.

4.1 PLANNING

In cognitive terms, teacher decision-making can be considered to take place on a continuum from instinctive thought-in-action at one extreme to actions taken after some deliberation at the other extreme. Planning would appear to involve decision-making at the deliberate end of the spectrum, with the difference that plans can be mulled over and revised until a final satisfactory result is obtained. In this sense, the difference between interactive decision-making and planning is somewhat analogous to the difference between extempore speaking, in which utterances cannot be recalled, and composition writing, which is subject to limitless editing.

4.1.1 Planning Types and Functions

Several studies have indicated that planning is structured in a hierarchical manner. Morine-Dershimer (1977) found that details recorded on a written plan were nested within more comprehensive planning structures, which she called "lesson images". These were in turn nested within an even higher level construct called the "activity flow", which encompasses the year long progress of a class through each particular subject matter and also is concerned with the balance of activities across subject matters in a school day or week. Clark and Elmore (1981) also provided support for the idea that planning is a nested process, carried out within the overarching framework of structural and social features of the classroom. These views are in line with the focus of the present research as regards the fact that the cognitive processes involved in planning and decision-making are hierarchically structured.

4.1.2 Planning Models

One of the earliest universal models of planning (Tyler, 1950) was a prescriptive model consisting of four basic steps:

> (a) specifying behavioural objectives
> (b) diagnosing pupils' knowledge and skills
> (c) selecting and sequencing learning activities
> (d) evaluating the outcomes of instruction

Although commonly taught as part of the curriculum of teacher training programmes, research would appear to indicate that this model is not a realistic reflection of the manner in which teachers actually plan.

In a study of 261 British secondary school teachers, Taylor (1970) found that the teachers began their planning with the context of teaching followed by learning situations likely to interest and involve their pupils; and only then did they consider the purposes that their teaching would serve. Evaluating the effectiveness of their teaching approach was found to be a relatively minor issue in their planning.

Based on his own observations of the dichotomy between theory and practice in the area of planning, Shavelson (1987:483) observes:

> "Obviously, there is a mismatch between the prescriptive planning model and the demands of classroom instruction. This mismatch arises because teachers must balance multiple educational goals (e.g., content instruction, behaviour control, social interaction), must take into account students' goals (peer relations, learning), and must maintain the flow of activity during a lesson or face behavioural management problems. Activities, then, and not the prescriptive model are the focus of teacher planning."

Shavelson (1987:485) concludes that research, having established the task as a central focus in planning, needs to move on to describe the variety of routines or scripts teachers have for planning activities and under what conditions they are used.

4.1.3 A Cognitive Model of Planning

Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth (1979) devised a cognitive model which was used as the basis for a computer simulation of the planning process. The model, which represented planning as being hierarchically ordered, has some interesting features which closely relate to the hierarchically ordered system of goals mentioned earlier.

The researchers viewed planning (1979:276) as an evolving and "opportunistic" process in which:

"...at each point in the process, the planner's current decisions and observations suggest various *opportunities* for plan development. The planner's subsequent decisions follow up on selected opportunities."

Further with regard to the opportunistic nature of the process (1979:276):

"In general, the assumption that people plan opportunistically implies that interim decisions can lead to subsequent decisions at arbitrary points in the planning space. Thus, a decisions at a given level of abstraction, specifying an action to be taken at a particular point in time, may influence subsequent decisions at higher or lower levels of abstraction, specifying actions to be taken at earlier of later points in time."

The implication of the foregoing is that, to a certain extent, people "plan as they go", with decision-making at subsequent stages of the planning process dependent on the decisions made earlier (somewhat akin to a chess game in which current moves influence decisions at later stages of the game). The researchers use the term "opportunistic" to reflect their view that the planning process comprises the independent actions of many distinct so-called *planning specialists* (1979:285), each of which:

"...makes tentative decisions for incorporation into a tentative plan. Further, different specialists influence different aspects of the plan. For example, some specialists suggest high-level, abstract additions to the plan, while others suggest detailed sequences of specific actions."

These "specialists" lie in wait for situations in which their particular expertise would seem to contribute to the success of the overall plan, at which point they seize the opportunity to come forth into the conscious arena with their proposals. The conceptualisation appears to be quite consistent with current views as to the role of *sub-schemata* in contributing to the problem- solving process at varying levels of abstraction.

The researchers also posit a cognitive information-processing centre which they refer to (1979:285) as a *blackboard*:

"All specialists record their decisions in a common data structure, called the *blackboard*. The blackboard enables the specialists to interact and communicate. Each specialist can retrieve prior decisions of interest from the blackboard, regardless of which specialists recorded them. The specialist combines these earlier decisions with its own decision-making heuristics to generate new decisions."

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The blackboard concept appears to fulfil, for all practical purposes, the role of a high-level *schema* which guides and controls planning and action in the area under consideration.

The model posited by Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth conceptualises the blackboard as being partitioned into five conceptual planes respectively dedicated to plan, plan-abstractions, knowledge-base, executive, and meta-plan. A different kind of decision-making is carried out in each of these planes. Decisions in the *plan* plane represent actions the planner intends to take in the real world. Decisions in the *plan-abstraction* plane characterise desired attributes of potential plan decisions. The *knowledge-base* contains observations and computations regarding relationships in the world which might bear on the planning process. Decisions in the *executive* plane control the allocation of cognitive resources during the planning process. The *meta-plan* plane contains decisions about how to approach the planning problem. Decisions in each of these planes may be carried out at varying levels of abstraction.

Of particular interest are the conceptual levels of abstraction of the *plan* plane, of which the researchers note (1979:287):

> "The plan has four levels of abstraction. Decisions at the four levels form a
> potential hierarchy, with decisions at each level specifying a more refined
> plan than those at the next higher level. Beginning at the most abstract
> level, *outcomes* indicate what the planner intends to accomplish by
> executing the finished plan... At the next level *designs* characterise the
> general behavioural approach by which the planner intends to achieve the
> outcomes.. Next, *procedures* specify specific sequences of gross actions...
> Finally, *operations* specify sequences of more minute actions."

These four hierarchical levels appear directly analogous to the four levels posited by the present research for goal-driven decision-making in the classroom, viz., *outcome* to the Lesson Agenda, *designs* to the Lesson Phases; *procedures* to the Lesson Segments; and *operations* to the Teaching Cycles. As regards the derivation of these particular four levels, the researchers' footnote on this point (1979:289) is of interest:

> "Obviously, partitioning plan decisions into four discrete categories is
> arbitrary and probably over-simplified. However, we find these categories
> intuitively appealing and they provide a convenient terminology for
> discussion. In addition, Hayes-Roth and Thorndyke (1979) have shown that

theoretically naive subjects [tend to] group statements drawn from planning protocols in exactly these four categories."

Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth collected a series of 30 "thinking aloud" protocols from five different subjects who were given a list of errands to be carried out in a given day in a hypothetical town. As the subjects planned and, in a simulated way, went about trying to co-ordinate all of these errands, the think-aloud protocols were collected to gain insights into the manner in which they prioritised their tasks and the motivations behind their decisions (e.g., making two separate purchases in sequence because the stores were close to each other). A computer model was created to simulate the kinds of planning decisions carried out by the subjects and continuously fine-tuned to produce similar planning results. Arising out of this research, Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth identified the need for the various blackboard planes as described above, together with the need to provide for varying levels of abstraction within these planes. Also, a total of about 40 "specialist" functions were developed to make planning decisions at various levels of abstraction. These specialists were designed in the form of condition-action rules (see Section 4.2.4), and operated as follows (1979:298):

> "For example... the subject notices that certain errands appear in close proximity in the south-east part of the town. Based on this section of the protocol, we designed a specialist whose condition requires that at least three errands have been located on the map and that they appear in the same region... Its action is to identify as a cluster any set of errands that satisfies its condition. Thus, this specialist can identify not only the particular cluster the subject notices, but other clusters as well."

The above research has been described in some detail since it seems extremely relevant to the present research. In effect, Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth with their "blackboard" system have attempted to simulate in a holistic way the workings of high-level schemata and related sub-schemata ("specialists") in carrying out a variety of assigned tasks within a complex environment.

4.1.4 Novice versus Experienced Teachers

In their summary of research findings, Clark and Peterson (1986:262) commented on the limited extent to which experienced teachers carry out explicit lesson planning:

> "... the modest-to-insignificant role of lesson planning reported by experienced teachers is interesting. Lesson planning is one type of planning

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that is addressed directly in all teacher preparation programs. Yet lesson planning is rarely claimed as an important part of the repertoire of experienced teachers. Perhaps differences between expert and novice teachers dictate that teacher education focus heavily on lesson planning. But this anomaly may also indicate that some of our teacher preparation practices bow more to the task demands of the university calendar, methods courses, and supervision models than to those of the public school environment."

Sardo (1982) studied the planning of four junior high school teachers who varied in experience from 2 year to 30 years, and found that:

"The planning of the least experienced teacher consisted primarily of daily and lesson planning and followed the Tyler linear model most closely, while the more experienced teachers tended to be less systematic planners, to spend less time planning, and to concern themselves with planning the flow of activities for an entire week rather than with the fine details of each lesson."

Indeed, several studies have focused on the negative consequences associated with overly detailed planning. As cited by Shavelson (1987:485):

"Zahorik (1970) observed that teachers who planned thoroughly were less sensitive to their students (i.e., encouraged student and ideas and discussion less). Peterson et al. (1978a, 1978b) found that teachers who were prolific planners had students with lower attitude scores than the students of teachers who did not plan extensively."

One may conclude that preoccupation with the details of day to day lesson planning is a characteristic of novice teachers. A detailed lesson plan which they can fall back upon serves as a crutch to help them through the initial uncertainties of teaching practice. As they gain in experience and develop a repertoire of routines (Yinger, 1977), their teaching styles may be expected to become more interactive and their dependence on detailed daily lesson plans reduced. In their exploration of reflection as a key element in experiential learning, Boud et al (1985:9) describe a scenario in which students are about to embark on an unfamiliar field experience:

"Typically there would be a relatively high level of anxiety present which some students might respond to by additional preparation..."

implying that planning may serve as a psychological coping strategy when facing into uncertainty.

4.2 DECISION-MAKING

The ongoing and interactive nature of classroom teaching implies that a considerable amount of decision-making must take place to cope with a continuous stream of unexpected contingencies. Clark and Peterson (1986:274) surveyed a total of five studies related to the nature and frequency of teachers' reported interactive decisions and concluded that the results of the studies were "consistent in suggesting that, on the average, teachers make one interactive decision every 2 minutes." Shavelson and Stern (1981:486) quoted a paper by MacKay which reported somewhat less frequent decision-making at a rate of one every 6 minutes.

Whatever may be the rate of such decision-making, it appears intuitively evident that it must to some degree correlate with the teaching approach used. Straightforward lectures (i.e., teacher-centred approaches) call for few decisions, while highly interactive class-rooms (learner-centred approaches) require far more. Effective decision-making implies that the decision maker has a store of alternative approaches to call upon in the event of things not going well. Since learner-centred teaching requires that a flexible backup inventory of alternative routines be available to hand if the lesson is to be successful, it is small wonder that novice teachers, once faced with the challenges of the practicum, tend to favour teacher-centred approaches!

Other researchers have referred to this phenomenon as being related to what Lortie (1975) refers to as an "apprenticeship-of-observation" which typically spans 12 years of schooling and over 12,000 hours in the classroom. Lortie (1973) noted that because of this long exposure to teacher models, students come to their teacher training courses with constructs of teacher behaviour internalised and ready to be triggered in later teaching. He thus concluded (1973:487) that "...to a considerable extent future teacher behaviour is rooted in experiences which predate formal training." In other words, once in the classroom novice teachers will revert to the traditional approaches to which they were exposed as pupils.

The above assumption is debatable. The novice teacher's lack of alternative teaching routines would appear to be the principal reason for the adoption of a teacher-centred approach, rather than a carry-forward of the traditional approaches inculcated during Lortie's "apprenticeship-of-observation".

4.2.1 Cue-based Decision-Making

Shavelson (1973:144)) noted that "Any teaching act is the result of a decision, either conscious or unconscious," and argued that *the* basic teaching skill is decision-making. He went on to stress (1973:147) that:

> "What distinguishes the exceptional teacher from his or her colleague is not
> the ability to ask say, a higher order question, but the ability to decide when
> to ask such a question."

Shavelson described teacher-student interaction in terms of decision-making based on cues gleaned by observation of classroom events:

> "One can assume, for example, that at some given instant in an ongoing
> group discussion a teacher attends to significant cues regarding the course
> of discussion, makes inferences about that state of confusion in some
> problem faced by the students, decides on a kind of question or comment
> designed to open up a new aspect of the problem, and skilfully inserts the
> question or comment into the stream of discussion."

The key role of the cue as a triggering device was subsequently incorporated into Peterson and Clark's (1978) model of teacher interactive decision-making, in which cue observation represented a continuing feature of teacher classroom behaviour. So long as cue levels were within tolerance, no changes were required to the course of the lesson; however if not within tolerance, a search for alternative teaching approaches was instigated. Depending on the outcome of this search, either a revised teaching approach would result, or the previous (presumably sub-optimum) approach maintained unchanged.

Somewhat later, Shavelson and Stern (1981) refined this model to highlight the fact that alternative teaching approaches might not be available in some cases. The relevant portions of this model are indicated in the diagram on the following page.
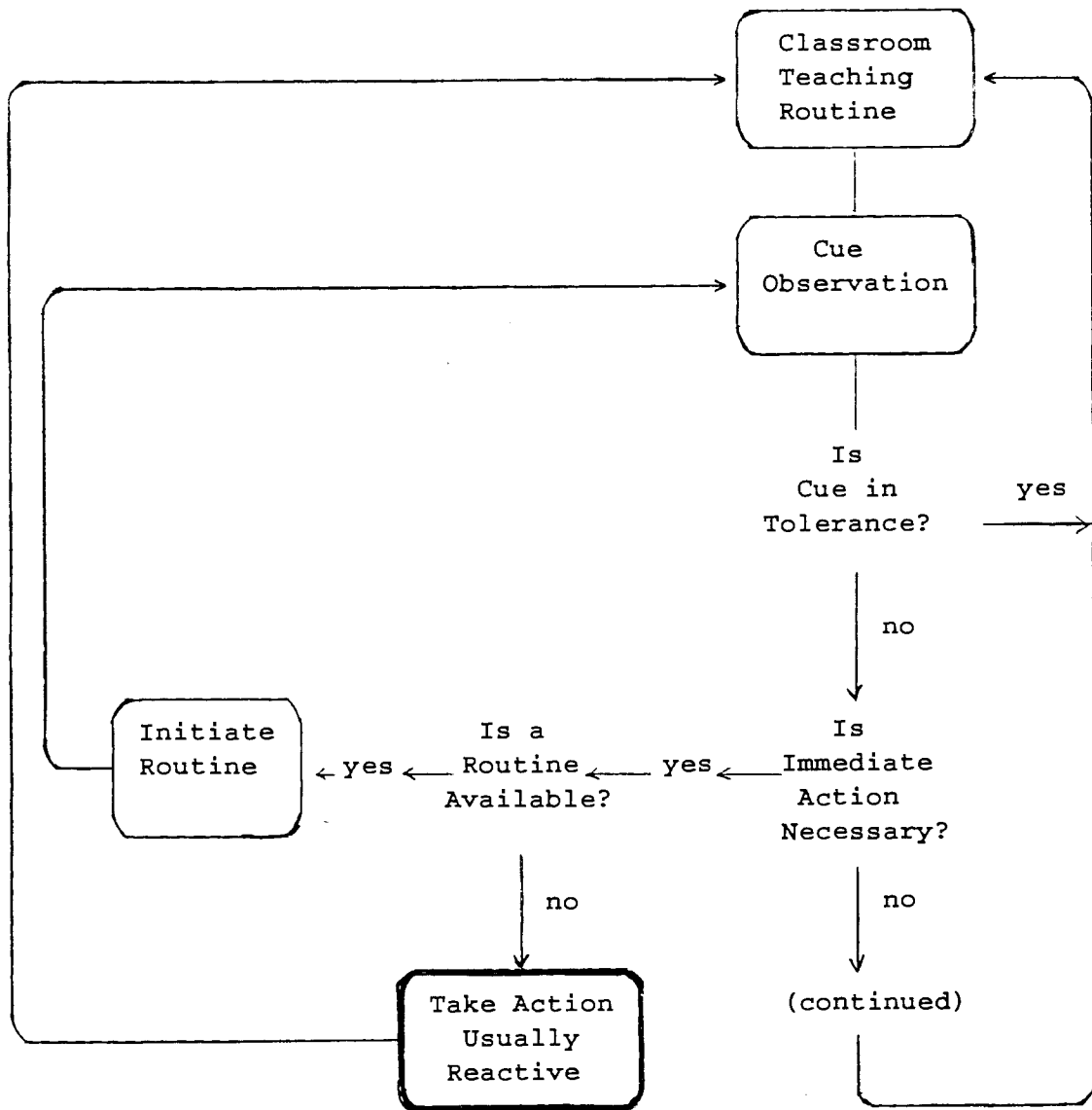
Fig. 3   Shavelson and Stern Decision-Making Model

Of particular interest is the situation in which some immediate action is felt to be necessary, but the teacher does not have an appropriate alternative routine at hand to modify the flow of the lesson in a manner designed to satisfy the demands associated with the cue. In the Shavelson and Stern model, the action which results is labelled as "Usually Reactive"; and the flow of the lesson is shown to return to the original teaching routine. The authors unfortunately do not comment further on the ramifications of this situation. However it would appear that the "unavailable routine" situation is one which most plagues novice teachers and which gives rise to inappropriate "coping strategies" of various types which are commonly observed during the practicum. These will be discussed later in Section 7.2.3).

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Joyce (1978-1979), in one of the earliest examples of teacher thinking research which adopted an information processing approach, viewed teacher decision-making as a series of overlapping dimensions related to the flow and perception of cues, seeing the decision-making process as beginning with the flow of cues (potential stimuli) from students:

> "The raw material for information processing consists of these cues. They are incredibly numerous and consist of the verbal and non-verbal behaviour. The cues are not independent of the tasks presented to the students by the teachers. The students are not free simply to behave - they respond to tasks, other children, and a variety of other influences from within and without the school."

Hence, teacher decision-making takes place within a complex and deterministic environment, driven (1978:76) by cues:

> "Nearly all teacher information-processing responses are to signals of off-task behaviour or inappropriate responses by the children. Most of the routines which are established are to bring about increased on-task behaviour and appropriate (substantively correct) response to instructional tasks."

Although the vast majority of cues identified by researchers were related in some way to pupil behaviour, other sources of "non-student" cues included such things as insufficient time left in the lesson, shortages of materials, late arrivals of aides, and other unforeseen factors.

It is of interest to note that practically all researchers agree on a definition of "interactive decision" as being a deliberate choice (i.e., taken after due consideration of alternatives) to implement a specific action. The "reactive" response incorporated into the Shavelson and Stern model (see above) would therefore not fall into this category. From an information processing point of view, however, one might argue that instinctive reaction and action taken after deliberation are all part of the same continuum, viz., actions taken toward the achievement of some given goal in some given environment in reaction to the sum total of conditions which exist at that point in time and which bear on the action. A formal cognitive model which incorporated all of the complexities of decision-making might make little distinction between deliberate action and instinctive reaction.

4.2.2 The Trend Toward an Information Processing Model

In addition to their review of research on planning, Clark and Peterson (1986) surveyed a collection of twelve studies on teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions carried out between 1975 and 1982. A few of these studies focused on the cognitive nature of the teachers' thoughts, i.e., their perceptions, interpretations, anticipations, and reflections. As Clark and Peterson (1986:272) pointed out, these categories came closer to describing the *processes* that teachers engage in during teaching and, as such, moved closer to a cognitive processing analysis of teaching similar to the analyses of human problem solving and decision making that have been conducted by cognitive psychologists.

However, research has consistently shied away from probing the nature of the information processing which goes on inside teachers' heads. As Clark and Peterson (1986:273) point out:

> "... because of the obvious methodological problems involved in any attempt to "probe the unconscious", most researchers have restricted their definitions and defined teachers' interactive decisions as a "conscious choice" by the teacher during classroom instruction."

With regard to the resistance of some researchers to adopt an information-processing model of teacher behaviour, Barnes (1989) elaborates on this in some detail in her paper on the structuring of knowledge for student teachers. After outlining current views on schema theory (Sternberg and Caruso, 1985; Posner, 1978; Schank and Abelson, 1977) she goes on to say (1989:15):

> "Not everyone agrees with this information-processing model of thinking. As researchers continue to explore what appears to many teacher educators to be a promising direction, Phillips (1979, 1983, 1986) has criticised this "contemporary" model on the grounds that cognitive structures cannot be objectively verified. Philips (1983) charges that researchers are confounding the logical structure of a discipline with the cognitive structure that emerges as a learner masters the subject. He says, "There is a serious lack of clarity among the researchers about what constitutes a structure, the relation between structures and processes, and the problem of inferring details about structures from behavioural data" (p. 61) Because researchers must infer what a person's cognitive structure might be from that person's performance, Phillips contends that researchers cannot know whether people are expressing a unique structuring of their cognitions or simply reiterating a content structure that they have been taught. In support of his

argument, Phillips asserts that many different cognitive structures could account for the same behaviour."

The current research, whose approach is clearly in the information-processing camp, is based on the belief that the nature of a person's cognitive structures (i.e., their schemata) *can* be inferred from their performance; this is one of the major goals of the current study.

4.2.3 Levels of Aspiration

The choices made at each decision point are not necessarily the optimum ones. Indeed, Simon (1979:17) perceives the human being as a "choosing organism of limited knowledge and ability". In relatively complex problem solving situations, limits of the time available and information processing capacity preclude an exhaustive search for the best possible alternative. Next-best "satisfactory" solutions must therefore be accepted, the acceptability of which is related to the individual's "aspiration level" at that point in time. If various highly satisfactory solutions come readily to mind, this aspiration level may be relatively high; where solutions are sparse and generally unsatisfactory, the aspiration level is reduced to accepting any solution which comes to hand. As Simon (1979:14) puts it:

> "A vague principle would be that as the individual, in his exploration of alternatives, finds it *easy* to discover satisfactory alternatives, his aspiration level rises; as he finds it *difficult* to discover satisfactory alternatives, his aspiration level falls."

This theory would find ready applicability to teaching. To the extent an experienced teacher has a repertoire of routines to fall back upon in any given situation, her aspirations can afford to be higher. In the case of a novice encountering a stressful situation and having no practicable alternatives at hand to fall back upon, the aspiration level would fall to the point where some inappropriate coping strategy would have to be resorted to.

Simon goes on to hypothesise that the aspiration level at any given point in time depends upon the previous history of the system, i.e., previous aspiration levels and previous levels of attainment. This can be applied to the teaching of a lesson: to the extent that experience with a class has been rewarding and fruitful up to any given point in the lesson, the teacher's goals and aspirations are apt to be relatively high. If, on the other hand, things have gone badly, her goals and aspirations would tend to be increasingly less demanding.

4.2.4 Condition-Action Systems/IF-THEN Rules

One explanation of human behaviour would appear to involve the manner in which people combine propositions into *IF-THEN* rules. Assuming that this is based on experience, it may be postulated that over time people build up vast arrays of such IF-THEN relationships in forms which might be crudely expressed as:

> IF   forecast-weather (rain)
> THEN bring (umbrella)

Sternberg and Caruso (1985:134) think of IF-THEN rules as being a representation of practical knowledge, which they define as "procedural information that is useful in one's everyday life." They view such practical knowledge as being stored in the form of productions, or condition-action sequences that implement actions when certain preconditions are met. Sequences of such productions are called "production systems".

How does one decide what practical knowledge, or productions, to use at a given point in a mental or behavioural sequence? Sternberg and Caruso (1985:136) hypothesise the existence of an "executive" to control such decision-making:

> "The executive for a production system is hypothesised to make its way down an ordered list of productions until one of the conditions is met. The action corresponding to that condition is executed, and control is returned again to the top of the list of productions. The executive then makes its way down the list again, as needed, trying to satisfy a condition. When it does so, an action is executed, control returns to the top, and so forth."

The number of productions which exist in long term memory must be immense. Obviously, one cannot afford to search through every one of them in an attempt to find a condition-action sequence appropriate to the situation at hand. Sternberg and Caruso (1985:136) quote Hunt and Poltrock as suggesting that the productions may be "probabilistically ordered" to expedite the search, that is, arranged in some manner so that those particular productions which bear on the problem at hand tend to be scanned first. Alternatively, an efficient and selective search mechanism may be one of the key features of the executive control routine.

Sternberg and Caruso (1985:138) consider the script as a complementary but more abstract form of knowledge representation which is useful as a guide for handling

stereotypical situations; however for the more detailed decision-making which is necessary for handling all of the variations from the stereotype, production systems are required:

> "What we are proposing, therefore, is that the script is only a very general form of representation, which must be supplemented by a finer form of representation, and thus level of organisation for practical knowledge. This finer-grain form of representation, we believe, is the production system. In effect, many production systems are embedded within the framework of a very general scriptal organisation of practical knowledge."

Production systems find another expression in the form of the "practical arguments" used by teachers.

4.2.5 The Concept of the Practical Argument

Teacher behaviour in the classroom may be thought of as a series of actions each of which are driven by sets of premises which Fenstermacher (1986) refers to as *practical arguments*. For all practical purposes these correspond to collections of IF-THEN rules.

Fenstermacher (1986:43) contrasts the nature of knowledge production (theory) versus knowledge use (practice). He points out that the logic of knowledge production consists of statements or propositions about the world which terminate in assertions, i.e., claims about events, states, or phenomena. In contrast to knowledge production, Fenstermacher sees the logic of knowledge *use* as also consisting of propositional statements; however in this case the logic terminates in actions rather than further assertions. He cites the following example:

Proposition : As a teacher, I want to teach in ways that yield as much student learning as possible.

Proposition : Well-managed classrooms yield gains in learning.

Proposition : Direct instruction is a proven way to manage classrooms.

Proposition : My students and I are together in this classroom

ACTION   : I am organising my class according to the principles of direct instruction

Fig. 4 A Condition/Action Sequence

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As Fenstermacher (1986:43) summarises this concept:

"The knowledge *production* argument consists entirely of assertions, and terminates in a statement that is tightly connected to the preceding premises. The conclusion can be more precisely phrased and its terms operationalised, then tested with standard methods. The knowledge *use* argument also contains assertions, some of them empirically testable: this argument, however, ends in an action - in a description of an agent doing something consistent with the premises that precede the action description."

Since actions follow inevitably from such premises, it is apparent (1986:44) that:

"Teachers themselves determine whatever new practices follow from modifications they make to their practical arguments. New practices are not determined by deducing strict rules of action from research findings."

The example in Fig. 4 is clearly an instance of IF-THEN rules where the IF's are represented by the propositions and the THEN is represented by the culminating action. Fenstermacher points out that the relevance of research for teaching practice can be understood as a matter of how directly the research relates to the practical arguments in the minds of teachers, and concludes (1986:44) that "empirical studies of the practical arguments in the minds of teachers, and how and why changes take place in these arguments would be extremely valuable."

This point relates directly to the one of the concerns of this research, viz., the manner in which the effectiveness of experiential learning - in this case at the IF-THEN level - can be understood and enhanced.

One way to investigate practical arguments in the minds of teachers is suggested by the work of Morine-Dershimer (1988), who used the concept of the practical argument to analyse textual data recorded from stimulated recall sessions with eight secondary student teachers. Principal focus of the research was to explore the *value conflicts* revealed in the student teachers' practical arguments and to examine how these conflicts were resolved in the course of the actions which resulted. In effect Morine-Dershimer was, after-the-fact, extracting the IF-THEN rules implicit in the textual data. With regard to the premises which constituted the students' practical arguments, she (1988:218) found that:

"A series of premises contributed to the decision to act, and these premises were of three types: situational premises described the context in which the

action occurred, as perceived by the actor; empirical premises were statements of principle denoting the consequences that might be expected to follow the action; and value premises indicated the desirable conditions that the actor associated with these consequences. These types of premises might be stated explicitly by a teacher discussing an action taken in an interactive lesson, or they might be implicit in the teacher's description of the event."

Direct links were found between the teachers' explicit (and implicit) reasoning and their behaviour, and the results suggested a variety of ways in which research on teaching might contribute to the improvement of student teachers' practical arguments. Morine-Dershimer (1988:229) concluded that:

"Analysis by pre-service teachers of case studies similar to the three presented here might also serve to point out characteristic situations and potential value conflicts, and make student teachers more readily aware of the values and beliefs they hold, and the value conflicts they themselves face."

4.3 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- A previous paradigm for research into teaching involved process-product studies which attempted to identify successful teaching techniques; however attempts to use these findings to influence teaching performance were of limited success since teachers tend to develop their own "style" which is resistant to change

- During the 70's the paradigm shifted to the study of teacher thinking and decision-making in an effort to understand why teachers do what they do

- Research findings indicate that teacher planning, like other complex problem-solving processes, tends to be structured in a hierarchical manner

- Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth developed a cognitive model of planning based on a "blackboard" system comprising high-level schemata and a hierarchical system of lower level "specialists" to influence planning at the lower levels of detail

- Novices tend to plan their lessons in greater detail than experienced teachers

- Learner-centred teaching approaches involve far more decision-making than teacher-centred approaches

- The Shavelson and Stern decision-making model reflects the need for a teacher to make interactive decisions based on cues from the classroom

- The processes used in teacher decision-making can be represented by an information-processing model

- A teacher's aspiration levels reflect the degree of success which she has had up to a given point in time with her teaching approaches in the classroom

- Condition/Action systems or IF/THEN rules form the basis for "practical arguments" which in turn determine the manner in which a teacher makes decisions in the classroom

5.0 CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE TEACHERS

To gain further insights into the *processes* which characterise teacher thinking, and from these to obtain clues as to the nature of the associated schemata, it is helpful to look at the *product,* i.e., classroom behaviour, which differentiates expert and novice teachers.

Considerable research has been carried out to identify the features which characterise effective teaching. Although such information has obvious implications for teacher training, the initial research in this area was driven primarily by a desire to establish clear-cut standards for evaluation of teacher performance as a basis for promotion and remuneration. More recently, such research has also been motivated by a desire to find ways to help teachers improve their teaching.

These efforts have spawned a proliferation of evaluation instruments; Barr and Evans, (1930) reported on 209 different rating scales being used to evaluate teachers in the United States. These rating scales were based on lists of character traits derived from research studies in which people were asked to list the qualities of "good" teachers they had known from their past experience. An example of such a survey was the Commonwealth Teacher Training Study (Charters and Waples, 1929), in which 25 qualities were identified of which the top 6 were adaptability, considerateness, enthusiasm, good judgement, honesty, and magnetism. All these studies were based upon the assumption that anyone who had ever been to school was a potential judge of teacher effectiveness.

5.1 PROCESS-PRODUCT STUDIES

In the 1970's researchers shifted to a more empirical approach to the study of teacher effectiveness. In these studies, researchers measured the degree of pupil learning by pre- and post-tests, and then attempted to correlate such learning with systematic classroom observation of teaching behaviours. As Medley (1982, quoted in Ryan, 1986:13) pointed out:

> "The process-product studies of the 1970's made important contributions to knowledge about effective teaching. They produced the first clear-cut usable findings obtained in 80 years of research into teacher effectiveness."

Research findings on teaching effectiveness through 1971 were summarised by Rosenshine and Furst (1971); a later review (O'Neill, 1988) incorporated these earlier findings and extended the overview up to 1985. In analysing process-product research outcomes, O'Neill identified the following as the most significant instructional factors:

I PREACTIVE STAGE:
    (1) learning environment
    (2) * teacher knowledge
    (3) teacher organisation
    (4) curricular materials

II INTERACTIVE STAGE:
    (5) teacher expectations
    (6) teacher enthusiasm
    (7) classroom climate
    (8) classroom management
    (9) teacher clarity
    (10) advance organisers
    (11) instructional mode
    (12) questioning level
    (13) direct instruction
    (14) time-on-task
    (15) * variability
    (16) monitoring and pacing
    (17) * teacher flexibility

III POSTACTIVE STAGE:
    (18) feedback
    (19) teacher praise
    (20) teacher criticism

* = limited research findings.

However, there was increasing debate as to the validity of process-product findings because it became evident that the contextual variables operating in the classroom had more of an effect on pupil learning than any observable differences in teacher behaviour.

5.2 NOVICE VERSUS EXPERT TEACHER COMPARISONS

In the 1980's, the emphasis in teacher effectiveness research shifted once again, this time to focus on the manner in which novice teachers planned and taught in the classroom as compared to expert teachers. Berliner (1986:5) has pointed out the need to make such

comparisons in order to better understand those traits which research has indicated to be important in teaching.

The study of the manner in which novice teachers develop their teaching skills gives insights into the nature of pedagogical knowledge and its development. As Shulman (1987:4) observed:

> "Their development from students to teachers, from a state of expertise as learners through a noviciate as teachers exposes and highlights the complex bodies of knowledge and skill needed to function effectively as a teacher. The result is that error, success, and refinement - in a word, teacher-knowledge growth - are seen in high profile and in slow motion. The neophyte's stumble becomes the scholar's window."

Comparisons of expert versus novice teacher behaviour may be expected to provide insights into the nature of their schemata which underlie the difference in behaviour. Berliner (1986:10) reported that their findings in this area apparently replicate those of Calderhead (1983), who:

> "... noted that experienced teachers seemed to have different schemata than novice teachers for students... He reported that the experienced teachers seemed to know the different home backgrounds of students, they knew what to expect in the way of knowledge and skills in their classrooms, they had an image of the likely number of students who would need help, and they had an image of the types of behaviours and discipline problems that could be expected. They knew what the students might possess in the way of previous experience, skills, and knowledge. And the teachers had a sense of what kinds of activities the children engaged in outside of school."

Leinhardt and Greeno (1986), in a landmark study of novice versus expert teachers, made detailed lesson observations with a view to determining the schemata used by both kinds of teachers and identifying features of their teaching which appeared to differ. They found (1986:94) that experienced teachers had a repertoire of approximately 15 routines which they used in a well-practised manner to maintain the activity flow of the lesson whereas novices, lacking such routines, displayed a constantly changing pattern in how they performed their activities. Differences were also found between experts and novices with regard to their ability to retain clearly defined information and maintain control of the lesson agenda.

Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) surveyed various experimental studies which attempted to identify the kinds of behaviour which seemed to characterise effective teaching. Based on the results of these studies, they developed (1986:379) a general model of effective instruction consisting of six fundamental instructional "functions" as follows:

1. Review, check previous day's work (and reteach, if necessary)
2. Present new content/skills
3. Guided student practice (and check for understanding)
4. Feedback and correctives (and reteach, if necessary)
5. Independent student practice
6. Weekly and monthly reviews

These instructional functions may prove to be relevant in the analysis of lesson phases (see Chapter 12).

5.3 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- Early interest in defining "effective" teaching spawned a proliferation of evaluation instruments which contributed little to the improvement of teacher education

- Empirical process-product studies made in the 1970's identified significant instructional factors related to effective teaching

- During the 1980's, emphasis in teacher education research shifted to focus on the differences between novice and expert teachers

- Experienced teachers were found to have a repertoire of routines which they used in a well-practised manner to maintain the activity flow of their lessons whereas novice teachers, lacking such routines, displayed changing patterns in the manner in which they performed their activities

- Rosenshine and Stevens identified a total of six basic kinds of "instructional functions" which appeared to characterise effective teaching

6.0 THE NATURE OF EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

Teaching is universally acknowledged to be a practical skill-based occupation in which professional development is achieved principally through "hands-on" experience in the classroom. As discussed previously, much research appears to point to the existence of varying levels of schemata to represent the complex information associated with such skills. It therefore follows that teacher education can be informed by insights from the study of *experiential learning*, which can be broadly defined as a cyclical process in which the individual adapts and integrates the knowledge gleaned from her everyday practical experience into existing schemata in such a manner as to be better able to cope with the future demands of the environment.

6.1 EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING

The concept of experiential learning is somewhat nebulous due to the fact that the term has been used in different ways by different people for a diversity of purposes.

Weil and McGill (1989) have categorised experiential learning into four "villages" of application and research: (1) post-school adult education, (2) accreditation of prior experiential learning for non-traditional students, (3) personal growth and learner autonomy, and (4) social change and empowerment. The "village" of primary interest for purposes of this discussion is (1), which is the one most concerned with professional development. Teacher education has, of course, long acknowledged the importance of experiential components and has incorporated various mechanisms for "hands-on" experience including micro-teaching, early field experience, and the practicum.

Three principal features of experiential learning are of relevance to the present study. Firstly, and as various researchers (Boud and Pascoe, 1978; Rodgers, 1983; Knowles, 1986) have pointed out, for maximum benefit experiential learning should take place in a learner-centred environment in which the learner is aware of the personal relevance of the learning which is taking place. Such awareness promotes the integration of learning into existing schemata. Secondly, as per (Kolb, 1984), the "process is more important than the outcome", i.e., inculcating the habit of experiential learning as a continuing modus

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operandi should be a principal focus. Thirdly, (Weil and McGill, 1989), an important aspect of experiential learning should be to help the learner relate the declarative knowledge of theory to the procedural knowledge of experience, thus leading to an improved understanding of one's professional practice.

6.1.1 Experiential Learning as Practical Knowledge

The type of knowledge which arises out of experiential learning is by its nature "practical". Sternberg and Caruso (1985) define practical knowledge in terms of information which is useful in everyday life, and point out (1985:143) that since such knowledge is of a procedural nature, it must be acquired by doing, not just by listening or reading. To a limited extent this knowledge can be transmitted through mediated learning (1985:144), in which the mediator "selects and organises stimuli that are most appropriate and then frames, filters, and schedules them" for the maximum advantage of the learner. However the most effective way to absorb such procedural knowledge is through tacit learning, or direct "hands on" experience.

Sternberg and Caruso posit that direct instruction (such as the theories taught in coursework) are of limited use in influencing subsequent behaviour. Such knowledge is generally represented (and hence stored) in declarative form, and is therefore not likely to be readily accessible for practical use. Also, practical knowledge is closely linked to the context of its use, and direct instruction is not an efficient way to link knowledge to context. This phenomenon appears to be related to the manner in which information is retrieved from memory based on the context in which it was originally learned. As they point out (1985:149):

> "Tulving and Thomson have proposed an encoding specificity principle
> whereby knowledge will be retrieved only if the retrieval cues available at
> the time of access match the cues which were encoded with an item of
> knowledge. The circumstances of learning and of use may be so different in
> direct instruction of practical knowledge that the information is inaccessible
> because of the mismatch between cues learned at the time of storage with
> respect to those needed at the time of retrieval."

The fact that much, if not most, of the knowledge which comprises the expertise of an expert teacher is tacit poses challenges to teacher educators. As Sternberg and Caruso point out (1985:156):

> "Practical knowledge is procedural and often tacit. It is thus harder to teach and even to identify than are many other kinds of knowledge. For the most part, we are not even aware of the practical knowledge we have."

Given this awareness, they put forth a number of recommendations for optimising the transfer of such knowledge by direct instruction, viz., (1) the instruction should be as concrete as possible and should emphasise use of the knowledge; (2) the instruction should emphasise condition-action relations and integrate them with each other and with other kinds of relations, such as those in semantic networks; and (3) the instruction should take into account how knowledge is organised in the mind of the learner, not just in the mind of the teacher.

6.1.2 The Kolb Model of Experiential Learning

Kolb (1984:42) formulated an experiential learning cycle as per Fig. 5 below. This appears to be the most universally accepted model in use at the moment.

```
        ┌────────► (1) Concrete experience ────────────┐
        │                                              \
        │                                               │
(4) Active                                      (2) Reflective
    experimentation                                 observation
        ▲                                               │
        │                                               │
        └────────  (3) Abstract          ◄─────────────┘
                       conceptualization
```
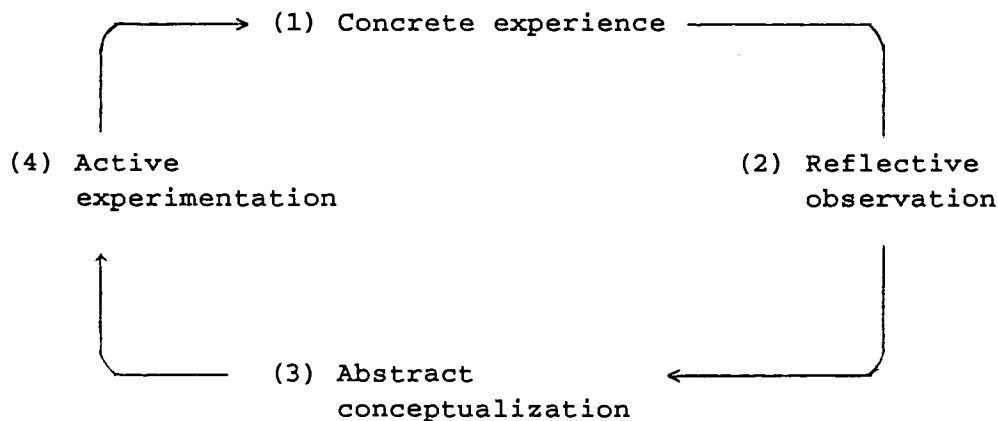
Fig. 5 Kolb's (1984) Model of Experiential Learning

In the above diagram, learning is thought of as a cycle of four stages. Taking immediate concrete experience as starting point, such experience then forms the basis for observation

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and reflection. These observations are in turn assimilated into a theory from which new implications for action can be deduced, in turn leading to new concrete experiences.

Kolb hypothesised that each stage of the learning cycle requires a somewhat different kind of learning ability. The four stages were thought of as lying along two major dimensions: concrete/abstract as relating to experience and conceptualisation, and active/reflective as relating to experimentation and observation. Any given individual would tend to have strengths in certain of these dimensions, but would have to develop the skills to operate along the full range of dimensions if they were to be effective.

Dewey 1938	Lewin 1951	Piaget 1971	Kolb and Fry 1975
Impulse	Concrete Experience	Experience	Concrete Experience
Observation	Observation and Reflection	Concept	Observation and Reflection
Knowledge	Formation of Concepts and Generalisations	Reflection	Formation of Abstract Concepts and Generalisations
Judgement	Testing Implications of Concepts in New Situations	Action	Testing Implications of Concepts in New Situations

Fig 6   Evolution of the Experiential Learning Cycle

Fig. 6 is basically a continuation of the models put forth by Dewey (1938) as further adapted by Lewin (1951), Piaget (1971), and Kolb and Fry (1975). The main influence on Kolb, however, is the Lewin model of 1951 (see Fig. 6 above).

6.1.3 Further Refinement of the Kolb Model

Jarvis (1987) modified Kolb's (1984) model to reflect a somewhat more complex cycle in which learning might take place to varying degrees depending on the biographical background which the subject brought to the experience. The meaning that people give to their experience is (1987:169) "...quite subjective, and knowledge is created by a synthesis

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of previous knowledge and perception of their present experience." As he observes (1987:166):

> "Only when people give meaning to their experience in a situation does it actually have meaning. But the experience that one person has is different from that of another person in the same socio-cultural-temporal situation, so that their interpretations of the situation are different. These different interpretations occur not only because people have different experiences in the same situation but also because they bring a unique constellation of previous experiences to each social situation."

The above observations have implications for teacher education, in that the experiences which each student teacher brings to the practicum will affect the degree to which and the manner in which that person extracts useful experience from teaching practice.

```
Self with                                      Previous Experience
Biographical ━━━▶  Potential Learning  ━━━▶   Confirmed: Self
History            Experience      ╲           Reinforced
                          ╱          ╲
                        ╱              ╲
Active  ◢             ╱                 ◣      Reflection
Experimentation  ╲   ╱                        ╱
                  ╲ ╱                        ╱
                   ◣         ◢
                      Evaluation
                          │
                          ▼
                   Internalisation  ━━━▶   A More
                                            Experienced Person
```
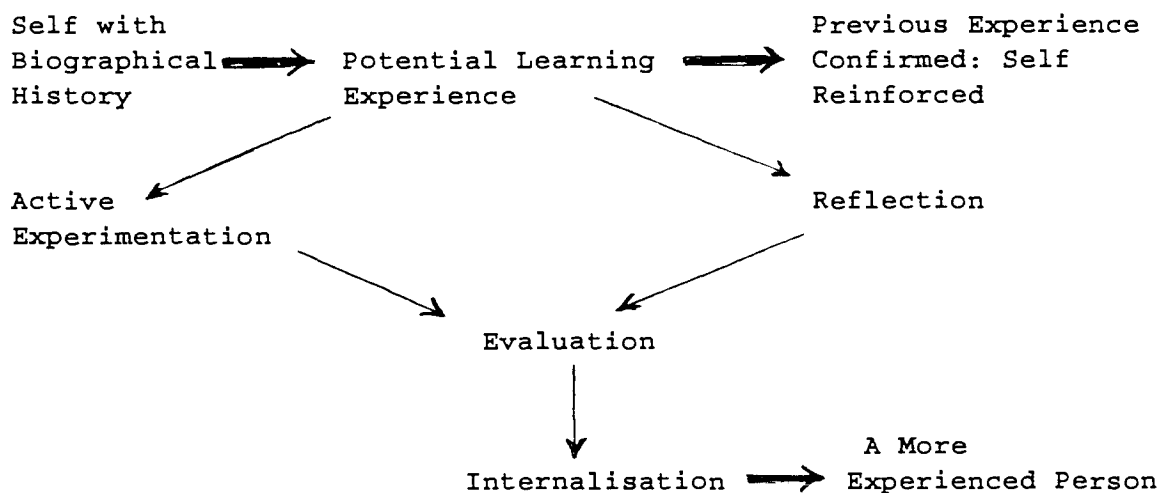
Fig 7   A Revised Model of the Learning Process (Jarvis, 1987)

6.2 REFLECTION

In all of the above models of experiential learning, reflection plays an important part in the process. Reflection has become a much discussed teacher training component as well as research topic.

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6.2.1 The Role of Reflection

The role of "reflection" on past performance is a potentially powerful means of modifying entrenched belief structures. The concept as applied to education goes back at least as far as Dewey (1933). As Armaline and Hoover (1989:43) point out:

> "Perhaps the most well-articulated response to the problem of students and teachers' relying on rigid knowledge structures is Dewey's (1933) notion of reflective thinking. Dewey's notion embodies the idea that critical reflection is insurance against dogmatic or thoughtless perspectives on teaching and schooling. It may be seen as a significant step toward developing an antidote for teacher reliance on mythology and fiction."

The term was popularised by Schon (1983) in his oft-quoted work *The Reflective Practitioner*, in which he differentiated between two types of reflection: "reflection-*ON*-action" and "reflection-*IN*-action". The former refers to what one would normally think of as "reflection", i.e., an after-the-fact evaluation of one's behaviour with a view toward evaluating its strengths and weaknesses and developing improved strategies for the future. Reflection-in-action referred to the changes in belief structures which occur "on the run", as it were, through dynamic responses to changing situations.

A later work (Schon, 1987) focused on the application of his concepts of reflection to the field of education. Still later, Schon (1991) collected a series of papers to illustrate various uses of both types of reflection in educational practice.

Stimulated by Schon's works, considerable literature has been generated during the last decade concerning the use of reflection in education. Richardson (1990), provides an overview of the history of reflective teaching and teacher education. Grimmett and Erickson (1988) and Clift et al (1990) respectively present collections of papers dealing with the use of reflective practice in education. Wallace (1991) and Richards and Lockhart (1994) have related this concept to English language teaching.

6.2.2 Approaches to Fostering Reflection

Various approaches have been taken to promoting the concept of reflection during pre-service teacher training. Cruikshank (1981) reported on a "new, on-campus laboratory teaching experience" implemented at Ohio State University which purported to promote

reflection within the context of a modified kind of micro-teaching program based on a series of about 30 so-called Reflective Teaching Lessons (RTLs). In this system, pre-service teachers are split up into small groups of 4-6 students, one member is designated as the teacher, and all "teachers" teach the same RTL during a given micro-teaching session. This is followed by individual group discussions which are in turn were followed by an overall instructor-conducted seminar to share views as to the effectiveness of the variety of teaching methods used and their perceived effect.

A number of researchers have commented on the importance of having someone else to discuss one's thoughts with as a means of promoting reflection, which concept is somewhat analogous to the benefits of joint narrative inquiry as promoted by the many papers of Connelly and Clandinin. Boud (1985) observes that having a "good listener" can be helpful for purposes of discussion and self-examination, and that the listening role can profitably be assumed by another student teacher:

> "Not only can teachers or facilitators adopt the important listening role but they can also suggest a variety of techniques which may be appropriate at each stage. To provide this assistance the helper need not be in a formal teacher-learner relationship with the learner, substantial benefits can be gained by peer-assisted learning at a formal or informal level (Cornwall, 1979)..."

Knight (1985) similarly puts forth the point that reflection is most profound when it is done aloud with the aware attention of another person. In this case, he focuses on the "pure listener" mode, stressing the importance of being able to listen with interest and appreciation without interrupting or engaging in discussion.

A number of educators have found peer observation and feedback to be useful in promoting reflection among pre-service teachers. As Bullough (1989:19) points out:

> "Peer observation and discussion... have proven to be important tools for developing skill in reflective decision making (Gitlin, 1981) as well as for developing collegiality and caring, two values essential for building professional community."

Skuja (1987, 1990) reports on experiences in Singapore, where a programme to assign student teachers in pairs during the practicum has been underway for over seven years.

Students operate alternately in observing and teaching roles, and provide feedback to each other on the perceived strengths and weaknesses of their teaching. This approach, coupled with weekly journal keeping, has been felt to significantly improve student propensities for reflection. Insights gained through such peer feedback are shared with other student teachers through periodic seminars. Goodman (1984) also endorses the use of seminars as an awareness raising mechanism to promote reflection.

Walker (1985:65) also found the combination of journal-keeping and discussion helpful in promoting reflection, and commented that his student teachers:

> "...found that by noting important learning experiences, and by recording their reflection on them, they were much more aware of the growth taking place. They could actually see the learning process as it was unfolding in their life. That meant that they were not just taking new knowledge, and integrating it into their life, but they were also learning about the process by which that was being done."

6.2.3 Problems in Implementing Reflective Practices

Zeichner and Liston (1987) outlined the aims and concepts underpinning the Wisconsin elementary student teaching program, described aspects of its organisational structure and curricular plan, and summarised findings from eight studies which revealed aspects of the programme's curriculum-in-use. They found various problems in inculcating a reflective approach in students within the short time span of the practicum. Some of these problems (1987:40) echo the observations of Calderhead regarding the view of teacher training as an experiential, rather than a reflective, process:

> "The historically dominant and common-sense view of student teaching as an exercise in apprenticeship... has made it difficult for program personnel to establish the legitimacy of inquiry and reflection within the student teaching program".

Another problem (1987:42) related to the short time span of the practicum:

> "Our experience has taught us that much unlearning has to go on before most students are willing to accept the need for a more reflective approach to teaching. The time devoted to this task, within a 15-week semester, may be far too brief to overcome the influence of prior experience and commonly held expectations regarding the purposes of student teaching."

Calderhead (1989:46) focuses on the problems encountered in fostering reflection among student teachers who as yet do not have a sufficient understanding of teaching to fully profit by the experience:

> "Student teachers... appear to lack the analytical skills to examine their own practice - they lack a language for talking about teaching, and sometimes fail to understand the comments which supervisors make on their performance, and they lack the knowledge of a repertoire of alternative teaching approaches (and clear ideas about the criteria one might use in judging alternatives) which they might draw upon to evaluate their own teaching."

He quotes (1989:47) Russell (1988) as having reached similar conclusions:

> "Russell (1988), having carried out a series of case studies of student and experienced teachers, suggests that the early stages of learning to teach are generally characterised by the mastery of classroom routines, and it may only be after achieving a basic mastery and a sense of comfort with their own practice that students are able to reflect upon their work, examining it in the light of their more abstract and theoretical knowledge about teaching. Reflection, in the general sense of an appraisal of one's own work, may require not only the possession of certain knowledge, critical skills, and a way of conceptualising one's own learning as a reflective process, but also a basic practical competence together with some degree of self-confidence."

Calderhead subsequently notes (1989:48) that the task of evaluating their own lessons depends on knowledge which students do not possess. To answer various questions about their own teaching requires the student teacher to "draw upon knowledge of alternative teaching approaches, of children's typical performance and achievement, of criteria for judging teaching. Students may well lack the knowledge that enables the necessary comparisons and evaluations to be made."

6.3 FOCUSING ON THE PERSONAL

An important element to be considered in connection with experiential learning is the diverse nature of the student teacher intake, which calls for a high degree of individual attention if the training experience is to be optimised for each student. Lortie (1975:77) emphasised the importance of the personal element in learning to become a teacher:

> "... to be adopted, a practice must be seen as consistent with the receiver's personality and "way of doing things". They portray the diffusion of

classroom practices as passing through the screen of the teacher's
self-concept - of the way he visualises his peculiar style of work. Thus the
individualism and gatekeeping we saw earlier are reaffirmed: the teacher
mediates between ideas and their use in terms of the kind of teacher he is."

Two approaches which foster personal development include the use of narrative inquiry
and biography. Another tool for developing understanding of where an individual is
"coming from" is the repertory grid.

6.3.1 The Use of Narrative

A form of reflective activity advocated by some researchers is the use of *narrative* to help
teachers gain insights into their personal approaches to teaching. Connelly and Clandinin
(1988:24) define narrative as:

"...the study of how humans make meaning of experience by endlessly
telling and retelling stories about themselves that both refigure the past and
create purpose in the future."

In a later paper, Clandinin and Connelly (1990:245) define it as:

"the making of meaning from personal experience via a process of
reflection in which story telling is the key element and in which metaphors
and folk knowledge take their place."

A series of papers (Connelly and Clandinin, 1987, 1988, 1990; Clandinin and Connelly,
1990, 1991) explore various aspects of the use of narrative as a research tool. The
implication is that each time a person retells or reflects upon a "story" involving his
personal life, new elements of recent experience are incorporated into the retelling such as
to foster a continuing process of personal growth, i.e., ever richer perceptions of and
responses to the multiple dimensions of that person's environment. Clandinin and Connelly
(1991:259) say:

"If we accept that one of the basic human forms of experience of the world
is as story ... and if, further, we take the view that the storied quality of
experience is both unconsciously restoried in life and consciously storied,
retold, and relived through processes of reflection, then the rudiments of
method are born in the phenomenon of narrative. Deliberately storying and
restorying one's life... is, therefore, a fundamental method of personal (and
social) growth."

As a tool for gaining a better understanding of one's personal narrative, the authors recommend activities such as keeping journals and writing one's own biography, followed by periods of reflection to reveal clues to "where one is coming from" and to shape courses of action for the future. More interactive tools which can be used by participants to enhance understanding of each other include story telling, letter writing, interviews, and participant observation.

Arising out of all of the foregoing is an increased awareness of one's own *personal practical knowledge*, which embodies all of the various elements of one's knowledge about teaching. Such knowledge includes rules of practice and practical principles which guide one's behaviour in the classroom, as well as more abstract concepts such as the personal philosophy, metaphors, and images which guide such behaviour in intangible ways.

6.3.2 Biography

Another methodological approach which provides a holistic perspective on teacher's views of teaching is the use of biography, which Berk (1980:90) defines as "the formative history of an individual's life experience". The purpose of biographical study, in an educational context, is to examine a teacher's attitudes, feelings, thoughts and actions over time, and come to understand how these, in turn, have led to certain educationally-oriented outcomes. As phrased by Berk (1980:94):

> "Biographic study is a disciplined way of interpreting a person's thought
> and action in light of his or her past."

Biography would appear to have much in common with narrative inquiry (see Section 6.3.1 above; and also Connelly and Clandinin below). Butt (1984:96) compares narrative with biography by pointing out that:

> "The narrative form is on an integrated life history, whereby all experiences
> in every aspect of the subject's life are candidates for inclusion in the
> narrative story."

That is, narrative is only one particular form of biography, one which throws up a myriad of facts and experiences not all of which may be relevant to any given area of study. Other

forms of biography might include such instruments as psychological case history notes, from which the key biographical factors bearing on any particular issue might be *inferred*, rather than explicitly stated. As Butt (1984:96) goes on to point out:

> "Analytic, psychoanalytic, or psychological biographies emphasise understanding individual case histories in psychology, through the lenses peculiar to that discipline. They are therefore quite different in appearance and style, therefore, from a narrative life history."

Butt suggests that biographical and autobiographical accounts of teacher's lives can be useful in helping "outsiders" to learn about classroom realities and to gain an understanding of what he terms the "teacher's voice", i.e., (1984:100) "... the tone, the quality, the feelings that are conveyed by the way a teacher speaks..." as reflecting her views and perspectives on teaching. As regards a biographical methodology, Butt observes that (1984:100) "...conversations, interviews, observations, video and audiotapes, field notes, stimulated recall, 'stream of consciousness' journals, and logs, are all legitimate means by which data might be gathered for the purposes of biography." The most difficult and tedious work, however, is the interpretation of the data. As an example of such analysis he cites Berk (1980) who "searches for educational episodes, which are moments of insight, moments which change us, *gestalts* that provide a leap forward, a way of resolving a conflict, or of surviving." Such educational experiences presumably provide the background to observed changes in professional growth which have taken place over the period in question.

Butt cites Grumet's (1980) work on the use of autobiography as a tool for helping teachers to "reconceptualise curriculum in personal and concrete terms." The biographical summary of the subject's educational experiences can be analysed to "... reveal previously unknown interests and biases, again raising consciousness and thus allowing for conscious recon-ceptualisation of their lives - and their curricula."

In a comparative discussion, Connolly and Clandinin (1987:130) recapitulate their views on the usefulness of narrative inquiry (see Section 6.3.1 above) and compare this method with the biographical approaches taken by six other researchers (Pinar, Grumet, Darroch and Silvers, Berk and Butt) by examining the similarities and differences between the two.

The principal contrast they see is that in biography the primary objective is to reveal something about the individual subjects to foster the long-term ends of conscious reconceptualisations and subsequent personal growth; whereas in narrative the emphasis is on the definition of teachers' personal practical knowledge, i.e., (1987:137):

> "... whereas the plot in biography is primarily an historical rendering of a person, in narrative the focus is on the ways in which classroom actions are meaningful to a teacher."

They conclude (1987:138):

> "Ultimately, the most important differences between narrative and biography for the study of teaching have to do with the research purposes to which each may be put. The methods of biography and autobiography... are used primarily for personal reflection. While narrative has this quality because of its collaborative method, its ultimate purpose is to develop and understanding of the teaching process more generally and to develop a language of classrooms tied to the emotional, moral and aesthetic character of classroom life."

Powell (1985) suggests the use of autobiographical write-ups as an aid to reflection on the pros and cons of one's own experience within the educational system. Applegate et al. (1989) describes the use of the "Learning to Teach Autobiography" as a means for examining students' perceptions of teaching with a view toward determining whether they are developing reflective behaviours/insights.

6.3.3 Personal Constructs
A further way of understanding an individual's personal approach to teaching involves the concept of personal constructs.

George Kelly (1955, 1970) postulated that an important purpose of our thought processes is to be able to anticipate, and thus develop appropriate responses to, future events. This anticipation is in turn governed by the way in which we construe objects and events, i.e., the manner in which some things are seen as being alike and yet different from other things. Over time, these ways of interpretation are built up into a complex hierarchical system of *personal constructs* which govern the way in which we interact with the world.

Kelly developed a system of so-called *repertory grids* to explore an individual's personal construct system. *Elements* related in some way to the issues being explored are grouped across the top of the grid. During development of a typical grid these elements are considered in random groups of three and the subject is asked to provide some term or phrase which describes how two of the elements are different in some way from the third element. The descriptors become the *constructs*. Relative ratings, typically from 1 to 5, are assigned to each of the elements on each row to indicate the extent to which they rank on the constructs of that row. After completion the grid is analysed mathematically to reveal the manner in which the subject's constructs are clustered, i.e., the manner in which she construes certain concepts relative to other concepts. For example, several of a teacher's constructs about people, such as neat-untidy and motivated-unmotivated, might be tightly clustered in such a manner as to suggest that the teacher tends to construe neat pupils as being motivated and untidy pupils as being unmotivated.

Since the original formulation of the theory by Kelly, various works (e.g., Francella and Bannister, 1977; Adams-Webber, 1979; Shaw, 1981; Bannister, 1985; Francella and Thomas, 1988) have reported on further developments in repertory grid technology and have offered tutorials on their use and application. Considerable work in an educational context has been carried out at the Centre for the Study of Human Learning at Brunel University (e.g., Thomas and Harri-Augstein, 1985).

Easterby-Smith (1981) provides a clear exposition of the steps involved in the design, analysis and interpretation of repertory grids. Various computerised systems for analysis of such grids have been developed, including **G-PACK** (University of Wollongong) and **FOCUS/SOCIOGRIDS** (Brunel University, as described by Shaw and Thomas, 1978). The resulting computer printouts of statistics and graphical dendrograms illustrate the degree of clustering, i.e., the extent to which certain constructs are perceived with relationship to other constructs.

A number of researchers have used repertory grids in educational contexts. Hunt (1980) presented a do-it-yourself grid procedure designed to permit a teacher to identify his/her implicit theories about teaching and learning. Munby (1982) explored the constructs of a single case study to reveal the beliefs and principles underlying the teacher's approach to

teaching. Diamond (1985) surveyed Diploma in Education students at three points during a year-long course to explore changes in their perceptions of teaching and of people.

Yorke (1987:37) critiqued much of the work done to date with repertory grids in educational applications, pointing out that:

> "Where the evidence is provided, it is noticeable that grid constructs tend to be general and, in themselves, not particularly illuminating. However, in most of these studies the researchers incorporated additional approaches to the collection of data, typically using interviews. Extracts from transcripts and field notes suggest that the non-grid data is the more substantial source of the researchers' understanding of the teachers' thinking, and that the grids' major contribution has been the provision of agendas for subsequent discussion - a contribution often bought at considerable cost in terms of the researchers' time and effort."

That is, in view of the somewhat intangible conclusions which may be drawn from the results of repertory grids, the construct clusters are perhaps most useful as "conversation starters" for open-ended interviews with the subjects.

6.4 EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING AND THE EFFECT ON SCHEMATA

Of particular interest to this study is the manner in which experiential learning results in modifications to student teacher schemata and/or the extent to which such schemata resist change during the training period.

6.4.1 Tenacity of Entrenched Schemata

During pre-service teacher training, the precepts taught in coursework are apt to have limited impact on student teachers' perceptions of how to teach. In effect, an attempt is being made to modify experience-oriented knowledge structures through input of content-oriented information.

Ben-Peretz (1986:1) refers to the apparent resistance of student teachers to using the precepts of coursework in their teaching during the practicum as one of the factors which lead to increased research into teacher thinking:

"Other practical problems [which led to increased research into teacher thinking] arose from the phenomenon that theories once learnt during teacher education seemed to evaporate from the teachers knowledge. Prospective teachers are taught theories concerning pedagogy, psychology and subject matter areas, but experienced teachers claim that it was necessary for them to forget all theories from university and to learn the real 'practice' in the classroom."

Although student teachers appear to absorb many of the teaching principles of coursework, only to abandon these when faced with the realities of the practicum, the phenomenon may be explained by what Shipman (1967) refers to as "impression management" on the part of students (see Section 7.1 for further discussion).

Student teachers come into pre-service training with a well-developed set of beliefs regarding teaching. These beliefs have been accumulated over thousands of hours of experience as pupils in the classroom (see Section 7.2.6) and tend to be highly resistant to change.

This phenomenon of "theory maintenance" is discussed by Nisbett and Ross (1980:179), who observe that people tend to cling to established beliefs:

"The evidence suggests that Bacon was correct in his assertion that 'the human understanding when it has once adopted an opinion draws all things to support and agree with it' (1960, p50). Conflicting evidence is treated as if it were supportive of beliefs, impressions formed on the basis of early evidence survive exposure to inconsistent evidence presented later, and beliefs survive the total discrediting of their evidence base. Why do people persevere in adhering to beliefs and theories?"

Interestingly, they go on to point out (1980:192) that this tendency to cling to established beliefs may have a higher order rationale:

"In particular, it seems possible that the behaviour of subjects, inappropriate as it is from the standpoint of rationality in the inferential contexts studied, may arise from pursuit of important, higher order epistemic goals. Two such possible superordinate goals are (a) the importance of stability to beliefs and belief-systems, even despite occasional logical inconsistency and (b) real-world constraints on time, which may prohibit the careful and dispassionate perusal and integration of all new evidence pertinent to any particular belief."

Given the fact that such belief structures are resistant to change, how does one make allowances for this phenomenon when designing a teacher training curriculum? Nisbett and Ross (1980:192) suggest that efforts to raise the level of awareness in people as to their built-in biases might facilitate the absorption of new knowledge:

"...the normative questions here [i.e., how one goes about modifying entrenched beliefs] admit at least partial resolution by (admittedly arduous) empirical means: Would people be so inclined to persevere in their beliefs if they knew about their confirmation biases and overconfident causal analyses?"

Further research in this area would appear to be warranted. Campbell (1985:267) suggests that researchers still need to look into the relationship between student teacher beliefs and the acquisition of new knowledge about teaching.

6.4.2 Changes Which Take Place During the Training Year

Prior to teaching practice, student teachers are inculcated with a variety of pedagogical concepts during coursework. One would expect that, during the practicum, these precepts would gradually be integrated into the student's teaching approaches. However most researchers seem to be in agreement that in fact little adjustment takes place; students tend to revert to their preconceived views of teaching. This tendency to revert to the teaching styles to which they had been exposed as pupils had previously been commented upon by Lortie (1975:231), who observed that "education students have usually internalised - in part unconsciously - the practices of their own teachers."

Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) made a survey of university supervisors, cooperating teachers, and 13 student teachers to determine the overall impact of the practicum on the student teachers. They concluded (1984:33) that:

"With regard to the question of the strength of the impact of student teaching, our analyses of interviews and observations with students, and interviews with co-operating teachers and university supervisors, over-whelmingly indicate that student teaching did not significantly alter the substance of the teaching perspectives that the 13 students brought to the experience. On the contrary... teaching perspectives *solidified* but did not *change* fundamentally over the course of the 15-week semester."

They found (1984:33) that rather than absorbing the precepts of the preceding coursework, the student teachers tended to settle into a set of perspectives congruent with the preconceived notions of teaching which they had originally brought to the training experience:

> "As we analysed and re-analysed the perceptions of co-operating teachers, university supervisors, and student teachers, and our own observations and interviews with students regarding the issue of continuity/discontinuity, it became increasingly clear that the dominant trend was for teaching perspectives to develop and grow in a direction consistent with the "latent culture" that students brought to the experience"

Griffin et al (1983:46), after a survey of teacher education in Texas, similarly emphasised:

> "It can be concluded that participants in this study changed modestly in terms of three of the constructs included in the present study (concerns, flexibility, educational preference). For other constructs, however, there were no changes noted across the sample. This leads to the speculative conclusion that the student teaching experience, at least for this group of participants, was not powerful enough to alter what may be deep-seated personal and professional characteristics."

Coulter (1980:23) observed a forty-minute lesson given by each of 40 student teachers at the beginning and again at the end of the year in which initial practice teaching occurred, and concluded:

> "The profile which emerged for the group as a whole on both occasions resembled that of a teacher-dominated, content-laden, cognitively-oriented, task-focused lesson in which teacher questioning tended to be convergent and where there was minimal interaction between pupils. There was little evidence of any systematic change throughout the year in the direction of greater pupil-interaction, less teacher-centredness or higher cognitive responses from pupils."

6.5 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- Teaching is a skill-based occupation in which professional development is attained through practical "hands-on" experience in the classroom

- For maximum benefit, experiential learning should take place in a learner-centred environment in which the learner is aware of the personal relevance of the learning which is taking place

- Inculcation of the habit of experiential learning as a continuing modus operandi should be a principal focus

- An important aspect of experiential learning should be to help the learner relate the declarative knowledge of theory to the procedural knowledge of experience

- Various models of the experiential learning cycle incorporate factors such as experience, observation, and reflection, leading to the formation of new concepts and generalisations

- During the past decade considerable attention has been paid to the importance of reflection as a tool for modifying entrenched belief structures

- The personal insights gained through the use of narrative and biography can be helpful in fostering reflection

- A system of personal constructs (Kelly, 1955) can provide a further way of understanding the way in which an individual construes objects and events

- Student teachers come into training with a well-defined set of entrenched schemata which are resistant to change

- The declarative nature of coursework tends to have limited effect on teaching performance during the practicum, which is procedural in nature

7.0 INFLUENCES ON SCHEMATA DURING PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

An important component of pre-service teacher training is the practicum, during which student teachers have the opportunity to practise their teaching skills with full classes. The first contact with the realities of the classroom can be a traumatic experience for the novice teacher as she traverses various stages of concern with self, with lesson presentation, and finally with the learning needs of the pupils in attaining a level of confidence and professional competence.

Various observers have noted that, once into the practicum, many of the progressive precepts of coursework appear to be forgotten as the student teacher reverts to a more traditionally-oriented approach in order to cope with the perceived threat of class management and interaction. Faced with the demands of the practicum, student teachers appear to adopt their own individualistic coping strategies. This phenomenon can be considered as a kind of "mind-set" which dictates the individualistic approaches followed by each student and which resists change.

7.1 IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT

The tendency of student teachers to lapse into teacher-centred approaches cannot be predicted, perhaps because of the phenomenon of *impression management* noted by Shipman (1967, 1967a) whereby student teachers give misleading impressions as to the extent to which their approaches to teaching have been transformed by coursework. Whether manifested at a conscious or unconscious level, Shipman suggests that student teachers retain the basic (traditional) belief systems which they brought with them to training, while professing to adopt more liberal attitudes.

In research, the use of leading statements and questions in interviews and/or Likert-rated questionnaires tends to lend itself to perpetuation of this illusion. Shipman (1967, 1967a) investigated the discrepancies which appeared to exist between questionnaires which were completed by student teachers and more informal information obtained by means of interviews. Students were found (1967:209) to answer questionnaires "as extensions of

professional theory examination" whereas in discussions and interviews the attitudes expressed were more in line with the traditional approaches often found in schools. He concluded that "This use of impression management enabled them to insulate themselves from those influences that the college was most concerned to transmit." He noted (1967a:56) that the use of impression management was particularly prone to arise in situations where one class of people (student teachers) were in a position to be assessed by another class of people (university staff):

> "This concept of impression management, the use of a veneer, developed by Goffman (1958) applies whenever persons of different status interact. It is particularly relevant when one party is subject to assessment by the other. If this assessment is formalised in examination or questionnaire, these situations will produce distorted results."

Tardif (1985) followed four student teachers throughout three university semesters which included three different phases of practicum experience. An extensive cross-section of data gathering techniques was utilised to analyse their perspectives toward teaching and the changes in these perspectives over time. Tardif observed a notable shift from the "progressive liberal orientation" expressed by participants in the initial phase to a "more conservative, traditional and authoritarian orientation" when acting as a teacher in later phases. Commenting on the apparent dichotomy between these opposed perspectives, he quoted Shipman's (1967a) claim that student teachers appear to maintain "two levels of professional attitude, one for official use on stage, and one for use backstage out of official hearing, or later on in the classroom." It was not his belief that the participants consciously held two different sets of attitudes; rather, the beliefs expressed were "logically consistent with the reality of the moment". He went on to observe (1985:146):

> "Individuals are quite capable of holding different clusters of beliefs in isolation from other clusters. Green (1964:298) in 'A Typology of the Teaching Concept' describes the 'dimension in every belief system by which certain clusters of beliefs are held more or less in isolation from other clusters and protected from any relationship with other sets of beliefs." The participants in [Tardif's] study held clusters of beliefs relating to the "ideal" situation as opposed to the "real" situation. Contrary views and actions could be held without producing a conflict by virtue of the isolation of clusters. Each cluster was valid and applicable depending on the situation."

7.2 INTERNAL INFLUENCES

7.2.1 <u>Concerns</u>

Research on teacher behaviour during the practicum is in general agreement that student teachers pass through several well-defined stages during the course of their training in which one or another specific concern is paramount in their minds. Such concerns "tend often to approach traumatic proportions" (Sinclair and Nicoll, 1981:1), and inevitably exert a degree of inhibiting influence on the speed with which the novice teacher progresses.

The classic study of student teacher concerns is Fuller (1969), which concluded that students pass through three stages before achieving a modicum of competence and assured self-confidence in the classroom. Fuller (1969:220) notes that during the initial stage of the practicum, students are most concerned with their self image and about class control. Other strong initial concerns involve their relationships within the school structure:

> "They try to estimate how much support will be forthcoming from the school principal and supervisors in a great variety of situations; to build working relationships with school personnel; to determine the limits of their acceptance as professional persons in halls, cafeterias, teachers' lounge and principal's office."

Having survived the initial stages of concern, the student teacher is able to address her attention to next stage of concern (1969:220-221), which:

> "...involves abilities to understand subject matter, to know the answers, to say "I don't know", to have the freedom to fail on occasions, to anticipate problems, to mobilise resources and to make changes when failures recur. It also involves the ability to cope with evaluation: the willingness to listen for evaluation and to partial out the biases of the evaluators."

Finally, the first two stages of concern having been transited, the student teacher is able to direct her attention to the ultimate goals of teaching: with pupils, with their learning, their progress and with ways in which the teacher can implement this progress.

Other researchers (Campbell and Wheatley, 1983:60, Reeves and Kazelskis, 1985:267, Boldt and Housego, 1986:218, and Janssens, 1989:3) generally supported the stages as proposed by Fuller. Several researchers (Adams, 1982:42 and Marso and Pigge, 1989:38)

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supported Fuller's concept of stages except that they found impact-type concerns (i.e., whether pupils were benefiting from the lessons) stable over the course of the training experience. It should be noted, however, that these observations were based upon the use of a Teacher Concerns Questionnaire, an instrument which provides scores over four areas of concern (self, task, impact and total) from 15 items to which the participant responds on a continuum from "not concerned" (1) to "very concerned" (5). The use of this type of instrument may well lead to biased reporting along the lines of "what the professor wants to hear"; Adams (1982:42) acknowledges as much:

> "Academic (instructional) impact concerns were the highest of all concerns and did not change across experience levels. This may have been due to the nature of the questions which asked teachers if they were concerned with student academic success and well being, something all teachers responded to as a high concern, and it may have been perceived as 'unteacher-like' not to."

The nature and depth of concerns experienced by a particular student teacher at any point in time will vary with the individual, requiring a high degree of personalised attention on the part of supervisor and co-operating teacher to help her through each phase. Given the fairly consistent stages of concern which appear to be common to most novice teachers, there is merit for tailoring the curriculum in some manner to ease the transitions between stages of concern. As Beyer and Zeichner (1982:19) observe:

> "... yet another currently popular orientation to pre-service teacher training is the "personalised approach" based on the work of Frances Fuller and her colleagues at the University of Texas (Fuller, 1971). The essence of this approach is that the content of a teacher education curriculum be matched to the level of concerns that students are experiencing at a particular point in time. Given the largely survival-oriented skills... as being of special concern to beginning teachers, as well as Fuller's corroborating studies of teacher development (Fuller, 1969), this would mean that the curriculum for teacher education would be constructed primarily with a view toward helping student teachers survive more comfortably within a context that is largely taken for granted."

7.2.2 Dilemmas

A notable source of tension for pre-service teachers are the *dilemmas* which they encounter during the course of the practicum as a result of *value conflicts* (see Section 4.2.5) arising out of the differing schemata which are influencing their teaching. Indeed,

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Clark (1988:9), has summarised some of the more challenging aspects of teaching as being "complex, uncertain, and peppered with *dilemmas.*"

Various researchers have attempted to describe the nature of dilemmas. As Clark and Lampert (1986:28) explain:

> "The teacher encounters a host of interrelated and competing decision situations both while planning and during teaching. There are no perfect or optimal solutions to these decisions. A gain for one student or in one subject matter may mean a foregone opportunity for others. A motivationally and intellectually profitable digression may reduce time devoted to the mandated curriculum. Such conflicts among teachers' multiple commitments lead to practical dilemmas... which must be managed in interaction with students."

Lampert (1984, 1985) comments on dilemmas as being a pervasive problem of teaching, and points to the need for more research into the strategies which teachers develop for coping with dilemmas.

Aside from the dilemmas faced by novice teachers during the practicum, several researchers have utilised the concept of dilemmas as a tool for examining the influences which bear on teacher decision-making. The classic reference in this regard is Berlak and Berlak (1981), who identified 16 basic classroom dilemmas in three categories relating to class management, the curriculum, and society in general. They defined "dilemma" not so much in the context of unresolvable decisions faced in the classroom, but rather in terms of the various social and cultural influences which bore upon the resolution of any given classroom problem. They felt (1981:9) that the "dilemma language" thus developed would be useful in:

> "... clarifying for professionals and the public some of the debates over schooling practices and their relationship to the major political and economic questions of the day, and for helping to identify alternative possibilities for making schooling a richer, more engaging and challenging intellectual, cultural and social experience for all students".

The "patterns of resolution" which a teacher utilised to arbitrate between competing influences in order to arrive at a classroom decision could be analysed to "describe some of the complexity and diversity of teachers' schooling activities" (1981:133).

Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985) found Berlak and Berlak's use of dilemmas useful for describing the parameters which determine a teacher's "perspectives" on teaching. During a two-year longitudinal study of four novice teachers they observed the socialising influences and constraints placed upon the students and took note of the strategies (Lacey, 1977) adopted by the students to cope with these constraints. They developed a taxonomy of eighteen dilemmas found across four areas of teaching: Knowledge and Curriculum, Teacher-Pupil Relationships, The Teacher's Role, and Student Diversity, which reflected a high degree of similarity to those previously defined by Berlak and Berlak. The manner in which the students resolved these dilemmas cast light upon their individual perspectives on teaching and formed a basis for measuring changes which took place over time.

7.2.3 Coping Strategies

Faced with the initial pressures of teaching, student teachers resort to various strategies to cope with problems encountered. These strategies appear to be intuitive, rather than implemented in any deliberate manner. In a case study of a first-year novice teacher, Bullough (1987:224) observed that his subject:

> "... demonstrated six different types of responses to the problems encountered during the survival stage of teaching: (1) environmental simplification, (2) stroke seeking and withdrawals, (3) context restructuring, (4) compromise, (5) skill improvement, and (6) laughter. These were, with the clear exception of skill improvement, primarily intuitive responses, reactions to problems, that over time became habituated. The fact that such responses become habitual is of considerable importance to the development of teaching expertise."

Many researchers have noted the tendency toward tighter classroom management during the early stages of teaching practice, a common strategy adopted to give the trainee more of a feel of "control" over the situation.

Cole (1989:3) noted the tendency of student teachers to revert to teaching practices consistent with the belief structures which they brought with them to the training experience:

> "Faced with the ever-increasing demands of modern classrooms, not to mention the experience of having to make the transition into the profession, it is not surprising that many new teachers, in an effort to do the best that they can, resort to doing what comes naturally, what they know best. They

teach as they were taught, as they observed it being done, or as 'seems' appropriate with limited understanding of the pedagogical principles underlying their actions. And the 'theory' studied at the university, at least for the first few years, continues to be perceived as unrelated or only partially connected to the real world of teaching."

Boud (1985:9) comments, with regard to the novice's first exposure to the practicum, that the experience may tend to "overwhelm" the novice teacher, who "may resort to coping strategies which involve doing what is most familiar."

It would appear that pre-service training should take these intuitive coping strategies into account, and provide the trainee with specific skills to handle problematic situations, rather than reverting to more intuitive solutions. As Bullough (1987:234) observes:

> "... the content of teacher education should perhaps be expanded to include instruction in the skills necessary for institutional survival, skills like those [his case study] developed, but if so, they should be taught within a wider context of the development of the attitudes, skills, and concepts associated with the creation of a professional community of critical discourse... Fundamentally, our programs ought to reflect a dedication to and participation within such a community, not a dedication to coping, to institutional survival for its own sake."

7.2.4 Excuses

Student teacher classroom behaviour diverges in various ways from the approaches taught during coursework, notably in the way of becoming less innovative and more teacher-centred. Inevitably, as they restructure their teaching styles to meet the practical realities of the classroom as they perceive it, the student teachers will tend to rationalise this disparity. Tardif (1985:145-146) observes, "As the participants began to increasingly adopt classroom teacher behaviour, so they began to justify their actions and attitudes accordingly... Adapting to the pressures of the given situation and justifying the reasons for doing so served to minimise the disparity in their eyes."

Dreyfus and Mazouz (1989:259) observed that excuses offered by student teachers for using or not using particular teaching techniques tended to fall into two classes: pupil-related and teacher-related:

> "When explaining their use or non-use of various strategies, the teachers based their arguments on: (a) the problems or needs of the pupils

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(pupil-related arguments): their abilities; their willingness to behave in the suggested way; the potential educational benefit or lack of benefit of the strategy; (b) the problems or needs of the teachers (teacher-related): their abilities, skills and training (or lack of those); their tendency to stick to well established and apparently successful and rewarding routines; their self confidence or their fear of failure; practical constraints."

Another category of excuses relates to external constraints such as the textbook used, the school scheme of work, etc. As Dreyfus and Mazouz note, a listing of such excuses would be only of local interest since they tend to be directly related to the conditions which prevail in the local educational system.

7.2.5 Preconceptions Regarding Teaching

Unlike most skill-based professions, 'apprentices' in the teacher training process bring a vast repertoire of implicit beliefs and theories regarding teaching, accumulated over their years of experience as pupils. As Cole (1989:6) observes: "Students entering teacher preparation programs bring with them the beliefs, attitudes, ideals, and ambitions developed over years of life experience... In most cases, these preconceptions remain unarticulated, or if made explicit are accorded little or no validity; yet, they are the personal foundations upon which professional practice is built."

As noted earlier, Lortie (1975) refers to these background experiences as a period of "apprenticeship-of-observation" which typically spans 12 years of schooling and over 12,000 hours in the classroom. Lortie (1973) has also noted that because of this long exposure to teacher models, students come to their teacher training courses with models of teacher behaviour internalised and ready to be triggered in later teaching. He concludes therefore (1973:487) that "...to a considerable extent future teacher behaviour is rooted in experiences which predate formal training."

Although many of these preconceptions are unconscious and thus manifest themselves implicitly in student teaching behaviour, to some extent novice teachers can recall their early experiences and relate them to their present belief systems. After a survey of 150 student teachers to explore the bases for their belief systems, Collay (1989:6) observed that during these interviews "... the purpose of teaching, choice of curricula, classroom management decisions, and interactions with colleagues were always described in relation

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to personal beliefs and valuing. Not only did new teachers recall incidents in their life histories which had influenced their own learning, they were also very clear on the implications for their own teaching."

These belief systems are by no means internally consistent, well thought out reflections of educational psychology. Rather, as Clark (1988:6) observes:

> "... teachers' implicit theories tend to be eclectic aggregations of cause-effect propositions from many sources, rules of thumb, generalisations drawn from personal experience, beliefs, values, biases, and prejudices."

As such, they are subject to the full range of insights and errors in human judgement described by Nisbett and Ross (1980), just as all humans are when faced with complex, fast-paced, consequential, and occasionally emotion-laden social judgements and action situations.

7.2.6 What Constitutes a "Good Teacher"?

Part of the belief structures which student teachers bring with them to the training experience involves their perception as to the traits which characterise a "good teacher". These beliefs implicitly describe a kind of role model which may be expected to influence the students' initial approach to teaching.

Weinstein (1989) surveyed 113 students enrolled in introductory education course at Rutgers University, using a questionnaire consisting of open-ended and fixed-response questions regarding their impressions of what constituted a "really good teacher." He found that students tended to emphasise interpersonal and affective variables rather than the academic dimensions of teaching, and reported (1989:58) that the students' conceptions of "a really good teacher" were based primarily in terms of positive interpersonal relationships: "In both their explanations for their self-ratings and their descriptions of a good teacher, students tended to emphasise social and affective variables such as caring and concern for children, ability to relate to students, patience, and enthusiasm, while minimising the academic aspects of teaching." He went on to observe (1989:59):

"The responses of both the pre-service and the in-service teachers are particularly intriguing when compared with the perspectives on good teaching held by those involved in educational policy and research. Policy makers often define good teaching in terms of outcomes (e.g., achievement gains on standardised tests) or compliance with direct instruction models of teaching. Educational theorists and researchers speak of masterful teachers who can comprehend, reason, transform, and instruct (e.g., Shulman, 1987) and teachers who can reflect on the purposes and consequences of their actions (e.g., Zeichner and Liston, 1987). In contrast, both prospective teachers and practising teachers tend to describe good teachers in terms of warm, caring individuals who enjoy working with children."

Sinclair and Nicoll (1981:7), in a study related to the sources of student teacher anxiety during the practicum, pointed out that students' perceptions of what constituted a 'good teacher' could lead to unrealistic expectations of their own performance, with a consequent increase in their level of concern:

"For the high-anxious student... the period (of teaching practice) is little less than a continuous series of crises to be endured. Moreover, the criteria for whether the lesson/test has been a failure or a success are not objective and external, but are set individually and subjectively by each student. Such expectations of self are often based on some ideal of the 'good teacher' and in terms of most student teachers' early skills, quite unrealistic."

7.3 EXTERNAL INFLUENCES

7.3.1 Constraints

During the practicum, student teachers operate under a variety of constraints which shape to some extent their choice of teaching approaches in the classroom. Such constraints include the influence of the co-operating teacher (see Section 7.3.2), the material conditions of the classroom, and the more indirect pressures of bureaucratic socialisation (see Section 7.3.3).

As regards classroom conditions, Zeichner (1980:47) cited various researchers (Jackson, 1968; Dreeben, 1973; Sharp and Green, 1975; and Doyle, 1977) all of whom discuss the classroom's material conditions and how they limit the range of a teacher's actions.

A principal source of constraints on student teachers arises out of the school scheme of work and the textbooks and related classroom materials which the novice is expected to

adhere to and utilise. These constraints fall under the category of what Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985:17) refer to as *technical control,* which is: "exerted through the timing of instruction, the curriculum and curricular materials, and the architecture of the school." They cite other researchers (Apple, 1983; Gitlin, 1983; and Wise, 1979) who support the view that technical control is a significant aspect of the way in which teachers are socialised into their work, and suggest that further research should examine "... how different forms of institutional control contribute to communicating institutional expectations to teachers and to the monitoring and evaluation of teachers' work activities."

Depending on her disposition to accepting varying degrees of external control over her curriculum, the student teacher may feel a sense of conflict between what she feels to be an appropriate teaching approach and the demands of the school. As Bullough (1987:229) observes:

> "One striking characteristic of the survival stage of teaching is tension and conflict associated with clashes between personal values and institutionalised role requirements and expectations. Each beginning teacher must negotiate his or her place within the institution; compromise is necessary."

7.3.2 The Co-operating Teacher

During the practicum, the student teacher comes under the aegis of her co-operating teacher for help and guidance in the classroom. Researchers are generally unanimous on the significant role played by the co-operating teacher in helping the novice to develop her teaching strategies, but are somewhat hazy as to the parameters for carrying out this role effectively. As Griffin et al (1983:5) observe:

> "...educators are relatively naive about the personal and professional characteristics of an "effective" co-operating teacher and are unclear as to the most efficacious match of student teacher and co-operating teacher. There is only speculation regarding the influence of different contexts in which both co-operating teacher and teacher interact. There is unsureness about defined activities for student teachers and/or co-operating teachers."

Co-operating teachers themselves do not appear to have consistent views of their own role in the student teaching process. After a survey of teacher training practices in Texas, Griffin et al (1983:49) concluded that there was an observable dichotomy in the way that co-operating teachers approached their task: some took the view that the student teacher

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should learn their way of conducting instruction (which was the reason they had been selected as CT); others "... tried to provide opportunities for the student teacher 'to find his/her own way of teaching.' the implicit assumption being that there is an optimal 'comfort level' of teaching and the student teachers needed to find it."

A number of researchers have commented on the significant role played by co-operating teachers in the socialising process, where their contribution tends toward the maintenance of a status quo (see Section 7.3.3). Cleary (1988:21) noted that co-operating teachers have a more conservative outlook than university supervisors:

> "The results of this study indicate that co-operating teachers exhibit significantly more 'conventional' thinking than university supervisors. They also appear more oriented toward a dependent thinking style. These teachers are therefore more concerned with security and try harder to appear normal and conventional than their university counterparts. Their greater orientation toward a conventional and dependent thinking style would also indicate that co-operating teachers feel a greater need to comply with the wishes of authority figures and are less likely to take risks or be creative. If the student teaching experience is to include significant work on curricular innovations and experimentation, the use of such people is questionable."

He went on to conclude (1988:21) that since co-operating teachers tend to think and act in a conservative manner, it should come as no surprise that they tend to pass their teaching approaches on to the students. "University supervisors must therefore make clear to co-operating teachers that student teachers ought to be encouraged to be innovative and different."

Hence, there is a tendency to perpetuate the tried-and-true rather than encouraging novices to strike out with innovate approaches of their own. MacKinnon (1989:10) also studied the manner in which traditionally-oriented co-operating teachers fostered conformity among their student teachers to the point where: "On the surface, it looked as though the hours spent in classes had had little effect."

Copeland (1981:809) noted an interesting manifestation of the indirect manner in which student teachers may tend to take on the teaching approaches of their co-operating teacher:

> "If the co-operating teacher has established a history of utilising a particular skill in the classroom, the pupils there seem to become accustomed to it and respond easily to its use. Entering such a classroom, even without the co-operating teacher present, a student teacher who utilises that skill will find that the pupils respond to it - it works. Given this success, the student teacher is likely to continue using the skill and incorporate it into his performance repertoire. On the other hand, if the pupils were not accustomed to the co-operating teacher using the skill, they would be less likely to respond to the student teacher when she uses it. The student teacher's skill usage then seems to decline, as would be expected."

In view of the significant influence of co-operating teachers on the student teachers under their care, one obvious way to improve the quality of the practicum experience is to upgrade the professional qualifications of the former in order to improve their effectiveness in this role. Cohn (1981:26) suggests that such training might be part of the duties of the university supervisor: "In fact, operating under the assumptions that the classroom teacher is in a better position to give specific and continual feedback and is capable of developing the supervisory skills, some suggest that a major function of the college supervisor should be to train the co-operating teacher for the supervision of their novices (Association for Student Teaching, 1964)."

Sinclair and Nicoll (1981:11) support this view, and observe that "...there needs to be even greater attempts by teacher educators to impress upon co-operating teachers the importance of their role."

With regard to the co-operating teacher's role in assessment of student teacher performance, Applegate (1984:51) reports that in a study of institutional practices related to early field experiences, only about 20% of the institutions provide any training for site personnel in techniques of supervising and evaluating students (Ishler and Kay, 1981), and concludes: "In this light, questions can be raised relative to the criteria used by co-operating teachers to assess competent performance other than those which are most obvious, e.g., being on time for class, being friendly with school personnel, being willing to

do what the teacher asks. Similarly, one can question whether evaluative criteria are communicated to co-operating teachers by university faculty."

Zeichner and Liston (1987:43) comment on some of the problems encountered in promoting a reflective approach to teaching at the University of Wisconsin as a result of a lack of incentive on the part of the co-operating teachers: "Little provision has been made within the program to provide co-operating teachers with the recognition, rewards, time, and reduced teaching loads which are necessary for them to be able to work with student teachers in the way that the program desires." The situation is exacerbated by the fact that little has been done to support co-operating teachers' involvement in inquiry and reflection with regard to their own work as well. Hence, "To some degree, both student teachers and co-operating teachers work within a set of "ecological" parameters and a structural context which work against the goals of the program."

7.3.3 The Socialisation Process

Once launched into teaching, during the practicum and beyond, the student teacher is exposed to forces of socialisation, which Lacey (1977:13) has defined as:

> "... the process by which people selectively acquire the values and attitudes,
> the interests, skills and knowledge - in short the culture - current in groups
> to which they are, or seek to become, a member."

In the case of the teaching profession these socialising forces, which by their nature are traditionally oriented, act to maintain a status quo and thus act to offset any progressive notions which the student teacher may have picked up during coursework.

Spanning as they do the total spectrum of the "culture" of teaching, the socialisation forces acting on the novice teacher are many and diverse. Perhaps the most pervasive influence comes from the very weight of the organisation itself. As Hoy and Reese (1977:23) point out, such bureaucratic organisations:

> "... attempt to mould role ideology and role performance of personnel
> through a variety of procedures and mechanisms designed to make
> individual beliefs, values, and norms correspond with those of the
> organisation. This process is sometimes referred to as *bureaucratic
> socialisation*, the organisation's attempt to induce consensus between
> newcomers and the rest of the organisation."

Lacey (1977:72) considers that student teachers develop three basic social strategies to react to the constraints of socialisation. They may opt for a policy of *strategic compliance*, in which they comply outwardly to these constraints, while retaining inner reservations; or may carry out an *internalised adjustment* in which they accept without reservation the constraints. A third approach, adopted by the more venturesome, involves *strategic redefinition* whereby individuals attempt to bring about change to the constraints to suit their particular interpretation of the situation.

Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1983:10-11) refer to these forces of conformity as one of the *pitfalls* of the student teaching experience, and observe that: "... the pressure to adapt to the ways things are in schools is great. Moreover, this pressure will resonate with the common-sense notions of teachers and classrooms acquired through the personal experience of schooling. Confronted with such pressures, academic learning is liable to evaporate, regardless of its worth."

The very familiarity of the classroom acts as a socialising influence, lulling the novice into an acceptance of a traditional environment. Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann (1983:6) refer to this as the *familiarity pitfall*, which:

> "...stems from the tendency to trust what is most memorable in personal experience... Ideas and images of classrooms and teachers laid down through many years as a pupils provide a framework for viewing and standards for judging what she sees now. Such frameworks will fit with social traditions of teaching and schooling; they have the self-evidence and solidity of the taken-for-granted... Classroom experience by itself cannot be trusted to deliver lessons that shape dispositions to inquire and to be serious about pupil learning. On the contrary, it may block the flow of speculation and reflection by which new habits of thought and action are formed."

As if the inertia of bureaucratic organisation and familiarity with the classroom environment were not enough, the pervasive influence of the co-operating teacher further contributes to the socialising process. Zeichner (1980:47) refers to a number of studies: "... which demonstrate that student teachers see their co-operating teachers as their most significant socialising agents... and others which show that the attitudes and behaviors of student teachers shift toward those of their co-operating teachers by the end of the

experience... Furthermore, there is some evidence that the influence of the co-operating teacher carries over into the beginning years of teaching..."

The net result of the socialising process is therefore to induce conformity into the student teacher across a broad spectrum of behaviour. Conformity as regards values and attitudes vis-à-vis the incumbent bureaucracy may be as inevitable as a social adjustment to any new milieu. However, conformity in the form of reversion to more traditional teaching practices as opposed to what has been taught in coursework is a source for more concern. It is therefore not surprising that a number of researchers have recommended a more laboratory-oriented practicum to minimise the less desirable effects of socialisation in stultifying initiative and innovation.

7.4 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- Pre-service teachers have been found to practise "impression management" whereby they profess support for learner-centred approaches but revert to teacher-centred approaches once into the classroom

- Early classroom experience on the part of pre-service teachers is characterised by various stages of concern, related to self-image, class management, and knowledge of subject

- A notable source of tension in pre-service teachers are the dilemmas which they encounter as a result of value conflicts between the differing schemata which influence their teaching

- Lacking a professional background in teaching, pre-service teachers tend to fall back on (often inappropriate) strategies to cope with the problems which they encounter in the classroom

- Pre-service teachers devise a variety of excuses to rationalise the coping strategies which they adopt

- Pre-service teachers bring with them to the teaching profession an array of implicit beliefs regarding teaching, which have been accumulated over their many years of experience as pupils in the classroom

- In their judgements as to what constitutes "a really good teacher", pre-service teacher conceptions are largely related to social and affective variables such as caring and concern for children, patience, enthusiasm, etc.

- Pre-service teachers operate under a variety of constraints which influence their behaviour in the classroom, including the influence of the co-operating teacher, material conditions of the classroom, and various pressures of bureaucratic socialisation

- Co-operating teachers play a significant role in helping novice teachers develop their teaching abilities, but tend to perpetuate "tried-and-true" teaching approaches rather than encouraging innovation

- The pre-service teacher is exposed to diverse forces of socialisation which by their nature are traditionally-oriented and tend to induce conformity rather than individualism

8.0 DIVERSITY: A COMPLICATING FACTOR

One of the single largest problems in teacher education relates to the diversity of the student intake. Differing genetics and backgrounds have led, inevitably, to a diversity of personalities, motivations, and abilities which respond in an equal multitude of ways to a curriculum designed for the common denominator. The question of diversity itself has not been the focus of specific research; however many references have been made to it in connection with the need for a more personalised approach to supervision.

For example, Munby (1983), using repertory grid techniques to explore belief systems in 14 junior high school teachers, found considerable variation in their implicit theories regarding various aspects of teaching. As reported by Clark and Peterson (1986:291), Munby's report "... offers excerpts from 14 case studies that illustrate the wide individual differences in the implicit theories of teachers working at the same school and even within the same subject matter specialisations. The existence of these idiosyncratic variations in beliefs and principles is used by Munby to explain how and why a nominally common curriculum is inevitably interpreted and implemented differently by each teacher teaching from it."

8.1 ALL SHAPES AND SIZES

The tendency toward diversity in the student intake is favoured by what Lortie (1975) refers to as a wide "decision range" over which people can decide to become teachers. Thus, candidates of varying ages, backgrounds, and dispositions may elect at one time or another to opt for a teaching career. Little in the way of effective screening is carried out to eliminate those whose personality characteristics do not augur well for success in teaching. As Lortie (1975:39) points out:

> "The heterogeneity of entry patterns indicates that teaching is not... standardised by professional consensus, nor is its membership carefully screened through shared criteria for admission. Consequently there is considerable self-selection; the motivations, orientations, and interests candidates bring are not systematically assessed to eliminate those whose characteristics fail to fit a particular model. ... the diversity so permitted has important consequences for the inner life of the occupation."

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Unfortunately, teacher training is not generally geared to cope with this range of diversity. As Coulter (1980:23) observes:

> "... teacher educators may not be giving appropriate recognition to the fact that student teachers bring to the training situation widely differing personalities, professional aspirations, and teaching styles which they strive to express and test in the process of becoming a teacher, and that the secondary induction process may 'favour' students with particular characteristics and seriously disadvantage others whose personalities and professional values are 'at odds' with some of the pervasive teaching and learning modes to which they are expected to conform in their training."

Aside from the innate heterogeneity of the student intake, diversity is further fostered by variations in the environments to which students are exposed during teaching practice. Once immersed in the practicum, students encounter a range of school environments - administrations varying in supportiveness, co-operating teachers varying in competence, and classes varying in size and motivation. As Coulter (1980:25) found when attempting to compare teacher education programmes, "Comparisons between programmes are... complicated by the fact that various students in the same programme may be exposed to vastly different sets of experiences, depending on the nature of their practice teaching and the interaction between the programme and their particular personalities."

Yet a third factor exists to foster diversity. Whether as a function of their differences in personality and/or the disparate school environments to which they are exposed, students develop at different rates. As Blank and Heathington (1987:3) note:

> "... pre-service teachers vary in their stages of development, maturity, and ability. Developmentally, some student teachers are concerned with self and survival. Others have progressed to the stages of concern for effectiveness of their teaching skills and for the impact of the teaching on student learning. An additional factor is the pre-service teacher's general anxiety and stress that may intensify the insecurity experienced in supervision. The unique nature of each placement must also be taken into consideration. Student's ages, ability levels, and socio-economic status, the cooperating teacher's orientation, available resources, and overall school climate are aspects for concern."

Hence, the three factors discussed above - innate differences in the student intake, varying school environments, and differing rates of personal development - produce a student

teaching body more notable for its diversity than its homogeneity. Such diversity poses severe challenges to administrators of teacher training programmes.

8.2 PRESAGE VARIABLES

As noted above, student teachers vary in background, experience, motivation, and ability. The many factors which contribute to this diversity are broadly grouped under the term "presage variables". Shulman (1986) groups these under the following categories:

> Teacher Formative Experiences
>   Social class
>   Age
>   Sex

> Teacher Training Experiences
>   University attended
>   Training program features
>   Practice-teaching experiences

> Teacher Properties
>   Teaching skills
>   Intelligence
>   Motivations
>   Personality traits

Although some of these variables such as age, sex, university attended, etc. are readily subject to measurement, others such as motivations and personality traits are intangible and difficult to measure in any consistent manner.

Hunt and Joyce (1967) studied initial teaching styles of teacher trainees as a function of one major dimension of their personality: the so-called "cognitive level" (CL) or degree to which the student teacher is capable of abstract thought. This level was measured by a sentence completion test. It was found that there was a positive correlation between the student teacher's CL and the extent to which her lesson patterns reflected a pupil-centred approach, which Hunt and Joyce acknowledge is the "most infrequent teaching pattern" observed among in student teachers.

As Bullough (1987:220-221) observes:

"Personal characteristics - attitudes, beliefs, dispositions - are important factors influencing how the individual teacher responds to the teaching context. These form interpretative lenses by which meaning is made, and they help establish what is reasonable, right, and proper."

8.3 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- The diversity of the student intake presents a major problem to teacher education, since a nominally common curriculum is interpreted and implemented differently by each student teacher

- Diversity arises out of the innate heterogeneity of the student intake, and is further compounded by differing school environments and by the different rates at which individual students develop

- Differences in student intake may be to some extent defined and measured through an assortment of so-called "presage variables" which describe their physical characteristics, intelligence, personality traits, etc.

- Teacher educators must understand the individualistic nature of the student intake in order to provide personalised assistance during the practicum

9.0 CHALLENGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

9.1 COPING WITH PRE-SERVICE SCHEMATA

At the outset, we can hypothesise the concept of a *student teacher mind-set* to reflect the well-established schemata relating to teaching which predate the training experience; which are resistant to change; and which act as a filter to either reject or facilitate the absorption of new knowledge. An outward manifestation of this mind-set is the tendency of novice teachers to quickly fall into certain preferred teaching routines which appear to be congruent with this cognitive structure, and be thereafter disinclined to stray from these comfortable patterns.

As discussed previously, the student teacher brings with her to the training experience a great deal of accumulated knowledge about teaching. The sum total of this knowledge might be thought of as constituting a kind of "classroom script", along the lines suggested by Schank and Abelson (1977). Such scripts develop slowly. Furthermore, they are based more upon practice (real life experience) than theory. Therefore one would expect that they would be subject to significant change only under the influence of additional experience, and that theoretical input (e.g., coursework) would have minimal effect upon them. As noted previously (see Section 7.1), many students give lip service to the progressive precepts of coursework only to promptly return to more traditional "teacher talk" and custodial approaches to class management once immersed in the practicum.

If it is accepted that theoretical input has little lasting effect on the script-like structures which define the student's visions of teaching, the question may be posed: how do these pre-defined structures then affect the manner in which experience is absorbed during the practicum? Consistent with the observations on diversity as noted earlier, different students appear to take up the lessons of experience in a selective and eclectic manner, implying that the teaching scripts which they bring with them to training act in some way to filter subsequent experience, i.e., to transform it in biased ways so as to facilitate its integration into the pre-existing script.

The concept of mind-set implies a highly individualistic approach to teaching. In a somewhat related context, Elbaz (1983:22) expresses a belief that teachers exhibit a particular style in the way they hold and use their practical knowledge of teaching. She uses the notion of "cognitive style" to indicate the features of unity and coherence which make it possible to describe someone's actions as having "style".

Goodman (1988) describes the mechanisms which appear to filter subsequent experience as *intuitive screens* (1989:130):

> "One might assume that a student's practical philosophy of teaching is formed as she/he is exposed to various viewpoints and experiences during his/her professional preparation. However, the findings of this study suggest that early childhood and school experiences had a significant impact on the informants' professional perspectives. As children, students developed images of what it meant to be a 'teacher' and 'teaching'. However, students did not enter the EEP [Elementary Education Program] with a hardened set of professional opinions. Rather, their pre-professional images formed an 'intuitive screen' through which they interpreted their professional education. The term 'intuitive screen' is similar to other concepts used in cognitive psychology such as 'schema', 'frames', 'scripts', or 'prototypes' (Anderson, 1977; Nisbett & Ross, 1980) that describe the way generic knowledge is stored in one's memory and used to make sense out of life situations (e.g., knowledge structures underlying one's awareness of what happens and how to behave in a restaurant, library or classroom.) Unlike glass, which is rigid and does not allow wind, rain and sound to enter, screens connote a separation for the outside world, but one that is more open to external stimuli. This metaphor is useful for portraying the dynamics involved as students developed their perspectives of teaching within the EEP."

Goodman (1989:130) goes on to observe that "When exposed to new ideas or experiences, students tended to act first on an intuitive rather than an intellectual level. No matter how logical or sound an idea seemed, if it directly contradicted a student's intuitive screen, it was usually rejected."; and adds that most students tended to be influenced by those people or experiences that legitimated their existing "intuitive screen".

Since the 'intuitive screen' strongly affects the degree to which and the manner in which the student teacher absorbs the precepts of coursework and benefits from the practicum, Goodman (1989:134) points out that this factor should be taken into consideration during the course of teacher training, and that "... for some students, the faculty will want to offer

experiences that will reinforce a given student's intuitive screen while in another instance, they will want to find ways to help a student alter his or her initial perspectives."

Along similar lines, Cole (1989:21) states:

> "... it would seem appropriate to recommend that pre-service programs be structured in a way that encourages prospective teachers to examine their beginning personal theories of teaching and to thereby serve as starting points of teacher education and development."

Bullough et al. (1991:43), in their paper on exploring personal teaching metaphors, comment that:

> "Teacher educators typically ignore the novice's prior knowledge about teaching and development as though the beginner were a tabula rasa (Britzman, 1986; Crow, 1987). Functioning as a teaching schema (Bullough, Crow and Knowles, in press), *prior knowledge about teaching serves as a filter through which the student responds to teacher education.* Content and experiences that tend to confirm the schema and related conceptions of self as teacher, are accepted, whereas those that do not are rejected."

They go on to suggest that teacher education would have greater impact if the novice's background knowledge about teaching were to be incorporated into instruction in teacher education.

Shulman (1990:11), in his paper on pedagogical ways of knowing, also touched on the manner in which the preconceptions which pupils bring to the classroom act as filters to the absorption of new information, and that: "The preconception - the pre-existing analogy - overwhelms anything that you teach them directly unless you know enough about the existing prior knowledge to surface it, talk about it, compare what they think is going on to what is actually going on, and get them to deal with the contrast and the contradictions." Although his observations were in the context of pupils, they would appear to apply equally to student teachers.

9.2 THE CHALLENGE OF MODIFYING SCHEMATA

Earlier sceptical views (see Section 1.2) have given way in later years to a growing acceptance of schemata as an explanation for teacher behaviour. This has led in turn to efforts on the part of researchers to understand the essence of schemata and the manner in which the associated cognitive structures might be manipulated in some way so as to improve teacher education.

Floden and Klinzing (1990:6) comment:

> "Consideration of more general cognitive views of teaching and learning suggests that more attention be given to the schemata that teachers use to impose meaning on teaching situations. Teaching skills still need to be mastered, but goals and schemata must be used to select, adapt, and integrate these skills to meet the demands of specific situations."

In spite of the growing recognition of the importance of schemata relatively little has been done to apply such information toward the improvement of teacher education. They go on (1990:6) to conclude that say that "... the task for teacher education is to help teachers learn the schemata best suited to achieving their instructional aims"

Also, (1990:6):

> "In particular, researchers have begun to document the particular routines and schemata used by effective teachers in their instruction (e.g., Berliner and Carter, 1986.) If research linking schemata and routines to student progress were to match the accomplishments of process-product research, these new studies could suggest empirically supported teacher education content with value similar to that of the results of process-product research. The schemata may guide teachers' hypotheses about which routines can be best adapted for specific teaching situations and goals. A broad repertoire of routines not only gives teachers a basis for responding to expected and unexpected classroom events, but it also gives them a good starting point for acting creatively."

Lampert and Clark (1990:20) suggest that progress in this area can be made by inculcating a deliberate awareness of the nature of schemata, so as to permit a reasoned manipulation of the data structures which comprise them:

"In the phase of cognitive research referred to as the "knowledge structures" program (Greeno, 1987), psychologists assumed that what guided actions were schemata or "knowledge structures" that were in individual minds. They set them- selves the task of defining these structures for various academic and practical tasks, with the idea that novices could be taught the knowledge structures that experts use, and thus become experts themselves. Based on the theory of thinking as information processing, this view has the person constructing a representation of the problem to be solved and reasoning toward a solution by manipulating elements of the representation or schemata."

9.3 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- Teacher educators are increasingly turning to a recognition of schemata as the driving force for teacher behaviour.

- Research into the nature of such schemata, and into the nature of the routines which teachers develop to facilitate their classroom teaching, should provide insights into ways of improving pre-service teacher training.

METHODOLOGY

10.0 RATIONALE FOR ETHNOGRAPHIC APPROACH

An ethnographic case study approach was chosen as being the most appropriate for purposes of the current study. Because coursework is based on experiential learning modules and reflective tasks, there was little conflict between the course approach and the research approach.

During every phase of data collection, four main goals were kept in mind by the researcher:

> (1) The aim was to maximise the students' point of view and perception in an in-depth data gathering approach.

> (2) In order not to impose a predetermined perspective, data collection was designed to be as open-ended as possible.

> (3) In order to keep the data collection as naturalistic as possible and not impose too much of an extra burden on the case studies, data collected arose naturally out of normal coursework and teaching practice activities.

> (4) Special efforts were made to ensure that students understood what the learning effect was for them personally at every instance of data collection.

The current research is basically ethnographic in nature. As Taft (1988:59) notes:

> "Ethnographic research consists essentially of a description of events that occur within the life of a group, with special regard to the social structures and the behaviour of the individuals with respect to their group membership, and an interpretation of the meaning of these for the culture of the group."

Participation by the researcher (1988:59) is a legitimate feature of ethnographic research:

> "In ethnography the researcher participates in some part of the normal life of the group and uses what he or she learns from that participation to produce the research findings."

Indeed, Taft (1988:59) considers that "participation" on the part of the observers is valuable since "these experiences provide them with tacit knowledge which helps them to

understand the significance to the group members of their own behaviour and that of others and enables them to integrate their observations about that behaviour with information obtained from other sources such as interviews with informants and documentary material."

Taft (1988:61) includes useful comments as regards the measure of validity of ethnographic research findings:

> "The most appropriate criterion is credibility... [which is] ... dependent on the apparent accuracy of the data and all the steps described above that that are intended to increase reliability are relevant. Much depends on the way in which the study is communicated to the scientific audience. A report in which the investigator describes the precautions that have been taken to ensure the accuracy of the observations has more credibility than one in which the reader is merely asked to take the data and findings "on faith". The report should contain indications that the investigator is aware of the need to convince the audience of the validity of the data."

10.1 GROUNDED THEORY

Glaser and Strauss (1967:1) define grounded theory as "the discovery of theory from data", i.e., a kind of research where examination of the data throws up insights into the mechanisms which have generated it. Hence, the theory is "grounded" in the data itself.

Guba and Lincoln 1982) cite the benefits of grounded theory as being one of the motivating forces for pursuing a naturalistic research paradigm, pointing out (1982:235) that such research:

> "... is driven by theory grounded in the data; the naturalist does not search for data that fit her or her theory but develops a theory to explain the data."

One recommended approach to the development of grounded theory based on qualitative data is the *constant comparative method* of coding and analysis.

10.2 CONSTANT COMPARATIVE METHOD

A large body of textual material tends to be generated by a case study approach, including journals, transcriptions of pre- and post-lesson conferences, and interviews. Such data is qualitative in nature and presents challenges in analysing it and summarising the findings.

As a first step in the analysis of such data, a "constant comparative" method, as described by Glaser and Strauss (1967:101-115) can be used to isolate significant categories and sub-categories of information. As applied to the analysis of text, the method consists of repeated perusals of the text during which time chunks of information which appear to deal with one or another specific topic are identified and coded to correspond with some perceived category, e.g. "pupils". New categories are identified as new chunks of information appear in the text. The text is reread several times, examining the chunks and the manner in which they have been coded, in the course of which it may be found necessary to recombine some chunks, rename certain categories, or split off chunks into new categories. When the above coding is felt to be satisfactory, a second step may be to fine-tune the data into sub-categories by collecting all information related to each category into separate blocks of text, and again applying the "constant comparative" method to identify the sub-categories. Some data may need to be cross-referenced to the extent they fit into more than one sub-category.

10.3 TRIANGULATION

Exclusive use of a single methodological perspective in the pursuit of data can lead to biases and distortions in the findings. It is therefore desirable to consider various approaches to data collection in order to obtain a more balanced view. As Cohen and Manion (1979:209) point out:

> "... If findings are artefacts of method, then the use of contrasting methods considerably reduces the chances that any consistent findings are attributable to similarities of method."

The use of such contrasting methods constitutes a system of *triangulation* (Mathison, 1988; Fielding and Fielding, 1986) which Cohen and Manion (1979:208) broadly define as

"the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour."

Guba and Lincoln (1988:84) see the use of triangulation as a means of "optimising credibility" in a naturalistic study, and define the term as a situation in which "a variety of data sources, different investigators, different perspectives (theories), and different methods are pitted against one another." As Taft (1988:61) also points out:

> "Cross-checks may also be made by triangulation, a procedure in which multiple sources are used to obtain evidence on the same phenomenon. Thus, the observations may be supplemented by interviews, feedback to the members of the group for their comment, and documentary evidence such as school notices, correspondence, minutes, and other archives."

Denzin (1978:340) has categorised the various kinds of triangulation which may be utilised, involving an emphasis on time (longitudinal studies which measure change over time), space (cross-cultural comparisons), combined levels (using more than one level of analysis), theoretical (drawing from alternative theories), investigator (engaging more than one observer), and methodological (using different methods on the same object of study). As applied to education, Cohen and Manion (1979:214) point out that "methodological triangulation is the one used most frequently and the one that possibly has the most to offer." They provide an example (1979:222) of such triangulation in which a first-year class was selected for detailed study. Three kinds of evidence were sought, arising out of :

> "(1) the written material produced in class,
> (2) the observation of classes during group work, and
> (3) discussions with the teachers of the selected classes."

The present study adopts a similar approach, with the three principal "kinds of evidence" comprising (1) video recordings of observed lessons, (2) lesson plans as prepared by the student teachers, and (3) various types of textual materials generated through written journals, interviews, etc.:

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            Video
            Tapes


              /\
             /  \
            /    \
           /      \
          /        \
Lesson    /_____\>    Textual
Plans                      Materials
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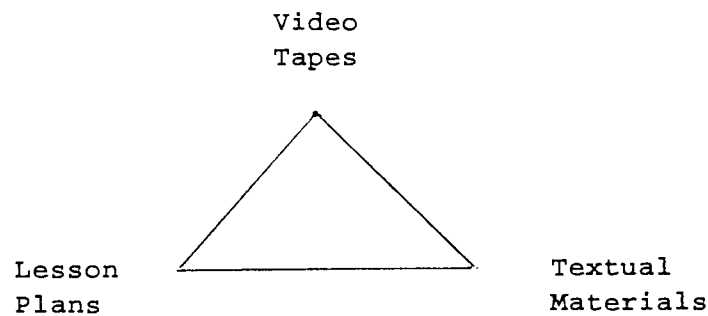
Fig. 8   Triangulation as "Kinds of Evidence"

10.4 CASE STUDIES

In ethnographically oriented research, a logical research tool is the case study, which Merriam (1988:16) defines as:

> "...an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit."

Merriam (1988:10) further characterises case studies as being particularistic, descriptive, heuristic, and inductive in nature: particularistic since they focus on a particular situation, event, programme, or phenomenon; descriptive in that the end product of a case study is a rich, "thick" description of the phenomenon under study; heuristic in the sense that they illuminate the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under study; and inductive to the extent that, for the most part, case studies rely on inductive reasoning for analysis of the findings. As for the rationale for the use of case studies, Merriam (1988:xii) asserts:

> "...investigators use a case study design in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and its meaning for those involved. The interest is in process rather than outcomes, in context rather than a specific variable, in discovery rather than confirmation."

The various types of case study (Stenhouse, 1988:49) include ethnographic (involving cultural or social anthropology), evaluative (with a view to judge the merit of policies, programmes, or institutions), educational (with a view toward understanding of educational action), and action research (involving feedback of information to guide revision and refinement of the action). Various investigators (Guba and Lincoln, 1981;

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Yin, 1981; Donmoyer, 1987; Merriam, 1988; Stenhouse, 1988) have enumerated the significant features of case study methodology, including the question of case study selection, approaches to fieldwork, organisation of records, and analysis and reporting of findings. Merriam (1985) provides a useful summary of pre-1985 literature dealing with case study research.

Some researchers (e.g., Elbaz, 1983) have concentrated on a single case study; others have studied larger groups. The present research is based on in-depth case studies of four student teachers who were supervised by the researcher. The supervisor-cum-researcher role is consistent with Stenhouse's (1988:51) observation to the effect that:

> "The observer may be fully participant, that is, filling an available role in the social setting under observation."

10.4.1 Yin (1984)

As Yin points out in his introduction (1984:13), case studies:

> "... are the preferred strategy when "how" or "why" questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context."

Yin (1984:24) provides a formal definition of a case study:

> "A case study is an empirical inquiry that:
> • investigates a contemporary phenomenon within it's real-life context; when
> • the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which
> • multiple sources of evidence are used

All of the foregoing tend to support the use of case studies in pre-service teacher education. In the case of the current research, the researcher is interested in the "how": the manner in which the pre-service teacher approaches the practicum; as well as the "why": the nature of the cognitive processes which appear to be generating the observed behaviour. As an observer, the researcher has little control over events in the classroom, other than the indirect influence which she exerts in the course of her supervisory duties. The focus is clearly in a contemporary area, i.e., pre-service teacher training; and the context is the real-life environment of the practicum classroom.

As regards multiple sources of evidence, as Yin (1984:20) points out, "the case study's unique strength is its ability to deal with a full variety of evidence - documents, artefacts, interviews, and observations." In the case of the current research, the sources of evidence have comprised a wide range of data, including lesson plans, video taped lessons, and interviews, as well as other types of documentation such as repertory grids, journals, etc.

Yin (1984:28) defines the concept of the "research design", i.e. the "action plan for getting from here to there" where "here" is defined as the initial set of questions to be answered by the research, and "there" as the set of conclusions to drawn from the investigation into these questions. He defines the five components of a research design as being:

(1) A study's questions;
(2) its propositions, if any;
(3) its unit(s) of analysis;
(4) the logic linking the data to the propositions; and
(5) the criteria for interpreting the findings.

The questions which serve as the focus for the current research are as outlined in Section 1.4, and relate to the nature of the schemata which guide the manner in which pre-service teachers approach teaching. There are no explicit propositions as such for the current research, which Yin acknowledges (1984:30) to be legitimate in cases where the topic of research is the subject of "exploration".

The primary units of analysis of the current research are the speech acts which represent the most basic elements of classroom discourse, analysis of which is summarised in terms of tables of discourse parameter statistics (see Chapter 11). These statistics have been augmented by other data derived from repertory grids designed to measure changes in perceptions of the various teaching techniques over the course of the training year, as well as commentary extracted from interviews, journals, and other textual material.

Interpretation of the research findings has been qualitative to the extent that the topics being dealt with, viz., the schemata dimensions and the phase-oriented concept of lesson structure (see Chapter 11), are somewhat intangible by their nature. The lesson phases which have been posited are based on the apparent functions being effected by each phase. Although to some extent intuitive, these functions appear to satisfy the structural and

cognitive requirements of a "lesson". The schemata are even more intangible, but the findings appear to be supported by the subjects' expressed views on the various dimensions of each schema as evidenced by the considerable amount of commentary extracted from interviews and pre- and post-conferences.

Finally (1984:36), Yin lists four principal criteria for judging the quality of a research design, which criteria comprise *construct validity, internal validity, external validity,* and *reliability.*

The first of these criteria, *construct validity,* relates basically to the manner in which the researcher chooses the kinds of data on which the research is to be based and sets about collecting this data. As noted previously, principal sources of data for the current study comprise lesson plans and transcriptions of video taped lessons. Analysis of the findings arising out of analyses of these two sources of data is fleshed out by insights from the textual commentary. Yin mentions "multiple sources of evidence" as another factor which enhances construct validity; such multiple sources have been provided by the "triangulation" approach of the current research.

Internal validity relates to exploration of causal relationships which exist between the observed data, i.e., the extent to which event x leads to event y. However as Yin points out (1984:38), this logic "... is inapplicable to descriptive or exploratory studies...", which categories encompass the current research.

External validity relates to the problem of knowing whether a study's findings are generalisable beyond the immediate case study. Yin (1984:38) cites this aspect as being a major barrier in doing case studies; however he goes on to comment on the contrast between *case study* research and *survey* research in which a sample (if selected correctly) readily generalises to a larger universe, and asserts that "... **the analogy to samples and universes is incorrect when dealing with case studies.**" (emphasis Yin's). This is because "survey research relies on *statistical* generalisation, whereas case studies (as with experiments) rely on *analytical* generalisation" in which "the investigator is striving to generalise a particular set of results to some broader theory." This is clearly the case of the

current research, the findings of which are being used to posit theories both as to models of lesson structure as well as to the conflicts which exist between competing schemata. However in acknowledgement of the fact that a single case study may be seen as insufficient evidence for positing such theories, the supporting findings from a further three case studies have been included in the Appendix.

Finally, *reliability* relates to objective of conducting a study such that, if a later investigator should conduct a similar study, following exactly the same procedures as described by the earlier investigator and utilising the same data, the later investigator would arrive at similar findings and conclusions. As Yin (1984:40) advises: "The general way of approaching the reliability problem is to make as many steps as possible as operational as possible, and to conduct research as if someone were always looking over your shoulder." The current research has been conducted with this admonition very much in mind. However the topics being dealt with are, as noted previously, somewhat intangible; whether another researcher would draw the exact same conclusions must be left to the judgement of subsequent research in this area.

10.5 INTERVIEWS

As defined by Cohen and Manion (1979:241), the research interview is defined as:

> "... a two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research-relevant information, and focused by him on content specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction, or explanation."

Spradley (1979, 1980) provides guidelines for the carrying out an ethnographic interview, and illustrates the various types of questions which are useful in eliciting information about the domain under study. These include descriptive questions (which elicit broad descriptions of events occurring with in the domain), structural questions (which focus on relationships among objects and events) and contrast questions (which explore the ways in which objects or events differ from one another).

A substantial amount of background data on the case study has been elicited by way of such interviews. Three major interviews were conducted with the case study students: one at the beginning of coursework, one halfway through the practicum, and one at the end. The principal purpose of these interviews was to elicit a wide range of opinions from the subjects as to their views of teaching, of themselves, of their pupils, etc. The cluster printouts from several repertory grids (see Section 10.6 below) were used as "conversation starters" to guide the flow of the interviews.

Interviews were subsequently analysed through the constant comparative method as described in Section 10.2 above.

10.6 REPERTORY GRIDS

Cohen and Manion (1979:263) refer to personal construct theory (Kelly, 1955; see also Section 6.3.3) as "one of the most interesting theories of personality to have emerged this century and one that has had an increasing impact on educational research..." They describe the background of its development:

> "The insights George Kelly gained from his clinical work led him to the view that there is no objective, absolute truth and that events are only meaningful in relation to the ways they are construed by the individual. Kelly's primary focus is upon the way an individual perceives his environment, the way he interprets what he perceives in terms of his existing mental structure, and the way in which, as a consequence, he behaves towards it."

As they (1979:264) describe the theory:

> "Kelly proposes that each person has access to a limited number of *constructs* by means of which he evaluates the phenomena that constitute his world. These phenomena - people, events, objects, ideas, institutions and so on - are known as *elements*. He further suggests that the constructs that each of us employ may be thought of a bipolar, that is, capable of being defined in terms of polar adjectives good - bad) or polar phrases (makes me feel happy - makes me feel sad.)"

The repertory grid is an associated instrument used to elicit a person's constructs within any particular "range of convenience", i.e., groupings of elements which share some

common characteristic. The grid used in the current study was a Teaching Techniques grid designed to elicit the student teacher's views of the effectiveness of different types of classroom approaches. The 19 elements (pair work, group work... pronunciation drills, sentence-making) were elicited via a brainstorming session from a group of student teachers, and are hence valid reflections of the students' own perceptions of what constitute teaching techniques. In this case the eight constructs (interesting, effective, innovative, enjoyable, challenging, orderly, easy, motivating) were supplied rather than elicited from the individual case studies; these constructs (along with their polar opposites) also reflected student teachers' expressed views as to significant adjectives which might be applied to teaching techniques. As pointed out by Cohen and Manion (1979:266), current repertory grid theory supports the use of supplied constructs "... in experiments where hypotheses have been formulated and in those involving group comparisons."

11.0 PERSPECTIVES ON CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

The following chapter describes the specific approaches to the analysis of the three principal types of data collected for the present study: lesson plans, video taped lessons, and textual material. The present chapter is intended as background to the more detailed analysis, and will look at:

> (1) The manner in which other researchers have approached the analysis of classroom discourse
>
> (2) The particular perspective adopted by the current research on the manner in which a lesson is structured as well as the relationship between the various levels and components of the structural hierarchy

It should be noted that much of the latter perspective evolved during the course of the current research, on a "constant comparative" basis, rather than representing a set of a priori assumptions on the part of the researcher.

11.1 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES

Basic procedures for observing classroom interaction and teacher behaviours were developed in the 1960's; these studies proliferated during the following decade. Central to the systematic observation of classrooms was the work of Flanders; however his approach was not felt to be relevant to the present study because it was based on arbitrary 30-second time units and predetermined checklist categories.

More relevant were the studies which used transcribed materials to establish patterns of discourse. The ones of most significance for the present study are described below. The summaries also include commentary on those features of the studies which have been useful in formulating an approach to the current research, and ways in which their aims and methods of analysis have differed from those of the current study.

11.1.1 Bellack et al.

Bellack et al. (1966:1) studied classroom discourse in order to "describe the patterned processes of verbal interaction that characterise classrooms in action." The study involved

teachers in seven metropolitan New York high schools, teaching a unit in international trade to 345 students in 15 classes. Four lessons from each class were taped, transcribed, and analysed.

Bellack et al. found that the verbal actions of students and teachers could be classified in four major categories, which they termed *pedagogical moves*. These categories included the moves of Structuring (setting the context for subsequent behaviour), Soliciting (eliciting a verbal response), Responding (occurring in relation to soliciting moves), and Reacting (modifying and\or rating what has been said previously). Analysis of these moves indicated that they tended to occur in certain cyclical patterns or combinations, which Bellack et al. (1966:5) referred to as *teaching cycles*. A total of 21 different such combinations were identified. Transcribed protocols were split into a series of pedagogical moves, which were coded in the following format to indicate features of research interest:

T / STR / IMX / XPL / 4 /PRC / FAC / 2
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8)

where the codes describe the following:

(1) Speaker
(2) Type of pedagogical move
(3) Substantive meaning
(4) Substantive-logical meaning
(5) Number of lines in (3) and (4)
(6) Instructional meaning
(7) Instructional-logical meaning
(8) Number of lines in (6) and (7)

Substantive meanings refer to the subject matter under study by the class; substantive-logical meanings refer to the cognitive processes involved in dealing with this subject matter, e.g., defining, interpreting, explaining, etc. Instructional meanings refer to matters pertaining to classroom management, assignments, and procedures which are part of the instructional process; instructional-logical meanings are generally analogous to the substantive-logical meanings as noted above, except as applied to instructional matters.

The analysis of all of this coded data generated a total of 61 tables of statistics, which formed the basis for detailed commentary on the use and frequency of occurrence of each of the basic types of pedagogical moves. As might be expected, teachers were found to generate the majority of structuring, soliciting, and reacting moves, whereas students accounted for the majority of responding moves. A fair degree of consistency was found among the 15 teachers as regards the number and types of pedagogical moves generated by them per lesson. A very considerable degree of consistency was noted for any given teacher over the four lessons taught, i.e., teaching "style" tended to remain consistent.

Bellack et al. followed Wittgenstein's (1958) concept of the classroom as a language game with set moves which the "players" followed, and (1966:137) felt that by describing the moves, one could infer the tacit rules governing the interaction:

> "The verbal behaviour of the classroom is viewed as a language game that is composed of smaller sets of actions called sub-games. A sub-game is a set of actions with regulations performed by agents during a given period of time, and presumably carried out for certain reasons. The various sub-games together constitute the game as a whole."

Aside from the generalised system of coding, the present study differs in various ways from Bellack et al. in that (1) the kinds of speech acts involved in English language teaching vary considerably from content-oriented subjects such as international trade, (2) novice rather than experienced teachers are involved, (3) areas of research interest include other features such as teaching aids, materials, continuity linkages, and classroom focus, and (4) a principal aim is to infer the kinds of goals which are being pursued by the teacher.

11.1.2 Sinclair and Coulthard

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) adopted Bellack's concept of moves because they were trying to identify the structure of discourse above the rank of clause. Therefore, they chose to focus on classroom interaction because, unlike conversation, it was highly formalised. As they describe (1975:8) the linguistic focus of their study:

> "The research project set out to describe both the structure of one form of discourse - that is, the way in which units above the rank of clauses are related and patterned - and the way in which such language functions as

statement, question, and command are realised through grammatical structure and position in the discourse."

They developed their analysis system by tape recording six lessons of eight groups of 10-11 year old pupils being taught lessons on hieroglyphics by their classroom teachers.

The smallest unit of analysis was the speech act, which they defined as a clause, phrase, or word. They had five "moves" - opening, answering, follow-up, framing, and focusing - which were realised by one or more speech acts. Above this were two types of exchanges, the boundary exchange or teaching exchange. Above this in the hierarchy was the transaction, of which there were three types: preliminary, medial, and terminal. Although these were part of the lesson, Sinclair and Coulthard did not specify any typical patterns.

They identified 22 speech acts: marker, check, prompt, cue, bid, nominate, accept, loop, starter, elicitation, directing, informative, clue, acknowledge, reply, react, comment, evaluate, silent stress, metastatement, conclusion and aside. These acts were used as core categories for the present study, which ultimately defined a total of 48 types of speech acts..

11.1.3 Malcolm

Malcolm's study (1979) focused on speech acts as the basic unit of analysis. He aimed (1979:42) to provide a description in sociolinguistic terms of the classroom communication of aboriginal children with their teachers in primary schools in Western Australia, and felt that a finer classification of speech acts might help to highlight some of their communication problems.

Malcolm observed and tape recorded 115 lessons taught by 99 different teachers in 24 primary schools during the period 1973-1977. Arising out of this analysis of these protocols, he established 125 speech act types and 7 speech act categories, viz., eliciting, bidding, nominating, replying, acknowledging informing, directing. He examined the sequencing of speech acts in order to identify distinct routines related to classroom speech events and their recurring variations, and concluded (1979:258) that:

"I consider that classroom discourse is characterised by the use of regular patternings of speech acts which are attached to a limited number of oft-repeated classroom behaviours."

Furthermore (1979:298):

"Transcriptions were studied with a view to identifying sequences or chunks of discourse held together by strong topical and functional coherence."

Selected chunks of discourse were coded into speech acts in order to identify speech act patterns and describe predominant routines.

11.1.4 Green and Wallat

Several studies of particular interest (Green and Wallat, 1981; Green et al., 1988) viewed classroom processes from a sociolinguistic perspective. The research protocols, which were based on observations of two teachers teaching the same reading lesson to groups of 6-8 year olds, were taken from Green's original 1977 PhD dissertation. (See also Harker's propositional analysis in Section 11.1.5 below, which utilised the same protocols).

Transcripts from the video taped lessons were formatted in terms of the most elemental units of analysis, which were defined as *message units*; these roughly correspond to the speech acts of the current study. An example (1988:18) of the transcribed text is illustrated in Fig. 9 below:

Tran Line	Source	Interact Length	Message Unit	Contextualisation Cues
001	T	Single MU	THIS IS THE COVER PICTURE	1. Points to picture. 2. Looks at students at beginning of statement and back to picture by end of message. 3. Voice drops on picture. 4. Pause 2 seconds.

Fig. 9   Analysis According to Message Units (Green & Wallat)

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Green then carried out a process of "mapping" to reveal the underlying patterns of lesson structure. Based on contextual and verbal cues, *message units* were grouped into *interaction units* which generally correspond to the segment chunks of the current study. Thereafter, larger groupings were identified based on principles of conversational and thematic cohesion, by virtue of which a series of tied interaction cycles could be grouped into *instructional sequences*; these into *lesson phase units*; and these in turn tied together to form a *lesson*. (The above groupings correspond, respectively, to the phase segments, lesson phases, and lesson agenda of the current study.) Green observed that as lesson units are grouped at ever higher levels of abstraction, the nature of the cohesion changes from conversational/social (message units and interaction units) to thematic/semantic (instructional sequence units) to pedagogical (phase units and lesson).

Having mapped the lessons as described above, the mapping diagrams were examined to reveal the various kinds of patterns which emerged, including turn distribution, conversational demands, content focus, instructional strategies and requirements, and organisational structure among others. Examination of the data which emerged revealed various differences between the two teaching styles in terms of the differing tasks which the teachers assigned as a means of attaining their pedagogical goals and the communication strategies which they employed.

The above research is of particular relevance to the current study since it employs a similar discourse-oriented approach to the analysis of goal-driven lessons; develops a very similar hierarchy of lesson structure; and reaches similar conclusions regarding the manner in which the lesson goals shift from communication at the speech act and segment chunk level to ever more abstract pedagogical goals at higher levels.

11.1.5 Harker

Based upon earlier work by Kintsch (1974), Harker (1988) developed a microlevel propositional-based system for the analysis of classroom discourse. The paper referred to describes the manner in which this system was used to analyse and compare lessons given by two teachers teaching an identical reading lesson to groups of 6-8 year old students. (The same protocols as described in (Green et al., 1988) were used.) The aim of the study

was to isolate those features of the teaching approaches which appeared to be more effective, based on post-lesson tests of the pupils' comprehension of the reading matter.

Lines of text from the transcriptions of the video-taped lessons were analysed in terms of the propositional relationships contained within them. As defined by Harker (1988:51):

> "Propositions are composed of a finite set of relations which operate on, and connect, an unlimited set of possible concepts, and have a general form of concept-*relation*-concept. The concepts refer to the content of the talk; the relations describe how the concepts are connected. Relations can include *case relations* (agent, patient, instrument, dative); *descriptions of events or states* (result, goal, theme, location, manner); *descriptions of objects* (category, attribute, number, extent, degree); and *logical relations* (conjunction, disjunction, identity, equivalence, ordinal, causal, or conditional."

An example of the analysis provided by Harker (1988:53) is as follows:

No.	Transcript Line	Prop No.	Propositional structure
116	"How beautifully the tiger walks, the porcupine thought.	158	porcupine PAT thought THEME 159
		159	tiger PAT walks MAN beautifully

Fig. 10   Example of Propositional Analysis (Harker)

Hence, the ultimate unit of analysis used by Harker was the *proposition*. A sentence could theoretically be broken down into any number of propositions, interrelated and cross-referenced by various possible logical relationships. Thereafter, based on speech act signals and cues, the propositions were grouped into *message units*, which generally correspond to the segment chunks of the current study. These were in turn grouped into higher level units: *instructional sequence units* (corresponding to the lesson segments of the current study), *lesson phase units* (corresponding to the lesson phases of the current study) and, finally, the top-level *lesson*. The overall resulting hierarchical structure was therefore similar to that derived from the data of the present study.

Although propositional analysis purported to be the principal focus of Harker's paper, in actual fact the comparative analysis of lesson effectiveness was based more upon the general teaching approach as reflected in the choice of themes for higher level lesson phase units than on analysis of the low-level propositions and message units. Some degree of statistics were presented to explore the extent to which the respective teachers utilised complex questions (i.e., those incorporating three or more propositions) as compared to simple questions, but the results were inconclusive. The paper is of interest as it relates to the current study in that it derives basically the same hierarchy of lesson levels.

Although the proposition-based approach to analysis of classroom discourse is of interest, it is basically designed to provide a yardstick of cognitive complexity. However this did not suit the purposes of the present study, which was more oriented toward discovering the teaching goals which were reflected by the discourse.

11.1.6 Fanselow

Fanselow (1987) developed a coding system for analysing classroom interaction based on Bellack's concept of moves, i.e., soliciting, structuring, etc., but extended the categories of description to include elements generally similar to the classroom *discourse parameters* utilised by the current study:

Fanselow: Communication Characteristics	Current Study: Discourse Parameters
Source/Target	Interaction
Use	Speech Act
Content	Aspect
Medium	Teaching Aid
-	Materials
Move Type	-

The discourse parameters of the current study were generally based upon Fanselow's categories, but whereas Fanselow's descriptors were applicable to his *moves*, which corresponded generally to the *segment chunks* of the current study, the discourse parameters of the current study were adapted to describe discourse at the individual *speech act* level.

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Fanselow's system was originally developed for teacher training. Fanselow considered that it was important to have a neutral observation instrument that could be used by teachers to objectively assess their classroom teaching. He eventually extended this application for use in any given discourse situation. Hence, his main contribution was to develop a context-specific observation instrument with the largest number of variables of any instrument so far developed. This multi-faceted checklist need not be used in its entirety but could be applied as needed for particular aspects of classroom observation. Fanselow was not interested in discourse levels above the moves, since he was trying to describe the moves themselves in great pedagogical detail.

FOCUS: MAJOR CATEGORIES

Move What is being done?		Message How is it being done?		
Who or what is communi- cating to whom or what?	What is the purpose of the commun- ication?	What mediums are used to commun- icate?	How are the mediums used to take in or communi- cate context?	What areas of content are being communi- cated?
Source\Target	Move Type	Medium	Use	Content
teacher	structuring	linguistic	attend	life
student	soliciting	non-linguistic	characterise	procedure
other	responding	paralinguistic	present	study
	reacting	silence	relate	unspeci- fied
			reproduce	
			set	

Fig. 11 Characteristics of Communication (Fanselow)

11.2 PERSPECTIVES OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

Based on the results of previous research (see Section 2.2.3 on Classroom Goals), it was expected that a structure somewhat along the lines of the following diagram would be found in the course of analysing the case study lessons:

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Lesson
Agenda

Lesson
Phases

Phase
Segments

Teaching
Cycles

Speech
Acts
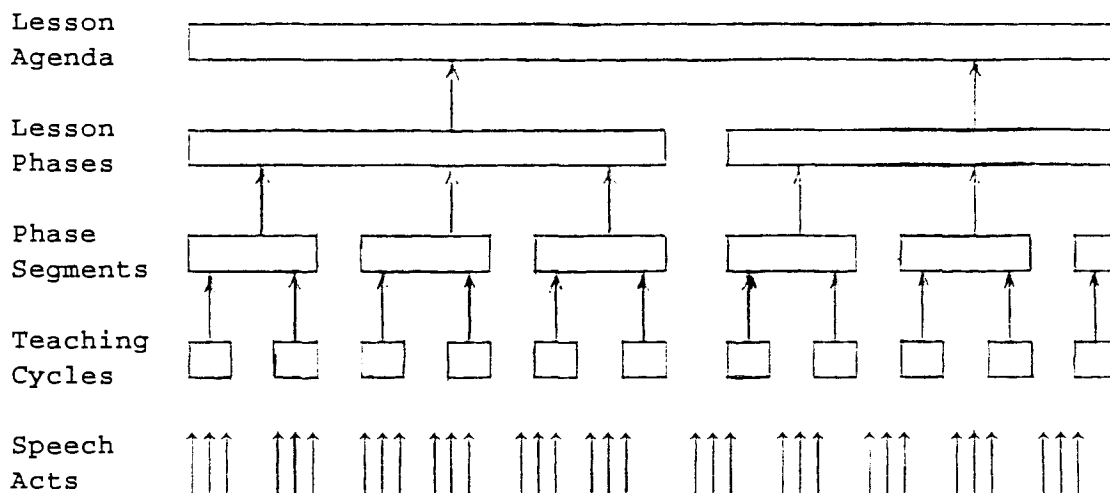
Fig. 12   Anticipated Structural Hierarchy of a Lesson

with the *Lesson Agenda* reflecting some overall pedagogical objective, *Lesson Phases* the major pedagogical steps or functions carried out to achieve this objective; *Phase Segments* the one or more steps required to achieve each phase; *Teaching Cycles* the groups of speech acts which represent meaningful units of communication; and finally *Speech Acts* as the most primitive unit of discourse analysis.

11.2.1 Teaching Cycles: Form or Function?

In the course of attempting to chunk Speech Acts into ever higher level hierarchical groupings, it was initially supposed that Teaching Cycles would occupy the next level as illustrated in Fig. 11 above. Indeed, most researchers appear to have accepted the *Teaching Cycle* or the equivalent speech act grouping as the next higher level of analysis, i.e., x-number of speech acts make up a Teaching Cycle; x-number of Teaching Cycles make up a Phase Segment or its equivalent, etc.

If all classroom discourse were structured in the form of such Teaching Cycles, this pattern might find a logical place in the hierarchy. Unfortunately, such is not the case. A substantial percentage of classroom discourse is taken up by teacher monologues or by pupil-to-pupil exchanges which do not correspond in any way to the classical "Teaching Cycle". This creates a major problem when trying to represent all discourse at the "Teaching Cycle" level. Furthermore, there is a troublesome discontinuity in what should

be a consistent hierarchy of increasing pedagogical abstraction. Traversing the hierarchy from speech acts to segments to phases to the overall agenda, *all* of these groupings should have some functional significance. Teaching Cycles, on the other hand, appear to be a matter of *form* as opposed to pedagogical *function*. It would appear that, having identified Teaching Cycles as a pattern of discourse, some researchers have got into the habit of including them as part of the lesson hierarchy when in fact they merely represent one of various alternative *forms* of classroom discourse.

As will be noted in Fig. 13 on the next page, for purposes of this research a lesson diagram has been assumed in which the various *forms* of discourse, i.e., teaching cycles, teacher monologue, pupil/pupil interactions and other such discourse patterns may be represented as *memo items* below the double-dashed line, as an indicator of the form taken by the discourse. However, no attempt was made to establish the boundaries of segment chunks within the lesson transcripts since classroom discourse per se was not the focus of this study.

11.2.2 Planning versus Presentation

A dichotomy encountered in developing a graphical representation of a lesson hierarchy was the fact that the upper three levels of the hierarchy differ from the lower two levels in that they reflect the basis on which the lesson is *planned* as opposed to the manner in which it is *presented* in the classroom. This realisation emerged during the analysis of student teacher lesson transcripts (see Chapter 13). From the nature of the lesson objective and the phase segment communication one can readily infer the lesson phases which are being effected by the student teacher. This will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 12 on methodology.

The two categories appear to represent a certain dichotomy in that the upper grouping is *plan*-related and the lower grouping *presentation*-related. The current study therefore prefers to represent the lesson structure as illustrated in Fig. 13 on the following page. The conceptual split between planning and presentation is useful when carrying out an analysis of lesson plans taken in isolation, i.e., with no corresponding lesson presentation against which to compare them.
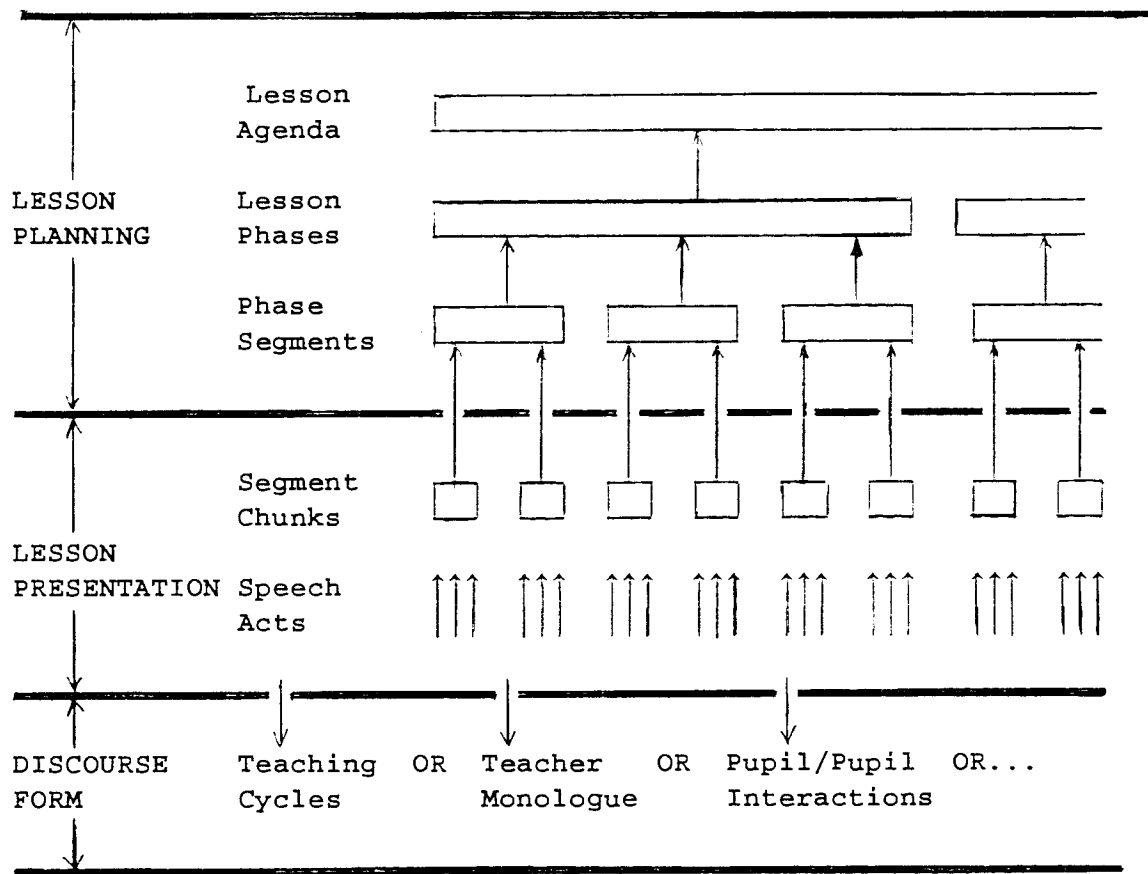
Fig. 13 A Proposed Diagram of Lesson Structure

Note that the above diagram is illustrative only: a phase may contain one or more phase segments; each of which may contain one or more segment chunks; each of which may contain one or more speech acts.

11.3 COMPARISON WITH OTHER RESEARCH

A comparison of the hierarchical lesson levels of the present research versus those reported on earlier in Section 11.1 is as per the tabulation on the following page:

<u>Summary of Hierarchical Lesson Categories</u>

<u>Bellack</u>	<u>Fanselow</u>	<u>Sinclair</u>	<u>Malcolm</u>	<u>Green</u>	<u>Skuja</u>
-	-	Lesson	-	Lesson Agenda	Lesson Agenda
-	-	Transaction	-	Lesson Phase Unit	Lesson Phase
-	-	Exchange Sequence	-	Instruct Sequence Unit	Phase Segment
Teaching Cycle	-	Exchange	Routines or Speech Act Sequences	Instruct Unit	Segment Chunk
Move	Move	Move	-	-	
-	-	Speech Act	Speech Act	Message Unit	Speech Act

Fig. 14 Comparison of Lesson Structure Categories

11.4 THE HIERARCHICAL CONCEPT

The fact that a lesson is structured in hierarchical levels of increasing pedagogical abstraction seems intuitively obvious. However there is a surprising dearth of information in the literature as regards the manner in which lessons are structured. A chapter on this subject from Richards and Lockhart (1994) evoked the following commentary during a book review by Elizabeth Taylor in the TESOL JOURNAL 4:1, Autumn 1994, p. 53:

"Another area excluded from earlier texts on classroom research was that of examining the lesson structure itself. Wajnryb's excellent (1992) Classroom Observation Tasks has a chapter on this - the only example I had seen previously with specific activities for examining lesson planning and structure."

Turning to the references in question, Chapter 6 of Richards and Lockhart (1994:113) is entitled "The Structure of a Language Lesson" and purportedly "concerns how lessons are organised into sequences and how the momentum of a lesson is achieved." Lesson structure is discussed in broad terms of Openings, Sequencing, Pacing, and Closure.

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Various options - which in the present research would generally correspond to the Phase Segment level - are cited for carrying out each of these activities. For example, options for the Opening activity are cited as including steps to:

- describe the goals of a lesson
- state the information or skills the students will learn
- describe what students are expected to do in the lesson
- etc.

The chapter quotes heavily from Rosenshine and Stevens (1986) and Wong-Fillmore (1985), and appears to have little in the way of direct research by the authors to support their conclusions. What comments there are on lesson structure are limited to broad options at the segment level, and no mention whatsoever is made of class management and other kinds of lesson interrupts which so plague pre-service teachers.

Wajnryb (1992) is a resource book whose primary purpose is to illustrate classroom observation tasks and approaches which can be used by teachers to carry out action research to improve their own teaching. Chapter 4 "The Lesson", touches upon pre- and post-lesson activities such as planning and reflection, and provides some treatment of Openings and Closures. This coverage is, if anything, even more superficial than that of Richards and Lockhart, although some mention at least is made of the problems associated with lesson interrupts ("lesson breakdowns"). As an example of the general flavour (1992:71):

> "A lot of different events make up a lesson. These can be grouped into broad lesson stages, or into even smaller phases. How we divide them up very much depends on the criteria we use. Two major sets of criteria are: the purpose of the activity, such as accuracy versus fluency, and the means of organisation such as teacher-directed versus student-controlled (Byrne 1987).
>
> How we recognise the end of one activity or phase and the start of another is usually through the teacher's signals. These links signpost, or 'frame', the steps of a lesson."

A recommended observation sheet for recording the course of a (another teacher's) lesson includes simplistic headings such as: "What did teacher say?" and "What did teacher do?"

During review of the completed sheet, the teacher is advised to consider factors such as teacher/student talking time, patterns of student interaction, treatment of errors, and respective roles of teachers/students; such observations would hopefully lead to a reappraisal of one's own teaching.

Both of the above references, as regards their treatment of lesson structure, are relatively simplistic. The detailed hierarchical nature of lesson structure is ignored; the pedagogical nature of significant phases is only touched upon; very little is said about unplanned aspects of lesson presentation; and nothing is said about the nature of classroom discourse and its associated parameters. As van Lier (1988:154) points out in his short commentary on lesson structure: "...structuring of the discourse segmentation [of a lesson] of the form 'opening-middle-closing' is relatively trivial."

As regards lesson planning, several researchers (Morine-Dershimer, 1977; Clark and Elmore, 1981; Hayes-Roth and Hayes-Roth, 1979; 4.1.1) have recognised the hierarchical structure of lesson plans; however the concept was not expanded to include presentation-related aspects of the lesson.

11.5 DEFINING ELEMENTS OF THE LESSON HIERARCHY

Although the hierarchical structure of a lesson is, as mentioned above, intuitively apparent, it is useful to outline the manner in which an understanding of these levels emerged during the course of case study analysis. As discussed previously, perspectives as to the nature of the lesson, lesson phase, and phase segment levels emerged during analysis of the lesson transcripts, as well as perspectives on speech acts and segment chunks and the manner in which these related to upper (planning) levels of the lesson hierarchy. All of these observations, processed in a "constant comparative" manner, contributed to the evolving concept of hierarchical lesson structure as outlined in this Chapter.

11.5.1 The Lesson Agenda

The top level of the hierarchical structure of a lesson, which has been termed the *Lesson Agenda,* may be thought of as an expression of the overall pedagogical objective of the lesson. This top-level concept is fairly obvious and will not be belaboured further at this

point. As will be noted later in the course of analysing lesson plans, the expressed goals of the lesson are of interest in their own right to the extent that they clearly signal the aspiration level of the student teacher as regards the calibre of lesson they intend to teach; in many cases these goals are extremely reductionist.

11.5.2 Lesson Phases

It follows from the notion of a hierarchical lesson structure that the Lesson Agenda must itself be implemented in the form of various *Lesson Phases*, each of which corresponds to some basic pedagogical function in support of the lesson objective. Initially it was assumed that such Lesson Phases might take the form of the six fundamental "instructional functions" posited by Rosenshine and Stevens (1986:379), i.e., Review, Presentation, Guided Practice, Correctives and Feedback, Independent Practice, and Weekly and Monthly Reviews (see Section 5.2). In fact, analysis of the lesson plans and lesson transcripts revealed a quite different set of phases. In contrast to the Rosenshine and Stevens functions, the six basic pedagogical functions as tabulated in Fig. 19 below were identified. Codes refer to the abbreviations used during the coding of lesson transcripts.

The six groupings as shown appear to fulfil all of the essential *planned* communicative activities of the classroom. (*Unplanned* activities such as class management, lesson repairs, impromptu interactions, etc. are discussed later.) Some of the foregoing activities are more complex than others, and may be very short or very long; but they are all required in one form or another to successfully navigate through a classroom lesson. Hence, they may be considered at the top hierarchical level of Lesson Phases.

Code	Phase	Description
FO	FOCUS	To introduce a topic or language aspect, or to refocus by highlighting, summarising or recapitulating at the beginning of a new stage of the lesson
CL	CLARIFY	To explain or elaborate a concept, rule, or cognitive strategy
SE	SET UP TASK	To organise seating arrangements, interaction time, outcome, procedure, or strategies

```
DO    DO TASK     To carry out tasks set by the teacher

FI    FINISH TASK To stop work or end the lesson

RV    REVIEW TASK To go over or correct work done, present work,
                  or share work
```

Fig. 15 A Typology of Lesson Phases

Analysis at the phase level would attempt to ascertain how much of the lesson is taken up by a particular phase and what sequences of phase segments are used to implement each phase. This information would help to define patterns or styles of teaching.

11.5.3 Lesson Interrupts

The Lesson Phases as described above appear to encompass all of the *planned* activities of the classroom (at least, those observed during the current research); however there are a number of *unplanned* events which take place in the classroom. For purposes of this discussion we will refer to them as *Lesson Interrupts.*

During analysis of the lessons, four types of Lesson Interrupts were identified and classified according to their apparent function:

```
Code  Interrupt                     Function

CO    CONTROL     To control class behaviour or attention

IN    INTERACT    To interact with pupils via impromptu
                  comments or asides

RP    REPAIR      To correct misunderstandings

AD    ADVISE      To volunteer advice on how to succeed, e.g.,
                  in tests or in tasks
```

Fig. 16 A Typology of Lesson Interrupts

Since the above Lesson Interrupts arise in an unplanned manner out of unforeseeable situations evolving in the classroom, they present a particularly challenging situation to the

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student teacher. As such, the manner in which they were handled was expected to provide significant insights into individual teaching styles and strategies.

Given the nature of Lesson Interrupts and the manner in which they might occur at any point during a lesson, a final question arose as to how they might be incorporated into the hierarchical lesson structure as it had evolved up to this point. Lesson Interrupts might occur during a Lesson Phase or during the transition between Lesson Phases. Since by their nature they did not contribute in any direct way to any planned Lesson Phase, it would appear that they should not be subsumed under the Lesson Phase which they might be interrupting. Therefore they have been represented as a separate element at the Phase Level which interrupts a lesson. The diagram in Fig. 17 below illustrates the final configuration of the hierarchical lesson structure.
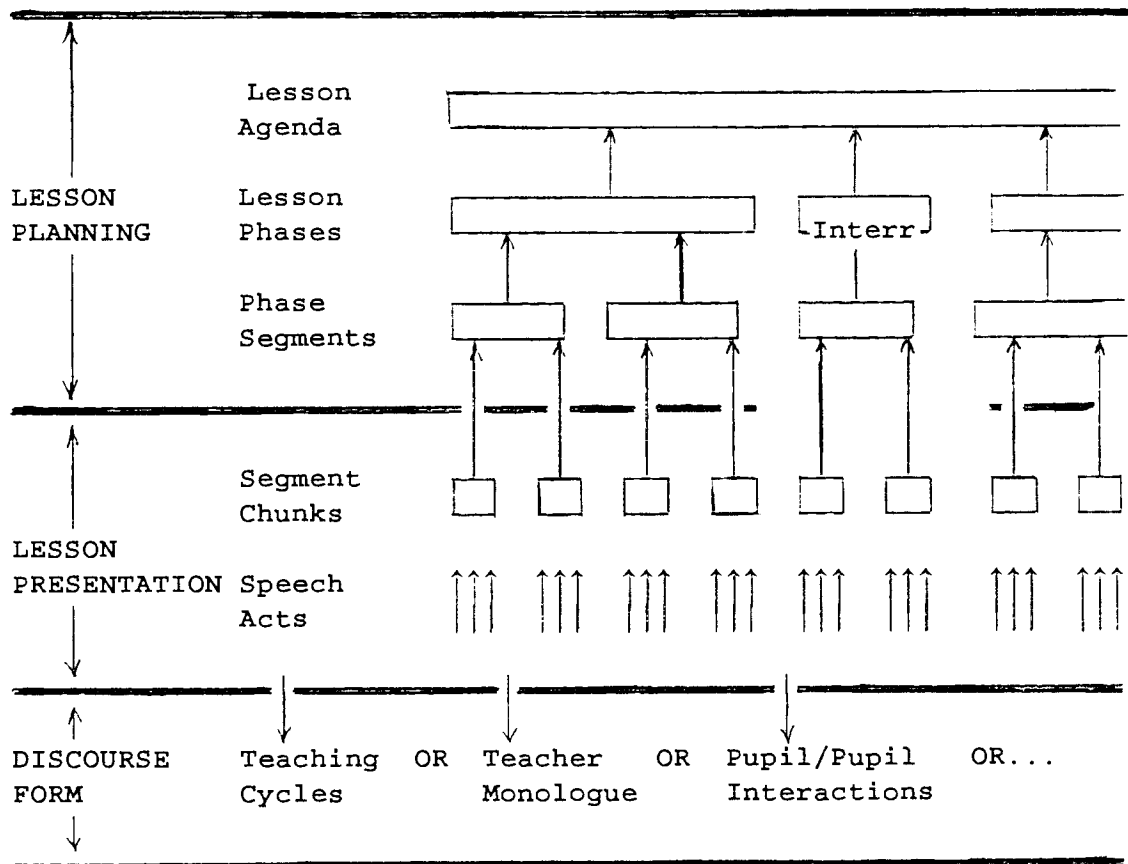
Fig. 17 Hierarchical Lesson Structure Including Interrupts

As will be noted, the heavy line which delineates that portion of the lesson which has been planned has been truncated such that it does not incorporate Lesson Interrupts. Within the lesson presentation area, the nature of the Phase Segments, Segment Chunks and speech acts are assumed to be the same irrespective of whether they are implementing a Lesson Phase or a Lesson Interrupt..

11.5.4 Speech Acts and Segment Chunks

Speech acts represent the most basic element of classroom discourse, and might reasonably be defined as the smallest unit of discourse which provides some meaningful communication on a stand-alone basis. The present approach therefore follows the Sinclair and Coulthard definition whereby a speech act may represent "a clause, phrase, or word", subject only to the minimal communicative function as mentioned above.

As will be discussed in more detail in the methodology section in the next chapter, speech acts have been taken as the basic unit of analysis; and discourse parameters have been assigned to each individual speech act. Comments on teaching style (see Section 11.6 below) have been based on an analysis of the discourse parameters associated with the speech acts used in the course of carrying out each of the various Lesson Phases (or Lesson Interrupts) of the lesson.

No attempt has been made to carry out a definitive analysis at the Segment Chunk level. Some Segment Chunks are relatively straightforward, to the extent they correspond to the standard Bellack "teaching cycle", e.g., a typical pattern for eliciting an adjective to describe a picture on an OHT:

```
10 1-030 Yes? <Teacher nods at pupil>    T+1 NOM CO -- O VI
   1-031 S Neat.                          1+T RES CO -- O VI
   1-032 Neat.                            T+1 ECH CO -- O VI
   1-034 Now he looks neat, right.        T+C ACC CO -- O VI
```

However a considerable percentage of total speech acts comprise teacher monologue which does not by any means lend itself to such neat characterisation. Indeed, the manner in which information is encapsulated into speech acts which in turn are grouped into segment chunks in such a manner as to implement the goals of the current Lesson Phase

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and Phase Segment in a pedagogically effective manner is considered by this researcher to be the very heart of classroom communication.

11.6 WHAT CONSTITUTES "TEACHING STYLE"?

To definitively measure and comment upon an individual's "teaching style" is a particularly daunting task, given the melange of personal, cognitive, and communicative factors reflected in classroom behaviour. Given the reservations regarding the feasibility of analysing classroom discourse at the Segment Chunk level as mentioned above, this research has endeavoured to assess teaching style in terms of the following parameters:

Pedagogical goals, i.e., the overall focus of the lesson, would appear to represent the most basic cornerstone of teaching style. Considering the extremes, language teaching can take place at two ends of a continuum. At one end of the spectrum, language is considered as *communication* and the teaching focuses on different types of discourse, enabling the teacher to have a more flexible exploratory and interactive approach to teaching. At the other end, the pedagogical goals are reduced to code-level grammar and lexical error correction, in which case the teaching style becomes exercise-based, and mechanistic, i.e., looking for right/wrong answers. To the extent experienced teachers have a good understanding of the subject, their pupils, and planning strategies for units of work, they can set interactive and flexible teaching goals. Lacking these capabilities, pre-service teachers will tend to focus on the teaching of discrete items.

The degree of *teacher/pupil interaction* is another important element of teaching style, since it defines the extent to which the classroom communication revolves around the teacher or the learner.

The *aspect* parameter of the lesson indicates the linguistic and cognitive complexity of the lesson or aspects of task and class management.

The *continuity* parameter indicates the degree to which cognitive links are being established between the current segment focus of the lesson and other segments, other lessons, or the unit of work.

The manner in which *teaching aids* and *materials* are utilised is another significant element in teaching style to the extent that variety is introduced into lessons as opposed to getting "locked into" some particular favourite (and possibly inappropriate) aids and materials.

Finally, the manner in which language and language concept learning is *scaffolded* for the pupils is an extremely important element of teaching style. The organiser for this element of style would be the phase segment and the manner in which segment chunks are communicated in the classroom. However as noted above, no attempt has been made at this time to carry out a major analysis at the segment chunk level.

The intent of the previous commentary has been to provide a general background to the research approach to the manner in which a lesson is structured, and how it may be analysed. The following chapters describe the detailed approach taken to the analysis of the three basic sources of data.

11.7 SUMMARY

The following summarises the important points of this chapter:

- A lesson may be considered as a hierarchically structured activity of varying levels of pedagogical abstraction

- The top level of this structure may be considered as the Lesson Agenda, which defines the broad pedagogical goal of the lesson

- The Lesson Agenda is achieved through a series of Lesson Phases, each of which carries out some essential pedagogical function. Such Phases include Focus, Clarify, Set Up Task, Do Task, Finish Task, and Review Task.

- Lesson Phases in turn are implemented through a series of steps, which will be referred to as Phase Segments.

- The above elements of lesson structure are defined during the stage of Lesson Planning. Once into the classroom, Phase Segments are implemented through a series of Segment Chunks, each of which carries out some communicative function.

- Segment Chunks in turn consist of a series of Speech Acts, which are the most primitive elements of communication.

- A system of Discourse Parameters, when applied to each of the speech acts, provide a means of summarising the cogent features of such speech acts including the nature of teacher/class interaction, the type of speech act, the aspect or focus of the speech act, the degree of lesson continuity reflected by the speech act, and the teaching aids and materials in use at the time.

- In addition to the planned phases of the lesson, a series of unplanned lesson interrupts may occur during the presentation and which are related to Control, Interaction, Repair, and Advice. The manner in which the student teacher handles these unforeseen activities is an important element of teaching style.

- The manner in which lesson content is encapsulated in speech acts which are in turn combined to form pedagogically effective Segment Chunks represents the very heart of classroom communication

12.0 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

12.1 BACKGROUND OF RESEARCH SETTING

As the sole establishment dedicated to teacher education in Singapore, the Institute of Education provides a wide range of courses related to kindergarten, primary, secondary, in-service, Heads of Department, and future Principal training.

12.1.1 Diploma in Education Course (Singapore)

The one-year Diploma programme for training secondary school teachers on which the current study is based runs from July to May. Although a few candidates had obtained degrees outside of Singapore, most of them were graduates of the National University of Singapore with a B.A. in their teaching subject(s). Aside from the usual educational theory courses, Dip.Ed. students are required to take two methodology subjects.

During the first five months the students did coursework at the Institute, and for the last four months they were assigned to schools for teaching practice. The practicum began with two weeks of "School Experience" (school observation) in January at which time they gained some familiarity with the school to which they were assigned, the teachers they would be working with, the classes they would be teaching, and the school scheme of work. They then returned to the Institute for two weeks, part of which time was spent in workshop sessions planning a unit of work for their first two weeks in the school. During teaching practice a supervisor from the Institute made a minimum of five visits to observe their performance and provide guidance. In the final month, the students returned to the Institute to sit examinations and submit assignments (see Fig. 18 on the following page).

12.1.2 Pupil Experience (PE)

Aside from lectures, tutorials, and workshop sessions, all students were required to participate in Pupil Experience, which lasted for a period of eight weeks during the first term of coursework. Students went out to three schools on Saturday mornings and worked in fours with groups of 8-12 remedial pupils. They were accompanied by an I.E. supervisor (one per school) who stayed with them throughout the teaching sessions and participated in post-teaching conferences.

```
          One Year Diploma in Education Course
  Jul   Aug   Sep   Oct   Nov   Dec   Jan   Feb   Mar   Apr   May

          Coursework                            Practicum
  <────────────────────────────────>   <────> <────────────────> <────>
  <─────────────>                       School     (12 weeks)      Exams
   Pupil                                Experience                  etc.
   Experience                           (2 weeks)
   (8 weeks)
```

Fig. 18   Schedule of the Pre-Service Training Year

The first school session was dedicated to diagnosing pupil language needs, after which the students returned to I.E., chose a theme, and begin planning the unit which they would teach over the subsequent seven weeks. The groups of four were divided into two pairs. One week one pair planned and taught; the alternate week this pair observed the other pair teaching. This cycle of planning, teaching, observing, and post-conferencing continued throughout the first term. Students were asked to keep notes on one particular pupil to summarise later into a case study. On a weekly basis, students reflected upon each lesson taught and wrote up their observations into a journal which was given to the supervisor to review and respond to.

12.1.3 Coursework

Coursework totalled 120 hours and covered methods of teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as vocabulary and grammar. Also included were components dealing with testing and evaluation of pupil learning, as well as materials and textbook utilisation.

12.1.4 Teaching Practice (TP)

Each student was required to teach two subjects. In the case of the present case studies, English was their first teaching subject and Literature the second. The supervisor made three to four lesson visits for the first subject, and two for the second teaching subject. Three days before a school visit, the supervisor met to pre-conference with the student, at which time the proposed lesson plan was discussed. Immediately after observation of the

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lesson, the supervisor and the student teacher met to evaluate the lesson and set goals for further teaching development.

Every week the student had to keep a journal for submission for the supervisor to respond to. Four short questions were set to focus their weekly reflection:

What were you pleased with?
What things did not go as expected?
What are you going to work on next?
What do you need help with?

Students were assessed based on a final lesson which they gave at the end of teaching practice. They could choose any particular lesson for the supervisor to observe for the final assessment. (By this time the Supervisor generally had a grade in mind and the final observation was mostly to confirm this grade.)

12.1.5 Choice of Case Studies

A class of 28 students all of whom were graduates of the National University of Singapore and whose major/minor teaching subject was English Language/Literature was assigned to one particular school for Pupil Experience. The researcher was assigned as supervisor to this school.

During subsequent Teaching Practice, the researcher therefore elected to supervise four of the above-mentioned students for purposes of the research in order to provide continuity of data over the training year. All four case studies were female and all were graduates of the National University of Singapore, with a B.A. degree in English Language and Literature and enrolled in the Post Graduate Diploma Course in English Language teaching at the Secondary level.

Ching Ching was chosen as the key case study, the in-depth findings from which would be reflected in the main body of the dissertation. Although the remaining three case studies were analysed in equal depth, due to space considerations the associated findings were relegated to the Appendix. The gist of these findings were however compared against the "base" case study in Chapter 14.

12.2 TYPE AND TIMING OF DATA COLLECTION

Three principal types of data were analysed: Lesson Plans, Video Taped Lessons, and Text (either written or transcribed from oral material):

VIDEO TAPES
lessons (4)

LESSON   TEXT
PLANS
all English language   PE journals (8)
lessons taught during   questionnaire (1)
the practicum   interviews (3)
                                pre-conferences (4)
                                post-conferences (4)
                                practicum evaluation (1)
                                 activity grids (4)
                                class take-over (1)
                                 concerns (3)
                                TP journals (12)
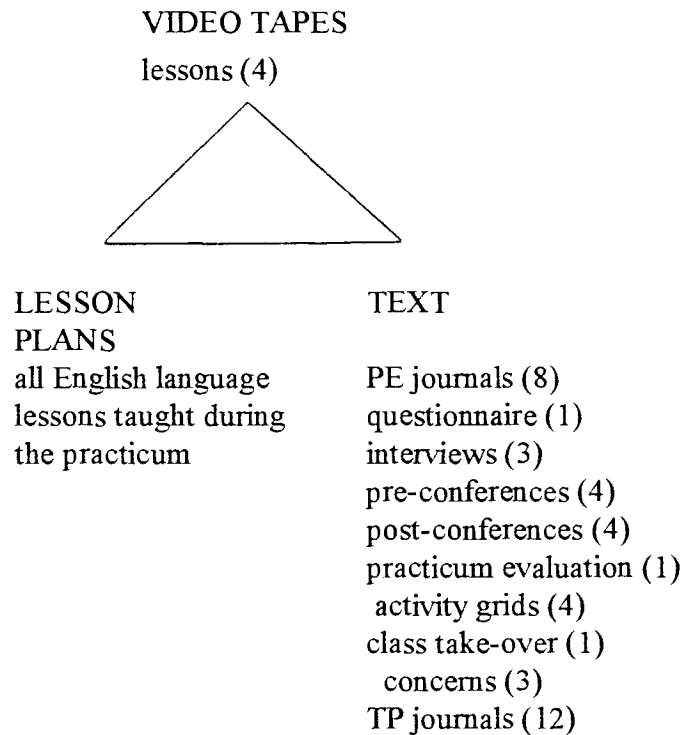
Fig. 19 Three Principal Types of Data

These are described in more detail as follows:

12.2.1 Lesson Plans

All English language lessons taught during the practicum were kept by students as part of the Teaching Practice file. The case study students' plans were xeroxed and were analysed in order to gauge the extent to which they reflected their "teaching style", as well as to assess how typical the four video taped lessons were as compared to the remainder of lessons taught during the practicum.

12.2.2 Video Taped Lessons

The case study students were video-taped teaching two lessons in the first five weeks of teaching practice and two lessons in the last five weeks. At the end of the first five weeks,

during a one week break, the students were given the videos to take home and view; and then came back to discuss their impressions during the second interview. For interview three, they viewed lessons three and four. The purpose of this exercise was to gauge their level of self-awareness with regard to perceptions of their own teaching, and to stimulate discussion during the interviews.

These video recordings were also transcribed in their entirety with a view to analysing the students' classroom approaches.

12.2.3 Text (Written by Case Studies)

Questionnaire

After pilot-testing in July 1989, a Questionnaire was administered to all of the student intake on the first day of their coursework in July 1990. This was part of an awareness raising exercise as part of the introduction to the subsequent coursework.

The Questionnaire was in three sections. Section I dealt with subject teaching aspects and had three questions on each of the language skill areas: listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar. The first was aimed at gaining insights into their subject awareness; the second, knowledge of methodology; and the third, their rationale for the use of one of the approaches mentioned.

Section II asked them to describe briefly the best and worst teacher they had ever known. Section III explored their perceived strengths and weaknesses with regard to language teaching. These provided the starting point from which subject knowledge and perceptions, as well as their concerns and images of teaching could be followed through the year.

Classroom Activity Grids

During the post-practicum debriefing in May 1990, students were asked to participate in small group discussions in which they listed all of the teaching activities which they had used or seen used during teaching practice. They were then asked to write an evaluative descriptor word alongside each activity. These group efforts were collected and collated,

resulting in a list of 19 teaching activities (e.g., pair work, reading aloud, textbook exercises, etc.). A total of 8 major descriptors and their negative counterparts were identified (e.g., interesting, effective, innovative, etc.) versus (boring, ineffective, traditional, stressful, etc.).

The above information served as the basis for a repertory grid wherein teaching activities were used as elements and the descriptors used as pre-defined constructs. The case study students were asked to complete these grids in four phases: one each at the beginning and end of coursework, one after five weeks of teaching practice, and one at the end of teaching practice. The purpose of the grids was twofold: to reflect changes in student perceptions of teaching activities and their value over the course of the year, and at the same time to serve as "discussion starters" during interviews.

Elicitation and analysis of repertory grids was carried out using the **G-PACK** computer program distributed by the Personal Construct Group, Department of Psychology, University of Wollongong,, Australia.

Journals
During Pupil Experience, students were required to keep weekly journals (a total of 8) to record their observations. Weekly journals were also kept during the practicum (a total of 12). These written journals were subsequently typed for word processing and text analysis.

Class Take-over
The case study students were asked to write down what they would tell the teacher who was taking over their class after TP. This was both a "conversation starter" (for Interview 3) and an indicator of their perceptions of the learners as well as subject teaching.

Concerns
The students were asked to note their concerns regarding pupils and English language teaching. This was done at the end of Pupil Experience, end of coursework, and end of Teaching Practice.

12.2.4 Text (Transcribed from Interviews/Conferencing)

Interviews

Three in-depth interviews with the case study students were conducted during the year. The interviews were timed to reflect developmental changes taking place, i.e., the first at the beginning of the year, the second after five initial weeks of the practicum, and the third at the end of the practicum. The interviews were tape-recorded and were subsequently transcribed in their entirety.

These were structured interviews in which the researcher followed a set of pre-planned topics. Also, a large part of the interview discussion centred on thinking tasks which had been completed prior to the interview, e.g., Concerns, Good Teacher, and Class Take-over. Before coming to the second interview, the case studies had the opportunity to view video lessons 1 and 2 and reflect on them so that their reactions could be discussed. Similarly, before interview 3 they viewed themselves teaching lessons 3 and 4. Of course, other teaching-related topics were discussed as they arose during the conversation.

Interview 1	Interview 2	Interview 3
Activity Grid #1	Activity Grid #2 & #3	Activity Grid #4
Concerns #1	Concerns #2	Concerns #3
Good Teacher Attributes #1	Good Teacher Attributes #2	Good Teacher Attributes #3
	Lesson Video # 1 & #2	Lesson Video # 3 & #4
	Unit Planning Discussion	Unit Planning Discussion
	"Return to School" Goals	Class Take-over Advice
		Training Year Reflections

Fig. 20 Topics Discussed During Interviews

Pre- and Post-Lesson Conferences

A total of four lessons were observed by the supervisor during the practicum: two during the first five weeks and two during the second five weeks. Prior to each lesson a pre-conference was held to discuss the lesson plan with the student; subsequently a post-conference was held to discuss the outcome of the lesson. These conferences were tape recorded and transcribed. All four pre- and post-conferences followed a standard

sequence of discussion points, but were open-ended to the extent that other teaching issues might be discussed as they came up.

Pre-Conference	Post-Conference
Rationale for teaching the lesson	Case study reactions to lesson
Place in unit of work	(linking back to personal goals)
Lesson objectives	
Lesson steps and how implemented	Detailed discussion of lesson presentation
Concerns	Discussion of observation focus
Personal goals for lesson presentation	
Observation focus (by supervisor) for lesson	

Fig. 21 Topics Discussed During Pre- and Post-Conferences

Practicum Evaluation

At the end of the practicum, all English methods students were assembled in the language lab and asked to individually tape record their impressions of the Teaching Practice experience. This is the usual annual form of feedback practised by the English Studies Department. The tapes for the case study students were transcribed. This was another way of gleaning information about their TP perceptions, which were a final summative view of their experiences.

12.3 APPROACH TO ANALYSIS OF DATA

As described previously (12.2) three principal types of data were analysed: Lesson Plans, Video Taped Lessons, and Text (either written or transcribed from oral material). The following Sections describe the manner in which these data were analysed.

12.3.1 Analysis of Lesson Plans

Rationale

The lesson plans for all English language lessons taught during the practicum were kept by students as part of their Teaching Practice file. The case study plans were xeroxed and analysed with a view toward:

(1) gauging the extent to which the student teacher tended to settle into certain patterns of lesson presentation, and the extent to which these patterns were reflected consistently across the span of the practicum,

(2) gauging how typical or atypical the four video taped lessons were as compared to the whole corpus of lessons taught during the practicum; i.e., did the student teacher tend to choose a particular type of lesson with which she was most comfortable and which would most favourably reflect her teaching competence for purposes of supervisory visits, or were the lessons typical of those which she routinely taught?

Lesson Plan Corpus

During the practicum, student teachers taught for 10 weeks. Each week comprised five to six lessons, of which one lesson was a double period usually used for reading or writing lessons. Hence, a total of about 40 lesson plans would normally be prepared during the course of the practicum.

Coding of Lesson Plans

The lesson plans were first coded according to the principal language focus of the lesson, i.e., grammar, reading, writing, listening, speaking or vocabulary.

Next, the lesson plan steps were analysed to determine the basic types of lesson phases, e.g., Focus, Clarify, etc. that the lessons could be subdivided into. Each such lesson phase was then coded to reflect the principal type of interaction, task, and materials used. After coding, the elements of this plan would be represented as per Fig. 22 below:

```
CHING CHING LESSON 7.0-CLASS 1/C - 8/2/91 - GRAMMAR LESSON 1
GOAL: Inculcate awareness of how ADJECTIVES can improve
      writing; know and understand how adjectives are
      ordered and practise this skill

AIDS: 3 OHTs
```

		Aids/Materials
7.1 T+C FOCUS	Elicit adjectives from pupils to describe boy pictured on the OHT	OHT - boy
7.2 T>C CLARIFY	Explain terminology and function of adjectives	"

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```
7.3 T+C FOCUS
        Elicit additional adjectives          OHT - alien
        from pupils to describe alien
        pictured on the OHT
7.4 T>C CLARIFY
        Explain principles regarding the           "
        manner in which adjectives are
        ordered
7.5 T>C SET UP
        Direct pupils to remember the              "
        order of adjectives
7.6 T+C DO TASK
        Go through sentences and             OHT sentences
        reorder adjectives
7.7 T>C FINISH
        Check for missing homework                --
```

Fig. 22 Example of a Lesson Plan After Coding

Lesson Plan Goals

As mentioned previously (11.5.1), lesson *goals* were considered to be one of the important elements influencing teaching style. A second step in the coding of lesson plans was therefore to group into clusters the lesson objectives for each of the various types of lessons taught. Under grammar, for instance, would be grouped *tenses*, *adjectives*, *adverbs*, etc. Fig. 23 is an example of such a tabulation which summarises the goals of grammar lessons dealing with adjectives. (Numbers in square brackets refer to lesson numbers.)

```
GOALS: ADJECTIVES [7.0] [8.0] [31.0]
    be aware of how these can improve writing [7.0]
    know order of [7.0]
    reinforce function & definition of [8.0]
    be aware that there are 3 degrees of comparison for
        [31.0]
    know how 3 degrees are formed [31.0]
    practise using [7.0] [8.0] [31.0]
```

Fig. 23 A Tabulation of One Category of Lesson Goals

These particular tabulations provided a quick means of assessing the nature and focus of such goals.

Method of Analysis

After coding in the manner indicated above. the lesson plans were scanned to reveal insights into:

- the extent to which the student teacher appeared to concentrate on one type of language focus, e.g.. grammar

- the typical pattern of interaction. e.g.. teacher-to-class, teacher-with-class, group work, etc. and the nature of the lesson goals

- the extent to which the student teacher appeared to be locked into some particular teaching aid or material

The information thus gleaned would later be used to compare the typical lesson plan patterns with the lessons as actually observed in the classroom.

12.3.2 Analysis of Video Taped Lessons

Rationale

Although useful information can be extracted from the various textual protocols such as interviews, journals, etc., the ultimate forum for the analysis of teaching performance is of course the classroom. As a way of capturing the features of such performance, four complete lessons were videotaped. Transcriptions of the lessons were analysed with a view toward:

(1) defining the manner in which lessons are structured

(2) identifying the discourse and/or pedagogical features associated with each level of the structure

(3) identifying the manner in which an individual teaching style was reflected in lessons, i.e., the apparent teaching goals and the manner in which they were implemented

Transcription of Video Taped Lessons

During the 10-week period of teaching practice, a minimum of six supervisory visits were made to each student teacher. Of these, the four lessons which involved their major area of

study (English language) were video taped. (The remaining two lessons involved their minor subject, English literature).

Each of the lessons was initially transcribed in the following typical format:

```
FILE CHI.LS1 (Ching Ching Lesson Number 1)

        <Teacher at desk sorting papers>
Okay, look to the front.
        <Turns on OHP and puts first OHT with picture of boy
        without shirt>
Right, this is, of course, a..
        <Students respond: A boy.>
A boy, right? Now, I want you to look at what happens
to him now.
        <Puts overlay of shirt on boy>
Okay?
            etc.
```

Fig. 24 Video Taped Lesson as Originally Transcribed

Thereafter, the transcripts were numbered, coded, and analysed as described below.

Identification of Speech Acts

Teacher and student dialogue was split into speech acts as the basic unit for coding and analysis. *Speech acts*, to use the coined by Searle (1969), were defined along the lines described by Sinclair and Coulthard (see 11.1.2) as being the minimal unit of linguistic analysis which might consist of a clause, a phrase, or a word.

In instances where a complex sentence contained more than one pedagogical or social purpose, the sentence was split into separate speech acts for coding.

Numbering and Coding of Speech Acts

Each speech act was numbered and coded as described below. After coding, the segment of the transcript shown above would look as per Fig. 25 on the following page.

```
CHI.LS1 (As coded for analysis)
       <Teacher at desk sorting papers)
----------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|-|--|
   1-001 Okay, look to the front.        T>4 DIR BE -- - --
         <Turns on OHP and puts first
         OHT with picture of boy
         without shirt>
----------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|-|--|
   1-002 Right, this is, of course, a..  T+4 PRT CO -- O VI
----------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|-|--|
   1-003 Ss A boy.                        4+T RES CO -- O VI
----------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|-|--|
   1-004 A boy right?                     T+4 ACC CO -- O VI
----------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|-|--|
   1-005 Now, I want you to look at      T>4 DIR TA -- O VI
         what happens to him now.
         <Teacher puts overlay of shirt
         on boy>
----------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|-|--|
   1-006 Okay?                            T+4 NFC CO -- O VI


      speech    speech   interaction
      act       acts     speech act type
      number             aspect
                         continuity
      lesson             teaching aid
      number             materials
```

Fig. 25 Format for Coding of Video Transcripts

A total of six separate coding categories were developed to describe the type of interaction, type of speech act, current aspect of the lesson, the nature of the linkage or non-linkage with other lesson or lesson phases, and the type of teaching aids and materials in use with the pupils.

INTERACTION	SPEECH ACT TYPE	ASPECT	CONTINUITY	TEACHING AIDS	MATERIALS

SPEECH ACT
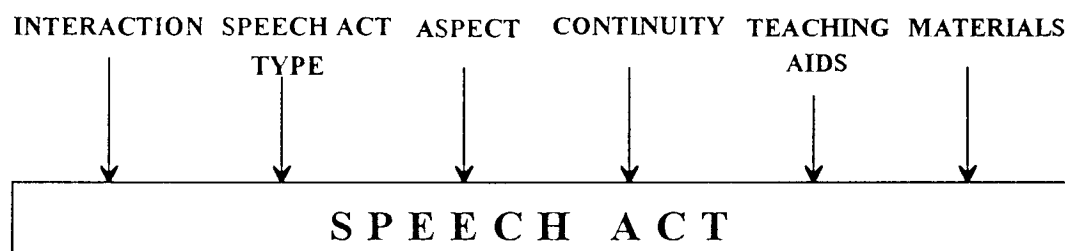
Fig. 26 Classroom Discourse Parameters

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[1] There could be more than one type of teaching aid in use at one time

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These coding categories, henceforth referred to as *Classroom Discourse Parameters*[2], are further detailed as follows:

Interactions - Interaction codes identify the source and audience of each speech act, i.e., from teacher to individual pupil, pair, group, or whole class; from one or more pupils to the teacher; from pupils to other pupils, etc. A total of 14 possible combinations were used, and these were assigned 3-letter codes. The purpose of this coding was to highlight the two types of teacher-related classroom interactions which were taking place, i.e., (1) teacher informing (T>...) and (2) teacher interacting (T+...) with pupils, usually via question-and-answer sequences. It should be noted that the primary purpose of this analysis was to focus on the teacher and not the pupil; hence, other possible pupil-pupil interaction codes were not coded.

Speech Acts - Speech acts refer to the verbal utterances of teacher and pupils, ranging from single words (e.g., "Right?") to whole sentences. A total of 48 different speech acts were identified. Analysis of this parameter was expected to offer insights into the kinds of discourse patterns favoured by the individual teacher.

Aspect - Each speech act has some primary aspect or topic which may relate to some specific feature of English language, e.g., grammar rule, etc., or real world knowledge or to aspects of classroom management. A total of 32 areas of focus were identified. Analysis of this parameter was expected to offer insights into the level of cognitive complexity of the lesson, as presented by the case study teacher.

Continuity - Continuity highlights links between parts of lessons and links to previous or future lessons in the unit of work. A total of 9 kinds of continuity were identified. Analysis of this parameter was expected to offer insights into the extent to which the teacher was attempting to establish cohesion in the lessons.

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[2]   See Appendix E for a complete listing of classroom discourse parameters

Teaching Aids - A total of 10 different teaching aids were identified. Analysis of this parameter was expected to reveal whether and to what extent teachers tend to fall into patterns of use of particular teaching aids.

Materials - "Materials" as used herein relate to the text or visual material being used for pedagogical purposes in the lesson. A total of 16 such materials were identified. Analysis of this parameter was expected to reveal whether and to what extent teachers tend to fall into patterns of use of particular materials.

Phase Segments

Phase Segments are the implementational stages of each phase. Phase Segment boundaries appear to depend on changes in the four following features of the lesson:

1. Topic or concept aspect
2. Type of interaction
3. Materials and/or teaching aids being used
4. Classroom events

Discourse markers or surface features can help to flag out the above shifts.

In the case of teacher monologues, the interface between Segment Chunks and Phase Segments can become blurred, and at times somewhat arbitrary decisions have to be made as to the manner in which x number of Segment Chunks are grouped into a higher level Phase Segment. The decisions may be (somewhat intuitively) arrived at by simultaneously considering the current focus of the discourse in a top-down and bottom-up manner and, in the context of the phase currently being effected, defining the nature of the Phase Segment currently being effected and, from this, which lower-level Segment Chunks appear to be subsumed by this Phase Segment.

As noted previously, the manner in which the teacher structures her speech acts into Segment Chunks, and these into Phase Segments in such a manner as to effect the pedagogical goals of the current phase in an effective manner, are a direct reflection of the cognitive processes involved in teaching and, as such, merits further detailed research.

Lesson Phases

As mentioned earlier in connection with analysis of lesson plans, lesson phases represent the principal prototypical pedagogical functions by means of which the goals of the lesson are carried out. In connection with analysis of video taped lessons, the lesson phases may be readily identified from the top-down perspective of the lesson plans themselves, as well as from a bottom-up perspective of the manner in which any given sequence of phase segments is obviously designed to carry out some particular phase.

Lesson Interrupts

Lesson Interrupts represent various kinds of unplanned teacher communications in response to events in the classroom. By their nature, these do not appear on lesson plans, but must be identified through analysis of speech acts which appear to be implementing one of the four types of Lesson Interrupts.

The Lesson Agenda

The Lesson Agenda represents the basic objective of the lesson. As discussed in connection with the analysis of lesson plans, the top level of lesson structure is taken to be the expressed goal of the lesson. Lacking a lesson plan, the overall goal can, of course, be inferred by examination of lower levels of the lesson hierarchy.

Tabular Representation of Lesson Structure

After analysis of the hierarchical groupings of speech acts, the results were summarised in tabular form as indicated by Fig. 27 on the following page. From such a tabulation, the course of a lesson could be quickly scanned to ascertain the steps being taken by the teacher to implement the lesson objectives.

```
                                                      [Control]
1-co-001-001   |                                        Get class attention
            FOCUS
              /\  PROVIDE CONTEXT MATERIAL
1-FO-002-002  |       Introduce OHT graphic of boy
              |    COLLECT ADJECTIVES - tidy boy in shirt
1-FO-003-005  |    /\  Elicit adjective #1
1-FO-004-009  |    |   Elicit adjective #2
                                                      [Control]
1-co-005-011  |    |                                   /\ Ask pupil to close
              |    |                                   |  /\ door
              |    |                                   |  |
            FOCUS                                      |  |
              /\  COLLECT ADJECTIVES - tidy boy in shirt (con't)
1-FO-004-013  |    /\  Elicit adjective #2 (con't)
1-FO-005-019  |    |   Elicit adjective #3  |  |
/\ /\ /\ /\   |    |   /\                    |  |
|  |  |  |    |    |                         |  interrupt segment
|  |  |  |    |    |   segment chunk         |    chunk descriptors
|  |  |  |    |    |     descriptors         interrupt segment
|  |  |  |    |    phase segment               descriptors
|  |  |  |    |      descriptors
|  |  |  |    phase descriptors
|  |  |  speech act number
|  |  segment chunk number
|  lesson phase or interrupt code
lesson number
```

Fig. 27 A Tabular Representation of the Hierarchical
        Elements of a Lesson

Statistical Analysis of Lesson Phases

In order to provide further insights into the manner in which individual teachers tended to implement a given lesson, a statistical analysis was made to ascertain the frequency of the six classroom discourse parameters described previously (i.e., interactions, speech acts, aspects, continuity, teaching aids, and materials) as they were reflected in each Lesson Phase and Interrupt Segment for each lesson. This analysis was carried out by splitting all of the speech acts from each lesson into phase groupings, and applying a computer count to the associated discourse parameters. A summary of this data is included in Appendix D.

12.3.3 Analysis of Textual Data

Rationale

Through analysis of textual data, it was hoped to pinpoint clues as to the why the student teacher adopted the particular teaching style that she did in the classroom. Much of such data was anticipated to be in the form of attitudes, opinions, and "practical arguments" which the student teacher apparently used to guide her decision making.

Text Corpus

Case study textual data was derived from sources as noted in 12.2. An example of one case study file listing is shown in Fig. 28 on the page 168.

The listing has been split among the three time periods considered for purposes of measuring developmental change taking place during the school year. **Tot(al)** pages indicate the total amount of text as originally collected; **Red(uced)** pages indicate the condensed text (significant chunks of information) left after deleting conversational fillers and extraneous material not directly related to teaching.

Text Analysis

Steps in analysis of text were as follows:

(1) Both the written and transcribed verbal material was typed into text files on the computer

(2) Extraneous text unrelated to teaching, as well as conversational fillers (e.g., "Okay", "All right", false starts, etc.) were excised from the transcribed material.

(3) Each file was assigned an identifying code, e.g., INA for the first interview; including a suffix A, B, or C to indicate the chronological order of data collection. The letter A indicates the beginning of coursework, B the first five weeks of the practicum, and C the last five weeks of the practicum.

(4) All text lines were numbered, beginning at zero for each file

(5) The text was then chunked, according to the topics which arose out of the text.

(6) Each such chunk was listed with an accompanying file code, line number, and topic, e.g., INA-875 WORKSHEETS.

(7) These topic chunks were perused on a "constant comparative" basis to identify major themes. Five such themes were identified:

PUPILS
ENVIRONMENT
SUBJECT
METHODS
TEACHING

For purposes of this study, it was assumed that these themes represented the major *schemata* which were influencing the student teacher's approach to teaching.

(8) Continuing on a "constant comparative" basis, the sub-themes of each schema were then identified. These sub-themes will henceforth be referred to as the *dimensions* of the schemata. It should be noted that some dimensions might be cross-referenced across schemata, e.g., a dimension such as *language learning difficulties* might appear both as a problem associated with **PUPILS** as well as a rationale for a simplified approach under **METHODS.**

(9) The schemata and associated dimensions as noted above were used as top-level organisers for the textual analysis write-up contained on the following pages. To retain the "voice" of the case study as much as possible, the bulk of the data has been reflected in the form of direct quotations, accompanied by minimal commentary. Implications arising out of this data will be discussed in the Conclusions.

	Filename	Pages Tot	Red	Data
PUPIL EXPER.	CHI-QUE	8	3	Initial Questionnaire
AND	CHI-INA	21	12	First Interview
COURSEWORK	CHI-JOUR	6	6	Pupil Experience Journals
	CHI-CONA	1	1	Concerns
	Sub-Total	36	25	
FIRST FIVE	CHI-PREA	12	9	First lesson pre-conference
WEEKS OF	CHI-POSA	7	4	" " post-conference
TEACHING	CHI-PREB	11	6	Second lesson pre-conference
PRACTICE	CHI-POSB	4	2	" " post-conference
	CHI-INB	44	26	Second interview
	CHI-CONB	1	1	Concerns
	CHI-PRAC	3	3	Teaching Practice Journals
	Sub-Total	82	51	
SECOND FIVE	CHI-PREC	6	5	Third lesson pre-conference
WEEKS OF	CHI-POSC	7	4	" " post-conference
TEACHING	CHI-PRED	6	5	Fourth lesson pre-conference
PRACTICE	CHI-POSD	9	3	" " post-conference
	CHI-INC	68	43	Third interview
	CHI-PRAC	4	4	Teaching Practice Journals
	CHI-CONC	1	1	Concerns
	CHI-EVAL	5	5	Evaluation of the Practicum
	Sub-Total	97	70	
	Total:	215	146	

Fig. 28 A Typical Listing of Case Study Text Files

CASE STUDY FINDINGS

13.0 CASE STUDY #1 - CHING CHING

13.1 LESSON PLANNING

13.1.1 Lesson Plan Coverage

Ching Ching taught her class five periods per week, including one double-period lesson. This amounted to a total of 40 lessons during the ten-week period of the practicum. The number of lesson plans actually available for analysis was 35, as indicated in Fig. 29 below.

As will be noted from the table, Ching Ching had a strong bias toward the teaching of grammar. During her interviews she frequently emphasised the need to "clean up" the pupils' grammar problems.

Ching Ching Lesson Plans

	No of Plans	No of Periods	Comments
Grammar	18	18	One period per lesson plan
Writing	6	10	Four double + two single periods
Reading	5	8	Three double + two single periods
Corrections	6	6	One period per correction
Tests	-	4	Two double periods per test
MC	-	2	Medical certificate (two periods)
Other	-	2	Assembly overrun & cross-country
	35	50	

Fig. 29 Summary of Ching Ching Lesson Plans

For the four lessons which were observed by the supervisor, she taught three grammar lessons and one writing lesson. Despite being reminded to teach something other than grammar after the first two supervisory visits, Ching Ching did one writing lesson and then again insisted on doing the last lesson on grammar.

13.1.2 Lesson Goals

Taking the lesson objectives as stated at the beginning of each lesson plan, the overall lesson goals were collected for each of the three types of lessons that she taught during TP: grammar, writing and reading (see complete grammar listing in Appendix F).

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Grammar

A summary of Ching Ching's lesson coverage during grammar lessons is as follows:

```
GRAMMAR LESSON GOALS (TENSE):
   simple past tense [1.0]
   simple present tense [5.0]
   simple future tense [14.0]
     know how to use [5.0]
     use to describe [angry feeling 'now'] [5.0]
     practise using [6.0]
     use verbs correctly [14.0]
   simple present & past tenses [6.0]
     evaluate pupil ability to differentiate [6.0]

   Fig. 30  Grammar Goals Related to Tenses
```

As will be noted, Ching Ching kept to the most obvious of syllabus items such as tense (simple and continuous), adjectives, adverbs, countable and uncountable nouns, and question tags. All of the above-mentioned items had already been covered at primary school level, and since she was teaching a Secondary 1 class with accuracy problems one would have expected her to endeavour to hypothesise some causes which she could then have worked on. In one case she did recognise that tenses and subject-verb agreement were problematic. The nearest she came to addressing this was in Lesson [22]; however, if one examines the plan there was no attempt to base the lesson on actual pupil problems. Instead, her whole grammar approach appeared to be to "start from scratch" and reteach everything, as if the class had never come across these items before.

Her goals thus tended to be very general, and not based on any specific pupil need or problem. In nine of Ching Ching's lessons her goal was merely to practise using the item. In seven out of 14 lessons, another common goal was "to be aware of" the grammatical form of the item (as opposed to the meaning). Another common feature of her goals, evident in nine of the lessons, was to "know" something, mostly in the sense of knowing "how to use it correctly".

Writing

As regards writing, the urge to teach grammar persisted even here since five out of the six writing lessons included grammar accuracy as one of the lesson goals:

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```
WRITING LESSON GOALS
    be aware of past tense in written work [3.0]
    pupils contribute suitable adjectives to help write
       compo with appropriate tenses, adjectives,
       adverbs [20.0]
    write using pictures to encourage use of past tense,
       adverbs & adjectives [28.0]
    edit each other's work [29.0]
    be more aware of using correct tenses, subject verb
       agreement, adjectives, adverbs [29.0]
```

Fig. 31   Writing Goals Related to Grammar

The foregoing further illustrates her preoccupation with tenses, adjectives and adverbs. Her other writing goals remained general, e.g., write to a pen pal, know and use a correct letter format, i.e., Lessons [11] and [28]. These goals are summarised as follows:

```
WRITING LESSON GOALS
    have exciting ideas from each other to write compo [2.0]
    pupils contribute ideas [20.0]
    learn appropriate content for letter to friend in
       hospital [28.0]
    be more aware of appropriate content [29.0]

    write to pen pal about new friends [11.0]
    know and use correct letter format [11.0], [28.0]
```

Fig. 32   Other Writing Related Goals

Basically Ching Ching was focusing on informal letter writing. She only taught four writing lessons and they were all to do with writing letters, illustrating a tendency to get locked into a limited range of options. Over the course of her writing lessons there appeared to be a continuing degradation in her aspiration levels, ranging from eliciting "exciting ideas" from pupils to a "contribution of pupil ideas" to "learning appropriate content" to "becoming more aware" of appropriate content. By the end of the practicum it was apparent that Ching Ching had become somewhat jaded in her expectations! As regards reading, there is again the inevitable mention of grammar in lesson [18] "know how to answer questions grammatically"

Reading

```
READING LESSON GOALS
   know what passage is about [4.0]
   complete pictures from reading passage [17.0]
   discuss passage more thoroughly [18.0]
   have better understanding of passage via cloze text [24.0]
   share ideas & answers for questions on passage [25.0]
   infer pros/cons of boy/girl friends [4.0]
   support answers with evidence from text [17.0]
   have discussion to stimulate thinking via questions [24.0]

   know how to answer questions grammatically [18.0]

Fig. 33  Reading Related Goals
```

Only three goals were related in any way to the development of reading skills, but again these were quite general, i.e., to "infer" meaning, to "support answers with evidence", and to know what the passage is about. The rest were not clear enough to be really useful for the planning of the lessons, i.e., to "stimulate thinking", to "discuss", to "understand", and to "answer questions." These vague goals reflected her over-reliance on the textbook exercises as the basis for her reading lessons.

A closer look at the manner in which the various principal planned phases were conceptualised in the course of Ching Ching's lesson planning follows.

13.1.3 Focus Phase
The principal function of the Focus Phase was to establish the context for the lesson.

In both the grammar and writing lessons, the typical interaction was T+C (teacher plus class) when discussing or eliciting some lesson aspect. There were only two exceptions: in lesson [5] Grammar there was a T>C interaction with the teacher announcing what grammar item they were going to do for the lesson; and in lesson [28] T>C with the teacher announcing what writing task they were going to do in that lesson. The reading lessons did not follow this pattern, apart from two Phases (T+C) during which the topic of the lesson was discussed. The remaining three Focus Phases began the lesson by reading

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the passage aloud or silently without any preamble to focus the class on the text that they were going to be studying.

Eighteen of the Focus Phases appeared in grammar lessons. As noted above, the principal function of this phase was to establish the context for the lesson, i.e., in Ching Ching's case lexical items or grammatical items that would be used in order to do work related to a particular grammar aspect later in the lesson. One phase directly focused on illustrating the use of auxiliary verbs via three sentences on an OHT. One phase aimed to illustrate the importance of using adjectives to improve writing by asking pupils to compare two composition excerpts on an OHT, and one lesson [6] merely referred to an earlier discussion of girlfriends and boyfriends as a context for using the present and past tenses. Therefore, a typical focusing phase for Ching Ching was to establish a context at the word level and then use this bank of words for the grammar lesson. For the writing lessons, four phases focused on brainstorming the content, three on discussing the writing task, and three on the practicalities of the writing itself, i.e., editing and writing a letter. The reading lessons did not actually have pre-reading activities but went straight into reading the passage. Overall, the teacher-controlled use of language and the complete lack of teacher plus pupils exploratory talk during this phase was a notable feature of Ching Ching's teaching approach.

As to materials, in order to elicit the lexis for the grammar lessons, Ching Ching favoured using pictures and in one case realia. For writing, there was one unusual focusing activity where a pupil dressed up in a coat and mask was asked to come into the classroom and the class had to brainstorm ideas about what "it" was, as a lead-in to writing about aliens. The reading was based entirely on textbook comprehension passages. Only in three lessons was there any discussion by pupils of responses to the text topic. This discussion was again based on guiding questions provided by the textbook.

Statistics relating to the focus phase as observed across the corpus of lesson plans are as follows:

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	GRAMMAR Total 18 lessons Total 18 phases None in 3 lessons	WRITING Total 6 lessons Total 5 phases None in 1 lesson	READING Total 5 lessons Total 6 phases None in 2 lessons
INT	T+C 13 T>C 2	T+C 4 T>C 1	T+C 2 T>C 1 1>C 1 1 2
ASP	Context 10 Grammar item 3 Grammar use 4 Form 1	Topic 4 Editing 1	Discuss topic 2 Read aloud 2 Read silently 2

AID	OHT 10
	  pictures 6
	  text 4
	None 3
	Blackboard 2
	Textbook picture 1
	Realia 1
	Paper strips 1
	Prior lesson 1
	Worksheet 1
		None 3
		OHT 1 (picture)
		Props 1
			Textbook 5
			OHT 1 (text)

Fig. 34   Focus Phase Statistical Description[1]

Note that the number of phases do not necessarily match the number of lessons because there may be more than one phase or none at all in a given lesson. A similar comment applies to materials per phase.

13.1.4 Clarify Phase

Without exception, the principal interaction during this phase was T>C. Most (20 out of 24) of the Clarify Phases were in the grammar lessons. This phase appeared to function as an exposition of the technical aspects of language, as summarised in Fig. 35 below. In fact, three out of the four clarifying phases in the reading/writing lessons were actually dealing with grammatical points. The one clarifying episode in the writing lesson merely gave the rules for letter formatting.

As to materials, Ching Ching relied mostly on OHT summaries of the points that she was presenting.

---

[1]   INT = Interaction, ASP = Aspect, AID = Teaching Aids

	GRAMMAR Total 18 lessons Total 19 phases None in 3 lessons	WRITING Total 6 lessons Total 2 phases None in 4 lessons	READING Total 5 lessons Total 3 phases None in 3 lessons
INT	T>C 19 T+C 1	T>C 2	T>C 2 T+C 1

ASP	Tenses 6
	  Rule 4
	  Form 1
	  Use 1
	Adjectives 5
	  Rule 3
	  Term 1
	  Use 1
	Adverbs 5
	  Rule 2
	  Use 2
	  Form 1
	Questions 1
	  Rule 1
	Did/Didn't 1
	  Rule 1
	Count/Uncount nouns
	  1
	  Form 1
		Letter format 1
		Address format 1
			Correct/incorrect
			  grammar in
			  answers 2
			Cloze passage 1

AID	OHT 9 Text 9 None 9 Blackboard 1 Textbook 1	OHT 3 Text 3	OHT 2 Text 2 None 1

Fig. 35 Clarify Phase Statistical Description

13.1.5 Do Task Phase

As might be expected, this phase in all lessons was characterised by a variety of group, pair and individual work.

Only six phases in the grammar lesson and one in the reading lesson included individual work. In the writing lesson, individual and pair work featured largely because of the nature of the lesson in which pupils were asked to write and then pair-edit their work. Ching Ching seemed to favour pair and group work as a means of motivating pupils, e.g., in the

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grammar lessons she included role play, mime, and competitions. However in the reading lessons she used pair and group work as a means of varying the work on textbook questions related to comprehension passages. She asked the class in pairs or groups to discuss the questions before they wrote the answers individually.

An unusual aspect in the early lessons for grammar and reading was the T+C interaction, whereby the teacher kept control of how the task was done by doing the exercise together with the class without any prior pupil preparation. This merging of the Do Task and Review Phases was a characteristic of Ching Ching's initial teaching approach.

As regards materials, the OHT and worksheets were the favoured materials for this phases of the lesson. The textbook and workbook were mainly used for homework tasks. On the other hand, the textbook was the main source of materials for the reading lessons.

13.1.6 Review Phase

This phase consisted predominantly of T+C interaction. There were also five instances of group presentations to the class. For writing lessons there were two instances of pairs checking each other's work.

Generally the same materials were used as for the Do Task Phase. The goals for the Review Phase seemed to be to provide pupils with the correct answer rather then helping them to better understand or explore reasons for right/wrong versions.

	GRAMMAR Total 18 lessons Total 23 phases	WRITING Total 6 lessons Total 12 phases	READING Total 5 lessons Total 12 phases
INT	1 6 2 7 4 6 T+C 4	1 6 2 3 4 3	1 2 2 2 4 5 T+C 3
TASK	Do exercises 10 Make sentences 4 Question each other 3 Do worksheet 1 Do corrections 1 Join sentences 1 Locate item 1 Prepare role play 1 Prepare mime 1	Discuss 4 Check work 3 Write 3 Rewrite 1 Jot down ideas 1	Do questions Orally 8 Write answers 1 Do corrections 1 Discuss picture 1 Discuss topic 1
AID	Worksheet 6 OHT (text) 6 Workbook 5 OHT (picture) 2 Textbook 2 Slips of paper 1 None 1	Composition book 6 OHT (text) 3 Textbook 1 OHT (picture) 1 Slips of paper 1 None 1	Textbook 11 Worksheet 1 OHT (text) 1

Fig. 36 Do Task Phase Statistical Description

	GRAMMAR Total 18 lessons Total 13 phases None in 3 lessons	WRITING Total 6 lessons Total 7 phases None in 1 lesson	READING Total 5 lessons Total 5 phases None in 1 lesson
INT	T+C 12 4>C 3 2 1	1 2 4>C 1 T+C 4	T+C 3 4>C 1 2 1

TASK	Go over work 12
	Group presentations
	  3
	Respond to each
	  other's work 1
		Share ideas 4
		Rewrite 2
		Present group
		  discussion 4
			Go over work 3
			Share answers 1
			Group present
			  answers 1

AID	OHT (Text) 8 Worksheet 4 Blackboard 3 Textbook 1 Workbook 1 Text 1	OHT 3 Compositions 3 Blackboard 1	Textbook 4 Worksheet 1

Fig. 37 Review Phase Statistical Description

13.2 LESSON PRESENTATION

13.2.1 Overview of Speech Acts by Lessons and Phases

A summary of total speech acts by lesson and by phase are as shown Fig. 38 below:

	Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase					
PHASES	LS1	LS2	LS3	LS4	TOTAL	%
FOCUS	138	78	8	38	292	14.7
CLARIFY	96	159	35	92	382	19.3
SET UP	12	43	85	97	237	12.0
FINISH	4	5	5	8	22	1.1
REVIEW	137	29	301	114	611	30.9
Subtotal:	447	314	434	349	1544	78.0
INTERRUPTS						
REPAIR	125	11	14	37	187	9.4
ADVISE	41	-	9	13	63	3.2
CONTROL	45	18	52	40	155	7.8
INTERACT	6	-	7	21	4	1.6
Subtotal:	217	29	96	94	436	22.0
LESSON TOTAL:	664	343	530	443	1980	100.0

Fig 38 Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase

Although there was some variation in the number of speech acts in a given phase in a given lesson (e.g., Focus Phase in lesson [1]), some general conclusions may be drawn from the above figures:

(1) Planned phases of the lesson accounted for about 79% of total speech acts; unplanned interrupts accounted for about 21%. It was somewhat surprising that such a large portion (one fifth) of an average lesson was conducted on an impromptu basis, and suggests that it might benefit teacher training to dedicate more time to dealing with the unplanned class-room activities associated with interrupts.

(2) The Focus Phase was particularly long during the first lesson, since Ching Ching spent a lot of time trying to elicit adjectives from the pupils. In subsequent lessons the focusing activity was carried out in a more tightly controlled manner, suggesting that at least one area of improvement was taking place during the practicum.

(3) The Clarify Phase was extremely long in Lesson [2] due to the fact that there was a great deal of confusion during the execution of this stage.

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(4) Although the number of speech acts for the Set Up Phase doubled in the last two lessons, this was partly due to the pupils' difficulty in following the actual instructions.

(5) The largest single component of the average lesson was the Review Phase, which took up about 31% of total speech acts. In Lesson [2] much of the time was spent on pupil role play presentations. The highest percentage for the Review Phase was in the third lesson, where Ching Ching went through everything that the pupils were to write based on two pre-writing activities.

(6) A considerable number of Repair Interrupts occurred during the first lesson because Ching Ching was new to giving explanations and instructions. In Lessons [3] and [4] the repairs were not due to understanding problems or non-response of the pupils, but rather to task instructions as she noticed that pupils were not carrying out her directions correctly.

(7) A fairly high number of Control Interrupts, amounting to about 8% of total speech acts, were associated with class management. This high level was fairly consistent throughout the course of the four lessons.

Some general preliminary comments on Ching Ching's lessons are as follows. Three out of the four lessons were focused on grammar goals and dealt with discrete grammar items. These were presented as if they were unknown to the pupils; i.e., Ching Ching went over form, function, and rules of use. She tried to establish relevance by saying that "if you put adverbs and adjectives into your compositions it will improve your marks". The writing lessons were just as controlled as the grammar lessons. Ching Ching seemed to have a "right or wrong" mentality, so in writing a letter to a friend she gave them the information, the format, and even the adjectives/adverbs to use. Again, the brainstorming task operated on a basic yes-or-no choice of information and locating appropriate words to use. Teaching aids relied heavily on OHT's, using pictures to elicit language items for use in a later Clarify Phase to give definitions and explain rules. As regards interaction, most of this was T>C. There was little group work, mostly pair work used at the Do Task phase. Ching Ching's teaching approach was always aimed at getting the pupils to produce the "right answer"; there was no probing for the pupil's ideas.

An analysis of the four video-taped lessons follows, and is structured in terms of the Lesson Phases and Lesson Interrupts.

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13.2.2 Focus Phase

In the three grammar lessons, Ching Ching's basic method of focusing was simply to elicit lexical items; in the single writing lesson, the "focus" was merely an announcement of the task to be carried out. The following table summarises the nature of the phase segments contained in the Focus Phases for all four lessons. (Groups of segments separated by a space means that the phase occurred more than once in different parts of the lesson.)

```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)              LESSON 2 (Grammar)
    14 Elicit adj                    5 Elicit another version
     1 Focus graphic                 4 Elicit noun
     1 Clue for adj                  2 Summarise what elicited
                                     2 Test understanding
     5 Elicit adj                    1 Leave undecided
     3 Focus graphic                 1 Announce task
     1 Probe reason for adj


LESSON 3 (Writing)              LESSON 4 (Grammar)
     1 Announce task                 2 Elicit comparison
                                     1 Focus graphic
                                     1 Elicit adj
                                     1 Elicit superlative
```

Fig. 39 Focus Phase Segments

The main Focus Phase trends as illustrated by discourse parameters were as per Fig. 40 on the following page.

Nearly half of the interaction was in the form of T+C, where Ching Ching was attempting to elicit from the class some sort of answer to her questions. She was sufficiently concerned about getting a response from the class that she was willing to accept chorus answers, which by the 4th lesson were leading to some disruptive behaviour.

Since focusing mostly involved eliciting responses from the pupils, whether in the form of individual or chorus responses, the preponderance of the speech acts comprised ELIcit, RESpond, ECHo, ACCept, and NFC (focus nomination).

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DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR FOCUS PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T+C	132	RES	59	CO	265	--	240	O	197	VI	172
T+1	62	ELI	26	TA	12	KO	43	-	85	RE	76
C+T	39	PRT	25	--	7	CA	6	B	10	WO	25
T>C	31	ECH	23	BE	4	LA	3		292	--	19
1+T	27	ACC	18	TH	4		292				292
T+4	1	NOM	13		292						
	292	NFC	14								
		REP	13								
		LIQ	13								
		DIR	10								
		OTH	85								
			292								

Fig. 40 Discourse Parameters for Focus Phase

Most of the aspect dealt with eliciting a context for the lesson in the form of lexical items which would then be used during the rest of the lesson as examples to illustrate some grammatical category or to illustrate some grammatical rule.

Ching Ching used a preponderance of OHT's as teaching aids. The bulk of materials used were visual OHT's or realia to act as cues for eliciting lexical items.

13.2.3 Clarify Phase

The following table illustrates the nature of the phase segments contained in the Clarify Phases:

```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)              LESSON 2 (Grammar)
   1 Elicit term                   7 Elicit quantifiers
   1 Check spelling                4 Define nouns
   1 Elicit function               4 Explain wrong quantifiers
   1 Apply to things               3 Explain right quantifiers
                                   2 Show list of noun examples
   1 Elicit order                  2 Test understanding
   1 Explain wrong approach        2 Explain function
   4 Explain rules                 2 Reiterate function
   2 Give example of rule          1 Show list of quantifiers
                                   1 Check understanding
   1 Reiterate function
```

```
LESSON 3 - 5                     LESSON 4 - 4, 10
   2 Explain address format      1 Elicit term
   1 Explain opening format      1 Explain 3 degrees of adj
   1 Explain closing format      1 Reiterate 3 degrees
   1 Pupil query                 1 Check understanding

                                 5 Explain rules
                                 2 Illustrate rules
                                 2 Elicit use
                                 1 Check understanding
```

Fig. 41 Clarify Phase Segments

In all three lessons Ching Ching had two Clarify Phases per lesson. In all of the initial Clarify Phases she dealt with very simple concepts like the term "adjective" or the definition of a noun, or comparison of adjectives. In the subsequent Clarify Phase in each lesson she went on to explain the rules for use, e.g., order of adjectives, use of quantifiers with nouns, how to form comparatives and superlatives of adjectives. There seemed to be a sequence of definition followed by rules for use later in the lesson.

A recurring pattern was to first try to elicit a concepts from the pupils and then to tell them the expected response. Another technique was to introduce a wrong version before explaining the correct one. This was interesting because she demonstrated the wrong use without basing it on any actual diagnosis of pupil problems; rather, she created her own "problem" as a step towards showing the class the "correct answer". Her goals in grammar teaching were focused on discrete items rather than a systematic diagnosis of class language errors. In other words she distanced herself from pupil needs and merely concentrated on identifying simple items from the syllabus listing.

In lesson [2] it was difficult to decide whether several segments were focus or clarify segments because she elicited examples of quantifiers before using them in her explanation. In the plan this was done as "explain quantifiers"; but when she got to the lesson presentation she seemed to automatically revert to eliciting items before using these to draw conclusions during the clarification stage. Part of her developmental fuzziness is illustrated in this lesson.

The main Clarify Phase trends as illustrated by discourse parameters were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR CLARIFY PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	215	ELI	35	GR	230	--	225	O	309	WO	257
T+C	92	RES	34	GT	54	KS	122	-	45	--	39
C+T	30	NFC	24	D5	25	CA	28	B	25	TS	31
T+1	28	DEF	21	CO	25	LA	6	W	3	NO	29
1+T	10	ILL	21	GM	18	KO	1		382	VI	26
T>1	5	PRT	18	OTH	30		382				382
T>4	2	NOR	13		382						
	382	REP	13								
		OTH	197								
			382								

Fig. 42 Discourse Parameters for Clarify Phase

As might be expected, the interaction was mostly T>C when explaining, but also some T+C because Ching Ching's clarification style included an attempt to elicit rules or definitions before actually explaining them.

To the extent clarification involved T+C interaction with the class, speech acts included a significant percentage of NFC (focus nomination), ELIcit, and REGSpond. Other types of speech acts associated with T>C clarification included ILLustrate, DEFine, COR (correct version given by teacher), REPeat what was said, and RPH (rephrase what was said).

The aspect was predominantly grammar rules, then grammar terms. Only in lesson one was there any reference to grammar function. The writing lesson was at an equally low level of abstraction, in which the clarification dealt with letter format and punctuation. About two thirds of the speech acts made no reference to continuity. About a third of the speech acts referred to school knowledge or the earlier part of the lesson, as might be expected for the Clarify Phase.

The majority of teaching aids used were OHT's. As regards materials, grammar lessons were mostly based on words; and the writing lesson was based on choosing or practising sentences to include in the letter.

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13.2.4 Set Up Phase

This phase tended to be highly structured. Ching Ching allowed pupils no choice of seating, and concentrated on explaining what the procedural steps were. There was no mention of strategies for doing the task and in lessons [2] and [4] this led to a breakdown during group work. The following table illustrates the nature of the phase segments contained in the Set Up Phases:

```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)          LESSON 2 (Grammar)
   2 Give task directions      2 Explain task
                               1 Give out worksheets
                               1 Give time limit
                               1 Give acting roles

                               1 Give task directions
                               1 Nominate acting group

                               1 Nominate acting group
                               1 Organise actors
                               1 Direct to begin

                               1 Organise actors
                               1 Direct to begin

                               1 Nominate acting group


LESSON 3 (Writing)          LESSON 4 (Grammar)
   4 Move pupils into          2 Move pupils into groups
     groups
   1 Explain task              2 Explain worksheet task
   1 Check understanding

   1 Hand out materials        6 Demonstrate task
   1 Direct use of materials   3 Explain task
                               2 Direct handout use
   1 Direct to keep materials  1 Check understanding
                               1 Direct to begin
   1 Explain materials         1 Pupil query
   1 Direct group task
   1 Distribute materials      1 Direct exchange of worksheet
   1 Direct note-making

   1 Direct to letter writing task
   1 Direct to make interesting
   1 Direct to use correct tense
   1 Give time limit
   1 Give title
```

Fig. 43 Set Up Phase Segments

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In general, Ching Ching's Set Up Phases were carried out in an orderly manner. However she rarely mentioned how to do a task; rather, she concentrated on the mechanical steps of the task as opposed to cognitive strategies. The main Set Up Phase trends as illustrated by discourse parameters were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR SET UP

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	177	DIR	77	TA	141	--	197	-	124	--	115
T>4	26	NOM	19	BE	36	KS	22	W	81	VI	67
T+C	14	MET	17	CO	26	CA	11	O	32	TS	33
C+T	10	ELI	13	OT	10	LB	6		237	OTH	22
OTH	10	NFC	13	OTH	24	CB	1				237
	237	ILL	11		237		237				
		REP	10								
		RES	10								
		OTH	64								
			237								

Fig. 44 Discourse Parameters for Set Up Phase

In giving instructions for the setting up of the task, the interactions were essentially all T>C. In the setting up of a task, a large number of (teacher) speech acts were DIRecting as can be expected when giving instructions. The speech acts associated with the setting up of the task were related to the task itself (TA). Other lesser areas of aspect included behaviour (BE) and the context (CO) for the task.

There was essentially no reference to anything related to continuity, i.e., earlier lesson phases, and relatively little in the way of teaching aids were utilised. At times worksheets were referred to as well as OHT's. Where materials were used at all in the setting up of tasks, these were mostly visuals or sentences on OHT's.

13.2.5 Finish Phase

Ching Ching typically brought tasks to a finish by simply directing the class to stop work, as illustrated by the following summary of Phase Segments associated with the Finish Phase:

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```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)              LESSON 2 (Grammar)
                                  1 Stop work

                                  1 Out of time so stop

LESSON 3 (Writing)              LESSON 4 (Grammar)
  1 Stop work                     1 Stop work

  1 Stop work                     1 Stop work

                                  1 Stop work

                                  1 Direct to check others work
                                  1 Will collect next lesson
```

Fig. 45 Finish Phase Segments

Since the Finish Phase was typically very short and directive, details of the relatively few speech acts involved will not be presented here.

13.2.6 Review Phase

The Focus and Review Phases were very similar in teaching style. Both were sequenced by whatever materials Ching Ching was using. In both, she appeared to be looking for the right answer rather than including any exploration of ideas, language, or possible alternative versions.

The following table illustrates the nature of the Phase Segments contained in the Review Phase:

```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)              LESSON 2 (Grammar)
  10 Go over adj order            1 Role play
   9 Identify adj in              1 Introduce scenario
     sentences                    1 Check that finished
   4 Go over adj category         1 Direct class task
   2 Give rule for adj order
   1 Give definition of adj
   1 Demonstrate wrong strategy
   1 Demonstrate right strategy
   1 Give directions for task
   1 Pupil query

LESSON 3 (Writing)              LESSON 4 (Grammar)
  13 Elicit if included          15 Go over comparative form
```

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```
3 Probe reasons for          4 Check if have wrong
    including answers         2 Check spelling
3 Probe reasons for
    rejecting                 2 Elicit whose worksheet
3 Reiterate reasons
3 Go over how to sign letter
1 Confirm that all included
1 Display rest on OHT
1 Elicit type of letter

9 Probe description [adverbs]
4 Elicit content
4 Give scenario from compre.
1 Elicit action
1 Reject pupil version
```

Fig. 46   Review Phase Segments

The main Review Phase trends are illustrated by discourse parameters were as per Fig. 47 on the following page.

As might be expected, principal interactions during the Review Phase involved mostly interaction with the class (T+C), which in turn elicited a considerable amount of chorus answers (C+T), particularly in the last lesson. There was also questioning of individual pupils (T+1) which naturally elicited a corresponding amount of individual answers (1+T). There was also a fair amount of teacher-talk (T>C) during the Review phase, when the teacher illustrated wrong and correct answers.

Since the teacher was calling upon either the class or individual pupils to respond during the Review Phase, principal categories of speech acts included NOMinate, NFC (focus nomination), ELIcit, and RESpond.

The two main aspects of discourse covered were to provide the class with information and letter formatting as writing inputs. Apart from this, the principal categories of aspect included lesson context and grammatical terms. Lesser categories focused on grammar form and rules, and the task itself.

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DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR REVIEW PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T+C	176	RES	102	D2	119	CA	406	O	393	WO	242
T+1	175	ELI	67	CO	104	--	117	W	144	TS	190
T>C	113	NOM	44	GT	99	KS	80	-	74	VI	92
1+T	67	NFC	36	D5	66	LA	8		611	--	66
C+T	51	DIR	35	TA	64		611			RP	18
OTH	26	ECH	25	GF	60					RE	3
	611	ACC	24	GR	51						611
		ACK	24	--	17						
		RPH	20	BE	15						
		OTH	234	OTH	13						
			611		611						

Fig. 47 Discourse Parameters for Review Phase

Most of the references to continuity involved the earlier part of the lesson. A considerable number of speech acts had no continuity; otherwise, prior knowledge associated with schooling was referred to.

The bulk of teaching aids involved OHT's, with the balance being worksheets or no teaching aids. Principal materials were the lexical items and text sentences used during the grammar lessons, or visuals in the writing lesson.

13.2.7 Repair Interrupt

The signal for a repair appeared to be when Ching Ching did not get the answer she wanted to a question. She would try one or two other pupils and then begin a Repair Interrupt which was structured like a phantom question-and-answer interaction, i.e., she would ask the questions and answer them as if she were modelling for the pupils what they should be doing in her class.

The instances of repairs dropped off dramatically after the first lesson, as Ching Ching became clearer in her instructions and explanations of concepts.

```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)          LESSON 2 (Grammar)
    9 Re adj order              3 Re role play presentation
    2 Re identify adj in
        sentence
    1 Re concept
    1 Re function
    1 Re graphic
    1 Re adj category
    1 Re teacher faux pas
    1 Re pupil contribution
    1 Re noun as adj

LESSON 3 (Grammar)          LESSON 4 (Grammar)
    4 Re instructions           4 Re instructions
    1 Re reasons                1 Re term
```

Fig. 48   Repair Interrupt Segments

Main trends as illustrated by discourse parameters involved both T>C and T+C interaction with the teacher both explaining and trying to elicit the correct version. Hence there was a mixture of interactions, but they were predominantly teacher-to-class. The other parameters were related to the phases in which the repairs were taking place.

13.2.8 Advise Interrupt

Advise Interrupts usually came at the end of a Clarify or Review Phase as if to sweeten the pill of having to learn rules and were simplistic in the extreme, e.g. "If you use three adjectives in front of a noun you'll get good marks for your composition."

The following table illustrates the nature of segments contained in the Advise Interrupts:

```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)          LESSON 2 (Grammar)
    5 Use to improve
        compositions
    1 Hints to order
        adjectives


LESSON 3 (Writing)          LESSON 4 (Grammar)
    1 Hints to format           3 Hints to use
        address                     irregular
    1 Hints to write                comparatives
        letter
```

Fig. 49   Advise Interrupt Segments

Most interactions were T>C as expected, and consisted of the teacher giving helpful hints to pupils on some aspect of the lesson.

13.2.9 Control Interrupt

Ching Ching was highly controlling and pounced on any inattention or misbehaviour. The frequency of such communications indicated problems in class management.

The following table illustrates the nature of the Phase Segments contained in Control Interrupts:

```
LESSON 1 (Grammar)          LESSON 2 (Grammar)
   4 Direct to sit             4 Check behaviour
   4 Check behaviour           1 Check if can see
   2 Get attentions            1 Settle groups
   1 Direct to close door      1 Get back props
   1 Direct to move desk
   1 Reprimand re work not
        done

LESSON 3 (Writing)          LESSON 4 (Grammar)
  11 Check behaviour          11 Check behaviour
  10 Get attention             4 Get attention
   2 Direct to sit             1 Direct move back to seats
   1 Direct to clear desks
   1 Direct to stay in groups
   1 Distribute materials
   1 Direct move back to seats
```

Fig. 50 Control Interrupt Segments

Interaction was a mixture of T>C (directing) or T+C eliciting from pupils what they were doing (wrong) or what they should be doing (right) but all focused on behaviour.

13.2.10 Overview of Discourse Parameters for All Lessons/All Phases

Turning to speech acts in terms of discourse parameters, a summary of the totals is tabled in Fig. 51 on the next page.

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DISCOURSE PARAMETER TOTALS FOR ALL LESSONS/ALL PHASES

Transact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	738	BID	6	CO	475	--	1053	O	1091	WO	617
T+C	471	DIR	236	GR	333	CA	527	-	585	--	492
T+1	369	NFC	90	TA	314	KS	258	W	269	VI	423
C+T	149	NOM	117	BE	211	KO	64	B	35	TS	280
1+T	139	RFC	27	GT	199	LA	53	A	0	RE	80
T>4	45	ACT	7	D2	138	LB	24	C	0	RP	41
T>1	37	CLA	18	D5	93	KA	1	E	0	NO	40
T+4	10	COM	23	GF	60	CB	1	K	0	TX	7
4>C	10	COR	35	--	47	UT	0	T	0	DI	0
C>T	8	DEF	28	GM	24	UG	0	V	0	DG	0
T>2	2	DET	43	GA	20	KH	0	X	0	FE	0
T+2	2	HYP	13	OT	19		1980	W-B	0	NU	0
1>T	0	ILL	49	TH	18			W-C	0	PS	0
1>C	0	MET	27	PU	9			W-E	0	QU	0
	1980	NOR	28	IN	9			W-O	0	SO	0
		PET	0	SP	8			W-T	0	ST	0
		REC	33	D1	3			C-O	0	TE	0
		RET	8	D3	0			T-X	0	TE-DE	0
		RNG	13	D4	0				1980	TE-NO	0
		RSL	15	P1	0					TE-QU	0
		RUL	13	P2	0					DI-QU	0
		RSN	46	P3	0					SO-QU	0
		STA	20	P4	0					TX-QU	0
		SUM	13	S1	0						1980
		REP	62	S4	0						
		RPH	63	SE	0						
		INC	39	SC	0						
		PHA	0	GE	0						
		CLQ	6	VM	0						
		ELI	183	VU	0						
		EXQ	18	VE	0						
		EXS	5	PR	0						
		LIQ	27	BA	0						
		PRO	26		1980						
		PRT	71								
		RQU	0								
		ACC	66								
		ACK	45								
		CON	0								
		DIS	3								
		ECH	71								
		NOC	11								
		NON	30								
		PAR	24								
		RAM	32								
		PEA	0								
		REA	48								
		RES	239								
			1980								

Fig. 51 Discourse Parameter Totals for
All Lessons/All Phases

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Some general conclusions can be drawn from these figures:

(1) About 37% of all speech acts were T>C. Other major categories of interaction included T+C (24%) and T+1 (19%). These three categories accounted for 80% of the total.

(2) A wide variety of speech act categories occurred, but as might be expected the largest single instances of these fell into the standard "teaching cycle" categories of DIR Direct (12%), NOM Pupil Nomination (6%), ELI Elicit (9%), and RES Respond (12%).

(3) Principal categories of aspect were CO Lesson Context (24%), GR Grammar Rules (17%) and TA Task Focus (13%).

(4) A total of 53% of speech acts included no reference to continuity; a lesser number of speech acts referred some earlier part of the lesson CA (27%) or to pupil knowledge related to schooling KS (13%)

(5) As regards teaching aids, Ching Ching had a clear fixation on OHT's, with 55% of all speech acts accompanying some sort of OHT. The only other significant categories were no Teaching Aids (30%) or Worksheets (14%).

(6) Materials use fell into four principal categories: WO Words (31%), -- No Materials (25%), VI Visuals (21%), and TS Text Sentences (14%).

13.2.11 Language Items and How Presented

To summarise what has been said above, Ching Ching did not challenge pupils during grammar lessons. During the Focus Phase, simple everyday lexical items were elicited based on visuals. The tasks also were basically to practise simple grammar items based on simple sentence level tasks or worksheets (See lesson [1] sentences, lesson [2] role play scenario, lesson [3] comparatives based on three people in a picture); hence, the language utilised was at a very basic level.

13.2.12 Concepts and How Presented

The concepts were introduced during the Clarify Phase of the lesson and again operated at a very basic level of grammatical complexity. These seem to have been selected from a list of syllabus items rather than being based on areas of pupil problems or needs. When examined separately from the lesson transcript, the paucity of the coverage becomes evident.

13.2.13 Cognitive Involvement

The aspect column has already illustrated the code level and discrete item language focus in the lessons. In the grammar lessons, rules were the focus of explanations and exercises. Ching Ching seemed to be aware of the fact that such an approach was very dry, so in lessons [2] and [4] she included "fun" activities, i.e., role play and guessing games, during which she expected pupils to practice the grammar taught earlier. During such activities the pupils were expected to note whether the grammar item was being used correctly. There was some degree of cognitive confusion between listening to the message and assessing the accuracy of a grammar item. Also, the mechanical nature of the language defeated the teacher's goal of motivating the class during "free" use of the grammatical item in the context provided by the teacher. This 'context' also had no connection to the theme of the unit of work into which individual grammar lessons were supposed to be integrated.

13.3 TEACHING SCHEMATA

The following findings arising out of the textual material have been grouped under the schemata and dimensions as noted in Steps (7) and (8) on page 167.

Ching Ching was teaching a Normal[1] Secondary One class, which tended to have more language learning difficulties than Express classes. It should be noted that during Pupil Experience she had also been teaching a small group of remedial Normal class pupils. Her initial negative experience with pupil language problems was therefore reinforced during Teaching Practice.

13.3.1 PUPILS

13.3.1.1 Pupil Learning

The question of how to develop pupils' language skills and make a difference as a teacher became major concerns during the practicum. Her negative views are summarised in the following extracts from the first two pre-lesson conferences:

> What worries me is that at the moment that you're explaining something they really understand it, but in a minute they forget what they've understood! And that's what I'm afraid of, because in this lesson done on present tenses, I explained the use of the singular and plural and they were reading also from the book and then the next minute when they closed their books they forgot. Or I think they forgot. [PREA-213][2]

> The strange thing which I've been finding out about the Normal class, is they have the knowledge of certain things but they don't practice it! For example tenses. I was having a lesson on tenses, past tense and you get them to do the exercises or some form of activity to reinforce that. It's fine, they could do it. But when they start to do composition writing, when it's free writing it just goes haywire. They just forget that such a thing as tenses exist, they just write what comes to their heads. [PREB-27]

Pupil inability or reluctance to learn was a continuing theme throughout the practicum. She worried about whether in fact she was able to teach them anything:

> Difficult to gauge whether [pupils] really understood and then forgot [PREA-33]

---

[1]   In Singapore secondary schools, pupils are streamed into two main bands: Express, which are the better pupils, and Normal, which are the average and below average pupils.

[2]   Only the first line of the quotation will be referenced. Codes, e.g. "PREA" refer to text files as per listing on page 168.

Are they actually learning? And do they keep anything in their heads? [INB-82]

Ching Ching felt that these language learning difficulties were a serious universal problem for all teachers, and arose from the fact that pupils seemed unable to 'gel' information [INB-480], i.e., retain whatever they had been taught during a lesson:

> I think it's really everybody's concern. Yes, such a waste, you teach something and it's not being used in whatever they do. I would see it as in connection to how they can actually internalise it and use it. [PREB-077]

Throughout TP, a force that militated against pupil improvement in English was the fact that they did not use the language enough. This was a persistent unchanging theme, beginning with PE. Ching Ching's concern was how to improve their language, given this lack of exposure to English. Two principal problems were the fact that there was peer pressure on pupils not to speak "proper English" [INC-139], as well as the fact that pupils did not read English books or watch English TV programmes in their free time [INB-121], [INC-53]. She held this same view throughout the year as can be seen from her comments at the beginning and end of her training year.

> It is quite sad that outside of a lesson, the pupils rarely reinforced their English with reading or other English-related programmes and activities. [JOUR-234], [CONC-1], [INB-258]
> How to improve them. A lack of exposure to English. Lack of practice. Dread of English. [INC-2408]

She held definite negative views regarding how grammar affected composition writing. She continued to be concerned about lack of written accuracy, which she attributed to the influence of Mandarin:

> I just guess that it's because of their other languages. Mandarin tense is nothing. So they write exactly what comes to mind. [PREB-68]

> Pupils are not aware of writing strategies or devices, and are still struggling with grammar, syntax and vocabulary. [EVAL-61], PRAC-14]

Pupil Thinking Problems
Pupil thinking problems became a another major theme during TP. Ching Ching came to see this as the major reason why pupils were not improving in their language learning. She felt that they had not been asked to think before [INB-193] and that therefore they were

too dependent on teachers. Pupils wanted the teacher to tell them what was wrong with their language use instead of figuring it out for themselves [INB-360]. This was a problem in all aspects of language learning, even reading comprehension.

> Need to be taught just how to think, the processes, even before the communication comes in. Because certain comprehension passages, give it to them, they just somehow give you an answer but they cannot substantiate anything. They can't think. They can't express, they don't think enough how to express, they don't think enough why the answer is like that, and they don't think enough why should it be something else, it's the thinking, you see... [INC-41]

> [pupils] don't really think, they can't verbalise ideas...
> pupils do not like activities that require thinking
> pupils don't think for themselves
> pupils are not interested in having to figure out something for themselves
> [INC-7]

In answering comprehension questions, pupils took chunks from the text instead of re-expressing answers in their own words. The main problem was that "pupils were guessing comprehension answers - unable to substantiate" [PRAC-37], i.e., that they could not give a reason for what they put in their answers. She thought that the pupils were mechanically carrying out the tasks she set them without actually making any effort to think for themselves.

Ching Ching felt that her teaching ran into problems with the pupils as a direct result of their resistance to actively thinking and participating in lessons:

> I noticed that a lot of these kids are used to being given things to read. I had a student elsewhere telling me things like: Oh, I don't see why this teacher is giving us all these worksheets and questions; why doesn't she just give me the notes like my teacher did and tell us, okay, these are the notes, read up your notes and that's enough. Why give me questions? It's not useful, whereas I think that the rationale behind all the worksheets and questions is to make them think, think, to get this thing ticking. Yeah, but kids are not used to that. [INC-359]

An associated feature of the problem with thinking was that pupils had a very short attention span [POSC-114] and did not listen properly so they appeared to understand at time of explanation but forgot in a minute [PREA-32].

Very poor memory? Do not pay attention? Can't understand relatively simple English? Pupils seem to have little difficulty in giving the different degrees of adjectives in a list-column form but in actual writing, tend to make either mistakes in degree or particularly spelling. [PRAC-268]

13.3.1.2 Pupil Attitude

'Pupils staring at you and thinking about something else' [POSC-4], [INB-1098] reflected her negative opinion of her class:

> A lot of these students are also very lazy, and the problem why they don't remember things after a while or after a lesson is because they never bother to even keep it in their heads, they don't even work their minds to keep it in their heads, they don't really revise their work and they don't do their homework. [INC-191]

She was also concerned that pupils did not try to understand her instructions:

> If you have just given them an instruction on something, you can bet on it that the next second you turn around to face them and some smart intelligent chap will put up his hand to ask you. Like what I did just now, I said, you can write it on your paper, and somebody will still ask you. It'd be a blessing with just one person (laughter) asking you that! [POSC-12] [PRAC-264] [PREA-201] [POSC-2]

Ching Ching was trying to rationalise pupil problems by attributing them to their negative attitude toward English. She shifted through several points of view on this. First, during PE she empathised with their lack of confidence in speaking and writing, and so her concern was to teach correct English without aggravating their perceptions of their own inadequacy [CONA-6]

> Pupils have inferiority complex because bad command of English and fear of speaking and fear of tests. English is most feared subject for majority [JOUR-2]

During the first five weeks of TP, she considered the cause to be the fact that pupils considered science and maths to be more important than English [PREA-44] the reason being that 'Pupils love maths because there is a method and they are poor in English' [INB-82]. Her end of TP concern was "to give pupils a more justified purpose for learning English" [INC-171], [CONC-7]. for in this way she could perhaps somehow motivate them to work on improving their language proficiency.

Pupil Attitude to Work

By juxtaposing two comments, one from the first and one from the last interview, the change in Ching Ching's view of pupils can be clearly seen. At first, she was idealistic about the prospect of being able to get 'pupils motivated to work for good a future' [INA-19]. In the last interview she adjusted her goal to: 'Teacher *despite all odds* get pupils motivated to learn something' [INC-18].

She felt that 'pupils have no pride in their work' [INB-41] and that she 'must tell pupils every little detail or they won't do it otherwise' [INB-1052]. The central issue was that unless the pupils had a positive attitude and were motivated, the teacher's efforts were negated:

> I feel that until the student can sit up and listen to you and take interest in what you're trying to say, they well they wouldn't be in a ready state to learn anything much. [PREA-370]

At the end of TP, Ching Ching's summarised in a journal entry the problem of working with Normal stream pupils:

> Many of the Normal stream pupils are not only slower in their learning abilities, but are also often easily distracted and disinterested in schoolwork. Thus a real problem trying to balance content, skills, time and motivation. [PRAC-156]

Although she acknowledged that some pupils were good in their work, for the most part she considered the pupils in her class to be, 'Naughty, loudmouths, and lazy, untidy, did not do their work or did not pay attention.' [EVAL-29]

Homework and Corrections

The fact that pupils were not doing their homework properly was an example of their bad attitude and she never came to terms with this problem.

> Because the kids are strange. You can tell them in class can you hand up now your work books, and there and then you check and it's missing, and then you call up the pupil, he says "Oh yes, I've got my book", and then he takes it out from his bag and you wonder, so, what's he listening to. [INB-1010]

> And you can just say, whoever owes me these corrections you'd better hand
> it in now, and then they still wouldn't do it until you come down during one
> of those in-between periods and threaten and... "Oh, I have it here, it's in
> my bag, I'll give it to you." So it's still a concern. [INC-2421]

Her struggles to ensure that pupils did their homework continued throughout the practicum. Homework to her was an essential element in reinforcing classroom learning and part of her teaching duty. She was constantly complaining about the fact that "pupils don't revise work", "pupils don't do homework" [INC-13]; and her main concern during TP (and this remained consistent) was "that pupils hand up work on time, neat and completed [and they are not doing it now]" [CONB-1].

13.3.1.3 Pupil Behaviour

During PE, working with small groups of remedial pupils, the affective factors were uppermost in Ching Ching's mind rather than class discipline. During TP with a full class, management problems inevitably arose; and she came to see patterns in such behaviour. For example, at the end of Monday school pupils would be restless [PRED-1], and she became increasingly concerned about what type of activities she could use during this period. The following Journal entry indicates her awareness:

> It is agreed by all the other experienced teachers that periods at the end of
> the day or after PE, are usually noisy and pupils difficult to manage. This I
> certainly experienced with my class this week somehow more so. Important
> factor to consider in future especially concerning the type of activities to be
> conducted. [PRAC-220]

With regard to vocal pupils, Ching Ching was ambivalent: without them, she found it difficult to get any response to her lessons; but at the same time they tended to cause class management problems [POSA-4] Even though she was getting some sort of response from the class, it was not always a sensible or useful interaction:

> Discussion at class level was lively due to the usual noisily vocal ones, but
> 'quality' noise was lacking. [EVAL-73]

Also, she encountered time management problems when she could not get through her lesson as quickly as she had planned because 'Some of them, persistent attention-seekers, asking questions, so that took up a lot more time than I'd expected' [POSC-55].

She wanted to be a caring and understanding teacher, but ended up feeling that the pupils were taking advantage of her and considered her "soft" if she accepted their excuses for non-submission of work:

> These kids, they think you're helping them or you're trying to be understanding, they tell you something like: "I was sick the whole week-end" and stuff like that, and you try not to say: "Hey, that's a lie!" you say, "Oh, oh, really, if that's really true okay, fine, I'll give you another day, but I hope you get better", and then they'll go and take advantage and tomorrow they'll say "I've been sick" again! Yeah, that's taking advantage. [INC-133]

While acknowledging that a sense of humour helped establish better rapport with classes [INC-281] she found that this was another instance when the pupils could very quickly get out of hand:

> One thing the class likes a lot, which I was quite worried, all this thing about boyfriends and girlfriends. They're so keen on that, and anytime you say something about someone they all laugh and make cracks and a lot of jokes about that child. But it's a bit dangerous to carry it too far because at that age and at that school, already there are couples at Sec 1 level. [INC-283]

Her final comment on this situation was, as she wrote in her Journal:

> 1N really needs a constant very watchful eye. On the whole I'm satisfied with my management of 1N but have to be cautious when in lighter moments because they really grab the opportunity to laugh loud. [PRAC-42]

13.3.1.4 Pupil Point of View

Ching Ching considered role play, games, worksheets and anything that departed from her own school experience of textbook-based learning as potentially motivating for her pupils. However she experienced a sense of frustration at her lack of success in getting pupils to respond positively to her lessons despite her efforts to vary the traditional approach she found in her TP school.

> If I think something is effective or something is good, motivating, extra, it might not work with the kids, it might not be the same. [INC-2672]

During Pupil Experience as well as during Teaching Practice she was aware of this problem but could not seem to analyse what was causing this gap in perception between

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her and her pupils. She expressed concern at the apparent teacher subjectivity in lesson ideas because pupils did not relate to the 'fun' tasks [CONA-4].

> It's still very true at times. They would like this activity and then you find that they don't either because they think it's not normal it's not the learning they're used to, or they think it's just some frivolous activity. It's that very often these kids have been entrenched in the same style of teaching for so many years that something that's different is like I think the teacher's not teaching us anything today. [INB-463]

She came to the conclusion that teacher and pupil views of methods were not the same [INC-186]. This was a 'slippery area' [INC-871] because pupils might find activities not as interesting as the teacher had thought [INC-875]

> You do something, you have the lesson plan, you have expectations and the real situation is not what you expected. [INC-2765]

The following was an example of not anticipating pupil reactions to a composition lesson focus phase:

> What was planned and thought to be an exciting scary induction about aliens turned out to be literally a laughing matter. Was funny but in a way disappointing too. Have to get to know pupils' minds and behaviour better. [PRAC-30]

She never actually got to the point of examining either the learning effect of such 'fun' activities or how effective she was in organising and clarifying the aims with her class. Only in passing did she try to trace the root of the problem:

> Is motivation problem due to subject, pupil attitude, or my lesson? [PRAC-25]

Apart from frustration due to pupils' lack of appreciation for her efforts to make her lessons more interesting, she also expressed concern that they did not understand the importance of doing corrections in order to help improve their language proficiency:

> One thing clear from these correction sessions though is that pupils do not really understand the rationale for corrections or their usefulness in improving their English. They see it as just something the teacher demands and would not bother to use their brains over it (judging from the number of re-re-re-corrections I often get). If there was less of a time constraint,

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corrections can be turned into a lesson (diagnosing their needs therefore) and pupils can benefit more in this way. [PRAC-297]

13.3.1.5 Approach to Pupils

Ching Ching's teaching goal was to correct and clean up accuracy problems but she found this to be an extremely daunting task:

> The class language needs seemed to include everything from basic language needs like correct grammar to increasing their word power and speaking and listening better. It was like being thrown a huge bin of rubbish and having to decide which bits to incinerate first so that the fire is not extinguished by a sudden load. [EVAL-75]

By trying to include 'fun' activities she expected to interest her pupils and to make sure that lessons were reinforced she stressed the importance of homework and work correction. As described above she had an ever growing sense of frustration at her lack of success in being able to implement her approach.

13.3.2 SUBJECT

13.3.2.1 View of Language

Ching Ching's pedagogical view of the English language was vague. When asked "What do you teach when you teach English?", she answered:

> Well, usage. I'm very keen to get kids to be able to pass exams and to use language correctly. (laughter) I don't really know. [INB-224]

Her view of teaching goals (written and spoken) centred around a view of communication as essentially the mastery of grammar as can be seen in her attempts to describe the focus of her teaching subject:

> Vocabulary is the skeleton and grammar rules makes it work [INB-50]
> Grammar is using language correctly [INB-225]
> Language usage is communication [INB-231]
> Using language for communication is activating whatever you've learned [INB-238]
> Formal language is precise [INC-138]

Her one strongly held belief was that without "accuracy" there could be no communication. This preoccupation with 'correct grammar usage' [INA-56] remained unchanged as a priority from the beginning of her coursework to the end of TP. Grammar

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was central to her English language teaching agenda as well as a source of continuing concern:

> I think it's like... the root of all evil! [INB-184]
> They've got to learn to acquire the language and the language first [INB-261]
> This (grammar) is like the foundation and if you have some holes or some rotten parts inside, it's going to affect your entire foundation as you build it up in later years. So that would affect communication... [INB-263]

She thus defined 'usage' as using English correctly which in her view was the basis for communication skills. She expressed dissatisfaction with her inability to make a difference in pupil language use. She found difficulty in teaching grammar because 'Must remember grammar is not always definite, clear-cut thing but has exceptions to the rule and would confuse pupils [INC-173] She was looking for ways to teach grammar more effectively. She expressed dissatisfaction with school staff who when approached for help could not advise her [PREA-135] on how to implement her language lessons more effectively:

> Because I was asking one of the teachers and she said 'Oh, just get them to identify whatever in the sentence'. [INB-174]
> But for grammar when we teach we should emphasise the usage, function and all that, right. [INB-178]

Her concerns shifted from general aims of improving pupil language to realising by the end of TP that items in the scheme of work were not actually very useful and that she should have identified and analysed specific class problems and given those more time and thought rather than trying merely to cover the school listed items. She came to realise this but did not act on it during the practicum. This can be seen in her stated concerns, one from the beginning and the other from the end of her training year.

> To strengthen English foundation at this late stage [CONA-5]
> Need to better diagnose [pupil language problems] [CONC-6]

Content Subjects

She viewed language as more difficult to teach than content-related subjects, since the former require a teacher to overcome learning problems specific to a class, whereas for the latter one merely followed the textbook coverage of topics:

> I think the content areas are very simple, because I'm talking about the sciences. Today I teach maths, and this is what they have to cover, just give

it to you. And then if you're talking about the way you're approaching the language it's what do they need? I have to think about what they need or do I just take the textbook. I'm going to teach this, that's very simple, Chapter 2 today, that's fine, but at least the way they're wanting us to do it is not. Cause the thinking time... [INB-10]

13.3.2.2 Knowledge of Subject

Not only did she not recognise the source of her pupils' grammar problems but she also had a rather vague working knowledge of the grammar items she was teaching. She focused on definitions and simple rules of right and wrong use rather than trying to analyse examples of errors to better understand what was causing some of the recurring problems, or in identifying more authentic contexts of use so that meaning could be brought into the lessons. She reiterated the importance of making English as well as grammar lessons 'relevant' to her pupils but did not go beyond 'contextualisation' based on vague scenarios.

When asked for sources she confessed to consulting only the textbook [POSA-9] because she felt that such simplification was enough for her pupils. This had serious consequences for she actually was herself not clear enough to adequately highlight either rules or problems for her pupils.

> [Where did you get your definition from?]
> Um textbook.
> [Do you have a reference grammar?]
> No. I wanted to go down to IE to get it but as I looked through the book I saw it (definition of adjectives) and I was quite satisfied with it. I saw quality but I changed it to character because it might be a little abstract. In a way I was actually limiting it deliberately. I guess that was a real mistake (cutting out numbers). There was even one more on material like a new cotton dress, cotton. I left it out because I was afraid that I might not be able to cover it in time and the kids would be overloaded, so I cut it down to simply just three categories. [POSA-92]

Time and again she was rather vague about the teaching content of her grammar lessons, e.g., lack of knowledge about order of adjectives even though this was the focus of her lesson [PREA-14]. Also she planned to include concord and tenses in her adjective lesson of 35 minutes merely because pupils needed constant reminders in those areas [PREA-13]. There were also problems in knowledge of terminology; and in simplifying adjectives of quality to character she ended up confusing her class and herself [PREB-13] [POSB-6].

This lack of exact knowledge was also evident in her lesson on comparison of adjectives where she was uncertain about the use of 'more/most' in her lesson [POSD-8].

13.3.3 ENVIRONMENT

13.3.3.1 Staff

Ching Ching found no role models in the school; in fact she commented:

> The school staff seemed very strict and regimental and personally unhelpful [EVAL-2]
> It's depressing because teachers just complain about kids. In 2-3 years will I be like that? I hope I don't get into this because It's such an ugly picture. And it makes me wonder whether in five years down the line I would end up in the same boat, in the same manner, complaining so much about the students and just simply becoming such, uh, naggy women. [EVAL-24]

The irony was that she herself spent a lot of time in the interviews complaining about problem pupils.

13.3.3.2 Co-operating Teacher (CT)

She was also very negative about the relationship with her CT:

> If the CT had been better, more helpful, then I might have become a better teacher [EVAL-6]

She was looking for direction from her CT and expected her to play a similar support role as she had come to expect from her teachers in her school days but found an unexpectedly new situation. Both her CTs - one for English and the other for Literature - lacked interest in her. Indeed, she felt that her English CT hindered her teaching for she did not provide even essential information such as when tests were to be held, and did not tell her what she herself was covering in the period that she had retained with the class which Ching Ching had been assigned to teach. Ching Ching came more and more to resent her CT's lack of guidance and to consider her advice as not useful [INB-121]. She felt that she was intruding on CT work even though she was actually relieving them of so many periods a week [EVAL-020]. The CT's, who were assigned (by the school) on the day Ching Ching arrived, didn't know what to do with her. The two CTs wanted to 'shrug off' the responsibility to each other and:

It didn't turn out very pleasant, because they seemed very unwilling. It's too much work for them. Even observing lessons, comments were just really "that was good" or "fine" except a few points and those were not exactly very constructive. Perhaps a better CT would have helped me more on my way... You really did not know what she was thinking of and she would never tell you until you ask. And I don't think that is the way a CT should operate; a CT should actually have some very visible and constructive comments for me. [EVAL-88]

Whereas I had to go and ask her: how was the lesson? She said "Oh, it was good, yeah, it was very good, don't worry, you'll be okay, it's good." And that's it! [INC-3724]

In another encounter earlier she dismissed the CT's feedback because she saw it as a difference between a "traditional and old fashioned" [INC-732] view of language teaching and a modern view, i.e., hers. She gave little credence to her CT comments because she considered that she was carrying out the requirements of the school scheme of work.

I don't think they're very much concerned with theme or scheme of work in fact, because the other day when I did one, describing a lonely person and she sat in and then she was asking me why I asked the kids for adjectives. So I said partly because they've been learning adjectives and partly because it was in your Scheme of Work, to write a compo using as many adjectives as they could. So I don't think they follow it very much. I've been asking around and they don't really follow the scheme of work that closely. [PRED-14]

Ching Ching professed to have no clear knowledge of upcoming test requirements and blamed this on the 'vague' answers her CT gave when she enquired:

I guess I have to clarify with Mrs X when exactly she's going to give them the test, because she keeps saying Oh I will probably take you know this... I'll probably... that I have to clarify with her and maybe confirm again what the contents are and tell the kids again. [PREA-255]

Also she was distressed because she was not told that her class was meant to do a school project during the one-week holiday in March, and she had to rush them through in the first week of term. [INC-153]

So Ching Ching's lack of respect for her CT and her unfulfilled need for support and guidance from a mentor in the school led to an ever deteriorating view of her practicum environment.

13.3.3.3 School Requirements and Constraints

Timetable

A major source of contention throughout the practicum was the CT's wish to retain one lesson per week to do listening and vocabulary teaching. Since this was the beginning of the year the CT wanted to get to know the class that she would be taking over when the student teacher left. However it became a major issue in Ching Ching's mind:

> I don't know what the CT is doing in the lesson she kept for vocabulary, spelling. [PREA-22]

She magnified this into another rationalisation for not being able to improve her class language proficiency, because she considered that she was unable to reinforce pupil learning and her units of work were left incomplete. [INC-2357]

> The CT's taking away the listening comprehension, spelling and vocabulary lessons rendered me a little handicapped in attempts at a more integrated unit with opportunities of reinforcement through different areas. Moreover there was not much if any communication or co-operation as to what was happening in those two areas during her lessons and I was thus left to make as much as I could from comprehension or composition and grammar lessons in just five 35-minute periods a week, which I feel is too little for a Normal class like this. [EVAL-80]

Scheme of Work

Even though she felt that the school scheme of work was a serious constraint on her teaching and she was aware that the staff themselves were not using it, she still decided to follow it.

> The rationale and focus of this unit is therefore very much the result of trying to reconcile wanting to 'play safe' by abiding by the scheme of work and tackling the pupil's problems in the areas of grammar, reading and writing. [EVAL-95]
>
> I guess you can modify it a lot but there's the danger. I mean you have to watch out at the end because the school gives exams and if somehow you don't plan it properly and you don't carry it out properly it shows. And people are going to point and say, "Hey look, see, I told you it wouldn't work." [INC-437]

This decision arose partly out of the fact that she was not sure of unit planning and felt inadequate to cope with organising her teaching on her own.

It's quite new to us. And then suddenly you get constraints and the scheme of work. [INB-5], [INB-137]
I'm trying to like consider their interests as well as the scheme of work, and time. It's a bit difficult to tackle. [PREA-292]

She acknowledged that she had unit planning problems which were exacerbated by the school scheme of work [INB-137].

As can be observed there appear to be but weak linkages between the lessons in the unit. Much of that stems from the fact that the scheme of work is restrictive and a mere collection of chapters and themes to be covered by a certain time and also that the textbook is structured such that grammar is a separate section at the back. [EVAL-520]

In her view the scheme of work was a problem because it was just a listing of weekly requirements based on textbook chapters [PRAC-77], [EVAL-10] rather than pupil needs or sound discourse level integration.

It's just what they gave us, and every week what are the grammar items you have to do, and one compre, one compo. I think it's based very much on the textbook. [PREA-270]

Another restriction came from none other than the scheme of work itself. That appeared to be a mere convenient 'complete the textbook' style selection and arrangement and often comprehension passages were difficult as input for the given composition titles and even less helpful for the grammar items stated. [EVAL-89], [PREB-37].

13.3.3.4 Time

On various occasions Ching Ching revealed a lively awareness of the contrast between her expressed teaching ideals and her classroom performance. Her standard rationale for this dichotomy was "lack of time". Time references were scattered throughout her textual data, and were obviously a major concern. Such statements are grouped below under the particular areas which she felt to be affected by lack of time.

Pupils

Three concerns emerged with regard to pupils. Firstly, she believed that if she could give individual attention then she would be able to effect changes in pupil motivation and work. However, time constraints prevented her from doing so:

It'd be good because I noticed that when I find time to give individual attention point out encourage it works but I just don't have the energy and time. It's such a pity. [INB-1110]

It is my only regret that I couldn't have more time and energy to devote such attention to individual pupils cause it would work really wonders for them. [EVAL-40]

The second concern was that she had not been able to teach at a slower pace more suited to the type of pupils in her class, and that she was just "running through a syllabus" [INC-2420]

Definitely time is a constraint because I'm trying to get on with the scheme of work but at the same time the kids really need a lot of practice. So I did check with the CT where she is at for the Normal classes and I'm more or less on par but I was telling her that the kids don't seem to have got it into their systems yet and she said well you just do as much as you can and then you just have to carry on with the scheme of work. [PREA-265]

Thirdly, she felt that she had not been able to address the problem of pupils not thinking because of lack of time to give adequate consideration to this problem. As noted above, Ching Ching's practical argument regarding success in teaching appeared to be based on the following:

IF   they could be made to think harder
THEN it might stay in their minds a bit longer [INC-130]

Pupil thinking was the main discussion point by the end of the practicum. But she did not address the problem because she felt she did not have the time to wait for pupils to think before they answered her questions in class, or time to include more thinking activities and discussion in her lesson planning, because she had the syllabus to complete [EVAL-5]. Also even though she believed that teaching thinking skills was the key to developing pupil language ability, her excuse for not tackling this complex aspect of teaching was that pupils were not used to independent work and it took too much time as she describes in the following instance in a lesson:

They just get a little too dependent and sort of pampered or something, and keep asking: "Is this the right way to do it? Is my sentence correct?" I have students coming up to me with that, the last time I tried it with the class. It's like all hands are shooting up, and I got sick and I said: "Look, I'm not going to walk around the whole class to tell you the answers, you've got to

think." I feel that it's still possible with the normal class to come up with something good, but it's the time we don't have. [INB-360]

Because of her repeated "lack of time" references, she was asked what she actually did in her lessons, and replied that:

> Lot of time is actually spent telling off. No, but not as much as the other teachers. I spend a lot more time on it [grammar] I feel the grammar input is also very important and the kids are slow so they don't always get you at the one time. [INB-385]

Teaching Aspects

Ching Ching complained about having time taken from her unit teaching by her CT. Whether this was the real cause of unit teaching problems is not clear, but it was very vivid as a factor in her mind:

> Lack of time problem with unit. There's certain things disrupting my unit. For example the CT came up asked me to use the workbook which she's been hogging to do some things like comprehension for the workbook, some diagrams or something. She says "Oh would you spend a period or two to finish it because I couldn't finish it in my two periods." [PREC-188]

She was also frustrated by the time it took to locate extra materials from non textbook sources and so gave up and relied on OHTs. This was an example of acknowledging verbally what she should be doing but rationalising the inaction by "lack of time":

> Need better real world materials despite time constraints [CONB-2]
> Have to spend more time thinking about activities, input, and end product (for the next unit) [INB-438]

She had reservations about time it would take to vary her teaching approach:

> Picture worksheet activity was time consuming. Had to go through passage without going over basic answering skills, following tense of question because lack of time [PRAC-27]
> Pupils loved quiz but only had one because of time constraints [INC-117]
> I wanted to use the video for some of my activities but I found it difficult because the media room was always booked and at those times when I was having a single period it was going to be difficult because they would take a long time to line up and go up and then get in. Again, limitations of time, space, and students. One period, I'm going to have 35 minutes, and what's the activity going to be? If I'm going to ask them to push aside chairs and then just ask them to do something for five minutes, it's not quite worth it, right? It's not worth pushing the chairs aside for five minutes, all that drill,

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pushing the chairs, five minutes, and then acting five minutes and then pulling back things. [INC-1000]

Teacher Talk

Even though she had reservations about the effectiveness of the teacher giving information rather than eliciting it from pupils, she felt that time constraints forced her to just get the job done:

> Because of lack of a time I'm not going to ask them for examples, but I'm going to give them examples. [PREB-100]

> I have not so much of discussion because I didn't have time for them to think. I can't wait for them to give me the answers so if it's a simple question I'll just ask them and I'll probably get the answer, fine. But half the time I was doing explaining because I needed to rush through. [INC-2040]

> It's a time problem where you're in a hurry to get some of the answers. You can't wait. Whereas if you had the time I'm sure they could come up with something. They could give you all the wrong answers but eventually they would come to something. [INC-831]

Corrections

During TP marking was topmost in her mind [INC-98], [PRAC-43]: 'All that marking is insane!' [PRAC-125].

> I've seen teachers staying up to five or six to mark about two or three times a week and it's quite scary. Bringing it home is one thing but even in school I wouldn't be doing it every other day, marking up to five because it would affect your lesson planning for the next day and anything else which you need to do because after marking it's really draining. But then again you're expected to mix around. Stay in school almost whole day and work longer than office workers. [INC-220]

At the end of TP her one goal was to finish her marking and get the pupils to do accurate corrections in their books, almost as if her sole teaching purpose was now to demonstrate to her CT that she had fulfilled her teaching role competently by being able to leave clean exercise books, and this despite her pupils.

> "Last week was solely devoted to corrections. Pupils copied wrong things even though had answers on OHT" [INC-26]

Time constraints mitigated against any effective use of correction time as a teaching opportunity during her lessons:

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Most of the time they were rushed and it was just that the answer, like this, the next one. If time permitted, perhaps an explanation could be given as to why it's correct, [INB-917]

Everything's so packed, it's quite difficult. [INB-1023]

I should be able to vary it but no I didn't. In fact I didn't have time to because they wanted corrections for everything and for tests for compres for everything. If I had the time I could actually go over a passage with them but most of the time I just ended up pointing out certain mistakes and just telling the kids this is wrong because this and this. And like I said the last week I was so desperate that I had to put up answers on OHTs. [INC-1081]

Rush to complete necessary work AND get projects AND correct tests, exercises. No time to discuss test answers therefore gave on OHT [PRAC-46]

Again, she showed awareness of the shortcomings of her correction approach and even queried the time taken from her units of work, but she took no action to change the situation because of lack of time :

One change I would certainly make if I had the chance is to make correction sessions proper lessons by either improving on a skill or re-teaching certain things in a different perhaps more digestible way. However I am a little apprehensive about the time factor in a teacher's life and the conflict between helping pupils help themselves in corrections and the desire to get corrections made the way we wish so that there will be no re-corrections to mark. [INC-155]

Beginning to wonder how much time to allocate for corrections especially with the normal class. How should we fit it into a unit? [PRAC-115]

In order to successfully help pupils during correction times in lessons she felt that she needed to understand pupil problems; but again, time constraints prevented this.

Okay these are the problems and you sit down and say: all right what are the main trends, what are the main patterns of these mistakes and you need more time for that. [INC-22]

Homework

Homework enforcement was a major problem with the class and she felt frustrated because this seemed to take up so much of her time:

Notebook to check homework took too much time so need to find more effective way. Not organised, using slips of paper and now more organised than Term 1. Checking whether homework has been handed in is a

problem because process is time consuming. Pupils do not listen when told to hand it in. [INC-157]

She approached a teacher for help but rejected the teacher's suggestion that she check that homework had been done as it was handed to her during the lessons. She considered that she had such a tight lesson agenda that nothing else could be fitted in. She believed that older teachers did not prepare their lessons and therefore had time to fritter away on checking homework and making corrections:

> I asked an experienced teacher about getting pupils to hand in work properly done and corrections and her way was to do a there-and-then check to ensure that things are done right. Do I have the time, I wonder. [PRAC-139]

She felt that committing so much time to such a priority would interfere with the completion of the lesson as well as the scheme of work requirements.

Loss of Time

Frequent mention was made of lesson time lost for various reasons and this built up a deep resentment of the older teachers who did not seem to recognise the effort she had put into lesson preparation:

> Time is a problem if somebody eats into our lesson. We have lesson plans. The time column, and we're so conscious, every minute counts. Whereas for the older teachers, it's all in the head: today I'm doing this, and if can't finish, they go on to tomorrow, it doesn't matter. [INB-958]

> Little time left because extended assembly and a teacher did not get out of room till 10 minutes after end of assembly. In future use this period for corrections OR be prepared to continue next day. Senior teachers forget we plan our lessons because every minute counts [PRAC-18]

Need for Personal Time

Ching Ching expressed her reservations about teaching encroaching on her private life when school requirements were so demanding. 'And that's because I'm very jealous of my private life and my personal time' [INC-751]. If she showed concern for pupils it would eat into her personal time, because of the demands of present-day multiple teacher roles outside of the classroom [INC-334]:

> I think it's because in teaching, not just teaching something, that's simple. You just go into the class and teach. But it's all these other little things

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which the Government is putting us to effort: being a social worker, being a home worker, and we're all asking, "What about time for ourselves?" And if we have our families, what about time for our own families? Here you're taking care of other people and you're not taking care of your own. So that's the thing that's bugging a lot of us. [INC-2650]

Time away from school was very important to her and she was resentful of how much energy was going into teaching. Before the half term break during TP she wrote in her Journal:

Phew! Time to breathe and catch our life back! [PRAC-126]

All of the foregoing illustrates that "lack of time" was a major theme which surfaced again and again in her data, usually as a rationalisation for what she was unable to cope with in her teaching.

13.3.4 TEACHING APPROACH

13.3.4.1 Unit Planning

Ching Ching perceived unit planning based on discourse goals and pupil needs as something new and nice to do, but not really practicable for her during the practicum. She was also vague about unit integration and how to use theme as the context rather than as the organising factor in her language teaching. Themes mentioned were: Making Friends [PREA-2], School Days [PREB-2], and Travel (was considered but not implemented) [PREC-2]. There was no unit theme focus in lesson four [PRED-150]

She felt that she had to stick to the school scheme of work themes based on the textbook but was concerned about how to implement them. "Communication in travel is communication in real world but how to use travel theme to facilitate that" [INB-44]. In the second half of the practicum she did not consider it necessary to even attempt to link lessons to the scheme of work themes but instead concentrated on discrete skill or accuracy teaching. Other factors such as her inadequate knowledge of unit integration combined with school demands and her negative perception of pupil language learning problems made her relinquish any further attempts at planning units of work. But at the same time she spoke increasingly of the need for creating clearer "linkages" between lessons [CONB-5].

I feel the grammar input is also very important and these kids are slow, so they don't always get you at that one time. I was hoping that this new unit I'd be able to integrate it properly. It's something doesn't just stand on it's own. To me perhaps compre is some sort of input for the compo later on, and even all the grammar things that we're going to do. Because actually I am providing a context for them to practice what they have been learning; not just isolated context, but throughout a one or two week period and they're actually working, not a grand finale, but just working towards that. [INB-388]

I really have to spend more time thinking about activities, the input, the end product and have to know if it's the right way of working through to the end product, what I want, and then go backwards and look at the stuff I have available to achieve this. But sometimes the theme does restrain you a bit because you're thinking: how can I possibly use this, because that is the theme, that's what they're providing for you there. It's like, I have to stick to it but how am I going to achieve what I want to achieve? [INB-438]

Whether your output's going to be something so isolated from what you've actually done, or does it actually help the students come up with something you need, so at least it's not straggly. [INC-2369]

She felt that she had problems with planning her units of work because she had difficulties meshing the theoretical approach to planning with the constraints of the school scheme of work:

Very confused! Because what was being taught to us here the week before we left for School Experience and TP was quite simple and idealistic; but when you started having the scheme of work coming in school, syllabuses there are different densities that can't mix so very well. [INC-2469]
I have to consider what textbook I'm using, the scheme of work, time, how much time I have to work on that area and the needs, definitely. [INC-419]
How much time to allocate for corrections and how to fit into the unit [PRAC-19]

13.3.4.2 Lesson Objectives

Underlying Ching Ching's basic lesson goals was her preoccupation with reducing complexity for her class in order to get correct work out of them. The following objectives, one for a grammar lesson and the other for a writing lesson, illustrate this tendency:

And I can't possibly teach them everything, so my objective is mainly to make them aware that there're two such categories, countable and uncountable nouns. And the other objective would be just to give them

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some practice picking out some nouns and to attach appropriate sorts of quantifiers to each one. [PREB-10]

Learn to decide good content and by the end of the lesson be able to use appropriate content because of past problem with format and if don't restrict will write anything. [PREC-41]

She did not appear to be aware of the central significance of objectives in lesson planning. She viewed the formulation of objectives as a necessary but mechanical requirement:

By the end of the lesson are pupils able to do this or would be able to... or would be aware of this. I mean to me that's quite boring. [INB-207]

The most frequently used phrases for objectives in her lesson plans were "to become aware of" and "to practise". When asked during the third interview about her approach to writing objectives, she responded as follows:

[Where do your objectives come from?]
They're mostly easy to write. Like, for this lessons they're quite easy to write, but sometimes it gets a bit dry, by end of the lessons the students would have been made aware of. It gets a bit run of the mill.
[What were the most common objectives then, that kept on cropping up?]
That they would be aware of something and would be able to use it correctly. But the thing which didn't carry over was they can still remember, they can still use that as input... no, that never came in. [INC-493]

This vagueness was compounded by a lack of recognition of the role of discourse in the structuring of her units of work, as well as her patchy knowledge of grammar. She made no reference to any reading when queried ("no time") and as mentioned above, did not even consult a pedagogical grammar book relying instead on the definitions in the class textbook. [13.3.2.2]

13.3.4.3 Planning Approach

Reducing Complexity

She was consistently specific when discussing her aims of reducing the complexity of grammar concepts for her pupils. Right from the beginning of the year she was concerned about the need to simplify 'the university learned complex grammar rules of new graduates' [INA-611].

Whereas what the kids ask you, you teach halfway and you realise they are asking you: "What's a subject? What's an object?" and you realise you're not prepared to answer that. Or, you don't know how to put it in their terms, their simple terms. We have it at the university level, what's subject and predicate. But the kids... well, you're not going to tell them in that language, right? [INB-604]

During the conferencing before and after the video taped lessons one and two she stressed the problem of terminology:

I think it's with certain technical terms, nouns because if you noticed, I kept saying nouns, things, or persons, but I was wondering whether it's worthwhile or it's good to say such things, because if I said nouns, they may not really know what a noun is, but I wanted them to know that a noun implies things, or persons. [POSA-142]
But there's no simpler special name for these things, like cup, grain, blade, drop? [PREB-114]
Pupils do not know/remember the term though know what adjectives are [PREA-10] [POSA-20]
They would have been using adjectives all along, just that I don't think they would know it's called 'adjective'. [PREA-54]

As well as this, she had reservations about the necessity for learning rules:

One thing I must remember it's not a definite clear-cut thing always; you can use this in this situation. Sometimes you're trying to give kids the exception to the rule and when can you introduce that so that wouldn't confuse them. Sometimes the author uses the present tense for some reason and not because the action is happening now - what's the stuff called?... discourse studies. I guess part of the reason is because when I was in school the teacher told us all the rules but I never remembered them. I don't know what she was talking about! I just wrote and used it like that. That means the grammar rules didn't really work. It was only much much later that I knew what was a grammar rule. [INC-2471]

Arising out of her own learning preferences, she had an aversion to memorising information and felt that such an approach might be counter-productive:

Cause if I say it too often it could be like hampering their memories as well. They may not bother to remember what a noun is. [POSA-158]
And you've got to try and find a way of making it stick in their heads instead of just writing like this, and you make them memorise it. [INB-608]

Ching Ching's preoccupation with grammar lasted through the whole year of training. From the beginning, her main aim was to develop "correct grammar usage" [QUE-13] in

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her future pupils, and she was concerned over the fact that "[pupils are] perpetually committing the same simplest of grammatical errors, e.g., singular and plural" [CONA-8] and the "basics are not there in the Normal class but no time to teach them" [PREA-20].

The following are excerpts from her lesson-related discussions about how she approached the teaching of grammar and writing:

With regard to rules for the order of adjectives, she believed in "limiting deliberately" [POSA-85]. She decided not to use the term "quality" to categorise types of adjectives, but replaced this term with "character". This decision lead to confusion during the lesson because simplifying by merely omitting or changing grammar terms can in itself complicate rather than facilitate learning:

> I didn't want to bring in quality, because it might be a little too abstract. [POSA-72]
> And I wanted actually to use the words comparative but I thought, if I use comparative it's too big for them. But again, I also wasn't very fond of the idea of using the words "comparative" and "superlative" but I couldn't seem to think of substitute words. Very big words, and I don't think it's got into their heads, [POSC-65]

Her rationale for ignoring prior knowledge in the areas of grammar that she was teaching was as follows:

> I think they would know... well, basically, they would have been using adjectives all along. Just that I don't think they would know it's called 'adjectives'.
> [And... you don't think they would have done it at primary school?]
> They might have, but I doubt if they can remember the word called 'adjective'.
> [I see... so you're actually teaching a term, rather than addressing a problem.]
> I guess I would encourage them, when I come to the part about why we use adjectives, I'll tell them in compositions, for example, we don't just write that, 'one day'. but, to make it more interesting, more colourful, you add adjectives to it so that they can actually make use of it later on. [PREA-53]

She tended to make reference to all the basic grammar items in each of her grammar lessons. Her rationale was that the pupils needed to be reminded, so why not? This led to problems in the CT and Principal-observed lessons, described above, since they felt that

only one main grammar item should be focused upon in a given 35 minute lesson. [PREA-125] Only at the end of teaching practice did she express any interest in diagnosing pupil language problems as a way of centring her teaching other than by following the scheme of work [CONC-6].

Ching Ching also felt that her pupils were inadequate in their writing and she needed to give controlled inputs for ideas to write about, otherwise they could not manage to produce coherent compositions:

> I realised that if you just tell them a letter and you don't restrict the content, they would write just about anything under the sky. So I want to restrict it here. [PRED-50]

She also found that "pupil stories are boring because cannot vary what was brainstormed" [INB-34]. After giving pupils a pre-writing input, she expected them to be creative and imaginative in adapting it for their writing. It was only in the second half of TP that she realised that this was a self-defeating goal, and acknowledged that pupils actually wrote much better on realistic subjects that they know something about:

> Rather surprised to realise that they [pupils] are able to write better on things which are more realistic, i.e., not the usual imaginative, fantastical things they have been given. Probably proves that background knowledge is important. [PRAC-254]

She justified her grammar emphasis in terms of usefulness for written work:

> Word order, I guess it'll be good because it encourages them to perhaps use more than one adjective in compositions because many a times they don't even have an adjective. [PREA-139]

By the end of TP she had become resigned to the widespread pupil language problems and her focus had shifted to finding ways to get them to think, i.e., to concentrate and internalise what she was teaching. This she considered to be the likely key to developing their language proficiency.

Contextualisation

Her other planning strategy was to attempt to contextualise the grammar items in her lessons in a rather disjointed manner, i.e., not based on actual real world examples but

rather based on "cute" activities to maintain pupil attention during the Do Task Phase. Her reasons were as follows:

> You have the rules, you have to practise them - the usage and more realistic kind of situations, pick up a realistic situation. [INB-243]
> Using adverbs to describe events and forcing them to use and also incorporating using correct tenses [PREC-2]
> Teach grammar in context [INC-52]
> I was glad also to be able to utilise a topic close to the pupils hearts into a grammar practice session. [PRAC-46]

Problems arose because she concentrated on packaging traditional discrete item teaching from the textbook rather than identifying needs and reasons for pupil problems. She used contextualisation, games, worksheets and even role play to try and interest the pupils, but was rather vague regarding the main issues involved in teaching grammar to her class:

> Grammar usage is to sort out grammar in a conducive manner and utilising what they want to say in a functional manner. [INB-263]

At the lesson level, she gradually grew in awareness for the need to link lesson phases to achieve lesson outputs. This progression in awareness is illustrated by an excerpt from her second interview and two from her last interview:

> Just putting it into lessons and hoping, or trying to make it come to some good end product, I just felt that you could just cut a lesson part and you can see that it's got no linkages, there are no arteries conducted. So what I'm trying to do now is that, it's a really related. You cut and you find that, it's just joined, you can see the connections. But from the past few you could just blow it and that's it! The pieces would just hang there and it's all separate. [INB-422]

> I don't know, I think from all that you can actually say for example, you can see errors and perhaps you could see how the thoughts run, can they actually organise the facts and and what level of imagination they have and you could work from there, provided the scheme of work... [INC-428]

> What is the teaching point, what do you bring in, how are you going to deliver it? Just state it to them, do you want them to give you the answers, do you want to elicit? And then, is that, going to be emphasised so much, that particular rule or you want them to practise more on it, to really reinforce all that, and at the end tell you, the rule is this or what. So it's how you want to get that rule through. [INC-484]

13.3.4.4 Presentation Approach

Apart from reducing complexity and trying to contextualise grammar items she mentioned how she was trying to scaffold pupil learning. Ching Ching's approach was to ask questions, get wrong answers from the vocal pupils and then launch into a Clarify Phase. In her mind this seemed to be a workable strategy for responding to pupil needs, i.e., their misconceptions. In fact, after the first class observation she felt that the absence of the vocal pupils had negatively affected this planned teaching strategy:

> I was very disappointed by the turnout. I wanted to ask a lot of questions
> and I anticipated a lot of way out answers and wrong answers and I wanted
> to get them to explain it and myself to clarify it with them later. [POSA-23]

In the last interview she expressed a more insightful consideration of grammar lesson presentation:

> What is the teaching point? What do you bring in? How are you going to
> deliver it? Just state it to them, do you want them to give you the answers?
> Do you want to elicit or what? And then is that going to be emphasised so
> much that particular rule or you want them to practise more on it, to really
> reinforce all that and at the end tell you the rule is this. So it's how you
> want to get that rule through. [INC-484]

Arising out of boredom with tried-and-true techniques, she wanted to experiment with new methods, some of which did not work out too well because she used them in contexts inappropriate for the teenage sophistication level of the class. She grew bored with her range of teaching activities and more negative with regard to their effectiveness.

> Tried what others said was good or interesting activity e.g., role play and it
> was a waste of time because sounded simple but didn't think of how it was
> going to [INC-92]
> New then because never had it at school - now after TP 10 weeks methods
> and worksheets no longer new [INC-145]
> Get bored recycling same method [INC-185]
> Thought could use [PE] given strategies and think they will work now.
> Have to work it out yourself [INC-196]

She spent the first half of the practicum concerned about making her lessons motivating for her pupils via contextualisation and materials. She appeared to think that this was the key to getting pupils to learn:

Need more interesting and exciting games to motivate/interest pupils [CONB-6]
Need varied media usage and materials, inductions and conclusions [CONB-10]

She was becoming more aware of more complex pedagogical issues and her teaching approach became less affectively focused and more pragmatic as illustrated below:

Teacher has to consider not just what you know but how to give it to the pupils [INB-935]
Orderly in organising activity and instructions otherwise not effective [INC-131]

This last comment arose out of the fact that more and more lesson presentations and time estimates were disturbed by unanticipated pupil response to the planning as well as school constraints which took away some minutes from her lessons. Comments like the two below indicated an increasing awareness of the range of events and situations that a teacher has to deal with:

I was not pleased with the adjective lesson because I hadn't thought through well enough on the order of adjectives and how to convey that to pupils in easier way. [PRAC-57]

Pupil problems in describing pictures They were supposed to come up with various types of verbs but they seemed limited to just one... I think they got really carried away by the pictures, they got excited by the pictures and so not exactly on task. [PRED-23]

13.3.4.5 View of Methods

The teaching technique grids provided two kinds of information. Firstly, since each teaching technique was rated on a scale of 1 (least interesting, least enjoyable, etc.) to 5 (most interesting, most enjoyable, etc.), the ratings reflected changes in the student teacher's perceptions over time as to the merits of each technique. (For any one grid, the average rating of each technique taken across all constructs was taken to represent its overall rating.) In Ching Ching's case, there was a marked degradation in her views on almost all of the teaching techniques across the span of the practicum. The extent of this degradation is illustrated by the following table of changes, where the percentage change is as measured from the earliest grid to the latest grid:

Changes in Perception of Teaching Technique Elements

	TGD1	TGD2	TGD3	TGD4	%chg
pair work	3.75	3.38	3.50	3.63	- 3
group work	3.75	3.50	4.00	3.25	- 13
class debate	3.63	3.50	4.25	3.38	- 7
teacher talk	3.50	3.00	3.75	2.50	- 29
reading aloud	2.75	3.00	3.88	2.63	- 4
tape recordings	3.38	3.25	3.88	3.25	- 4
games/role play	4.13	4.25	4.38	3.75	- 9
brainstorming	4.13	3.38	3.38	2.75	- 33
presentations	3.50	3.63	3.88	3.25	- 7
textbook exercises	2.75	3.00	2.88	1.75	- 36
activity cards	4.00	4.13	4.25	3.75	- 6
sitting tests	3.38	3.13	2.63	2.50	- 26
silent reading	2.25	2.25	2.63	2.00	- 11
writing compos	3.88	3.25	3.50	2.75	- 29
grammar rules	1.75	2.00	2.00	1.88	+ 7
project work	3.88	3.50	2.88	3.13	- 19
memorising words	2.88	2.88	1.88	2.25	- 22
pronunciation	3.25	3.38	2.50	2.13	- 34
sentence making	3.38	3.38	2.75	2.38	- 30

It can be seen that principal changes, all of which were negative, occurred in the perception of the following activities:

	%change
doing textbook exercises	- 36
pronunciation drills	- 34
brainstorming/sharing ideas	- 33
sentence making	- 30
writing compos	- 29
teacher-talk	- 29
sitting tests	- 26

Interestingly (and quite in line with Ching Ching's obsession with grammar!) the only single element which reflected any degree of increase at all over the practicum was grammar rules (+7)!

Changes in Perception of Constructs

Tracing the evolution of the grids, an effective lesson was originally construed to be one which was orderly. By mid-term effective was equated with challenging, but by the third grid it was again being equated with orderly. In the final grid effective was loosely clustered with interesting/ enjoyable.

Perceptions of what constituted an enjoyable lesson have thus changed over the period. Initially an interesting lesson was construed to be enjoyable; later an innovative lesson, and still later a motivating lesson. On the final grid, interesting was once more clustered with enjoyable! Ching Ching had apparently not come to a clear-cut manner for construing these constructs.

In the third and fourth grids, innovative is somewhat remote from any of the other elements, suggesting that Ching Ching has a leaning for orderly approaches and is mildly distrustful of innovation.

Although interpretation of repertory grids must be approached with caution, it would seem that three basic conclusions can be tentatively drawn from the foregoing material:

(1)　As time went on over the course of the practicum, Ching Ching became suspicious of innovative and imaginative approaches to teaching, since such approaches only seemed to open the door for unruly pupil behaviour.

(2)　Along similar lines, many teaching techniques on which Ching Ching had previous positive views deteriorated in her estimation, viewed from the new perspective of her somewhat bleak perceptions of the realities of the classroom.

(3)　As all other alternative teaching techniques declined in her estimation, Ching Ching's perception of her tried-and-true teaching of grammar rules remained consistent and even increased somewhat.

As mentioned earlier, these grid results were used as "conversation starters" for discussions on her views of different teaching methods and materials during the interviews. Some of the more significant excerpts which illustrate here views are summarised below.

Games

One aspect of the methods coursework that caught her attention and which she tried to incorporate into her own teaching was the use of games. She was positive about these as she considered such activities 'innovative' and thus non-traditional. She wanted to teach in a more motivating and interesting manner than the teachers she had been exposed to during her own schooling:

When I was back in school there were a lot of drills just fill in the blanks with these words and it was very simple. It's quite boring too. It's very mechanical but innovative and challenging would be something which would incorporate games make something interesting and challenging to people in the form of games. [INA-442]

I don't remember doing very much of that in class. It was just open your books, now read this rule and do this exercise, stand up one by one and give. It worked fine with us - most of us anyway. We came from a good school. [INB-583]

Activity cards, games, and role play were "interesting and creative because pupils would think of ways to be different from friends" [INA-579], [INB-895]. She projected her own classroom experiences as a pupil in judging methods and this attitude persisted right to the end of the practicum. Poor pupil attitude and lack of time were her rationalisations for reverting to a less affective and more pragmatic teaching approach.

Oh, I guess this was because we had this idea that we were used to these old-fashioned traditional methods, and it bored them to death, and because it was boring they didn't listen. So, if it was something interesting and it would stay in their minds too and they will sit up and pay attention and learn. Later on it would be like, "Oh well, we've been through so many of these methods and, maybe work sheets are no longer something new to us, now we've been doing it ten weeks, it's not new to us anymore." But it was new to us at the time, because teachers of our time never did it. [INC-2222]

Role Play
She first tried role play during Pupil Experience and despite problems in getting pupils to actually say anything she was convinced that basically all teenagers love acting as she herself had loved it when she was in school. She believed that once they had had sufficient exposure they would improve because it was lack of confidence that was holding them back. She was in effect transferring her own values onto her pupils and so used role play in one TP lesson despite the evident reluctance of pupils to perform in front of the rest of the class. The problem was compounded by inaudible voices and behaviour problems:

I think they liked it and... although they were a bit soft, but, I think they just loved acting and as somebody said, in every one of us is an actor or actress trying to get out. [INA-529]
something that's new it's going to interest them and they would enjoy because they have something new. [INB-710]

She was locked into trying to make grammar lessons interesting and "fun" despite difficulties in controlling pupil attention. The following was her explanation of her second video lesson during the pre-conference. When queried regarding the scenario, the usefulness of such an activity for her class, and the efficacy of actually being able to note whether the language item was being used correctly instead of noting the performance or message, she changed only the scenario. This imperviousness to the shortcomings in her planning of goals and scaffolding phases seemed to be based on the premise of avoiding boring her pupils:

> The main part of the lesson actually is like vocab but I wouldn't be able to run through a whole list, it'd be boring. So I'll just have a few more common ones and I'll get them to practice it like role play, acting something out, a scenario. It's going to be a group competition and each group I'll give them cards with these items on it. Like let's say 'water' and I'll draw it out or write it out. And some very simple props like... okay the scenario would be something like a typical school day in the desert. It's a bit way out. Then simple props to make them feel you know that they're really acting something. And the cards I'll tell them you have this here water and maybe you've got sand and there's going to be two persons in this play and the rest of the group's going to help tell them what to do. Maybe there's a teacher and there's a pupil who's thirsty and he's begging the teacher for water. How's he going to ask and what the teacher's going to say. A simple situation where they can practice whether to use quantifiers. And I'll also give out worksheets to the other groups so that they can tick against the other group whether they've used it correctly or not. It's an activity so that they'll be really paying attention to that lesson. [PREB-118]

Her rationale for wanting to experiment with role play [PREB-28] was that she was "trying to trigger some sort of imagination in her class" [INB-332]. This was in the face of her growing awareness of the problems associated with using role play with a restless class:

> Guess how much I actually get to reinforce in the role play because it could get off focus. They could be enjoying, laughing or they may be dead bored and they may actually lose the focus - focusing on countable and uncountable, using it, counting. Actually the evaluation would be rather important. Which is the next stage. Because that's when I really tell them whether they've been right, or wrong, and why. [PREB-196]

She had a far more seasoned view by the end of the practicum:

> It's what I know, and what people say is going to be good and interesting activities, and it sounded so simple. Role play is interesting but you didn't

think of: "How am I going to effect that? How is it going to be good?" And I tried role play and after that it wasn't good; it was a waste of time. [INC-879]

Pair and Group Work

Again her own school experience influenced her evaluation of pair and group work, in this instance negatively because she herself did not perceive any benefit from it:

> What I think I feel about pair work and group work is: as a teacher, you have to be very very clear as to what sort of product you want and how you want it all to conclude because, being a pupil like myself here, sometimes they ask you to do group work or pair work, but there isn't really very much involved and someone will do all the thinking and writing and everybody else will sit back and it doesn't benefit anybody. And, most important, I think there's got to be some sort of monitoring, because otherwise they just say yes, we've done our work, done the work. [INA-500]

Her view became more and more negative because she felt that she was unable to ensure that pupils were actually doing the work she wanted them to focus on. She stated that she used pair work in Do Task Phases to vary the individual work or teacher-led phases of her lessons:

> Too much to check, too many pairs to check, I don't know if they're really doing the job. [INB-813]

By the end of the practicum she had consolidated her negative view of group and pair work.

> That could be a problem because half the time when they get to the groups they are not working with the partner they're supposed to be and there's cross-talk. I think because they don't see the point except that it's a fine time to get together and chat! [INC-2353]

> Half the time they say they can't read the handwriting of the other person who wrote it, but actually like I tell them, "You're supposed to know it because you're discussing it". But, sometimes you cut down the task, each pair within the group does its own thing, and they're supposed to come together to discuss it. I find that they're very slow and they usually don't come around to discussing with the group. They were doing individual pair work within the group. [INC-2339]

Brainstorming

She had similarly negative views on the effectiveness of brainstorming:

> Storm out the ideas, contributing ideas. But I wonder how it's working out, cause it's becoming such a cliche 'brainstorm this out'. It's like such a cliche nowadays. A lot of times, brainstorm now, brainstorm now and there's nothing in the head to brainstorm. And I think most of the time we don't give the pupils enough time to think about it before you start to storm it. [INA-588]

> Brainstorming has limitations because not just for group work but for an end product [INB-834]

By the end of TP she was no longer seeking contributions by pupils, but rather she asked questions merely to check whether they understood the reasons for wrong answers. From classroom discussion as a tool for exploring language and theme topics it had become a pragmatic checking tool:

> I think probably most of the discussion came from perhaps checking of answers [INC-1064]

Project Work

Her negative views of project work arose out of her perceptions of her pupils' unwillingness to work outside lesson time:

> I haven't tried it because kids today they have so much work and every other subject is having a project and they're just overloaded. I think the worst is when you tell them; okay you go off and do it in your time, out of school hours and they're so loaded and I don't think they can enjoy it. [INB-757]

> Project work and brainstorming are not desirable because they are tiresome for pupils [INB-836]

Boring Activities

Most of the activities that she considered boring were those that she had experienced as a pupil e.g., silent reading, memorising words, grammar rules, teacher-talk, word pronunciation, sentence-making, composition writing, tests, textbook exercise and reading aloud. These were not only boring but also not very helpful because pupils didn't listen or remember:

> It's something traditional. You just have to learn it for the test. [INB-802]

However during the course of the practicum she grew to feel more and more that such methods had a place when used judiciously by the teacher:

> It has its place because spelling you have to know it. I think it's more with the way it's being done in class and they find it quite boring. [INB-757]
> It can be boring. But, because you can modify and vary it in so many ways, innovate, it may not be that boring. But if you just take it at a very basic level it is very boring. [INC-2393]

Reading
She never changed her negative view of silent reading:

> Problems with pupils doing silent reading, cause you don't know what they're reading, and whether they're really reading... [INA-604]

> It's boring, not very helpful not going to benefit the kids a lot unless they're very honourable students who are reading every word and remembering it. I was passing notes under the desk. [INC-2230]

Initially, based on her own school experience, she was also negative about reading aloud:

> I think it's quite boring. It was quite boring for the rest of us because don't hear... Your fellow students do not read well enough or you know you feel I could read better or it's dragging, so it's only fun when it comes to your turn. [INA-625]

Yet she had her pupils reading the text aloud in two reading lessons despite being warned about the inadvisability of this activity at the secondary school level. She developed a strong overriding belief that the teacher should model text reading, for the pupils would benefit from imitation and 'round robin' reading practice during reading comprehension lessons:

> Reading in a monotonous voice is not good because pupils will pattern themselves on the teacher. Reading and speaking are important for pupils, not just writing [INB-724]

> I think if they enjoy it they might just start to pattern their reading after you. And if they think about reading aloud I think it's good because if you just stand there and tell the kids who're sitting there this is it they don't dare to actually practice it. When you get them to do it next time they would walk through that confidently. [INB-724]

13.3.4.6 View of Materials and Aids

Textbook

This same shift from personal to pragmatic took place in the use of textbooks for her lessons:

> I think for textbook exercises, if you just used that and nothing else in your lessons, like I explain the grammar rules to you now, now turn to this page and do this exercise. I think it's boring. It only worked with a certain class of pupils. It worked in my school then because all of us were very motivated students. So it worked because you just wanted to make sure you get it right, but I think it's going to be very boring for some of the other students who do not have such concentration. So I would use it as reinforcement. I do believe in it for practice. [INA-638]

> Textbook is convenient fallback for materials [INB-294]

Overhead Transparencies

She more and more frequently complained not only about wanting to expand her range of activities, but she also said that she was becoming bored with the limitations of the materials and teaching aids that she utilised. Once mastered, 'new' methods became hackneyed. She grew to realise the drawbacks but did not venture to expand or vary the approach and materials which she had settled into during the first half of the practicum.

> I was telling you the other day that I was getting a little sick with visuals [PREB-158]

> I'm really sick of OHT's because I'm used to it now and it's a very convenient thing to fall back on. I get quite sick of that. [INB-891]

> I didn't want to start with any OHT's! I wanted to steer away from starting with OHT's. That's why I started with a worksheet. I didn't want to touch OHT's. [POSD-111]

> Much as I hate having to use OHT's, there's a time that I think they are very useful, depending on how you do it. It doesn't have to be just single sheets, you could really play around with it. But I get bored by that. [INC-1012]

> Getting bored with use of OHTs and visuals. Must look for other ways before I feel really 'retarded' in my teaching style. [PRAC-99]

Worksheets

Worksheets were seen as an alternative to OHTs but also as a way of keeping the lessons organised and pupils on task. Activity cards (a term used interchangeably with worksheets

by Ching Ching) made games easier to implement because pupils had individual instructions to refer to:

> It's easier for them, they see it, they know what to do. [INB-794]

> Worksheets, rather effective, in terms of giving them something to look at on their own desk but if something's different on the board it could be a problem. If the activity card and worksheet is not concise enough they will be lost. [INC-2308]

She learnt the hard way to be exact and simple in the way she expressed her instructions in worksheets:

> Sometimes I could have done a fantastic worksheet and given it to the class and realise I didn't think through the worksheet well enough. It's this for what I've been teaching in the first ten minutes of the lesson, no, it's something else, it's to do with the topic, yes, but it's not to do with what I've taught them. Just have to plan more carefully, especially the worksheet, like this numbered spreadsheet which I gave to them, it was an interview, an interview with a friend, and I was contrasting present and past tense but it was an interview form so, well, definitely, they thought about it, because they had to interview their friends, but whether they were thinking along what I really wanted them, to do with the tenses. [INB-865]

13.3.4.7 Evaluation and Reflection

As mentioned under lack of time [13.3.3.4] Ching Ching felt that she was too busy to sit down and consistently analyse or reflect on her teaching.

> The TP period especially the second part was a rush to get things done. Especially towards the last weeks when you had to finish some things for the CT and some marking It's just rush in, just bring your head in there and do what you do and then that's it. Really it would take twenty five hours a day for me if I wanted to sit down and really reflect properly! [INC-85]

She also felt that TP had been so rushed that this had affected her ability to reflect on her teaching:

> It [ideas] didn't really crystallise till actually later because I could sit down and sort of look back. I mean really crystallise. It's like really have time to say, "Hey you know it's a major problem." [INC-75]

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Mostly she would think about lesson events and her reactions to them when she got home and this was prompted by the journal keeping requirement for TP and not any tendency to reflection on her part.

> Sometimes the thoughts strike you there and then, like, this is not working because of something, but I try to jot down certain things when I get home, I should have something for the week, so at least I remember something that happened in a lesson, or my impressions of the lesson because my journals don't get written for a long time after, but at least I have the skeleton there. [INC-56]

13.3.5 TEACHER ROLE

13.3.5.1 Influences

Ching Ching had a very negative view of her past teachers. She remembered her teachers as being distant and lessons as textbook-bound and mechanical:

> Past teachers were traditional and old fashioned [INC-75]
> I think most of the teachers I came across didn't interact with us very much. It was just I go into class, I conduct a lesson, I collect your books and mark them and give them back to you, and that was it. [INA-042]
> Turn-to-the-textbook teaching is boring and unhelpful [CONA-11], [INB-587]
> Read passage and do questions. Teacher not were bothered or concerned [INC-51]

She endeavoured to move away from such teaching by trying to include 'fun' activities to interest and motivate her pupils and felt frustrated when her class showed little appreciation for her efforts to be different from the other teachers in the school. (See Pupil Point of View 13.3.1.4)

13.3.5.2 Coursework and Year of Training

She described her year of training as expectations and disappointments peppered with confusion or as a series of highs and lows.

> I was keyed in with wonderful ideas about the place and what I was going to teach and what life was going to be like. Some people had been giving [telling] me things like, oh it's fantastic, it's very enjoyable, it's wonderful. Then I come in I expected the teachers to be really much better and to be doing what they preach. And that didn't always happen. At least at NUS [National University of Singapore] they didn't make any promises of that.

It's just mostly discussion again. It started to go down and then with Pupil Experience... just before you went out, you were given all these strategies and you thought they were going to *work*. And so you go out and try out and then that's where the dip comes in again - well strategies aren't exactly working. You can't take them like that and use them. So this was during Pupil Experience, some ups and downs and some days the lessons seemed good, some activities seemed fine and some days you try to figure out what's wrong and it doesn't seem to click. And some days you realise what's going on and what you shouldn't be doing anymore. So it's up and down, up and down. So the Pupil Experience workbook part was slightly better because it's when you sit down and look at things and not being caught up in the whole thing and it's a little bit more consolidated in a sense. It gave you more methods and stuff like that to cope.

It [coursework] wasn't terrific because some of the lectures were boring and the methods used were also quite... especially after lunch! It didn't peak. And then we has this library task. It was 'whoops' there it goes again! Just when you thought you knew everything and you went to the library and you realised a lot more things you didn't know and that you have actually to read more. So all these ups and downs. So you're feeling quite good about it with Pupil Experience behind you, library tasks, lectures, everything. You're quite strong, your armour is wonderful, invincible. And then you have this day of unit planning and it's dashed. Then School Experience [a week of observation] is slightly better because you got a feel of the class ability and you get samples of their work and you feel comfortable. But with TP it went down again because then you're actually taking the class and being observed. And trying to wonder why your message never got through, or why you couldn't control the class or why this is not being done. And first taste - suddenly you figured out something. Well anyway then ups and downs, ups and downs because I was still learning but it's gradually coming up. [INC-2628]

Right from the beginning she was especially sceptical of the IE general education courses:

Well, I go by XX or XX courses, where they're telling us the teacher goes in the class and tells the pupils to come up with a set of rules and everybody has to abide by it. Hopefully it works, coming to some sort of agreement and explaining the rationale behind it and why they've got to do this instead of just throwing it at them and saying, "Okay, you've just got to do this." [INA-314]

They were telling us about how to cater to the better ones and how to cater to eager ones within a class situation, like different activities and splitting the class into different sides and getting them to do that. It's not easy anymore. It could bring down their morale. It's not easy because with a class like that, everybody was bad, just who's better, that's all! [INC-2499]

She was more positive about the practical components of her training year even though they were problematic. She saw the relevance of such experience in becoming a teacher. But after Pupil Experience when she started full class teaching during the practicum she had to re-evaluate her views and approach:

> I guess maybe at that time [PE] we were concentrating on these few pupils, and it was very very good and gratifying for you to be patient, it gives you results. [INC-2598]
> I think it's [TP] really getting into the subject of grammar itself, and teaching points whereas this [PE] was just concerned on a very low level of rapport. [INC-760]
> Patience will get results with PE pupils because small class. Patience will not get results because large classes [INC-176]
> I guess it was positive in the end [after TP] because you feel suddenly you're quite knowledgeable, more knowledgeable than you were, and perhaps you can understand pupils' needs or learning difficulties better. [INC-2793]

13.3.5.3 Beginning of Training

When she began her year she was positive and idealistic about her chosen career:

> Teaching is a profession you can be proud of because of contact with people, not a dead end job always changing [INA-54]

Her expressed views of 'good teaching' and personal goals were also idealistic:

> Well, I would expect the teacher to be dedicated; I would expect the pupils to be diligent, and I would expect the teacher to be working as well, that means, making sure that she does her homework before she takes the class, and making sure that she knows her stuff and not trying to, as we say, "smoke" the students. Teacher's got to be concerned and, to encourage them individual, like, getting to know them individually, means their problems and I think, it's when you give them personal attention that they feel that they are somebody, they are a person, and especially those with problematic home backgrounds, I think they will really appreciate that, and they might just be motivated to do well for themselves as well as for the teacher, not to disappoint the teacher. [INA-114]

> I think it's very common in teachers. Teachers go for the bright sparks, and to keep getting the bright sparks to talk, because it gets the lesson going and you have time constraints, but I think it's very bad because it puts the others down and they don't feel that they want to speak up or they want to express anything, if the teacher just knows only one pupil.
> [So what are you going to do in Teaching Practice?]

I'll try and make it even like speaking up in class, I'll try and make it even, like letting at least everyone have a chance [INA-211]

13.3.5.4 End of Practicum

At the end of the year she felt disillusioned and concerned that the public did not appreciate how onerous the teaching life really was:

> I'm seeing myself in a different profession. I'm trying to make the connection to other professionals. It's still trying to feel proud of the profession and how you compare with your siblings and your friends who seem to be more professional than you. [INC-684]

> They just doesn't have any idea at all, any inkling of what a teacher's life is like. They think it's just a half day. [INB-1042]

The early caring ideal was replaced by a survival goal based on dealing with the exigencies and demands of the classroom and school.

> I wouldn't even say not too involved. It's a split personality in a sense, one part of you can descend to that level of involvement, another one, stays up on the same plane to be sane and healthy. Not to lose yourself in a sense. It's a pity. Because I find that sometimes it happens and then, it's not really healthy, because you do need time to catch up with yourself and your family. [INC-226]

> And not being overworked, because emotionally and physically. I think as a teacher taking so many pupils and so many classes you can't afford to really be so down or dismayed when pupils don't respond to you. I think you just die. It's like social welfare in a sense. So I thought that it was necessary to be detached from these problems after awhile, too. You're sincere, but you must know when to extricate yourself from that.

> If it happens to be a really bad class, not interested in studies at all, I think you just burn yourself out, emotionally. As I tried, it's all so difficult because I had to stay in for a few weeks in recess time with the kids, just to explain the problems to them, and that to me is a bit too much of an involvement already. I'm only getting one class and I have all the time in the world to do it. It was quite draining, but what happens if I come out into the real teaching world. I have to find more efficient ways of doing it than just "come and see me."
> [Have you thought of something you could do in July? (her permanent teaching appointment)]
> I guess I'll be more selective, about the kind of problems students to see me. Really more selective and I've got to devise a real way to do correction, making corrections into a lesson proper. To me that's the most ideal because it's really a learning point for the students, but it could be a bit

of a problem because of time again. Because these are the problems and you have to sit down and say: "All right, what are the main trends, what are the main patterns of these mistakes?" And that's a bit more and you need the time for that.

13.3.5.5 Final Perspective

To summarise her stance at the end: she had moved in her view of teaching as being *'dedicated'* at the beginning to *'detached'* at the end [INC-397]. She was now considering the teaching demands on her own time as excessive, and was looking at ways of lessening the burden to make it a job that she could face as lifetime employment.

> But I'm really so afraid that this concern on the personal side, it eats into this, it's kind of dangerous. I don't know, the Government is putting us onto becoming social workers, and mummies and daddies. It's this about Pastoral Care coming in in 1995. We would be everything. Not just the teacher, and not just teaching them language and maths but everything and... being able to watch yourself. [INC-333]

> "Teaching is social welfare" [INC-29] because "Kids don't have proper parenting" [INC-670]

> A bleak future. And it's the workload as well. Our schedule is fine at the moment, but we see the other teachers, the qualified trained ones out there, and the amount of ECA, the amount of marking, the mount of discipline problems, student problems they have... it could be *depressing*. [INC-2661]

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14. COMPARATIVE CASE STUDY FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the statistics arising out of lesson planning data and discourse parameters associated with the video taped lessons and show how this data, illuminated by insights from the textual material, can be used to describe and highlight the elements of individual teaching styles adopted during teaching practice. Findings are discussed in terms of the lesson agenda, lesson phases and interrupts, discourse parameters, and schemata.

14.1 LESSON AGENDA

Individual case study emphasis on teaching particular language skills is indicated by the following table:

	% of Total Lesson Plans				
	CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
Writing	14	50	31	31	33
Grammar	51	25	49	–	31
Reading	14	18	11	34	19
Other	18	7	9	35	14
	100	100	100	100	100

Fig. 52   Lesson Agendas as Percentage of Total Lessons

Observations arising out of these statistics are as follows:

- Ching Ching's emphasis on grammar (51%) has already been discussed in Chapter 13. Another factor to be noted is that her "other" lessons were all correction sessions for which, unlike other case studies, she wrote up lesson plans.

  Ching Ching had a very negative view of her pupils' language ability, so she concentrated on lower-order error-correction via teaching grammar rules and practising them. She had no balancing factors during teaching practice to offset this view of pupils, i.e., her CT provided little useful guidance, nor did she have a very clear discourse level knowledge of English. Hence, she focused on "content" teaching, i.e., grammar.

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- In the case of Alice, she started with a particular specialised knowledge of writing which gave her great confidence in pursuing this emphasis during teaching practice. Even the 18% of her reading lessons were set up as pre-writing activities, and did not concentrate on developing reading skills per se. Her emphasis on writing was furthered by having a bright class and a CT who encouraged this bias.

  The percentage (25%) for grammar lessons arose out of the fact that at the beginning she followed the school scheme of work and started teaching the listed grammar items. But after a few lessons she abandoned this because she felt the class did not need such work. She reversed her decision again at the end of teaching practice because she was surprised to find from pupil feedback that they felt they wanted grammar lessons and did not share her views on the need for writing practice.

- In Nora's case, she tried to carry out what the school required her to do, so a lot of time was spent setting work based on lists of idioms, prepositions and phrasal verbs in the school scheme of work. The reading lessons were also based on comprehension passages set by the school for her class; and the writing again arose out the school scheme of work. So the dominant factors in her teaching during the practicum were to carry out the CT and school scheme of work requirements, and to find palatable ways of teaching these to her pupils.

  Nora tried to provide unit integration unsuccessfully by basing this on "theme" arising either out of the writing task set by the school or the topic of the comprehension passage. Only in her very last unit and after extra library reading did she actually construct a discourse-based unit on narrative.

- Hui Li totally ignored grammar, but otherwise had a well-balanced distribution of language skill area types. Her strength was her clear understanding of discourse as an organiser for unit integration. She was able to take school scheme of work requirements and introduce discourse feature teaching in each one as a central organiser. Her CT, as long as she was covering the major aspects of the scheme of work, left her to her own devices.

  Another reason why Hui Li was able to develop her own approach to unit integration was the fact that the school had no common English tests and only required composition marks at the end of the term. So even though she appeared to have a balanced coverage of skill areas (aside from grammar) all her units were working towards enabling pupils to carry out the final writing product for each unit. She had a good class and did not have to spend time on grammar and such basic language skills.

What emerged from the foregoing observations was that, at the planning level, there appeared to be a principal schema which was a dominant influence in their decision-making

at the Lesson Agenda and coverage level. In Ching Ching's case it was her negative perception of the pupils; in Alice's case it was her confidence in writing; in Nora's case it was her acquiescence in following school requirements; and in Hui Li's case it was her use of discourse knowledge in integrating units of work without interference from the scheme of work.

14.2 LESSON PHASES

Communication time spent by each case study on the various phases was as follows:

		Phases, % of Total Lessons				
		CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
FO	Focus Phase	14.7	18.4	10.4	8.3	13.0
CL	Clarify Phase	19.3	30.8	19.9	20.9	22.7
SE	Set Up Phase	12.0	22.1	11.1	22.1	16.8
FI	Finish Phase	1.1	1.8	4.1	5.2	3.1
RV	Review Phase	30.9	18.2	43.2	40.2	33.1
		78.0	91.3	88.7	96.7	88.7

Fig. 53   Lesson Phases as Percentage of Total Lessons

Averagely, the case studies spent about 89% of lesson time (in terms of number of speech acts, and not including time spent on the task) on planned activities. Notable observations arising out of these statistics are:

- Ching Ching spent less time than other cases on planned activities due to the high percentage of time she spent on interrupts such as lesson repairs and classroom control (see the next Section). The function of her Review Phases was to make sure that the pupils had the correct answer.

- Alice spent considerably more time than the other cases on the Clarify Phase, due to her propensity to explain lesson concepts in great detail before the class embarked on the related activity. Alice spent less class time on Review Phases partly because this was done in pairs by pupils during peer editing, or in group presentations. Unlike the other three case studies, she did not generally go through in a teacher-directed way point by point all the written work that had been done.

- Like Ching Ching, Nora and Hui Li spent the major part of their teaching time on the Review Phase. In their case, much of the actual teaching appeared to take place here because they took pains to clarify and give reasons for wrong answers.

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14.3 LESSON INTERRUPTS

'Time' spent by each case study on the various lesson interrupts was as follows:

		Interrupts, % of Total Lessons				
		CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
RP	Repair Interrupt	9.4	4.4	1.2	0.4	3.8
AD	Advise Interrupt	3.2	2.9	1.3	1.1	2.1
CO	Control Interrupt	7.8	0.1	2.7	0.5	2.8
IN	Interact Interrupt	1.6	1.3	6.1	1.3	2.6
		22.0	8.7	11.3	3.3	11.3

Fig. 54   Lesson Interrupts as Percentage of Total Lessons

Averagely, the case studies spent about 11% of lesson time (in terms of number of speech acts, and not including time spent on the task) on unplanned interrupts of one sort or another. Notable observations arising out of these statistics are:

- Ching Ching spent TWICE as much time on interrupts as the other three case studies. Part of this was due to the extensive repairs which she was forced to make during the first lesson in order to correct confusing explanations and instructions. Another notable feature was the very high level of control which Ching Ching had to exert on her class because of the management problems she was experiencing.

- Alice had very little need for control in her class, but spent a fair amount of time on repairs, mostly in connection with queries from pupils on instructions which she took pains to elaborate in some detail.

- Nora's statistics reveal her propensity to interact in an informal way with the class, i.e., to be "friendly". Her Interact Interrupts were usually related to eliciting whether her pupils "liked" or "enjoyed" some aspect of her lessons.

- Hui Li had the least amount of unplanned interrupts of all the case studies. This can be explained partly because she was very systematic and well prepared in her lessons, but also because she frequently failed to elicit a response from her pupils and ended up having to do the talking herself.

14.4 DISCOURSE PARAMETERS

The following tables summarise the discourse parameter statistics for each case study in terms of percentage of total speech acts for all four video taped lessons.

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As noted previously, such total statistics can serve to flag out certain broad directional aspects of teaching style, e.g., the level of focus, degree of continuity, emphasis on the use of certain teaching aids or materials, etc. but must be analysed with some caution. For example, global interaction statistics may be misleading in that they may indicate a teacher-centred approach whereas in fact the task itself may have been relatively learner-centred; the teacher may have spent a considerable amount of time on clarification, which naturally tends to be a T>C type of interaction. Hence, in addition to their global values, discourse parameters should be looked at in the context of their use in the individual Lesson Phases and Interrupts.

14.4.1 Interaction

	Interaction, % of Total				
	CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
T>C Teacher to Class	37	58	46	52	48
T+C Teacher + Class	24	20	18	16	20
T+1 Teacher + Pupil	19	12	14	14	16
1+T Pupil + Teacher	7	7	7	8	7
Sub-Total:	50	39	42	38	43
C+T Class + Teacher	8	1	5	6	5
Other	5	2	7	4	4
	100	100	100	100	100

Fig. 55   Interaction as Percentage of Total Speech Acts

Observations arising out of these statistics are:

- Although the high level of T>C interactions would on the surface tend to indicate a teacher-centred approach, it must be remembered that these statistics do not include the task itself; and that high percentages of T>C interaction would normally be expected in the Clarify, Set Up, and Finish Phases, as well as the Repair, Advise and Control Lesson Interrupts.

- Ching Ching appears highly interactive when one looks at the number of speech acts in the T+C category, but this was produced by the number of simple questions she asked which elicited one-word answers based on OHT visuals; and also the fairly simplistic Clarifying Phases which were T>C explaining grammar rules and terminology, versus the complex concepts in the lessons of Alice and Hui Li.

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- Alice and Hui Li had the highest ratio of T>C versus T+C interaction and this is partly explained by their emphasis on preparing pupils via a Clarification Phase for the coming task. It can also be noted that they spent more time on the Set Up phases because they went into more detail than the other two case studies.

- Nora had an equal balance between T>C and T+C

14.4.2 Speech Acts

		Speech Acts, % of Total				
DIR	Direct	12	10	11	12	11
RES	Respond	12	7	8	7	9
ELI	Elicit	9	4	6	5	5
NOM	Nominate	6	2	5	5	5
NFC	Focus Nomination	5	3	4	3	4
REP	Repeat	3	5	4	3	4
RPH	Rephrase	3	6	3	5	4
ACC	Accept	3	4	4	4	4
DET	Give details	2	8	3	4	4
PHA	Phatic	-	7	2	2	3
NON	No Response	2	-	2	6	2
PRT	Prompt	4	3	2	3	3
INC	Incomplete	2	4	3	4	3
ECH	Echo	4	1	1	1	2
COM	Comment	1	2	4	2	2
RNG	Reading Aloud	1	1	2	5	2
MET	Metastatement	1	-	2	3	2
Other		30	33	34	26	31
		100	100	100	100	100

Fig. 56   Types of Speech Acts as Percentage of Total

Observations arising out of these statistics are:

- All four case studies were quite consistent in the extent to which they utilised the four principal elements of the classic teaching cycle, i.e., DIRect, RESpond, ELIcit, and NOMinate.

- Ching Ching had a high totals for RESpond, ELIcit and ECHo as compared to the other case studies and this again, as stated above, was because she was asking for and getting many short and simple one-word answers from the pupils.

- Alice's tendency to clarify in considerable detail showed up in her use of DET which was about twice as much as the other case studies. She also had the highest number of PHAtic speech acts because she peppered her presentation with "right" and "okay".

- Nora used COMments about twice as much as the other case studies due to her attempts to be as interactive as possible with the pupils by giving her personal opinions on whatever they were doing.

- Hui Li had a particularly high rate of NON-response from her class - about three times as much as the other case studies. This was a sign of the disfunctional nature of her relationship with her class, and she frequently commented on this concern in her interviews and conferences. She began all her lessons by round-robin reading of the text, which gave her a higher than average total for the RNG (reading aloud) category.

14.4.3 Aspect

This is the parameter that relates most closely to the lesson goals because it indicates the discourse level implementation of these goals.

		Aspect, % of Total				
		CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
TA	Task Focus	16	30	23	25	24
D4	Text Genre Features	-	33	14	5	13
D2	Text Information	7	6	2	28	11
CO	Lesson Context	24	6	8	4	11
SC	Compre Questions	-	-	14	13	8
GR	Grammar Rules	14	-	8	-	6
VU	Vocabulary Use	-	-	9	2	3
D1	Text Organisation	-	3	-	10	3
BE	Behaviour	11	-	1	-	3
GT	Grammar Terminology	10	-	-	-	3
D5	Text Format	5	6	-	1	3
--	No Aspect	2	4	3	4	3
IN	Interactive Commentary	-	7	2	-	2
GF	Grammar Form	3	-	7	-	2
P1	Paragraph Organisation	-	4	-	-	1
D3	Text Purpose/Audience	-	1	-	4	1
BA	Attention	-	-	1	2	1
VM	Vocabulary Meaning	-	-	-	2	-
Other		5	-	5	-	2
		100	100	100	100	100

Fig. 57 Aspect as Percentage of Total Speech Acts

Observations arising out of these statistics are:

- All case studies were fairly consistent in that Task Focus constituted a major constituent, about 24%, of Aspect. Thereafter the aspect varied substantially between case studies, depending on their emphasis on particular language skill areas.

- Ching Ching's previously noted emphasis on grammar was reflected in the fact that 30% of her aspect focus involved grammar rules, grammar terminology, and grammar form. In line with her class management problems, 11% of aspect involved pupil behaviour. A large percentage (24%, twice that of other case studies) of aspect focus was related simply to lesson context. In her approach to grammar lessons she set a situation as a context for the grammar item that was going to be practised, and elicited use of the item via visuals, realia, and OHT's.

- In keeping with her predilection for writing lessons, 49% of Alice's aspect focus was related to text genre features, information, organisation, letter format, and purpose/audience.

- Aside from task focus (23%), Nora's largest aspect focus (14%) involved reading comprehension questions because this was the focus of her reading lessons. Also 14% was spent on text genre features but this all occurred in the last lesson when she was preparing for narrative composition writing.

- Hui Li's aspect focus covered a wide range, with 24% concerned with text genre features and text information. Hui Li's units focused on enabling pupils to carry out the writing task, so 38% of the speech acts dealt with text information and organisation aspects. She also included genre features and writing purpose/audience (9%). Comprehension questions accounted for 13% and were based on the set texbook.

14.4.4 Continuity

		Continuity, % of Total				
		CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
No	Continuity	53	40	34	35	41
CA	Earlier Part of Lesson	27	22	33	51	33
KH	Pupil Knowledge (Homework)	-	16	27	2	11
LA	Earlier Lesson(s)	3	16	2	2	6
KS	Pupil Knowledge (School)	13	-	-	7	5
KO	Pupil Knowledge (Real)	3	5	4	3	4
LB	Later Lesson	1	1	-	-	-
Other		-	-	-	-	-
		100	100	100	100	100

Fig. 58   Continuity as Percentage of Total Speech Acts

Observations arising out of these statistics are:

- A substantial percentage (41%) of speech acts contained no explicit or implicit continuity, and tended to be part of Interrupts and Clarify or Focus Phases.

- All case studies were fairly consistent in that averagely 39% of continuity referred to the earlier part of a lesson or to previous lessons. A particularly large percentage (53%) of Hui Li's speech acts related to this category of continuity because she followed a highly structured sequence of introducing a concept, practising it, and then going over it.

- Alice was the only case study to consistently link her lessons, in the Focus Phase, to earlier lesson coverage. Alice and Nora, unlike the other two case studies, went over homework in class time.

- The other major source of continuity was with reference to pupil knowledge of homework, schooling, or other real world matters. These types of continuity totalled 20%.

14.4.5 Teaching Aids

	Teaching Aids, % of Total				
	CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
O OHT	55	23	28	39	36
W Worksheets	14	22	45	10	23
- No Teaching Aid	30	12	18	13	18
B Blackboard	1	15	2	4	6
X Textbook	-	15	3	-	5
C-O Brochures + OHT	-	-	-	13	4
W-E Worksheet/Exercise Book	-	9	-	-	2
T-X Tape Recorder/Textbook	-	-	-	8	2
E Exercise Book	-	4	-	-	1
C Brochures	-	-	-	3	1
K Book	-	-	2	-	-
V Video Recording	-	-	1	-	-
W-B Worksheet/Blackboard	-	-	-	2	-
T Tape Recording	-	-	-	1	-
A Activity Cards	-	-	-	2	-
W-T Worksheet/Tape Recorder	-	-	-	1	-
Other	-	-	1	3	1
	100	100	100	100	100

Fig. 59   Teaching Aids as Percentage of Total Speech Acts

Observations arising out of these statistics are:

- The favoured teaching aids were OHT's and worksheets.

- Ching Ching in particular had a fixation on OHT's, with 55% of all discourse accompanied by some kind of OHT.

- A notable feature of Alice's presentation was her use of the blackboard to collect ideas during discussions or to write mnemonics to provide a reminder of earlier lessons.

- When one adds together C-O and O it becomes obvious that Hui Li relied heavily on OHT's because 52% of her speech acts were associated with this teaching aid. She consistently used OHT's to display task questions and to summarise main points of the concepts that she was clarifying.

- Nora had a particular preference for worksheets, with 45% of all discourse carried out in the context of some kind of worksheet. The reason for this was that she used school-given language and comprehension worksheets. In her last lesson she created her own very lengthy worksheets that the pupils used throughout the lesson.

14.4.6 Materials

	Materials, % of Total				
	CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
RE Whole Text	-	48	39	14	25
WO Words	31	-	26	-	14
-- No Materials	25	8	9	12	14
NO Notes	2	25	3	14	11
VI Visuals	21	-	4	3	7
TE-QU Whole Text + Questions	-	8	-	14	6
TS Text Sentences	14	-	4	-	5
TX Text Extracts	-	2	-	14	5
QU Questions	-	2	2	4	2
RP Role Play	2	-	6	-	2
SO Song	-	-	-	8	2
DI-QU Dialogue/Questions	-	-	-	8	2
RE Realia	4	-	-	-	1
PS Pupil Story Telling	-	4	-	-	1
DG Diagram	-	3	-	-	1
DI Dialogue	-	-	4	1	1
FE File Extracts	-	-	1	-	-
ST Statements/Instructions	-	-	1	-	-
TE-NO Whole Text/Notes	-	-	-	2	-
NU Numbers	-	-	-	1	-
SO-QU Song/Questions	-	-	-	1	-
Other	1	-	1	1	1
	100	100	100	100	100

Fig. 60   Materials as Percentage of Total Speech Acts

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Observations arising out of these statistics are:

- Averagely, whole text was the most favoured material, mostly because these were comprehension passages which were used by Alice and Hui Li for text feature analysis work and by Nora for reading comprehension practice.

- Ching Ching, as can be seen from the categories of words and text sentences, was operating at the code level of language in her lessons, and she had a high percentage of speech acts associated with visuals. As noted above, she frequently used this to elicit the context for her grammar lessons.

- During the Focus and Clarify Phases, Alice jotted notes on the blackboard during discussions and explanations.

- Nora used words (26%) because in her last lesson much of the worksheet task consisted of choosing words and finding similes.

- When one adds together all the question-related categories, then Hui Li had a total of 26%. This dependence on questions during her lessons has already been mentioned above. She also had 14% of notes. These were pre-prepared on OHT's and gone through during Clarification and Set Up Phases in her lessons. The 14% of text extracts were part of a sequencing task when she was presenting narrative organisation during a lesson.

14.5 SCHEMATA

The following tables summarise highlights of the dimensions of the case study schemata:

SUMMARY OF CASE STUDY SCHEMATA DIMENSIONS

Ching Ching	Alice	Nora	Hui Li
PUPILS **Learning Ability** less able class with language problems lack basics in grammar do not use English outside class have short attention span unable to learn or think unable to retain and use what taught	**PUPILS** **Learning Ability** able, lively class but still of mixed ability	**PUPILS** **Learning Ability** able class	**PUPILS** **Learning Ability** able class
Attitude not motivated and lazy merely mechanically carrying out tasks do not appreciate teaching negative towards English	**Attitude** not all equally motivated tend to relate all work to exam goals value content subjects more than English no need to work on English so initial resistance to process writing	**Attitude** lively and motivated responsive but competitive and mark conscious pragmatic so questioned 'fun' approach at times	**Attitude** unresponsive and uncooperative resisted teacher feedback on work
Behaviour inattentive and noisy easily distracted, misbehave		**Behaviour** tended to get out of hand during 'fun' activities	**Behaviour** arrogant and made smart remarks

Interaction/Approach	Interaction/Approach	Interaction/Approach	Interaction/Approach
how to get work from them how to keep control how to get pupils to think	treat pupils as individuals give equal consideration to slower and faster ones know pupils well so can see when they 'switch on' pupils resent if teacher covers what they know already so teacher prior knowledge awareness important pupils get restless if phase lasts too long so teacher attention span awareness important teacher considered writing important but pupils considered grammar important	have 'fun' and enjoyable lessons	distant and authoritarian tried but failed to gain greater rapport
ENVIRONMENT **CT & Staff** traditional and outmoded, distant no role models could not advise re grammar problems CT's 'shrug off responsibilities lack of guidance lack of constructive feedback	**ENVIRONMENT** **CT & Staff** enjoyed interacting with staff CT a role model because still mentally active and motivated CT gave tips and challenged planning ideas CT was supportive of process writing focus	**ENVIRONMENT** **CT & Staff** staff traditional and formal in teaching approach CT approachable and helpful CT knowledgeable but boring in class CT clarified language concepts when asked but not forthcoming on teaching methods	**ENVIRONMENT** **CT & Staff** negative re teachers who let class 'walk all over' them in order to be popular CT was helpful re school resources but dismissed class problem as merely testing of a new teacher

Scheme of Work	Scheme of Work	Scheme of Work	Scheme of Work
based on textbook chapters long list of grammar items to cover not based on actual class needs weak unit linkages because of interference from scheme	able to adapt scheme of work	based on given comprehension and language exercise handouts	based on textbook able to implement own approach in organising units
Requirements	**Requirements**	**Requirements**	**Requirements**
not informed in time by CT of projects/tests 'played safe' and followed scheme did set comprehensions and compositions did all corrections so had 'clean' books	school was also doing process writing	school required class to complete set of comprehension passages and sheets of language exercises for common tests	no common tests only composition marks required at end of term
Time	**Time**	**Time**	**Time**
not enough time to develop thinking and language proficiency not enough time to do lesson preparation & marking not enough time to follow up on work not done gave explanations because no time to wait for pupils	found it a challenge to find ways to manage time well	lessons too short to get through activities reverted to teacher explanations when short of time difficulty finding time to do all the marking	rush to get units finished

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SUBJECT Pedagogical view	SUBJECT Pedagogical View	SUBJECT Pedagogical View	SUBJECT Pedagogical View
grammar is essential basis for language learning have to develop thinking skills in order to develop communication skills	communication is the core of language teaching important to understand and be able to produce different types of writing related to the real world	saw language in broad terms as a means of interaction and communication between people	language proficiency is manifested in writing and is tested in schools therefore writing is the main focus of unit teaching importance of understanding written communication features oral skills useful as practice for unit focus
Knowledge grammar is not definite and clear cut how to simplify grammar rules without confusing pupils rule definition based solely on textbook version no diagnosis to understand pupil grammar needs no awareness of prior knowledge or sources of problems	**Knowledge** confident and knowledgeable about writing strategies and text modelling	**Knowledge** lacked confidence in personal knowledge of grammar and word use for marking pupil work referred to dictionary, grammar book and CT when in doubt found grammar technical and boring vague regarding discourse features	**Knowledge** clear and confident in discourse features and writing process
APPROACH Unit not practicable because had to	**APPROACH** Unit linked to effect writing goals	**APPROACH** Unit based unit integration on	**APPROACH** Unit confident and clear about

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follow scheme of work realised lack of links between lessons but not able to change	themes usually arising out of school comprehension topics did a lot of 'content' teaching based on grammar items and topic information in reading passages only in last unit broke with school requirements and integrated the unit on narrative discourse aspects regained confidence with new unit perspective	discourse based unit integration implemented writing focus based on text analysis in reading lessons and oral rehearsal/practice of features in listening and speaking lessons vocabulary was also tied to the written output
Goals use language correctly and pass exams	**Goals** personal mission to make process writing work with class	**Goals** promote writing skills in good class without language problems
	Goals enjoy lessons and appreciate teacher	
Planning reduce complexity motivate and make relevant by contextualising grammar lessons illustrate, then explain item and follow up with practice task	**Planning** 'absorbing' of concept stage followed by 'application' stage 'macro guidelines' or mnemonics to cut down dependence on teacher and get pupils involved in own learning	**Planning** importance of orderly lesson sequence to reinforce teaching point illustrate/explain concept and then apply in practice task
	Planning lessons to be interactive, lively and fun for pupils	

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Presentation	Presentation
need to repeat explanations and instructions use games, worksheets and role play to make lesson 'fun'	lessons have to be meaningful and teacher enthusiastic so pupils begin to 'value' learning in order not to bore fast pupils and confuse slow ones, use worksheets use group work to facilitate teacher consultation with individuals chunk lessons so pupils progress easily
Views/Evaluation	**Views/Evaluation**
pupils used to being spoon fed thus dislike tasks involving thinking puzzled because pupils do not appreciate activities teacher considers 'fun' anything did not have herself as pupil understanding pupil perceptions a 'slippery area' for teacher	not rush lessons but balance individual and whole class needs

Presentation	Presentation
non-threatening atmosphere to encourage answering of questions interesting extra materials and activities to avoid boredom be flexible in presenting plan in response to pupil interest positive re all interactive tasks: games, group work, brainstorming etc	use extra non textbook materials to try and interest class use questions to get pupils to think for themselves and to guide tasks
Views/Evaluation	**Views/Evaluation**
concern over clarity of instructions because could lead to confusion and restlessness in pupils	concern that did not know how to vary question based approach concern that could not always avoid having to explain concern over non-participation of pupils during lessons

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TEACHING	TEACHING
Aspirations get pupils motivated to work for a good future **Refinement of Aspirations** despite all odds get pupils to learn something **Final View** teacher is social worker from dedicated to detached negative because frustrated by uncooperative pupils, lack of support from CT, and lack of knowledge of teaching alternatives	**Aspirations** sense of responsibility to help pupils master useful aspects of language and not just be popular **Refinement of Aspirations** take into account not just teacher preparation but also pupil psychology in the learning process **Final View** do not have any 'illusions' for they will be shattered negative due to lack of class response to the effort she put into trying to teach them useful language skills
Aspirations satisfied if pupils are able to remember what they learned in the previous lesson **Refinement of Aspirations** became aware of need to tailor questions and pitch teaching to suit all levels of pupils, and to provide thinking time **Final View** need to balance teaching and social life need to balance authoritarian and human side in teaching positive because gained satisfaction from fact that was able to motivate pupils to think for themselves and to improve writing strategies	**Aspirations** be friendly and non-threatening teacher care for individual pupils **Refinement of Aspirations** be firmer with pupils teacher most also be knowledgeable in subject to get pupil respect do not expect to please everyone learn to accept and learn from negative feedback **Final View** a friend and mentor who has to encourage but also demand good work positive because she felt she could go on growing to become an ever more successful teacher by learning from pupil feedback, her mistakes, and book reading

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14.6 SUMMARY OF CASE STUDIES

The following summarises key features of the "teaching style" of the four case studies and the schemata which appear to be influencing them.

Commentary is organised in terms of the manner in which the case studies carried out the planning and presentation portions of their lessons.

14.6.1 Ching Ching

Ching Ching's lesson planning was characterised by a reductionist approach to the teaching of discrete grammar items through the medium of simplified rules and definitions. Little attempt was made to integrate units. Factors which led to this approach included Ching Ching's negative perceptions of the class and its language difficulties; the fact that little guidance was forthcoming from the CT or staff; constraints posed by the school scheme of work; lack of subject knowledge; and the lack of sufficient time to "make a difference".

Lesson presentation was characterised by simplistic word level and sentence level tasks; the use of games, role play, and pair and group work; and heavy reliance on visuals and OHT's to elicit lexical items for contextualisation. This simplistic classroom approach arose as a consequence of Ching Ching's negative view of her pupils' learning capabilities and her attempts to motivate them. This led to a variety of class management problems.

14.6.2 Alice

Alice concentrated on process writing skills, which she organised around text analysis and peer editing activities. She had few problems with planning since she had a bright and motivated class, a supportive CT, and no significant scheme of work restrictions.

Principal method of focusing at the beginning of a lesson was to establish links with previous lessons. Alice extensively utilised blackboard notes and diagrams to summarise points during lessons. She used mnemonics to help pupils to remember strategies or text features. She wanted them all to become independent of the teacher and develop their own version of these strategies when doing future writing tasks. She utilised worksheets for group and pair work because while this meant that pupils could work in groups, it gave her a chance to conference with weaker students. Thus she felt that she was keeping the

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learning needs of both slow and fast pupils in balance. She was able to implement her ideas because of support from her CT, an able class, and lack of conflict with school requirements.

14.6.3 Nora

Nora's principal planning goals were based on covering work set by the CT. Her units were theme-based on given materials, and consisted largely of comprehension passages and language exercises set by the school. She had weak subject knowledge and therefore found few alternatives for unit goals and organisation until the end of teaching practice, when she sought out books for extra ideas.

Despite the fact that school-given worksheets were mechanical, she continued using them because she felt that she had to carry out the CT's directions, because the class would be tested on these in the common test. In order to avoid boring her pupils, and achieve her aim of lively and enjoyable lessons, she used games, pair and group work, role play, and visuals during the focus and do phases of her lessons. This led at times to noisy and hyper-active classes.

14.6.4 Hui Li

Hui Li utilised text feature analysis to develop discourse awareness and thus improve her pupils' writing skills. Her units were integrated, with writing as the principal output. She had an able class and good subject knowledge, which enabled her to carry out this approach. Apart from having to cover unit themes, she was able to plan them in any way she saw fit because there was no common test.

Hui Li emphasised the use of written questions on OHT's and worksheets to guide tasks, and used a variety of extra text materials to augment the textbook. Her aim was to clarify concepts and to guide and to provide practice for pupils in order to develop their own strategies and understanding. She felt that the use of questions would help the pupils to think through the tasks for themselves. The non-response and arrogant attitude of the class worried and frustrated her.

15.0 CONCLUSIONS

The following broad conclusions emerged from the research:

(1) Schemata
Pre-service teacher behaviour during the practicum is largely influenced by five major schemata related to the teacher's view of pupils, subject, methodology, environment, and teaching. The extent to which the values of one schema conflict with the values of another schema can give rise to classroom dilemmas.

(2) Lesson Structure
A lesson is structured as a goal-driven hierarchy comprising five levels of increasing pedagogical abstraction, ranging from speech acts as the most basic element of classroom discourse to the lesson agenda which specifies the overall objective of the lesson. In addition to the planned lesson phases by means of which the teacher implements the agenda, various unplanned lesson interrupts can arise during presentation of the lesson.

(3) Pre-Service Teaching Style
Teaching style can be described as a function of the goals which the teacher is pursuing at each of the five levels of lesson structure, and of the nature of classroom communication which can be assessed through the analysis of discourse parameters. The teaching style of the pre-service teachers in this study crystallised during the first fortnight of the practicum and changed relatively little during the remainder of teaching practice.

The balance of this discussion on research findings is organised about these principal themes.

15.1 SCHEMATA

15.1.1 The Nature of Pre-Service Schemata

As discussed in Section 3.4, schemata embody the sum total of the knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes which an individual has about any given concept. The following schemata appear to be the principal source of influence on pre-service student teachers during the training year:

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PUPILS	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes towards pupils; understanding of pupil learning needs
ENVIRONMENT	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about the school and teaching environment
SUBJECT	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about subject (English language)
METHODOLOGY	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about ways of teaching the subject
TEACHING	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about the teacher's role

The manner in which these schemata develop during the training year and the conflicts which can arise are discussed in the following sections.

15.1.2 Evolution of Schemata over the Training Year

Pre-service student teachers enter the training year with weakly developed and idealistic schemata related to teaching. As noted in Sections 1.2 and 7.2.5, much of these schemata have been developed over their years of "apprenticeship of observation as pupils (Lortie, 1975) and provide them with little in the way of useful strategies for dealing with the situations which they will encounter in the classroom as teachers.

Although coursework provides student teachers with theoretical and declarative knowledge related to teaching, when they go into Teaching Practice they will be forced to reshape their fledgling schemata to meet the realities of the environment in which they will be working. To the extent this environment is non-supportive, i.e., difficult classes and/or unhelpful CT's and staff, the practicum is apt to be a stressful experience; the students will become disillusioned; and they will begin their first year of teaching with a relatively negative view of the profession.

Evolution of schemata during the training year is discussed in connection with the diagrams below:

Schemata upon Entry into Training		
Passive PUPILS METHODOLOGY ENVIRONMENT	Moderate SUBJECT	Dominant TEACHING

Upon entry into teacher training, student teachers have fairly strong views of "good" and "bad" language teachers, developed over the years of their "apprenticeship of observation"; hence, a fairly idealised schema of *teaching*.

They have moderately strong views of *subject*, since they have just finished a university degree majoring in English language. They do not, however, have a strongly developed schema related to the *pedagogical aspects* of the subject.

They possess only weakly developed schemata relating to *pupils*, which is generally based on their own school experience and has little to do with the teacher-pupil relationship. They have essentially no schemata with regard to either teaching techniques, i.e., *methodology* or with regard to the school *environment*.

Schemata During Pupil Experience		
Passive ENVIRONMENT TEACHING	Moderate METHODOLOGY SUBJECT	Dominant PUPILS

During Pupil Experience, the schema related to *pupils* takes on emphasis, since the student teachers are intimately involved with small groups of remedial pupils in order to make them [the teachers] more aware of pupil language learning problems. There is a moderate emphasis on *subject* and *methodology*, to the extent the students are guided to prepare and present lessons. Development of the *teaching* and *environment* schemata is still vague since the remedial groups are isolated from main-stream school life, and the students have no contact with staff, CT's, etc.

Schemata During Coursework		
Passive ENVIRONMENT TEACHING	Moderate PUPILS	Dominant METHODOLOGY SUBJECT

During coursework, the emphasis tends to shift to the *subject* and the *methodology* for teaching it. *Pupils* become less of a concern since the student teachers are no longer involved in Pupil Experience; and coursework merely focuses on prototype pupils of different ages and abilities. By the nature of coursework, the realities of *environment* and *teaching* are not immediately relevant.

Schemata During The Practicum		
Passive	Moderate SUBJECT TEACHING	Dominant PUPILS METHODOLOGY ENVIRONMENT

Once into the practicum, *pupils, methodology* and *environment* take immediate and compelling priority. To some extent, these three schemata can be thought of as competing with each other for dominance. Their conflicting demands are subjected to a process of rationalisation to arrive at a given teaching style which, in the course of reaching a compromise between these demands, often ends up in the form of reductionist coping strategies. (See Section 15.1.4 below for more discussion on this point.)

Subject receives somewhat less emphasis. Subject confidence and knowledge can make student teacher decisions more flexible, or can reduce them to a reductionist dependence on the textbook or scheme of work. Their schema of *methodology* really crystallises at this stage, but may reflect more of the realities of the environment they are in than the goals of the training course. A supportive school environment is therefore ESSENTIAL at this stage, so that the students can feel positive about the profession.

15.1.3 Influence of Schemata on the Practicum

Ideally, pre-service teacher schemata during the practicum would be characterised by the following elements:

Schema	Positive Elements
Pupils	motivated co-operative able to learn
Environment	supportive CT scheme of work based on discourse-integrated units of work same as during coursework able to adapt textbook to suit pupils
Subject	clear understanding of communicative teaching goals clear understanding of unit integration knowledge of language skill areas and grammar

Approach	ample range of strategies for planning lessons
	ample range of methods for presenting
	  various phases of the lesson
	ability to choose and prepare suitable aids
	  and materials for the cognitive purpose
	  and interest level of the class
	ability to profitably reflect upon lessons

Teaching	positive view

In actual practice, the schemata of a novice teacher reflect few of the above idealised features. Pupils may be unmotivated and troublesome and CT's apathetic and unhelpful. Although reasonably competent in the academic knowledge of English language, the novice will likely be weak in the pedagogical aspects and will inevitably lack classroom presentation skills.

Two of the major influences on pre-service teachers during the practicum are the pupils and the co-operating teachers. If these are, respectively, unmotivated and unsupportive, the practicum is apt to be a stressful experience; and the novice's stance on teaching by the end of the training year will tend to be negative. Such a situation, coupled with a weak

background in subject knowledge, is apt to lead to a variety of inappropriate coping strategies in the classroom.

15.1.4 Conflicts, Dilemmas and Concerns

Various researchers have commented on the *conflicts* which arise during the practicum. Morine-Dershimer (4.2.5) noted the "value conflicts" faced by pre-service teachers in connection with their practical arguments; and Bullough (7.3.1) commented on the "tension and conflict associated with clashes between personal values and institutionalised role requirements and expectations."

As noted during the above discussion of the manner in which schemata evolve during the training year, once into the practicum the student teacher is forced to face the problem of balancing the conflicting priorities between the various schemata. Viewed in terms of schemata, the dilemmas of teaching may be defined as arising out of situations where the action dictated by a particular schema is to some degree mutually exclusive with the action dictated by a competing schema.

This confusion in conflicting priorities is exacerbated by various pre-service stress factors (Fuller, 1969) which undermine the experiential learning process. For the first time the student teachers are dealing with real pupils, trying to adapt their subject for the class they are teaching, and fulfilling the demands of the school, e.g., scheme of work, tests, and marking, as well as trying to give an impression of themselves as competent teachers for evaluation by supervisors.

Hence, *dilemmas* may be considered as arising out of such conflicts, representing irreconcilable differences between competing values. As Clark (7.2.2) noted, teaching may be considered as being "complex, uncertain, and peppered with dilemmas." Berlak and Berlak (1981) identified 16 basic classroom dilemmas related to class management, the curriculum, and society in general; Zeichner and Tabachnick (1985) extended Berlak and Berlak's work to identify 15 pre-service dilemmas (7.2.2).

Finally, *concerns* (Section 7.2.1) represent the more intangible degrees of malaise experienced by student teachers in anticipation of as-yet-unsolved problems to be faced in their teaching.

All of the foregoing may be considered in the context of *schemata*. Conflicts and dilemmas can readily be understood in terms of the various schemata which bear upon a given situation in which their respective dimensions are for some reason mutually exclusive. Concerns may be seen as an awareness of certain facets of schemata which remain to be resolved.

15.1.5 Influence of Coursework and Prior School Experience

As noted by Zeichner and Tabachnick (1980), coursework indeed tends to be "washed out" during the practicum. There would appear to be two reasons for this. Firstly, the declarative nature of the precepts taught during coursework are quickly overridden by the more compelling imperatives of practical experience in the classroom. Secondly, faced with class management and other stressful concerns, the novice teacher looks for quick coping strategies to get through the day, and has little time or inclination to test the approaches advocated by coursework.

Lortie (1975) has suggested that during the practicum student teachers tend to revert to the authoritarian teacher-centred approaches typical of their school years as a result of what he terms the "apprenticeship of observation", i.e., 12,000 hours spent in the classroom as pupils. Based on the findings of the current research this conclusion is felt to be erroneous. Novice teachers tend toward teacher-centred approaches for the simple reason that such an approach minimises the problems and stresses associated with class management and impromptu decision-making.

For example, in Ching Ching's case, at the beginning of coursework she had a very idealist version of what sort of teacher she wanted to be. She definitely did not want to be a "traditional" teacher like the ones she had had in school, i.e., authoritarian and teacher-centred. She therefore commenced the practicum with this idealistic vision in mind. However in the course of attempting to implement some of the learner-centred

approaches advocated by coursework, she ran into a variety of problems common to all pre-service teachers..

A true learner-centred approach requires a degree of teaching expertise which the pre-service teacher simply has not yet acquired. It requires that the teacher have an in-depth knowledge of all aspects of the subject, have the ability to "think on her feet" and respond flexibly to all manner of classroom cues, and be able to relate to the communicative needs of the pupils. Lacking such expertise, the student teacher instead maintains "control" over subject presentation by diligently planning a structured lesson presentation which to the extent possible avoids unforeseeable interruptions from the pupils. Hence, such a structured (and, inevitably, "teacher-centred") approach serves the dual purpose of maintaining control over both lesson structure and class management.

In conclusion, the findings of the current research would tend to reject the Lortie thesis whereby student teachers revert to teacher-centred approaches during the practicum as a throwback to their earlier experiences in teacher-centred classrooms. Rather, the dual demands of control over lesson presentation and class management would appear to be the motivating forces for such teacher-centred approaches.

15.1.6 Diversity and Commonality

As discussed in Chapter 8, and as manifested in the case study findings, pre-service teachers are notable more for their diversity than for the factors they share in common. The natural diversity arising out of the permutations and combinations of an array of presage variables is compounded by varying rates of personal development and by a wide variety of environmental factors related to the school to which they are assigned for teaching practice. For this reason, supervisors should give a high degree of personalised attention to their supervisees during the practicum.

Various commonalities, however, may be commented upon:

- As noted in 15.1.2. pre-service schemata tend to evolve in a similar manner during the training year.

- Schemata related to pupils and the CT are particularly important during the practicum; problems in these areas, when compounded by a lack of subject knowledge or of teaching approaches, can lead to considerable frustration and confusion.

- Belief systems about pupils and the environment are formed within the first two weeks of teaching practice. To the extent these tend to be negative, pre-service teachers simply learn to live with them and basically "teach around them".

- All pre-service teachers want to be "good" teachers at the start of the practicum, but if they cannot reach a satisfactory sense of achievement and rapport with the pupils, this leads to the deepest feelings of frustration and negative view of teaching by the end of the practicum.

- Because the practicum is assessed, it is too threatening for students to experiment outside the territory they establish as a comfort zone in the first fortnight; and they are therefore reluctant to experiment with a variety of teaching techniques.

15.1.7 Research Questions

Section 1.5 raised a number of research questions related to the nature and development of pre-service teacher schemata. Based on the research findings, conclusions related to these questions are as follows:

(1) What is the nature of the schemata which control the manner in which pre-service teachers approach teaching?

As noted in 15.1 above, pre-service teachers enter the training year with a well-developed schema related to the academic, although not pedagogical, aspects of their *subject*. Other schemata related to teaching are at best idealistic and vague, carried over from their schooling.

During coursework, exposure to the theoretical concepts of teaching inculcates some degree of awareness of *methodology*, as well as the pedagogical aspects of *subject*. Unfortunately, since such exposure is couched in the form of declarative knowledge (as opposed to the procedural knowledge arising out of "hands-on" experience), the knowledge gained is of relatively little relevance once faced with the realities of the classroom.

During exposure to Pupil Experience, the limited degree of "hands on" experience starts to create a schema related to *pupils*. However the impressions gained tend to be unrealistic to the extent the groups are small, meetings are infrequent, and little in the way of realistic classroom teaching challenges are encountered.

Once into the practicum, exposure to the problems of full classes rapidly creates a *pupils* schema, much of which initially relates to class management problems. Depending on the nature of the classes taught (i.e., degree of motivation) this schema may reflect a positive or negative outlook on teaching by the end of the practicum. Exposure to other realities of the teaching world, to the pressures of socialisation, and to various constraints of bureaucratic origin, results in the development of a strong *environment* schema. Again, depending on the degree of support by CT and staff, and the general school environment, this schema may be relatively positive or negative by the end of the practicum.

As noted in (2) below, the different perspectives which tend to crystallise during the development of schemata related to *pupils, environment,* and *subject* can come into conflict, giving rise to a variety of concerns and dilemmas on the part of the student teacher and affect their view of teaching.

(2) To what extent do these schemata tend to filter out or facilitate the absorption of pedagogical knowledge during pre-service training?

In the hindsight of research findings, the question was badly phrased. The development of student teacher schemata is not a question of some well-developed and entrenched teaching schema filtering out new information, as implied by the "intuitive screens" of Goodman or the "filters" of Bullough et al. (9.1). Rather, it involves the independent development of (possibly conflicting) schemata related to different aspects of teaching. The rationales given by student teachers for why they do the things they do are not a reflection of any "filtering" operation which has been going on; rather they are indicators as to how the conflicts between the

various schemata have been reconciled. The earlier concept of "mind-set" represented a simplistic and static view of the problem, as opposed to the complex and dynamic reality of teaching schemata development.

(3) Do such schemata evolve over the training year or do they remain static?

As noted in 15.1 item (1) above, teaching schemata clearly go through a course of evolution during the training year, with different emphasis on certain schemata at different time periods. The perennial "gap between theory and practice" can be understood in terms of the schemata development as outlined above and the nature of experiential ("hands-on") learning. The teacher training problem does not relate so much to theory versus practice, as it does to the challenge of *controlling the development of teaching schemata under the stresses of the practicum.*

(4) How are such schemata manifested in the form of an individualistic teaching style during the practicum?

Given the in-depth analysis of four case studies, as opposed to shallower observations of a large number of case studies, the above question can only be answered speculatively. However the observed variation in pre-service "teaching styles" would appear to be a natural result of the permutations and combinations of individual personalities operating in a varied teaching environment, i.e., different classes, different schools, and different environments.

15.2 LESSON STRUCTURE

15.2.1 A Goal-Driven Hierarchy

The evolving methodology for the current research coupled with case study findings support the hypothesis of a goal-driven hierarchy (14.2.2) as a plausible representation of the levels of abstraction at which a lesson is perceived and mentally structured during the course of planning and presentation. This representation is extremely useful in that it permits a lesson to be viewed and analysed at any level depending on the focus of the research.

At the very highest level, the *lesson agenda* or overall objective of the lesson is relevant as an indicator of the cognitive complexity of the lesson and its suitability for the level of class being taught. The levels of *lesson phases* and *phase segments* are useful in describing and analysing the manner in which the teacher structures the lesson. The concept of *lesson interrupts* provides a perspective for examining impromptu responses to classroom cues and for considering ways to alert student teachers to the use of standardised routines to help them handle such situations.

At the lowest levels, the analysis of *speech act parameters* and *segment chunks* reveal details of individual communication styles and provide insights into the manner in which the teacher perceives the learning process and how she implements her lesson goals.

The potential usefulness of the hierarchical functional model of a lesson will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter on implications for teacher education

15.2.2 Lack of Mention in Current Literature

Given the potential usefulness of the hierarchical concept of lesson structure to teaching and teacher education, there is a surprising dearth of information in the literature on this subject. As noted in 2.2.3 and 14.1.4, the discourse-oriented insights into lesson structure put forth by Green et al. (1988) most closely parallel the findings of the current research. As noted in 14.1.3, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) also acknowledged the levels by which a lesson is structured. Other limited references in the literature are as mentioned in 14.4.

There is no explicit reference to either **LESSON STRUCTURE** or **LESSON ORGAN-ISATION** in the ERIC system. There is also no reference to either of these headings in the Handbook of Research on Teaching (Wittrock, 1986, 3rd Ed.), nor in the Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (Houston, 1990). Hence, it appears that much work still remains to be done in this area.

15.3 TEACHING STYLE

The concept of "teaching style" has been somewhat nebulous. Discrete elements of style have been looked at with regard to what teachers do in the classroom, including studies of

classroom discourse (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975), instructional functions (Rosenshine and Stevens, 1986), questioning techniques, instructions, and routines (Leinhart, 1987). However none of this work has been sufficiently holistic as to provide a framework for a description of teaching style which can capture style characteristics and describe the differences between teachers. The contribution of the model of *lesson structure* is to provide a theoretical framework in which to encompass all of the foregoing.

15.3.1 The Lesson Agenda as an Indicator of Aspiration Level

By looking at unit and lesson plan goals, one can identify whether discourse or code-level teaching is taking place; and by looking at the verbs used in goals one can make an assessment of the cognitive level as well, e.g., "make aware of" and "practise" are very general. "Analyse", "synthesise", "summarise", and "apply" are at a much higher level. Further research is warranted into the language of goal setting

15.3.2 Teaching Phases

Review of the planned phases indicates certain basic differences between them as regards learning versus implementation of the lesson task. The Focus, Clarify and Review Phases involve some type of cognitive interaction with the class and a degree of learning takes place, particularly in the Review Phase, such that one could think of these as "teaching phases" as opposed to the "task phases" (see below) of Set Up and Finish.

As regards the Focus Phase, and based on case study findings, there appear to be two types of focusing mechanisms. One approach focuses on cognitive aspects of the lesson or tries to establish links with past lessons; the latter was used extensively by Alice. Another way is to provide some kind of contextualisation to motivate or interest the class. This mechanism was used extensively by Ching Ching and Nora, but was somewhat problematic since it did not always achieve their objectives. In the case of Ching Ching, the contextualisation was too unsophisticated for the class she was teaching; in Nora's case, after beginning the lesson, the "fun" was abruptly shut off and the lesson reverted to earnest going through of work. The Focus Phase can indicate one, two or more distinct stages in a lesson if used more than once, or there can be a subset of "re-focus" phases which the teacher can use to bring the class back to the main focus of the lesson.

There appeared to be two types of Clarify Phases in the case studies. One was the planned one near the beginning of the lesson, wherein the teacher introduced the concept for the lesson. This could be termed a "proactive" Clarify Phase. There was another type which might be called a "reactive" Clarify Phase which occurred during the Review Phase, when the teacher, because of wrong answers or non-response to answers, might pause to clarify some problematic point.

The most telling point arising out of the case studies was a realisation as to how much lesson time and teaching energy goes into the Review Phase. Indeed, this often seems to be where most of the actual teaching and learning takes place in the lesson. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, the nature of review is such as to recapitulate what has been taught from various perspectives, during the course of which any uncertainties which the pupils might have about the material would hopefully be clarified and the information consolidated in their heads. Secondly, review would reveal misconceptions or misunderstandings on the part of the pupils, which in turn would directionally indicate flaws in the manner in which the material was originally presented. Again, the explanations required to clear up the misunderstandings would tend to further clarify and reinforce the concepts being taught. When one looks at the many methodology books available, the Review Phase appears to be thought of as merely a means to check pupil work. It is not explicitly taught or emphasised during coursework. However consideration should be given to stressing the effectiveness of different ways of going over work as well as the learning effect for pupils. Weak pre-service students tend to use this phase merely as a right/wrong correction time, and miss its potential significance for pupil learning. We should be teaching student teachers ways of evaluating pupil learning during this phase and how to make decisions about reinforcement of weak areas identified during the phase.

15.3.3 Task Phases

The Set Up and Finish Phases relate to giving instructions for the carrying out of the task, and for stopping work on the task. These phases are relatively straightforward and will tend to become routines which are dominated by the teacher. The communication skills and logic for these phases should be covered during coursework, since pupils will get confused and threatened if a teacher is not consistent in their use and application.

The Do Task Phase is the one most remembered from the teacher's own schooling, and the one to which Lortie's "apprenticeship of observation" commentary would appear to be most applicable. Students generally come from fairly traditional classrooms; since they found these to be mechanical, they tend to have a positive view of any teaching technique introduced during coursework which they themselves did not experience as pupils, e.g. group work, games, role play, brainstorming, worksheets, OHT visuals and cartoons. They consider these to be "innovative" and expect the pupils to be interested; however the pedagogical significance, i.e., when it's appropriate to use them and why often escapes them. During the course of teaching practice they come to realise that their perceptions do not match those of pupils. This increasingly more realistic view of such techniques is reflected in the changes in teaching technique grid scores between the beginning and end of the practicum.

15.3.4 Lesson Interrupts

Various kinds of lesson interrupts reflect either the nature of the class, which may be difficult to manage, or the degree of control that the teacher is exerting over class behaviour and class attention. Hence, *control* may relate to disobedience or merely involve calling somebody's attention back to the task at hand. Another category of control includes miscellaneous instructions related to the background business of teaching, i.e., "clean the blackboard", "turn on the OHT", etc. (Many such longer instances, which occurred before the lesson began or after the lesson ended, were not included in the present analysis). *Repairs* are generally based on signals from the class that something is not being understood or followed. *Interactive* comments can include making jokes, sharing personal information, commenting on pupils personally, or giving teacher reactions to whatever work is being done at that time. *Advice* appears to be given by teachers to show that they care about the class and are giving them "inside information" about how to apply what they are learning. This often seemed to occur when the teacher sensed that the class was finding the work dull or heavy going.

15.3.5 Discourse Parameters

As noted during the analysis of case study findings, discourse parameters appear to be a useful mechanism for noting details of "teaching style". Two areas of interest which were

revealed by the findings involve the question of teacher- versus learner-centred approaches, and the use of effective questioning.

As regards the former, one of the initially more surprising features of speech act analysis concerned T>C speech acts as a percentage of the total for the various case studies. Ching Ching, who had a relatively teacher-centred approach, had only 37% T>C, whereas Alice, who had a relatively learner-centred approach, had the highest T>C percentage of 58%. Obviously, the T>C statistic as a percentage of total speech acts was not in itself a clear indicator of teacher-centred-ness. A better indication as to what is happening is provided by a comparison of the total T>C interaction within the Clarify, Set up, and Finish Phases as compared to the Focus and Review Phases and Interrupts, expressed as a percentage of total speech acts:

Distribution of T>C Over Phases

	CHI	ALI	NOR	HUI	AVG
CL + SE + FI					
T>C	398	495	615	390	
Total Speech Acts	641	665	840	498	
% of Total:	62.1	74.4	73.6	78.3	72.1
FO + RV					
T>C	147	139	332	123	
Total Speech Acts	903	445	1287	500	
% of Total:	16.3	31.2	25.8	24.6	24.5
Interrupts					
T>C	193	76	147	24	
Total Speech Acts	436	105	271	34	
% of Total:	44.3	72.4	54.2	70.6	60.4
Grand Total					
T>C	738	710	1097	537	
Total Speech Acts	1980	1215	2398	1032	
% of Total:	37.3	58.4	45.7	52.0	48.4

Fig. 61   Percentage of T>C Speech Acts by Phases

As will be noted, all of the case studies exhibited a uniformly high (averagely 72%) preponderance of T>C during the Clarify, Set Up, and Finish Phases. This is unsurprising, since these activities are by their nature teacher-centred.

By comparison, the Focus and Review Phases were much more learner-centred, with a relatively low (24%) percentage of direct T>C interaction. In Ching Ching's case, the low percentage of T>C in both the Focus and Review Phases was due to the fact that a very large percentage of the time was taken over to eliciting grammar items from the class either collectively or individually in the form of T+C and T+1 interaction.

A misconception can arise if one judges learner-centredness solely by the amount of pupil contribution during a lesson. An example is the Alice case study, where pupils were actually more involved in their own learning than in any of the other case studies. This was because of the use of materials which guided pupils in pair and group learning tasks, and which took up a major part of each lesson. She did not begin teaching practice this way, but had established this style by the end of the practicum. The high amount of teacher talk arose because before the class began work, she would explain the task and also clarify mental organisers that they could use in order to think about the task in hand.

Hence, the extent to which a given phase is learner-centred is not necessarily directly related to the extent of T>C interaction. It is also necessary to look at the nature of the task, e.g., pair and group work, which is generally thought of as being learner-centred, is not in fact learner friendly if it is not accompanied by user-friendly materials and enabling instructions before the task. The question of teacher-centred versus learner- centred is a popular bandwagon for teacher trainers to get onto, but it is necessary to take a closer look at the nature, timing, pace, and cognitive involvement on the part of the class to say whether a lesson is "learner-centred" or not.

As regards use of questions, the use of open ended versus closed questions; cognitive level; clarity of phrasing - all these things have been studied in an attempt to describe effective versus non-effective questions. But again, questions have to be looked at in the context of the phase function, so one might use closed yes/no questions in a Focus Phase just to motivate the class in response to a visual and liven them up as part of a stirring activity or as a preliminary step in a Review Phase to explore reasons for right or wrong answers. And what is the function of questions when used in the Clarify Phase? A more comprehensive description of questioning style related to phase functions needs to be developed.

16.0 IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

This Chapter summarises the implications of research findings for teacher education, principally as they relate to pre-service teacher training during coursework and the practicum.

As has been noted in preceding chapters, coursework, because of its declarative nature, has a limited effect on classroom behaviour; development of practical teaching skills must await the "hands-on" realities of the practicum. Coursework can, however, be used to raise student teacher awareness of the use of the lesson structure as an organiser for ways of planning lessons; use of classroom discourse parameters for analysing and reflecting upon "teaching style"; and the manner in which schemata influence teaching performance and give rise to conflicts and dilemmas. These areas of awareness which have been raised during coursework can subsequently be reawakened during the practicum to improve student teacher lesson planning and presentation and to provide a more explicit focus for supervisory evaluation and guidance.

Implications are discussed under the following categories:

(1) Pre-service teacher **SCHEMATA** and the influence of these schemata on the manner in which the pre-service teacher approaches teaching

(2) **LESSON STRUCTURE** as a goal-driven hierarchy which provides a framework for supervisor/student teacher conferencing related to "the lesson"

(3) The **LESSON AGENDA**, which defines the objectives of the lesson to be taught

(4) The **LESSON PHASES** or steps whereby the Lesson Agenda is implemented

(5) The **LESSON INTERRUPTS** which interrupt the planned flow of the lesson

(6) **DISCOURSE PARAMETERS**, which provide an indication as to various elements of "teaching style"

(7) **OTHER ASPECTS OF TEACHER EDUCATION** related to the supervisor, the co-operating teacher, the school, and the curriculum

16.1 SCHEMATA

By identifying schemata the supervisor can put the student teacher in touch with her own constructs and attitudes that will be shaping her future teaching. The student teachers can therefore better understand how they create their own reality based on past experiences, and why they cannot expect to remain passive learners during their professional education. Their view of their teaching role influences what they value which in turn determines how they handle planning decisions and classroom events. They must become aware of their need to constantly examine the meshing theoretical and personal views of teaching approaches. They must also realise that they retain a superficial memory of the teaching role based on patterns of classroom behaviour modelled from the point of view of a pupil and not the teacher, i.e., arising out of Lortie's "apprenticeship of observation". Such memories surface largely in the form of most remembered tasks and whether the teacher was knowledgeable and approachable. By understanding this naive view of teaching and the complexity of influencing schemata the student teacher is more able to more readily and objectively accept other points of view about their teaching. In fact, the importance for long range professional development based on schemata awareness needs to be stressed.

16.1.1 Influence of Schemata

As discussed in 15.1.1, principal schemata which influence student teachers during the training year include:

PUPILS	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes towards pupils; understanding of pupil learning needs
ENVIRONMENT	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about the school and teaching environment
SUBJECT	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about subject (English language)
METHODOLOGY	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about ways of teaching the subject
TEACHING	Knowledge/beliefs/attitudes about the teacher's role

Fig. 62 A Typology of Teaching Schemata

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16.1.2 Application to Coursework

During coursework, student teachers should be made aware of the nature of schemata and their principal dimensions, the manner in which schemata influence perceptions of teaching, and the degree to which conflicting schemata can give rise to various dilemmas in lesson planning and presentation. As a further awareness-raising measure, consideration should be given to posing a questionnaire at the beginning of the training year to solicit student teachers' views on the five principal schemata and their dimensions. The questionnaire might be repeated at the end of coursework and at the end of the practicum to highlight to the student teachers the changes taking place in their perceptions of teaching. Aside from their awareness-raising value, the comparative results would be useful as an indication of the manner in which schemata evolve during the training year, and as such might provide insights into ways in which teacher training might be structured to accelerate or otherwise modify schemata development.

Coursework should set the stage for later supervisory discussion of schemata during the practicum. Student teachers should be provided with an understanding of the importance of their personal view of teaching. They should be made aware of their impressions of "good" and "bad" language teaching and also their personal reactions to the methods that they are being introduced to during coursework, in order to avoid over-reacting (positively or negatively) to classroom techniques that they did not experience for themselves as pupils. (This became very clear during the present research, because all case studies mentioned looking forward to trying out these new methods during teaching practice and felt frustrated when they were not always successful with the pupils that they were teaching.)

As adult learners, student teachers should also be cognisant of a natural progression taking place in their development as they go from their idealised to a more realistic view of teaching at the end of teaching practice. This is where research on concerns (Fuller), dilemmas, and schema conflicts should be introduced into the coursework coverage. Realisation on the part of the student teacher that others are having similar struggles will tend to ameliorate the negative stance that many of them appear to develop by the end of the practicum.

Commentary on specific schemata follow:

Pupils

The problematic area of preparation remains the pupils and their language learning needs. Inevitably coursework must be generalised to address a prototype view of chronological progression and ability levels in pupils. This type of categorisation of materials and methods into those suitable for able and less able classes, or for junior versus senior classes, does not address the realities of decision-making facing the student teacher at the beginning of the practicum; and is too abstract to be useful in facing the 2J class on a Monday morning!

Too often student teachers are assigned de-motivated or discipline problem classes. This places an unfair burden on them when they are not only trying to come to terms with teaching, but also trying to perform well for assessment purposes. It is essential then that the supervisor should make a point of negotiating the type of class with the school. Wherever possible, a well-behaved average class should be assigned to the student teacher to lessen the stress of the practicum.

The student teacher should also be provided with a class profile. If this has not been made available during School Experience[1], then the supervisor should ask the CT to provide information on the class level, ability, attitude, behaviour as well as pupil prior knowledge in the units to be covered during teaching practice. At the moment this is very much a hit-and-miss affair depending largely on the CT and/or the student teacher's confidence in demanding such details. After such information has been provided, then the supervisor and CT should conference together with the student teacher on how to develop a relationship with the particular pupils and to establish, right from the beginning, her teaching role. Such a guided approach to pupils before teaching practice is not available at the moment and also, if available, would not be totally effective because it leaves out student teacher schemata-based goal awareness. Also during this period student teachers should be counselled by their supervisor as to how to handle the conflicting demands of integrated units of work, school schemes of work, type of class, and CT and school priorities.

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[1]   School Experience is the initial week that student teachers spend in school to familiarise themselves with the school organisation and the classes they will be teaching

Approach and Environment

The main focus of coursework input is normally to provide a variety of techniques to use in the classroom, based on process and language/discourse learning principles. However, the teacher educator should be very familiar with the impact of the school environment during teaching practice and how this may frustrate the student teacher in trying to apply such ideas in her own classroom. During coursework the theory and practice linkage should be established in the minds of student teachers through discussion of environmental factors and teaching constraints. This would lessen the impression that some student teachers have that coursework only provides a generalised idealistic view of teaching which still leaves them to cope on their own, once into the practicum.

There is a conflict between the principles taught by coursework and teaching approaches as practised in the schools, which often rely entirely on the textbook. Many still use a very traditional exercise-based approach to language teaching. Attempting to comply with school requirements in the schemes of work and common tests leads to a sense of confusion or frustration in the student teacher.

It is essential for student teacher development that supervisors and CT's understand the nature and impact of schemata during the practicum. Student teachers develop constructs and adapt existing ones based on their experiences during teaching practice. Awareness of which schemata are operating during the practicum will enable the supervisor to counsel the student regarding the sources of conflicts and resulting dilemmas that the student teacher may be facing. These insights will help better guide the student teacher through the initial classroom experience.

Subject

Coursework should ensure that student teachers develop a clear pedagogical view of the subject that they are going to teach; and that they clearly understand the difference between an *academic* and *pedagogical* view of the subject. In the case of English Language teaching, they must understand that they are teaching communication (written and spoken); and that code-level teaching, i.e., grammar and vocabulary, only has a remedial function in secondary level ESL classrooms. They must realise that the grammar-focused structural syllabus which they experienced as learners is no longer

appropriate in the present day task-based, process-oriented, learner-centred classroom. Until such a basic and essential conceptualisation is established in the minds of student teachers, many of the teaching/learning precepts being covered during coursework will continue to be "washed out".

16.1.3 Coursework Tasks

Student teachers should be alerted to the changing focus of their schemata at different stages of the training year in order to personalise and make relevant the education they receive prior to the practicum.

There is available a range of techniques for putting student teachers in touch with their personal constructs and schemata. One of the most pervasive in the literature appears to be the Connelly and Clandinin (see 6.3.1) "narrative" approach. However, insights gained from the current research into schemata and dimensions of pre-service teachers leads one to feel that attempting to connect all prior life experience with the classroom is too broad a brush approach to the schemata awareness needed during the practicum. Hunt's approach (Hunt, 1987) in putting people in touch with their implicit theories via focused discussion activities based on Kelly's construct theory and an adaptation of Kolb's experiential learning cycle would appear to be a more effective and highly useful mechanism to include in teacher education courses. Repertory grids can also serve as conversation starters for group conferencing on constructs.

Writing and discussion tasks are also useful for putting student teachers in touch with their existing schemata. These include keeping reflective journals, learning logs, responding to focused questionnaires and then discussing them in groups, or periodically being asked to create cognitive maps of the five schemata identified. Such maps related to the role of the teacher, would appear to be the most useful because they would indicate to the student teacher her changing perspectives on her teaching expectations.

Early school orientation is needed to prepare student teachers to better cope with schemata conflicts. They need to be familiarised with school constraints and requirements, and they need to be given analysis and diagnosis tasks of real work of the pupils they are

going to be teaching, in order to begin discussion of how they are going to achieve a balance in this teaching situation. Analysis and discussion of case studies describing a range of school environments would appear to be an effective way of consciousness-raising to prepare student teachers for the realities of teaching practice.

16.1.4 Application to the Practicum

See comments above under the various areas of schemata as to how an awareness on the part of both supervisor and student teacher as to the nature of the schemata which are the driving force for decisions related to teaching would provide a basis for rational conferencing on those aspects of student teaching, such as management of classroom dilemmas, which are related to and can be discussed in terms of schemata.

16.1.5 Improvements to Teacher Education

Explicit recognition and awareness of the nature of schemata and their influence on various aspects of teaching would provide for rational supervisor/student teacher conferencing on aspects which up to now have been largely intangible. The concept of schemata and their dimensions provides teacher educators with a metalanguage for talking about the cognitive structures which underlie and influence teaching performance. An awareness of the nature of schemata enables student teachers to understand the manner in which experiential learning leads to changes in the procedural knowledge which is embedded in their schemata and which strongly influences their teaching style.

16.2 LESSON STRUCTURE

16.2.1 The Lesson as a Goal-Driven Hierarchy

Research findings have confirmed that a lesson is structured as a goal-driven hierarchy consisting of five levels. The topmost level, or *Lesson Agenda*, defines the basic objective of the lesson in terms of the aspect and cognitive level of the particular language skill to be taught. The Lesson Agenda is effected through a sequence of *Lesson Phases* or steps, each of which comprises some particular instructional function; Lesson Phases in turn consist of a sequence of *Phase Segments*. These upper three levels of the hierarchy are typically reflected in the Lesson Plans which are prepared by the student teacher.

During lesson presentation, Phase Segments are effected by a sequence of *Segment Chunks* each of which is comprised of one or more *Speech Acts* as the most basic element of classroom discourse.

The above structure provides a framework for lesson planning; for supervisory guidance and conferencing during the practicum; for peer observation; and for student teacher reflection. These areas will be discussed in more detail in the following Sections.

16.2.2 Introduction to the Concept of Lesson Structure

Coursework is useful for presentation of educational theory and for raising awareness of concepts such as lesson structure and schemata which will later serve as background for conferencing and reflection during the practicum.

As regards lesson structure, student teachers should be introduced to the concept of the lesson as a goal-driven hierarchical structure, perhaps through a diagram such as the one shown in Fig. 17 on page 144. Understanding of the manner in which a lesson is hierarchically structured can provide a framework for all aspects of decision-making, evaluation, and after-the-fact reflection on the planning and presentation of lessons. It can also provide improved insights into the teaching style of pre-service teachers and thus lay the groundwork for developing more effective ways to improve presentation and communication skills in the classroom.

Recognition of the nature of lesson structure enables the teacher educator to anticipate more clearly the pedagogical knowledge student teachers are going to need, so that the tasks and associated principles can be more specifically practised during coursework. The pedagogical significance of lesson levels and parameters will provide a theoretical foundation and lead to greater understanding of what is involved in teaching before student teachers actually embark on the practicum. Emphasis can now be placed on the process of the reasoning which underlies what student teachers do in the classroom. The coursework can begin to approximate what teachers know and how they know it (Shulman 1987). This framework enables professional development to be based on a combination of UNIT CONTEXT + LESSON AGENDA + PHASES. At the moment we still lack a comprehensive theory of effective teaching to inform training. A focus on

discrete teaching competencies and skills is flawed to the extent it is decontextualised. Therefore, the use of a method or technique should be practised within the context of a specific lesson agenda and phase function.

The functional lesson structure provides student teachers with a before-the-fact checklist and creates an awareness of the purpose of everything they need to consider and to check for in lesson plans. It also provides a framework also for an after-the-fact checklist that they can run through to critique their lesson presentation. It leads to an improved decision making (mental) dialogue based on lesson structure as to how best to implement the agenda in terms of phases and then to reflect on the balance in learning and attention span requirements of the class. Also, an awareness of discourse parameters helps surface pedagogical decisions as reflected in the choice of materials, classroom interaction, cognitive level of the lesson, and linkage between lesson phases.

As noted previously (11.4), the concept of lesson structure as reflected by current teacher education has been relatively superficial. Discussion of the vertical structure of a lesson has been limited to recognition of the basic lesson objective followed by a broad and relatively unfocused description of the instructional functions of the lesson. Discussion of the latter has in turn been broadly described in terms of an introduction followed by a series of activities, especially in the task-based approach to language teaching.

16.2.3 Improvements to Teacher Education

Lortie (1975) noted that the absence of a common technical language limits teacher ability to communicate ideas on teaching. This is especially serious at the pre-service level when the student teacher should be developing such a language within a classroom based frame-work of teaching. The concept of lesson structure, its hierarchical levels, and the various phases by which the lesson agenda is implemented provide a "metalanguage" by which teachers and teacher educators can find a common ground to discuss all aspects of "the lesson".

Lesson structure provides a language to talk about planning and teaching rationales and enables the student teacher to explore multiple dimensions of the lesson: up and down the

levels of the hierarchy; across the spectrum of lesson phases; and across the parameters of classroom discourse. During teaching practice this metalanguage can improve the quality of the dialogue between student teachers and supervisors on all aspects of the practicum experience; and counselling and conferencing can be carried out in a more focused way. In addition to developing observation and reflection skills, it also enables student teachers to generate alternatives in a more localised and specific manner within a functional lesson framework. They are able to discuss their teaching goals at the different hierarchical levels and thus better justify their choices.

16.3. THE LESSON AGENDA

The topmost level of the hierarchy, or *Lesson Agenda*, defines the basic pedagogical objective of the lesson. Although this would appear to be intuitively straightforward, in actual fact choice of the Lesson Agenda has a number of important ramifications for the pre-service teacher.

It follows from the top-down goal-driven nature of lesson structure that once the Lesson Agenda has been set, the goals for all lower levels of the lesson must follow suit, i.e., be structured in such a way as to satisfy the top-level goal. Hence, planning and presentation of a pedagogically effective lesson depend in the first instance on choice of a Lesson Agenda which is suitable for the particular class being taught as well as the school curriculum. However review of typical pre-service lesson plans over the course of the practicum revealed a number of shortcomings as regards the choice of Lesson Agenda.

Firstly, there was a tendency to overly concentrate on the teaching of certain language skill areas at the expense of others, e.g., Ching Ching spent over 50% of her time teaching grammar; Alice spent 50% of her time teaching writing. Whatever the personal reasons for these biases, they inevitably led to an unbalanced coverage of language skill areas..

Secondly, the nature and cognitive level of the Lesson Agenda were at times unsuitable for the class being taught, e.g., Ching Ching's grammar lessons were simplistic relative to her

Secondary 1 class prior knowledge and, as such, led to boredom and class management problems.

Finally, and more generally, choice of the Lesson Agenda may represent a compromise between the possibly conflicting demands of the school scheme of work, imminent common tests to be faced, the current unit plan being developed by the student teacher, inherent student teacher biases, and/or the actual needs of the pupils. Hence, the choice of Lesson Agendas throughout the practicum is not an entirely straightforward matter; the manner in which agendas are determined deserve more attention during coursework as well as the practicum.

16.3.1 Application to Coursework

In the context of the framework of lesson structure as discussed in (2) above, the various factors affecting choice of Lesson Agendas should be explicitly discussed during coursework. Such discussion should include a clear summary of the conflicts which can arise in trying to satisfy scheme of work requirements, meet common test criteria, accommodate the demands of an integrated unit plan, avoid personal biases, satisfy possible demands of the co-operating teacher, and be appropriate for the cognitive level of the class being taught. The proper sequencing of Lesson Agendas within a unit of work also requires practice and discussion.

16.3.2 Application to the Practicum

The supervisor should monitor the student teacher's choice of Lesson Agendas through regular perusal of the Teaching Practice file. In the course of lesson observations the supervisor should, as a regular part of the pre-conference checklist, question the student teacher as to the rationale for choice of the Lesson Agenda for the lesson to be observed; and during post-conferencing provide feedback on the apparent suitability of this Lesson Agenda. Such feedback would serve to promote an awareness on the part of the student teacher as to the importance of choosing an appropriate Lesson Agenda during the preparation of each lesson plan within the context of other Lesson Agendas within the unit of work. .

16.3.3 Improvements to Teacher Education

At present, the student teacher is provided with limited guidance as regards her choice of Lesson Agendas throughout the practicum. Closer attention to this phase of lesson planning within the context of the model of lesson structure, coupled with an increased awareness of the *schemata* which are operating (see (1 above) will serve to focus attention on the question of choosing an appropriate Lesson Agenda; will lead to more explicit discussion between supervisor and student teacher on this matter; will promote awareness of the conflicting demands bearing on such choices; and will lead to a rational approach to reconciling these demands.

16.4 LESSON PHASES

As discussed in 15.3.2 and 15.3.3, Lesson Phases have been defined as per Fig. 63 below:

FOCUS	To introduce a topic or language aspect, or to refocus by highlighting, summarising or recapitulating at the beginning of a new stage of the lesson
CLARIFY	To explain or elaborate a concept, rule, or cognitive strategy
SET UP	To organise seating arrangements, interaction time, outcome, procedure, or task strategies
DO TASK	To carry out tasks set by the teacher
FINISH	To stop work or end the lesson
REVIEW	To go over or correct work done, present work, or share work

Fig. 63 A Typology of Lesson Phases

A Lesson Phase oriented approach to lesson planning and presentation provides a means whereby the various phases serve as organisers for the development of the routines and teaching approaches appropriate to each type of phase. The power of phases for student teachers lies in the fact that they permit the teacher to focus on how any given phase is

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being implemented across lessons, thus highlighting the extent to which her teaching style may be reflecting trends or "ruts".

16.4.1 Application to Coursework

Not all Lesson Phases are covered during coursework, because there seems to have been a lack of pedagogical awareness of such universal phase functions and their place in lesson structure. Therefore, coursework should introduce a typology of phase types as the top-level organisers for lessons. The recommended approach to lesson planning should be based on the establishment of an appropriate Lesson Agenda goal as discussed in 16.3 above, followed by an appropriate sequence of Lesson Phases to achieve such a goal.

As an integral part of teaching student teachers to present a lesson, each of the standard Lesson Phases in the typology should be considered individually and examined as to its basic pedagogical purpose and the best teaching approaches to implement it, given a particular level of class and language skill to be practised. Student teachers should be able and required to define and discuss the effect of the key discourse parameters associated with each phase, including the most appropriate teacher-pupil interactions, the cognitive focus of the phase, the manner of establishing a sense of continuity with other information in the unit plans and/or lesson under presentation, and the teaching aids and materials to be used.

Student teachers should be introduced to a variety of teaching approaches which have proven effective in implementing a given phase within each of the various language skill areas. To the extent practicable, student teachers should be given the opportunity to practise the phase-oriented approach during their preparation and presentation of lessons during Pupil Experience, and/or during other micro-teaching sessions.

16.4.2 Lesson Phases

Commentary on specific phases follows.

16.4.2.1 Focus

The Focus Phase is one of the more important phases of a lesson since it not only sets the stage for the task by which pupils learn, but it also serves to a large extent to motivate

pupils to perform this task. Student teachers should therefore be exposed to a variety of teaching approaches which have proven effective in focusing a lesson within each of the various language skill areas.

In English language teaching the beginning of the lesson is advocated as a means of tapping into class prior knowledge during the pre-reading, pre-writing, pre-listening stages mentioned in methods books. However pre-service teachers too often view it in a one-dimensional manner. They emphasise the purpose of this phase as being to "catch the attention", "motivate", or "interest the class" in the rest of the lesson. One aspect pre-service teacher have difficult with is in exploiting the Focus Phase as an opportunity for encouraging pupils to participate in exploratory talk with the teacher. Also, not every lesson requires that the Focus Phase be a major "production"; it is more important to have a variety so that from the pupil point of view there are contrasts in the lesson openings. Finally, student teachers should be alerted to the frequent lack of connection or clearly signalled transitions between the Focus Phase and subsequent phases of the lesson. In view of the foregoing, the pedagogical as well as the affective function of the Focus Phase should be emphasised during coursework.

16.4.2.2 Clarify

The Clarify Phase is the least problematic of the phases. Pre-service teachers feel comfortable because it appears that they have "control" over the delivery of this stage of the lesson, and because it fits in with their perception of the role of the teacher as "information provider". Student teachers must be made aware of the place of pupil prior knowledge and attention spans during the Clarify Phase, in order to avoid rambling too long and reiterating what pupils already know. At the beginning of teaching practice, this phase featured in most pre-service teacher lessons, took the form of a teacher monologue, and went on for too long. In language lessons, if student teachers feel that they have to clarify a concept, they should be advised to leave it to a later stage in the lesson after the pupils have had some prior task experience with the concept and can better relate to and/or even contribute to the clarification. At a later stage of the practicum, student teachers should be encouraged to elicit many of these clarification points from the class after it has completed a task.

16.4.2.3 Set Up and Finish

The Set Up Task and Finish Task Phases consist of predictable communications, i.e., instructions to the class. The availability of appropriate routines which can be implemented in a semi-automatic and unconscious manner to facilitate class management is one of the principal factors which differentiates experienced from novice teachers. Steps should be taken during coursework and the practicum to stress the value of such routines; to identify a stable of particularly useful routines for coping with the most common classroom events; and to find ways to accelerate the development of such routines through deliberate practice during the practicum. This should take the form of self-access practice tasks in the language, micro-teaching, or computer laboratories.

As a further awareness-raising measure, classroom observation should include provision for noting the use and purpose of routines during teaching, since student teachers need to build up a passive awareness of the nature of routines before they can activate this knowledge in their own lessons.

16.4.2.4 Do Task

There is a general emphasis on the Do Task Phase in the literature, especially in connection with the current task based approach and learner centred focus. When pedagogical books discuss teaching approaches, they are usually referring to this stage of the lesson. It is somehow assumed that the remaining phases are already in place and only this one slot needs elaboration.

16.4.2.5 Review

The current research revealed that the Review Phase constitutes a major and significant element in the presentation of a lesson. Pre-service teachers assume that they have to go over each piece of work the pupils have done in order to point out the "right" and "wrong" versions. They do not appear to be able to vary the emphasis in order to highlight essential points and/or misconceptions. Rather, they appear to be making sure that every exercise item has been "cleaned up" and corrected. They spend an inordinate amount of teaching time on this phase. From a pupil point of view, unless they are highly motivated, they find going over their work a "turn-off". Given the importance of this phase in teaching and

learning, it should receive equal attention to the other phases during coursework. Pre-service teachers must be made aware of three factors: (1) that this is a learning opportunity for the class, not just a correction time, (2) that they need to develop a variety of methods and interaction styles to optimise the effectiveness of this phase and (3) that pupil attention spans should be kept in mind while planning the Review Phase.

Coursework covers the importance of clear instructions (Set Up Phase) and the motivational aspects of the lesson lead-in or introduction (Focus Phase) but the centrality of the Review Phase in pre-service teaching and the functional coherence of the overall lesson is left to the practicum experience. It is assumed that somehow it will all come together at this stage of the pre-service programme. Also, in a process- and skills-centred English language teaching approach, student teachers are left with the impression that explanations (Clarify Phase) are somehow inappropriate. The task based, communicative fashion in teaching has also led to an emphasis on group work without a clear rationale in the student teachers planning. The lesson structure framework helps to centre teaching within the realities of classroom learning constraints rather than idealised recommendations from theory. Learning and teaching principles can more readily be demonstrated via the lesson structure framework.

16.4.3 Coursework Tasks

The elements of functional lesson structure have to be emphasised and practised during coursework. Activity chains can easily be set up to introduce phases and demonstrate their implementation within lesson agendas. First a video clip and/or transcript can be used to practice categorising the teaching function and therein also identifying the phase. Then the phase segments can be analysed to ascertain how the phase was implemented. Then the whole or relevant parts of the lesson can be viewed to confirm the phase category and evaluate the effectiveness within the context of the overall lesson. To save time the lesson plan with teaching materials can also be used for this purpose. Then the lesson agenda should be discussed along with alternative possibilities for the phase segments. This discussion should also highlight the beliefs and the nature of learning goals that the student teachers hold. After this they could be directed to exploring further options for implementing each of the phases via set readings.

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The functional lesson structure model provides a framework for combining declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge in a more integrated manner and for planning practice in awareness raising situations before the actual practicum. Such preparation during coursework will enable student teachers to better cope with reflection as well as CT and supervisor feedback. Three principal areas of preparatory practice would involve observation, planning, and lesson presentation.

As regards observation practice, this would introduce students to the concepts of phases and parameters and model for them the manner in which these concepts are applied in practice. This would entail the use of lesson transcripts, or video or audio tapes of whole or part lessons which illustrate the various phases.

As regards planning practice, student teachers should practice using the phase and discourse parameter concepts in creating lesson plans, in planning lessons within unit agendas, and in adapting teaching aids and materials to suit the varying unit and lesson agendas and phases.

As regards presentation practice, so that the planning is not done in a vacuum, student teachers should be teaching small groups of remedial students during coursework to apply the concepts which they have learned. As part of this, they should be asked to prepare a pupil language learning profile or case study to better understand the effects of their teaching on the learner.

Another concept which has gone out of fashion has been the use of language micro-teaching labs and/or language labs. However actual communication skills needed for the Set Up Phase and even the Clarify and Review Phases could be used as an awareness-raising mechanism enabling peers to give feedback on each other's communication skills. Hence, the micro-teaching concept could be resuscitated if only to increase the amount of practice in communication skills during coursework. It is particularly important to increase the amount of classroom communication practice in countries where non-native English speakers are teaching English.

16.4.4 Application to the Practicum

Student teachers should be required to apply a phase-oriented approach to the planning of lessons during the practicum. A description of the sequence of Lesson Phases and the Phase Segments used to effect them should be reflected on the lesson plans in the Teaching Practice File, subject to review by the supervisor. Lesson pre-conferencing should be carried out within the framework of the lesson structure model, commencing with the Lesson Agenda as noted in 16.3 above and continuing on to Lesson Phases, Phase Segments, and discourse parameters. In this manner, these elements of lesson structure provide a common framework within which supervisor/student teacher conferencing can be explicitly focused.

Once the theoretical framework has been established during coursework it provides the basis for more focused supervisory dialogue in pre- and post-conferencing with the supervisor. It will also provide for a more objective less judgmental mode of feedback and evaluation because the discussion will centre on looking at phases and parameters and considering whether the intended lesson agenda was successfully implemented by means of the Lesson Phases and whether there was continuity of learning purpose leading up to the lesson output. Also appropriateness can be considered on the plane of routine phases versus expectations of variety in others such as the Focus and Do Task phases.

During the pre-conference, the student teachers should be able to describe the planned course of the lesson in terms of the sequence of phases and should be able to discuss the "teaching style" or approach reflected in the lesson in terms of the discourse parameters associated with each phase. During the post-conference, the supervisor and student teacher should be able to post-conference the lesson in terms of these same parameters. The supervisor can therefore be specific in her observations and in her assessment of lesson planning; can be specific about how the goal is being implemented; and can raise questions as to the validity of each phase and how the parameters are utilised. Such observations should go a long way toward heightening student teacher awareness of the lesson phase concept and developing a corresponding awareness of lesson phases as applied to the planning and presentation of their own lessons.

Supervisory feedback or evaluation should be goal-related, and also related to the particular demands of each phase or interrupt. In this manner the supervisor can move away from the personal impressions and biases reflected in the use of descriptors such as 'lively', 'responsive', 'pace', 'flow', 'variety', 'clarity', etc. which feature regularly in supervisory dialogue and appear to reflect a need to resort to intangible descriptors in an attempt to describe intangible concepts. Also, the complex concepts like questioning, motivation, learning effect, can be analysed with the student teacher in terms of the phase effects. Positive and negative aspects of the presentation can be traced to goal implementation both in the planning and presentation stages of the lesson. There is no longer a need to merely focus on decontexualised aspects such as amount of teacher-talk versus pupil participation, teacher questioning and pupil response, wait-time, time on task, task involvement, management of class events, transitions, and clarity of instructions and explanations. The effectiveness criteria can be couched in terms of the lesson hierarchy, whether in terms of the agenda appropriateness or at the phase or discourse parameter levels and their appropriateness in the lesson. Such aspects as these can now be pin-pointed exactly in the framework of teaching/learning functions of the lesson. The supervisor no longer has to use these merely as descriptors of observed lesson aspects but can relate them to the causes at relevant levels of the lesson hierarchy or discourse parameters. The reliance on mostly global statements or on teaching behaviours when talking about a lesson can be avoided. This can now be viewed in terms of a technical phenomenon rather than in terms of personal effectiveness in the student teacher, i.e., the supervisor can address a shortcoming as a "technical oversight" rather than as a personal criticism. The lesson-related technical language introduced and demonstrated will facilitate such pedagogical communications between the supervisor and student teacher.

The supervisory dialogue need not merely be a transfer of information from the expert to the novice, but can raise specific questions with regard to the underlying cognition and schemata influences. Early during teaching practice the student teacher can be guided to identify her teaching style and what should be worked on or changed during the practicum. This awareness can be highlighted by eliciting the rationale based on schemata as well as lesson organisation. This framework offers the supervisor ways of intervening, training and exploring alternatives. The prior knowledge that both supervisors and CT's have of the

general patterns of student teacher development during the practicum means that they can anticipate what to expect, a focus they can adopt, and the guidance which will be needed in ways to improve lesson presentation facets. The observation instruments and evaluation forms should reflect this schemata and lesson structure based development sequence.

Supervisors usually offer student teachers generalised and idealised advice, and they focus only on pupil needs and not the practical learning needs of the student teachers, which are individual and situation-specific. It is therefore necessary to reiterate the importance of understanding the context of teaching from the student teacher's perspective and not the supervisor's or CT's. These pivotal people need to be more aware of teaching practice realities, problems, rationales and coping strategies adopted by student teachers in order to help the latter recognise recurrent problems and be able to anticipate needs. The emphasis should be on the process of reasoning which underlie what student teachers do in classrooms as a means of better scaffolding the experiential learning for them and optimising the development of personal practical arguments and principles of practice.

16.4.5 Feedback and Observation Forms

The feedback and observation forms can be based on the phases and parameters so that both the supervisor and student teacher know exactly what they are looking for in the lesson presentation. If student teacher are able to be more analytical of the ways that they plan and teach they will be able to gain a sense of confidence in their own decision-making and presentation strategies. This then enables them to more effectively to process the practicum experience especially since they will be able to discuss and reflect on their teaching in a focused and more insightful manner instead of relying on intuitive or general points, such as whether the class responded or did not respond as intended, or whether time management was successful because the lesson plan was completed in the set lesson time.

16.4.6 Teaching Practice File

At the moment, the supervisor concerns herself with a few lessons that are observed and provides suggestions and feedback during pre- and post-lesson conferences. The supervisor should also monitor teaching style trends and/or coping strategies produced by

poorly resolved conflicts, e.g., biases toward a particular skill area, by periodically examining the lesson plans found in the Teaching Practice file. In this manner the supervisor can monitor lesson and unit agendas, monitor patterns in lesson structure or style of teaching or enforce concepts of lesson structure that describe teaching style and approach based on the TP file and how this bears on the teaching effectiveness in terms of pupil learning outcomes and behaviours. Areas of weakness can be focused on as possible action research tasks, e.g., video recording lessons and then analysing phases in terms of planning intentions and presentation strategies. Also the student teacher should be required to collect data on summary sheets for units of work in order to identify patterns in phase and parameter implementation and then discuss whether there is a bias or too narrow a range in any one of these lesson aspects.

16.4.7 Improvements to Teacher Education

At present the manner in which a lesson is sequenced is couched in somewhat vague terms of "opening", "middle", etc. which do not adequately reflect the nature and pedagogical purpose of each of the phases which contribute to the goals of the Lesson Agenda. The use of a phase-oriented approach to lesson planning provides for a far more explicit focus on the part of the student teacher to each of the instructional steps of the lesson, and provides a common language for conferencing between supervisor and student teacher on the planning and presentation of the lesson.

16.5 LESSON INTERRUPTS

Review of case study lesson transcripts has revealed a number of unplanned Lesson Interrupts which arise during the course of a lesson and, to one extent or another, interrupt the planned flow of the lesson. As noted in 11.5.3, these have been defined as:

CONTROL   To control class behaviour or attention

INTERACT   To interact with pupils via impromptu comments or asides

REPAIR   To correct misunderstandings

ADVISE   To volunteer advice on how to succeed, e.g., in tests or tasks

Fig. 64 A Typology of Lesson Interrupts

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16.5.1 Application to Coursework

In addition to the steps related to raising awareness of lesson phases, due attention should be paid to the definition and discussion of the various kinds of Lesson Interrupts and how best to react to them. This perhaps equals the introduction to Lesson Phases in importance, since some of the major problems of student teachers arise in connection with the inappropriate coping strategies which they adopt when confronted with impromptu lesson events.

During coursework, students have theoretical inputs regarding class management from education courses. What is needed here are self-access materials consisting of video tape illustrations of the various interrupts and worksheets for exploring effective alternatives for what they see occurring on the sample tapes. This should be done as pair or group tasks outside coursework time. The importance of self-access becomes evident when on realises the need for student teachers to familiarise themselves with the nature of phase communication and interrupts before they go into actual practicum teaching. The development of the CD ROM system has a rich potential for creating such practice tasks and materials in the very near future.

16.5.2 Application to the Practicum

During lesson observation and conferencing, and through monitoring of journals, the supervisor should be kept aware of class management and other problems associated with Lesson Interrupts and endeavour to counsel the student teacher on ways to deal with them.

16.5.3 Improvements to Teacher Education

A more explicit focus on the nature of Lesson Interrupts would lead to an increased awareness of the unplanned events which take place during a lesson and thereby lead to the development of routines or other strategies for better coping with them.

16.6 CLASSROOM DISCOURSE

Classroom discourse parameters developed during the course of the current research were found to be useful as measurements of certain aspects of "teaching style". Although not

directly applicable as such to lesson planning, an awareness of these parameters would provide insights into personal teaching style and thus contribute to after-the-fact reflection on lesson.

16.6.1 Application to Coursework

Student teachers should be introduced to the concept of classroom discourse and the associated discourse parameters during coursework. The effect of each of these parameters on the overall effectiveness of the lesson should be thoroughly explored.

Some practice tasks should be assigned whereby the student teachers observe portions of lessons, are given transcripts of such portions, and asked to "code" the transcripts by means of the discourse parameters. Such an exercise would raise awareness of characteristics of teaching style such as teacher-class interaction, aspect, continuity, etc.

16.6.2 Application to the Practicum

During post-conferencing, supervisors should employ the concepts and phraseology associated with classroom discourse parameters to discuss with the student teacher aspects of the lesson related to interaction, aspect, continuity, etc. The student teacher should be encouraged to keep these parameters in mind as a basis for after-the-fact reflection on the lesson and commentary in the weekly journals.

16.6.3 Improvements to Teacher Education

Recognition of the elements of "teaching style" as reflected by classroom discourse parameters would provide an improved basis for supervisor/student teacher conferencing, as well as for after-the-fact reflection on the part of the student teacher.

16.7. OTHER ASPECTS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

16.7.1 The School Environment

It is essential that to the extent possible a positive school environment be provided for the practicum, i.e. (15.1.3), a positive environment with amenable classes, and supportive supervisors and CT's; otherwise, the student teacher is apt to finish the practicum with a negative stance toward teaching. Given the limits on availability of schools versus the

number of student teachers, this ideal probably cannot be attained in its entirety. However within the constraints of the present system, efforts should be made towards this end. Supervisors should make it a point to become familiar with the school environment, staff, and classes; and reports on their suitability for student teacher training should be noted by the practicum organisers. Schools in which these factors are particularly negative should subsequently be black-listed as regards their use for the practicum.

A closer relationship has to be established with the school. The supervisor needs to work with the school to find out for herself the necessary information about the scheme of work, tests, class types, and what is to be covered during the ten weeks of teaching practice so that the CT and supervisor have a common background and knowledge base which will enable them to jointly guide the student teacher in a more focused manner. At the moment, the supervisor, the CT's and other school staff are ignoring the schemata conflict management faced by student teachers, and are hence unable to provide sufficient support. This is where it is essential that the CT, in co-operation with the supervisor, provides a structured learning environment for the student teacher.

The diverse range of teaching environments means that the supervisor should expect to collect or update such specific information every year rather than relying on assumptions based on generalised impressions gained from previous practicum supervisions. Well before teaching practice the supervisor actually has to inform herself about the school requirements, and the classes that the student teacher is going to face, and talk through the first unit preparation with the student teacher. This initial scaffolding will give the student teacher needed support in the first fortnight of teaching practice. This will set the foundation not only for problem solving but also the nature of the interaction with the supervisor and the CT. This is crucial in optimising the experience as well as enabling coursework links to be established in the mind of the supervisee. The supervisor is only too familiar with student teacher problems in coping with large, mixed ability and unmotivated classes; time, exam and textbook constraints; and few resources, all this exacerbated by unwilling and/or untrained co-operating teachers. However an awareness of schemata conflicts in such a practicum situation and the patterns of frustration created by unresolved dilemmas will better prepare the supervisor to help the ST during the practicum.

16.7.2 <u>Supervisor Training</u>

As is evident from the foregoing discussion, in order to be effective in her job the supervisor must understand the practicum experience from the student teacher's perspective, as well as the factors which influence planning and lesson presentation during this crucial period in the teacher education programme.

In order to achieve this understanding, it is important to have basic insights into schemata and the way they affect teaching performance, and to have basic insights into the manner in which the lesson is pedagogically organised and implemented through appropriate discourse structures. Both the coursework and implementation of the practicum suffer in various ways because of gaps in present teacher educator knowledge and awareness of the practicum experience of student teachers. It is even more necessary to optimise these insights because of the complexity of the teaching act and the diversity of student teachers during the practicum. No research as yet has established a complete picture of the training year and what demands experiential learning places on the trainee. The nature of the student teacher presage variables are compounded by the nature of the teaching situation and this diversity has prevented teacher trainers from coming to grips with the resultant complexity. Thus there is a clear need to understand better the factors affecting pre-service teacher classroom behaviours and to provide supervisors with a framework for exploring and monitoring teaching. The schemata and functional lesson structure findings pervade all aspects of training and make it possible to refine theory and practice in present professional training practices. Classroom based knowledge must be at the core of preparation courses but it is difficult to focus on the realities of the practicum without a conceptual framework. The present research provides the teacher trainer not only with a lens to view pre-service dilemmas, concerns and problems but also it provides the teacher educators with a metalanguage for talking about what have previously been somewhat intangible aspects of teaching.

Supervisors should be provided with specific training that enables them to understand the learning needs of student teachers during the practicum and not just to assess their teaching ability. During the course of such training, they should be introduced to the concepts of lesson structure, discourse parameters, and schemata as discussed in the

foregoing sections. Such training will permit them to better anticipate the needs of student teachers in order to scaffold the experiential learning during the practicum.

Present day teacher education is a complicated and problematic process, given the large number of student teachers that need to be trained, the wide range of backgrounds and prior experience of supervisors and co-operating teachers involved in the practicum, the many sub-optimal teaching situations, and the pressure for student teachers to succeed in a very short experiential learning time. Although there is no immediate panacea in sight for resolution of all of these problems, nonetheless the findings of this research indicate that at least some aspects of teacher education could be more systematically addressed.

16.7.3 The Co-operating Teacher

Professional rewards should be built into the teacher career paths to encourage the more effective teachers to undergo training as mentor teachers. The course content of such training should include an introduction to the concepts of schemata and functional lesson structure to enable mentor teachers to be expert not only in their own teaching but to also understand and effectively guide the student teacher.

The CT should be aware of the affective aspects of the schemata that pre-service teachers bring to the practicum experience, so that they can understand the dilemmas and uncertainties facing the student teacher.

Also if the feedback and evaluation forms could be based on lesson structure then the CT's would be more confident in writing up reports on student teachers. At present many lack confidence because they are left to second-guess what they should be reporting on or what the observation focus should be (bringing to mind the observations reported in 7.3.2 as regards the extent to which many CT's are uncertain as to their exact role in the teacher training process).

An in-service programme should be established for the education of Co-operating Teachers, during which programme they would be exposed to the above-mentioned concepts related to Lesson Structure and Schemata and receive a grounding in teaching

from the student teacher's perspective so as to better relate to and provide guidance to student teachers under their charge. Such training might be carried out under the aegis of a part-time post-graduate Master's programme. Consideration should be given to certifying such Master's degree holders as "Mentor Teachers" and providing an incentive in the form of pay increments for those who successfully complete the course.

16.7.4 Reflection and Action Research

Reflection and journal keeping should be carried out with a view toward recognition of conflicts. One of the problems with experiential learning is identifying the focus of reflection. For journal keeping purposes, student teachers should be asked to describe their perceived conflicts during the practicum and then write down the types of strategies they used to reconcile them. This would provide them with problem-solving skills necessary for independent teaching later on, and would highlight a "reality" factor which is perceived to be currently lacking. They can also be asked to reflect on the cognitive levels and pedagogical functions of the lesson under observation, and to discuss the lesson phases in the context of their relevance for pupil learning. This would enable them to reconceptualise and review their teaching in terms of many varied criteria and goals: schemes of work, units of work, lesson phase choices, phase implementation and communication, interaction patterns and appropriateness within phase functions, use of aids and materials, and transitions between the various lesson phases.

Journals not only provide a means of interaction with the supervisor but it also provide a means of tracing the influence of changes in schemata dimensions on the teaching, and the manner in which schematic conflicts lead to classroom dilemmas. By recording such teaching frustrations the supervisor can monitor changing and/or hardening perceptions and then discuss the reality shock and appropriate coping strategies. The student teacher can also trace her emerging practical arguments by recording insights and strategies gained from classroom events. Such reflection will set the stage for continuing professional reflection which will in turn prepare the teacher for action research later in their careers when once settled into teaching they grow dissatisfied with aspects of their classroom performance and this early reflection framework will provide them with the necessary awareness to take action on their own initiative.

16.7.5 The Autonomous Practitioner

The ultimate aim of teacher education is to produce an autonomous and effective practitioner. Teacher training and teacher education implies setting up a mechanism for continued professional growth. An awareness of schemata coupled with a functional lesson perspective gives the necessary framework for further reflection and continuation of the experiential learning to take place. Teachers will have the strategies for critical self-awareness. They need to go on developing principles of practice as well as rules or practical arguments. This will also enable them to continue to explore the nature of language learning activities and language use in the classroom.

Continuing professional growth should be an important goal of teacher training. By introducing self awareness through inviting their attention to schemata weightings and conflicts, they will be better able to find a focus for their reflection and also enable them to find a reason for doing their own action research in the classroom.

17.0 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

17.1 SCHEMATA

Insights into the nature of schemata and the manner in which they influence student teacher behaviour point up the need for further research along the following lines:

17.1.1 Formalise a Standard Typology of Teaching Schemata

As noted in 15.1.1, the present research has identified five basic schemata which appear to have a major influence on pre-service teachers during the training year. For each of these schemata, a number of relevant dimensions have been identified which appear to embody the principal areas of influence within each schemata. Further research should be done to confirm or amend this typology of schemata and dimensions to form the basis for future and more focused research into the manner in which schemata are formed and the most effective way of modifying them during teacher training.

17.1.2 Schemata Constituents

In the course of exploring pre-service teacher schemata, it became evident that such schemata incorporated knowledge of, beliefs about, and attitudes toward the constituents of the various dimensions. It would be of interest to further explore the inter-relationship between knowledge, beliefs and attitudes, e.g., Are belief constructs more numerous in areas where knowledge is vague? Are negative attitudes produced by confusion between knowledge and beliefs?

17.1.3 Schemata Conflicts

Further to the research conclusions outlined in 15.1.4, it would be of interest to more closely investigate the manner in which mutually exclusive dimensions of different schemata give rise to classroom dilemmas. A related area of research might look into the rationalisations and excuses associated with the coping strategies which in turn arise out of schemata conflicts. Another area of research might assess the extent to which lack of knowledge or expertise in any given schema aggravates the conflicts between schemata.

17.1.4 The Relationship Between IF-THEN Rules and Schemata

Sternberg and Caruso (4.2.4) hypothesise an as-yet-underfined relationship between schemata and IF-THEN rules, in which the schemata represent an abstract structure which calls upon IF-THEN rules at more detailed levels of problem-solving. It would be of interest to explore this hypothesis in an attempt to develop a more explicit model to illustrate the relationship between the goals (at any given hierarchical level) of a lesson, the schemata called upon to effect these goals, and the IF-THEN rules accessed by the schemata in the course of determining the best way to effect the goals.

17.1.5 Development of IF-THEN Rules

Another area of interest relates to the manner in which student teachers develop IF-THEN rules as a result of what Nisbett and Ross (1980) call the "vividness criterion", i.e., where specific memorable classroom events take place which establish strong and disproportionate biases, e.g. for or against some particular teaching technique, which forever after remain in the mind and unduly influence teaching behaviour. It would appear worthwhile to survey student teachers in an attempt to determine what particular events have shaped their IF-THEN rules. Among other things, the findings might be useful in support of caveats to novice teachers to the effect that they should carefully consider the classroom situation before embarking on unfamiliar teaching techniques, so as to avoid possible negative consequences which would sour what might otherwise be (in appropriate circumstances) a useful teaching approach.

Since student teachers give priority to their own classroom-based experience in preference to book or coursework learning, teacher educators should really emphasise this as a first priority in our research, i.e., how the incidental confused and complex aspects of experience are transformed into practical arguments.

17.2 LESSON STRUCTURE

The fact that lessons are hierarchically structured has a number of significant implications for teaching and teacher education and points up the need for further research along the following lines:

17.2.1 Formalise a Standard Typology of Lesson Phases

As noted in Section 11.5.2, the present research has identified six basic Lesson Phases which intuitively appear to comprise all of the (planned) instructional functions necessary to implement an English language lesson.

As the basic instructional steps of any lesson, lesson phases serve as top-level organisers for lesson planning. As such, they provide a starting point for choosing those teaching techniques, teacher-pupil interactions, and classroom discourse structures which appear most appropriate to meet the pedagogical goals of that stage of the lesson. From the standpoint of the practising teacher, lesson phases can thus provide a useful level of focus for action research in the classroom. From the standpoint of teacher education, lesson phases can serve as a useful basis for structuring those aspects of coursework related to lesson planning and presentation, as well as for discussion and evaluation by the supervisor during the practicum.

It would thus appear worthwhile to conduct research across a broad spectrum of English language lessons to define and formalise a standard typology of lesson phases to be considered as the basic instructional units, as opposed to the more general units described by Rosenshine and Stevens (11.5.2). Such research would validate the use of lesson phases as focusing mechanisms for purposes of both theoretical research and classroom application.

17.2.2 Investigate the Effective Implementation of Lesson Phases

Having formalised a standard typology of lesson phases as suggested in 17.2.1 above, more detailed research is warranted into the manner in which each of these phases is most effectively implemented within the context of each of the principal English language skill areas, e.g. Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking, Vocabulary and Grammar. Research should endeavour to describe the sequences and types of phase segments which are used by both novice and expert teachers to implement each phase. Insights from this research would be a useful step towards the collection of a comprehensive range of methods for implementing any given macro-skill area of language teaching. Such information would be equally useful for practising teachers, teacher educators, and student teachers.

17.2.3 Formalise a Standard Typology of Lesson Interrupts

Handling of impromptu, as opposed to planned, classroom situations has been a classic challenge for pre-service teachers. The control interrupt, in particular, has been a principal source of concern (Fuller, 1969; 7.2.1). This and other unplanned activities such as repairs are in general poorly executed by pre-service teachers, who typically resort to a variety of often inappropriate coping strategies (7.2.3) to muddle through the situation. As noted in 11.5.3, the present research has identified four basic Lesson Interrupts which appear to cover all of the unplanned activities which arise in the classroom.

Concurrent with research to formalise a typology of lesson phases as suggested in 17.2.1 above, further research would appear warranted to describe in more comprehensive detail the range and nature of Lesson Interrupts. At the same time, the research should identify the kinds of routines which experienced teachers utilise to efficiently cope with these situations in such a way as to minimise their disruptive impact on the evolving lesson. These routines could be introduced during coursework and subsequently made subject to purposeful "practice" during the practicum to assist pre-service teachers in coping with impromptu situations.

17.2.4 Investigate the Effective Implementation of Phase Segments

At the level of classroom communication, and for each of the types of phase segments identified through research as per 17.2.2 above, research could look into the manner in which segment chunks or speech act groupings are used to communicate a given phase segment. Such research could offer improved insights into the very heart of teaching, i.e., how classroom communication is utilised to effect higher-level pedagogical goals.

Work has already been done on teaching cycles and the use of teacher's questions and responses in the classroom. Far more needs to be done to understand the logic of teacher monologue. One pattern that has been identified in the present case studies is a "phantom" dialogue which sets in when the teacher is not getting adequate or the intended response from the class, and she continues posing and answering the questions herself, as an organiser for her monologue. Also at such moments the teacher might go into repair mode; how this is effected is another area of potential study. The teacher logic in communicating the Set Up and Clarification Phases is another central issue for research. In

general, now that we understand the nature of instructional phases, we need to investigate how pegagogical intention is communicated by the teacher.

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APPENDIX

A.0 CASE STUDY #2 - ALICE

Table of Contents

A.1 LESSON PLANNING

A.1.1 Lesson Plan Coverage

Alice taught her class six periods per week, including two double-period lessons. This amounted to a total of 40 lessons during the ten-week period of the practicum. The number of lesson plans available for analysis was 28, as indicated in Fig. 65 below.

As will be noted from the table, Alice had a strong bias toward the teaching of writing:

Alice Lesson Plans

	No of Plans	No of Periods	Comments
Writing	14	22	8 double periods + 6 single
Grammar	7	9	2 double periods + 5 single
Reading	5	9	4 double periods + 1 single
Listening	2	3	1 double period + 1 single
MC	-	6	1 week
Tests	-	5	1 double period + 3 single
Book Quiz	-	4	2 double periods
Other	-	2	Initial observation & Good Friday
	28	60	

Fig. 65[1] Summary of Alice Lesson Plans

All of the four lessons which were observed by the supervisor were on some aspect connected with writing: one on paragraph structure for peer editing, one on formal letter writing, one on narrative writing features for first draft writing, and one a peer editing lesson. Alice organised her units of work to utilise other language skill areas as inputs for developing pupil written discourse skills.

A.1.2 Lesson Plan Goals

Alice's interest in writing stemmed from confidence and knowledge which she had gained from undergraduate written discourse courses and the reading assignment she chose to do on the same topic. Her teaching goals during TP focused on writing skill development.

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[1]   Figures have been numbered sequentially from those in the main body of the dissertation but have not been included in the dissertation Table of Contents

Taking the lesson objectives as stated at the beginning of each lesson plan, the overall lesson goals were collected for each of the four types of lessons taught: writing, grammar, reading and listening.

Writing

Alice's goals were clustered by the four types of compositions in the scheme of work: childhood memories; letter of complaint; exciting story; and description of a person. These tasks were in the school scheme of work. The teaching goals and approach, however, were planned by Alice herself. In the first unit of work on childhood memories she spent the prewriting time on a questionnaire to gather information for the writing task. But already in this first unit she had established the sequence, i.e., (1) introduce necessary background for the task, (2) write the first draft, and (3) review features to highlight in the peer editing.

```
Childhood memories
(1) be able to execute questionnaire planned in class [1]²
    know interview skills [1]
    brainstorm childhood for constructing questionnaire [1]
    share findings in class [2]
(2) write first draft [2]
(3) Know content & paragraph unity for peer editing [5]
```

This three stage unit development was evident in all the three subsequent units of work. One change to be noted was that the latter three did not facilitate information gathering during the prewriting, but focused instead on text features. Reading lessons were utilised for covering such features.

```
Letter
(1) know format of formal letter & how differs from
        informal [10]
    know structure/organisation of ideas & apply to
        assignment [10]
(2) write first draft for homework
(3) revise formal letter [13] [peer editing]


Story
(1) think of ways of telling a story to someone [16]
    be aware of audience, concept of anticipation,
        suspense, humour & purposeful description [18]
    learn from listening and evaluating stories told
```

---

²   Numbers in square brackets represent the sequence of lesson plans

```
            by peers [19], [23], [24], [25]
      (3)   write first draft for homework
      (4)   apply narrative writing skills by editing
               partners writing [30]
               be ready to improve plot for final draft [30] [peer
               editing]
```

Description
```
      (1)   grasp concepts for describing people - physical,
               behaviour and thinking [31]
               apply to a text [31]
      (2)   apply to writing first draft of 'A Day in the
               Life of...' for homework
      (3)   be aware of other writing styles & possibilities [33]
               use symbols to justify feedback views [33] [peer editing]
```

Grammar

Since Alice was teaching an able class and because she was so involved with developing discourse awareness in her class she at first ignored grammar altogether. She taught two lessons at the beginning only because she was trying to carry out what was listed in the school scheme of work.

```
      Revise grammar learnt - adjectives, prepositions, nouns [3]
      Teach order of adjectives [4]
```

She also taught one punctuation lesson as a part of letter format revision for the subsequent class writing assignment.

```
      Do exercise using formal letter so pupils understand what is
      required in letter writing [12] [punctuation]
```

Towards the end of TP she discovered through a class feedback form that her pupils in fact considered that they needed grammar lessons. In response to their perceptions she taught four such lessons in the last two weeks. However she incorporated this direct and indirect speech practice into her writing preparation. The lesson on conditionals arose out of a choice of item from the school scheme of work and was based on errors she saw arising in the pupils' written work.

```
      revise direct/indirect speech; confident enough to use in
         narrative [26]
      know how to use indirect speech for commands, requests and
         exclamations [27]
```

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```
test pupil understanding of direct & indirect speech [28]

grasp grammar rules for conditionals [32]
```

Reading

Only one very general goal was related to reading development:

```
answer comprehension questions [21]
```

Her aim in reading lessons was to raise pupil awareness of text in order to help with writing tasks:

```
analyse in terms of paragraph organisation [6] [8]
acquire some skills from passage for narrative writing [20]
detect differences between narrative and descriptive writing
   [20]
grasp the various techniques and concepts for narrative
writing and apply [21]
```

She also utilised textbook comprehension passages as input for ideas:

```
brainstorm plots; [21]
appreciate story and be confident enough to begin
   first draft [29]
```

and as text models for first draft revision and peer editing inputs:

```
reinforcement for first draft writing [29]
be able to pick out structure of story (plot) [29]
```

The actual answering of the reading comprehension questions was done for homework. In this way Alice met school requirements and at the same time used the texts for discourse analysis type tasks.

Listening

The two listening lessons were taught in order to make sure that her class would be able to handle the types of questions to be set for the school end of term test.

```
teach [14] and practise [15] literal, inferential and
   experiential questions
```

A closer look at the manner in which the various planned phases were conceptualised in the course of Alice's lesson planning is as follows:

A.1.3 Focus Phase

Half of the Focus Phases occurred in writing lessons, a quarter in the grammar lesson, and almost a quarter in the reading lesson. This phase featured so strongly in the writing lessons because Alice considered it very important to establish links between lessons in order to facilitate pupil learning. In writing lessons she used this phase to recap the use of mnemonics, writing features, and guidelines for peer editing. In the reading lessons this was mainly used for predicting the text topic, but also in one lesson she recapped narrative features and therefore connected this lesson to the writing focus rather than to the reading focus. In grammar lessons, she used this phase to review pupil prior knowledge of the grammar item or to go through examples illustrating a particular grammatical item. Apart from the prediction and reading of text aloud (7 phases), none of the focus phases were utilised to establish the context. This was the time in a lesson when links were established to earlier lessons or to pupils' prior knowledge. In the writing lessons, 13 out of the 16 phases were built around the teacher capturing on the blackboard the points that she either elicited or reviewed with the class. The reading lesson also used the blackboard to record predictions or else went straight to the textbook for the reading of the passages. The grammar lessons were the only ones to use OHT's of examples for focusing the lessons.

	WRITING Total 14 lessons Total 16 phases In all lessons	GRAMMAR Total 7 lessons Total 10 phases None in 1 lesson	READING Total 5 lessons Total 10 phases None in 1 lesson	LISTENING Total 2 lessons Total 3 phases In all lessons
INT	T+C 9 T>C 7	T+C 4 T>C 4 2>C 1 1>C 1	T+C 3 T>C 3 1>C 4	T>C 3

ASP	Descriptive writing features Types of formal letter Narrative writing features (2) Plot in narrative (4) Communication triangle TOP-A mnemonic Brainstorming (4) Peer editing guide (2)	Adjective definition Identify adjectives Punctuation Direct/ indirect speech (2) Pupil presentation (2) Tense review Examples of requests and explanations If clause examples	Predict topic (3) Read text aloud (4) Difference between narrative and descriptive writing Elements of plot (2)	Read text LIE mnemonic (2)
AID	Blackboard (13) None (2) Tape (1)	None (6) OHT (3) Blackboard (1)	Blackboard (4) Textbook (4) OHT (1) None (1)	Handout (1) Blackboard (1) None (1)

Fig. 66 Focus Phase Statistical Description (Alice)

A.1.4 Clarify Phase

A total of 21 out of the 36 Clarify Phases were found in the writing lessons, and these were predominantly teacher-to-class. In the lesson plans, Alice used words like "explain", "highlight", or "go through" new text features that she wanted to introduce to the class. In the grammar lessons she explained rules, forms, and common errors. In the reading lessons she used the Clarify Phase to introduce elements of story telling such as plot and use of description in letter writing. For the writing lessons she reinforced her explanations by the use of OHT's and blackboard in equal emphasis, but on 3 occasions she also referred directly to the handout which explained the point that she was discussing. For the grammar lesson, she used mostly OHT's to summarise the concepts that she was going over; this was also true of the reading lesson.

	WRITING Total 14 lessons Total 21 phases None in 5 lessons	GRAMMAR Total 7 lessons Total 9 phases None in 1 lesson	READING Total 5 lessons Total 5 phases None in 1 lesson	LISTENING Total 2 lessons Total 1 phase None in 1 lesson
INT	T>C 17 T+C 4	T>C 8 T+C 1	T>C 5	T>C 1
ASP	Questionnaire structure (2) Paragraph structure (2) Formal letter (2) Formal and informal letter (2) Letter format Complaint letter (2) FORGIVE mnemonic Narrative writing features (2)	Adjectives - order and comparison Nouns and adjectives Direct speech - punctuation Indirect speech - formulation (2) Tenses Conditional clauses Errors/ problems (2)	Plot (3) Narrator role Informal letter - description	LIE mnemonic
	Suspense in plot Description in story Reader questions and plot Story evaluation (3) Describing people			
AID	Blackboard (8) OHT (7) Handout (3) None (3)	OHT (6) Textbook (2) Blackboard (1)	OHT (3) Blackboard (2)	Handout (1)

Fig. 67 Clarify Phase Statistical Description (Alice)

A.1.5 Do Task Phase

A total of 6 out of the 25 Do Task Phases were pair work, 3 were group work, and only 4 were individual work. Alice favoured class interaction because she felt that sharing of ideas would improve the overall work of individual pupils. This was the opposite in grammar lessons, where 4 out of the 7 phases consisted of the teacher doing the task with the pupils. Two of the other phases were individual work and only one was group work. Reading had 3 instances of pair work, 2 of individual work, and 2 where the teacher did the task with the class. The use of this phase in writing lessons was to brainstorm ideas (4), analyse text features (6), and give peer responses to first drafts (13). Only 2 of the instances were actually writing tasks, because first and second draft writing was usually set for homework. Alice considered that a better use of class time was to work on more interactive sharing tasks which could not be done individually at home. For grammar, mostly it was going through exercises together with the class. Only the test and underlining of nouns and adjectives was done as individual work. For reading, the phases were split equally between reading the text aloud around the class, analysing text features, and answering comprehension questions. One also included writing the first draft.

The writing was equally based on first drafts and work sheets/handouts. This was because Alice provided carefully structured guidelines for peer editing. For grammar, she used textbooks and worksheets in equal proportions. The reading lessons were based on the textbook.

	WRITING Total 14 lessons Total 25 phases In all lessons	GRAMMAR Total 7 lessons Total 7 phases None in 4 lessons	READING Total 5 lessons Total 7 phases In all lessons	LISTENING Total 2 lessons Total 5 phases In all lessons
INT	2 16 1 4 4 3 T+C 2	T+C 4 1 2 4 1	2 3 1 2 T+C 2	1 3 2 2

ASP	Listen to interview question-naire (2) Write first draft (2) Peer edit (9) Pick out paragraph features Narrate events to partner (2) Listen and complete feedback form (4) Discuss stereotype "kia su" person Identify character-istics in narrative text	Go through exercises Underline nouns and adjectives Write sentences Oral practice of item Do short test	Analyse plot Analyse paragraph purpose Read aloud (2) Answer compre questions Write first draft	Look up difficult words in dictionary Listen to song Identify types of questions Answer compre questions (2)
AID	First draft (8) Worksheet (7) Handout (5) None (5)	Worksheet (3) Textbook (3) None (1)	Textbook (6) OHT (1)	Handout (3) Workbook (1) Tape (1)

Fig. 68   Do Task Phase Statistical Description (Alice)

A.1.6 Review Phase

A total of 24 out of the 33 Review Phases were in the writing lessons, and 20 of these were centred around the story telling project that Alice developed with the class, wherein a single pupil would stand up and tell a story and then either pairs or groups of pupils would give their feedback on the effectiveness of the story and ways of improving it for the second draft. In the grammar lessons there were only 3 Review Phases because she worked through most of the exercises with the class or had them mark their work from the OHT in one case, and did group marking in another case.

The materials utilised were the same as in the Do Task Phase, except in the case of the writing lessons wherein, apart from the worksheets used for the story evaluation, she also gave pair and group presenters OHT's to use during their feedback.

	WRITING
	Total 14
	  lessons
	Total 24
	  phases
	None in 5
	  lessons
		GRAMMAR
		Total 7
		  lessons
		Total 3 phases
		None in 5
		  lessons
			READING
			Total 5
			  lessons
			Total 4 phases
			None in 2
			  lessons
				LISTENING
				Total 2
				  lessons
				Total 2 phases
				In all lessons

INT	1>C 12 2>C 5 4>C 3 T+C 3 2 1	4>C 1 4 1 1 1	T+C 3 2>C 1	T+C 2

ASP	Present work
	  done (10)
	Evaluate each
	  other's work
	  (10)
	Go over work
	  done (4)
		Present work
		  done (1)
		Evaluate each
		  other's work
		  (1)
		Go over work
		  done (1)
			Go over work
			  done (3)
			Present work
			  done (1)
				Go over work
				  done (2)

AID	Worksheet (9) OHT (8) None (4) Blackboard (1) Handout (1) Tape (1)	Worksheet (2) OHT (1)	Textbook (2) Blackboard (1) OHT (1)	Handout (2)

Fig. 69   Review Task Phase Statistical Description (Alice)

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A.2 LESSON PRESENTATION

A.2.1 Overview of Speech Acts by Lessons and Phases

As demonstrated under planning, the four observed lessons that Alice taught were typical of her language teaching emphasis on the writing skills. One lesson was on paragraph structure for peer editing, one on formal letter writing, one on narrative writing features for first draft writing, and one a peer editing lesson.

An overview of speech acts by phases for the four observed lessons is as follows:

PHASES	Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase					
	LS1	LS2	LS3	LS4	TOTAL	%
FOCUS	27	41	154	2	224	18.4
CLARIFY	58	251	65	-	374	30.8
SET UP	91	81	32	65	269	22.1
FINISH	6	4	6	6	22	1.8
REVIEW	62	18	141	-	221	18.2
Subtotal:	244	395	398	73	1110	91.3
INTERRUPTS						
REPAIR	23	3	-	27	53	4.4
ADVISE	6	10	19	-	35	2.9
CONTROL	-	1	-	-	1	0.1
INTERACT	-	1	15	-	16	1.3
Subtotal:	29	15	34	27	105	8.7
LESSON TOTAL:	273	410	432	100	1215	100.0

Fig. 70 Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase (Alice)

Although there was some variation in the amount of time in terms of speech acts within a given phase in a given lesson (e.g., the inordinate amount of speech acts in focus in lesson [3], clarify in lesson [2], and review in lesson [3]), some general conclusions may be drawn from the above figures:

(1) Planned phases of the lesson accounted for about 91% of total speech acts. Unplanned Interrupts accounted for about 9%, about half of which involved Repair Interrupts.

(2) The Focus Phase was relatively long during the third lesson, since Alice spent a great amount of time illustrating text features and linking them to past lessons.

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(3) The Clarify Phase was relatively long during the second lesson because Alice went into great detail explaining formal and informal letter formats and features.

(4) The Set Up and Finish Phases were fairly consistent during all four lessons.

(5) The Review Phase was relatively long during the third lesson because of quite lengthy discussion of text features, identified by the class during the Do Task Phase.

(6) Negligible time was spent by Alice on class management.

A.2.2 Focus Phase

In all of her lessons Alice used the Focus Phase to recap and thus provide a link to earlier lesson coverage, all of which related to text features. The Focus Phase took up averagely 18.4% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                          LESSON 2
 Review composition elements       Elicit two features of letters
  (4x)                             Elicit type of formal letters
 Introduce paragraph unity          (4x)
  unity                            Recap communication triangle
                                   Announce formal letter
                                   Announce letter of complaint
                                   Recap informal and formal
                                    letters


LESSON 3                          LESSON 4
 Link to last lesson               Link to last lesson
 Elicit features (8x)
 Recap story features
 Pupils take turns reading text
 Elicit narrator in story (3x)
```

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR FOCUS PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	78	RES	29	D4	145	LA	158	B	158	NO	158
T+C	61	REP	17	TA	25	--	32	-	41	PS	34
T+1	42	PHA	16	IN	16	KO	30	X	16	TE	25
1+T	29	ACC	16	CO	15	KH	4	O	6	--	7
T>1	7	PRT	12	D2	14		224	W	3		224
1>C	4	DIR	10	--	4				224		
C+T	3	OTH	124	D1	3						
	224		224	P1	2						
					224						

Fig. 71 Discourse Parameters for Focus Phase (Alice)

Interactions were 35% T>C teacher-to-class and 27% T+C teacher-plus-class, hence the lesson was not overly teacher-dominated. A wide variety of speech acts were utilised, of which the major instance (13%) was RES Teacher Respond. The majority (65%) of aspect related to text genre features) because of Alice's focus on writing. The majority (70%) of continuity related to the previous lesson, reflecting Alice's standard approach in reviewing past lessons as a focus for the current lesson. The majority (70%) of teaching aids was the blackboard, which was usually used to collect the main points being covered in the lesson. The majority (70%) of materials consisted of teacher notes, which were used extensively by Alice to jog pupil memories at the start of a lesson.

A.2.3 Clarify Phase

The Clarify Phase represented the largest component of Alice's lessons because of the nature of her lesson approach. In every lesson except lesson [4] she introduced new concepts and explained them to the class before giving them analysis tasks to practice these concepts. Lesson [4] was a peer editing lesson, for which the necessary concepts had been introduced earlier, so there was no need for clarification. The Clarify Phase took up averagely 30.8% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                              LESSON 2
  Importance of essay structure         Elicit letter format
  Essay is made of paragraphs           Go over inside address purpose
  Compositions have theme                 (2x)
  Go over paragraph structure (5x)      Go over writing purpose (2x)
  Elicit paragraph main idea            Go over 'regarding' function
                                          (5x)
LESSON 3                              Explain formal letter tone
```

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Explain types of narrator (3x)   Give reasons for letter types
Recap term   Define reader
Look at 3 examples on OHT   Illustrate with text (4x)
Compare with 3 stories   Recap work so far
Summarise main points   Formal versus informal tone (2x)
Elicit type from known text   Complaint letter features (8x)
Elaborate on feature
Go over how feature is used
Elicit term for feature (2x)
Link title and story point

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR CLARIFY PHASE											
Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	227	DET	29	D4	132	-	269	O	223	TE	148
T+C	75	PHA	28	D5	63	CA	34	W	74	NO	118
T+1	49	ILL	23	CO	59	KO	29	-	40	DG	36
1+T	19	RES	23	P1	46	LA	26	B	22	--	33
C+T	4	RPH	22	IN	29	KH	16	X	15	TX	24
	374	ELI	21	--	14		374		374	PS	11
		STA	19	TA	13					QU	4
		NFC	16	D3	11						374
		CON	15	BA	5						
		OTH	198	D1	1						
			374		374						

Fig. 72   Discourse Parameters for Clarify Phase (Alice)

Interactions were 61% T>C, since clarification tends to be relatively teacher-centred. Alice spent a lot of time explaining the concept or strategy before the Do Task Phase. A wide range of speech acts were involved, of which the principal element was DET Giving Details or Listing, which appears consistent with the nature of the Clarify Phase. The majority of the aspect parameter related to D4 Text Genre Features (35%) and to D5 Text Format (17%) because of Alice's concentration on writing. Context and paragraph organisation were also strongly represented. No continuity was the norm (72%), with limited reference to the earlier part of the lesson (CA), pupil knowledge of real world matters (KO), and earlier lessons (LA). The majority of teaching aids (60%) were OHT's, with some use of worksheets. The majority (71%) of materials 71% were split between TE whole text (40%) and NO notes or summary points (31%). Alice used text to demonstrate a point and notes to summarise features that she wanted to highlight.

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A.2.4 Set Up Phase

The Set Up Phase was the second most used phase because Alice took great pains to explain the procedures for the task. An interesting point to note is that if the Clarify and Set Up Phases are added together, they constitute 52.9% of all speech acts. Alice felt that if she properly prepared pupil understanding of concepts and processes, this would enable them to do their own learning during the task itself and would improve the output, i.e., compositions. The Set Up phase took up averagely 22.1% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

LESSON 1
    Direct to text in handout
    Direct pupil to read to class
    Direct to look at own essay
    Instructions for task (3x)
    Set time limit (2x)
    Change to partner's essay
    Take note of peer feedback
    Repeat instructions
    Direct to write second draft
    Direct to finish for homework
    (2x)
    Direct pairs to share work

LESSON 3
    Direct to look at textbook page
    Instructions for task (2x)
    Illustrate how to do task
    Instructions for presentations

LESSON 2
    Direct to handout page 2x)
    Explain task (2x)
    Instructions for task (5x)
    Deadline for assignment
    Repeat instructions

LESSON 4
    Instructions for revision task
    Direct to worksheet page
    Direct to consult partner
    Instructions for steps (3x)
    Add on instructions (2X)
    Revise first draft for homework
    Give deadline for final draft

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR SET UP PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	250	DIR	72	TA	205	--	130	W	111	TE	149
T+C	14	DET	42	D1	17	KH	128	W-E	73	TE-QU	66
T>1	3	RPH	22	IN	16	CA	9	E	38	--	20
C+T	1	REP	18	--	14	LA	2	X	30	QU	19
1>C	1	PHA	16	D4	7		269	-	17	TE-NO	7
	269	INC	14	D5	3				269	DG	5
		ILL	13	BA	3					TX	3
		NFC	10	TH	2						269
			269	P1	1						
				OT	1						
					269						

Fig. 73 Discourse Parameters for Set Up Phase (Alice)

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Essentially all (93%) of the interaction was T>C teacher-to-class, since setting up tends to be almost entirely teacher-centred. Speech acts were largely DIR directing (26%) and DET (16%) giving details, plus other categories such as rephrasing, repeating, etc. As might be expected, the majority (76%) of aspect related to the task being set up. Continuity was almost entirely split between no specific continuity (48%) and KH (48%) prior knowledge associated with the kind of task to be done (KH - 48%). The large majority of teaching aids were related to worksheets (41%) or worksheets combined with exercise books (27%) Materials were split between TE whole text (55%) and TE-QU text combined with questions (25%)

A.2.5 Finish Phase

For Alice, the Finish Phase was just a short transition to the next stage of the lesson. In lesson [4], however, it was quite different. During the peer editing, she repeatedly interrupted the class and called them to attention to keep them moving through the work sheet at an even pace. After interrupting their work she would tell them what they should now be going on to next in the worksheet, even though they may not have all finished the prior task. The Finish Phase took up only 1.8% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                        LESSON 2
  Stop work (3x)                  Stop work
  Check if finished               Direct to return to seats

LESSON 3                        LESSON 4
  Stop work                       Interrupt work (4x)
  Pupil request to begin speech   What to bring to next lesson
  Speech contest presentations
```

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR FINISH PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	18	DIR	9	TA	18	-	11	-	7	TE	9
T+C	2	ELI	3	D4	2	KH	9	W-E	5	TE-QU	5
T+1	1	NFC	2	BA	1	CA	2	E	4	--	5
1+T	1	NOM	2	IN	1		22	X	4	PS	3
	22	PET	2		22			W	2		22
		OTH	4						22		
			22								

Fig. 74 Discourse Parameters for Finish Phase (Alice)

Interaction was essentially all (82%) teacher-to-class, since finishing the task tends to be largely teacher-centred. Speech acts were largely (41%) DIR directing. The majority (82%) of aspect related to the task being finished. Continuity was almost entirely split between no specific continuity (50%) and KH prior knowledge associated with the kind of task which has been done (41%). Either no teaching aids were used (50%) or W-E aids were related to worksheets and exercise books (23%). Materials were mostly related to TE the whole text (41%) or TE-QU text combined with questions (23%).

A.2.6 Review Phase

The Review Phase was not a major phase in Alice's lessons. In lesson [1] she elicited answers from the whole class on work done earlier, but by the middle of teaching practice her Review Phases mostly consisted of group or pair presentations of work done. Of course, video lesson [4] did not have a Review Phase because the pairs were working together on first drafts guided by a worksheet. The Review Phase took up averagely 18.2% of a typical lesson.

Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                            LESSON 2
  Elicit text theme                   Group presentations (4x)
  Elicit paragraph main idea          Evaluate work done (2x)
  Elicit supporting detail (3x)
  Reject answer

LESSON 3
  Group presentation
  Comment on presentation
  Elicit feature in text (6x)
```

Speech act parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR REVIEW PHASE											
Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T+C	76	RES	23	D4	109	CA	207	X	109	TE	190
T>C	61	ACC	17	D2	54	--	13	W	62	NO	22
T+1	41	PRT	14	TA	22	LA	1	O	40	--	9
1+T	25	PHA	12	D1	14		221	-	10		221
T>1	7	ELI	12	IN	12				221		
1>C	6	RPH	11	--	9						
T>4	2	DET	10	BA	1						

```
T+4      2   CON   10          221
C+T      1   OT    112
       221         221
```

Fig. 75 Discourse Parameters for Review Phase (Alice)

The largest category of interaction was 34% teacher-plus-class due to the interactive nature of reviewing; 28% teacher-to-class; and 30% T+1/1+T representing interaction with individual pupils. Hence, the teacher was conscious of eliciting pupil ideas but for slightly less than half the time also felt the need to revert to teacher monologue to make sure a point was sufficiently elaborated. A range of speech acts were involved, with the single largest category being RES response (10%). The largest category (49%) of aspect D4 related to text genre features, followed by D2 (24%) relating to text information. Continuity was almost entirely (94%) CA related to an earlier part of the lesson. Teaching aids were largely (49%) textbook/workbook, supplemented by worksheets and OHT's. Materials were almost entirely (86%) TE whole text material, since this the basis for earlier work.

A.2.7 Repair Interrupt

Repairs were generally made to instructions because of some pupil reaction or query, and took up 4.4% of the average lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                          LESSON 2
  Re term                           Re instructions
  Re instructions (2X)

LESSON 4
  Re instructions (4)
```

A.2.8 Advise Interrupt

Alice advised pupils to keep and refer to their handouts to improve their writing. Advice took up 2.9% of the average lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                          LESSON 2
  How to keep handout               How to use in own writing
  Should refer to handout           Should keep and use handout

LESSON 3
```

```
How to use in own writing
Could do same in own writing (3x)
```

A.2.9 Control Interrupt

Control was negligible in the case of Alice, and took up only 0.1% of the average lesson.

A.2.10 Interact Interrupt

Interact took up 1.3% of the average lesson, and was usually in response to some informal pupil comment. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 2                        LESSON 3
  Interactive comment (2x)        Elicit reactions
                                  Interactive comment
```

A.2.11 Overview of Discourse Parameters for All Lessons/All Phases

Turning to speech acts in terms of discourse parameters, a summary of the totals is tabled in Fig. 76 on the following page. Some general conclusions can be drawn from these figures:

(1) In terms of interaction, Alice's teaching style tended to be teacher-telling, with about 58% of all speech acts being T>C, i.e., teacher-to-class. Other major categories of interaction included T+C (20%) and T+1 (12%). These three categories accounted for 90% of the total.

(2) A wide variety of speech act categories occurred, but as might be expected the largest single instances of these fell into the standard "teaching cycle" categories of DIR Directing (10%), RES Responding (7%), RPH Rephrasing (6%), ELI Eliciting (4%), and REP Repeating (5%). A high percentage of PHA Phatic (8%) reflected Alice's tendency to frequently interject "okay", "right", etc. between speech acts.

(3) Principal categories of aspect related to D4 Text Genre Features (33%), and TA the task to be done (30%). The latter TA category featured because Alice gave not only directions for doing the task, but also included detailed strategies for how to do it.

(4) The four major areas of continuity included -- No Continuity (40%), CA earlier part of the lesson (22%), KH pupil prior knowledge related to homework or other completed work (16%), and LA earlier lessons (16%).

(5) A variety of teaching aids were utilised, with relative preference being shown for OHT's (23%) and worksheets 22%).

(6) Principal materials used included TE Whole Text (48%) and NO notes or summary points (25%).

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DISCOURSE PARAMETER TOTALS FOR ALL LESSONS/ALL PHASES

Transact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	710	BID	3	D4	399	--	491	O	276	TE	580
T+C	239	DIR	116	TA	361	CA	264	W	266	NO	300
T+1	144	NFC	39	IN	81	KH	196	X	184	TE-QU	97
1+T	81	NOM	20	CO	78	LA	190	B	182	--	92
T>1	17	RFC	23	D5	72	KO	63	-	142	PS	48
1>C	11	ACT	0	D2	68	LB	11	W-E	104	DG	41
C+T	9	CLA	27	P1	49	CB	0	E	61	TX	27
T>4	2	COM	28	--	45	UT	0	A	0	QU	23
T+4	2	COR	4	D1	37	UG	0	C	0	TE-NO	7
T>2	0	DEF	3	D3	11	KS	0	K	0	DI	0
T+2	0	DET	96	BA	10		1215	T	0	FE	0
1>T	0	HYP	2	TH	2			V	0	NU	0
C>T	0	ILL	39	OT	2			W-B	0	RE	0
4>C	0	MET	6	P2	0			W-C	0	RP	0
	1215	NOR	6	P3	0			W-O	0	SO	0
		PET	13	P4	0			W-T	0	ST	0
		REC	20	S1	0			C-O	0	TS	0
		RET	2	S4	0			T-X	0	VI	0
		RNG	17	SE	0				1215	WO	0
		RSL	13	SC	0					TE-DE	0
		RUL	1	GA	0					DI-QU	0
		RSN	35	GE	0					SO-QU	0
		STA	38	GF	0					TX-QU	0
		SUM	30	GM	0						1215
		REP	59	GR	0						
		RPH	69	GT	0						
		INC	45	VM	0						
		PHA	80	VU	0						
		CLQ	3	VE	0						
		ELI	51	SP	0						
		EXQ	17	PR	0						
		EXS	0	PU	0						
		LIQ	29	BE	0						
		PRO	13		1215						
		PRT	38								
		RQU	4								
		ACC	47								
		ACK	3								
		CON	41								
		DIS	2								
		ECH	18								
		NOC	5								
		NON	1								
		PAR	7								
		PEA	0								
		RAN	13								
		REA	8								
		RES	81								
			1215								

Fig. 76 Discourse parameter totals for
all lessons/all phases (Alice)

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A.3 TEACHING SCHEMATA

The following findings arising out of the textual material have been grouped under the schemata and dimensions as noted in Steps (7) and (8) on page 167.

A.3.1 PUPILS

Alice was teaching one of the schools better classes for English.

> I'm very happy with that class. I just hope I keep up with them. [INB-702]

This positive view was maintained right through teaching practice. She felt challenged and enthusiastic at having a bright class with which she could do processing writing. She also highlighted the differences between the weaker pupils she taught during PE and the ones in her class for the practicum.

A.3.1.1 Pupil Learning

Teacher satisfaction depended to a large extent on whether pupils were able to learn from lessons. She especially valued the growing pupil acceptance of her lessons. She mentioned moments when she watched pupils carry out a task with concentration or observed that they could fill in the peer editing worksheets as directed. [INC-289] She especially valued signs that pupils remembered previous lessons:

> Really feel good about if they learn anything from a previous lesson and use it in another lesson and try to apply it, because some of them are doing that already, like trying to apply the previous lessons and some of them have questions, that are even challenging to myself. They are taking in the lesson. [INB-594]

Whilst she appreciated those who co-operated with her [INC-406], she was also aware of others that were less motivated. She felt it was the teacher's role to try and change this attitude towards work:

> Two things about human beings: either you change their attitude, and then their behaviour changes, or you change their behaviour and then they see the point and their attitude changes. Sometimes we just must force a person to do something because we, so easily get hooked into our own habits, and our points of view, we're very stubborn. [INC-3235]

She made two points about pupil learning. One, was the need to estimate pupil prior knowledge and interests, and two the need to begin teaching from there rather then starting from scratch. [INB-864] [INB-059]. She mentioned the input and practice phases of learning.

> I discovered there are two phases, one is just absorbing the concept, understanding what we're talking about or what the lesson is about; the other phase is the application phase, and, so I feel that when you teach after that, you can't expect them to apply straight away, they might be dealing with it subconsciously or whatever, the thing is to diagnose it from their writing, their output, and then plan for reinforcement lessons. [INB-607]

As TP progressed, she became aware that different pupils would connect with different aspects of the teaching process and she came to view the anticipation of such moments as a personal challenge:

> There's different points of a lesson, different points of a unit, different points of your relationship with a student, the people in the class, that they will switch on the motivation pattern, cause different people kind of switch on their motivation pattern with me at different points, at different times. One is when they really begin to recognise then they begin to respond in their work. It has to be meaningful and then you throw yourself into it and you're passionately involved in it, and that's where they begin to value it, and then the output, the quality will just improve by itself. This is also ideal, but if you know them well enough you can say, like, well the previous composition, you had good points in this and, for this, you managed well in this, but then what happens, your grammar. [INC-2683]

A.3.1.2 Pupil Attitude
She felt that pupils had preconceived ideas of how teachers should act and also how the teacher should approach the lesson.

> I think predictable is linked very much with expectations of the kids. Things like, whether you keep your word. They will look out for these things. [INC-244]

> They will want to look for something predictable. On their past, their previous teacher, teachers. That's why every time when you have a new teacher coming in the class they will size you up! Because while that is going on, it's a ping-pong game, and the whole class is watching to see who is winning. Firmness often comes through in how convincing you can be. It goes through with your lessons. Like process writing, it was quite a hard time at the beginning because they were saying that... I knew who I was dealing with, because I'm anticipating the audience, they will say, "This is

so ridiculous. It's not practical. How are we going to write this whole thing out, this is hopeless during exams!" So I was telling them that I benefited from it and I only got to know process writing later and I regret, that it wasn't in our education system at that time, yet. And I said, "You're starting at Sec. 2. At first fact some of you don't do it because you find it's time consuming, but later on, if you keep doing it in Sec. 2, Sec. 3, Sec. 4, by the time you sit for O-levels the skill, using it will be second nature to you. You just have to give it a chance!" The thing is that in the explanation of trying to persuade them, you must be careful not to oversell it for your benefit, but in there, also insert your concern for the future. [INC-190]

She also noted that the class had its own culture, and any pupil who was too ready to volunteer answers would be considered "teachers pet" [INC-3600]. However she did feel that they gradually thawed towards her and found more opportunities to consult her:

> I feel now they're consulting me more because last time I could have more time in between to be alone or to walk around in silence, but now, you know, it's easier, I walk around and they ask for help. [POSD-140]

A.3.1.3 Pupil Behaviour
There was no discussion of this aspect because it was a well-behaved and co-operative class. Even homework was always handed in on time.

A.3.1.4 Pupil Point of View
One concern was that the pupils prioritised their content subjects:

> They don't feel that language learning is important until the last minute, because last minute work is when they feel that that's going to make or break them. [INC-2554]

Pupils at first resisted her process writing approach for they considered that they did not need to put effort into language lessons during term time:

> They always feel that it's a waste of time, doing like pre-writing and editing because time to be used for other subjects, They don't see, the practice, and one guy, he said, something about, "I thought I was wasting my time writing my first draft because when I write my second draft it's a totally different story." I was reading this thing from the library, a teacher said that, she turned the whole thing around by rewarding students by saying that the more untidy your first draft is, the better. I think it's a habit you have to break. [INC-2557]

She reiterated this concern about their perception of process writing and felt that she had to think about more ways of motivating them, especially since they saw little relevance for exams:

> From the feedback I got from them, pupils are still over anxious as to how they are going to do a first draft under examination conditions. This has seriously injured the credibility of process writing especially where writing the first draft is concerned. I want to think of a condensed version of conducting process writing during an examination and that pupils must get a hang of doing the first drafts in the classroom before they can actually do the condensed version during examination more effectively. Perhaps some results can convince the others of the importance of writing drafts. [PRAC-834]

She was somewhat taken aback that instead the class wanted more grammar lessons. This was something that she had not anticipated. Since they were a good class she had decided that they would not need any further language accuracy work but she could instead focus on developing their writing skills:

> From the feedback/evaluation questionnaire that I conducted, I discovered some of the pupils' concern about their grammar. They felt that there had been more than sufficient focus on composition writing, and that they would want some grammar drills! They cited that that was where they felt they were weak in. From this feedback, I should be more careful when planning my future Units - that I should have a balance of grammar too. [PRAC-786]

The other aspect that she felt she lacked an initial awareness of was that pupils "resentment" [INB-364] if she inadvertently covered language aspects that they were already familiar with. She realised the importance of checking what had been covered in the scheme of work for the previous year, to avoid this problem:

> I think HOW I like to know their prior knowledge would be an overview, maybe to get the scheme of work of the year before, or what they've covered, so you get an overview of the whole thing. What I'm doing here is each topic, like punctuation, then I go and find out what did they do last year. [INB-279]

Not only did she feel that she had to avoid boring them by covering what was already familiar, but also she had to gauge carefully how much time to spend on each activity.

I sense, every time when it's just a little bit too long time spent on just one activity they get restless. So you have to switch activities all the time and give them something new and they are very fast. [INB-330]

A.3.1.5 Approach to Pupils
She felt that all pupils could be motivated by the teacher:

You talk to them, and you find that when there's that small individual attention or those small moment, they begin to meet you more than half way. They are just waiting to be touched, recognised, looked at, encouraged. And I have some of them, just waiting to bloom and then I'm leaving! [POSD-171]

Her main concern in the second half of Teaching Practice was how to pitch her lessons to achieve a balance between not boring the fast students and not confusing the slower ones [PRED-201], [INC-1203]. She found that the most effective way of coping with this dilemma was to use worksheet-based group work which enabled her to leave the fast ones to fend for themselves whilst she sat with the weaker groups [INB-105]. Whilst they would not ask for help in front of the whole class, in a one-on-one or group situation even the timid ones were ready to consult her and ask for clarification:

The faster ones, they don't need you around, they are talking and they're so excited about the things, you leave them alone and that's fine... it's the weaker ones that need the attention. Actually, if you don't call them or you begin to go to one of the weak ones, the other weaker ones will start. They're very timid, and when you come down because they're sitting together, so when I come to one and you can feel that the rest also want the consultation, so after you've talked to one person and if it's a general thing and it's not too specific to him, you can just turn around and just talk to the rest and then all four get involved. [INC-2005]

Whilst she was satisfied with her rapport with the class, she was still coming to terms with the problem of keeping the fast as well as the slow pupils productive during his lessons:

I think the lesson that goes well for me now, the challenge would be where the bright boys sit up, as well as the slower ones, without leaving one or the other out. On the whole they're all a bright class, it's still mixed ability. [PRED-181]

A.3.2 SUBJECT

A.3.2.1 View of Language

She understood that communication is the basic focus of language teaching, and defined it as: "Expression of thoughts and ideas of one person to another person." [INB-579] Her pedagogical bias in language teaching was that understanding of different types of writing was important because "They're learning the tools, and how the tools can be used as vehicles for the expression." [INB-586] As a teacher, she had to " Relate subject to student's life, how to make it relevant. For Language it's to start with the real world and not to start with concepts or abstract things." [INC-3020]

A.3.2.2 Knowledge of Subject

Not only did she have a clear view of what she wanted to teach, but she was also knowledgeable and confident in the area she chose to concentrate on, namely writing:

> I like the composition aspect of English teaching and I feel secure with because of my experience with process writing at the varsity, and I believe that it can work. It worked for me, and I believe that it can work for someone if you start them off at Sec. 2. I got it only at the varsity, so it was very late. So if you start them off at Sec. 2, by the time they reach Sec 4 it will be second nature to them and then they can even go further. So, because of that I think I badly wanted process writing to work, for the kids and for myself. I think that is where you begin to naturally evaluate and then try to look for solutions. [INB-543]

> You just want to make the links because you're all prepared, because I read up a lot, a couple of books on narrative writing, and also being conscious of the audience and the projects I've done on writing. It has helped me quite a lot for narrative especially, and one of my major missions here is to make a clear distinction for them between descriptive and narrative. [PREA-261]

A.3.3 ENVIRONMENT

A.3.3.1 Staff

She was generally positive about the class, the school, and the two CT's assigned to her:

> I'm feeling pleased with myself with the class, and the context I'm in, because, well, I've got two CT's that are really on, and I've got this class, that I'm able to get the maximum output from, and the school. [PRED-323]

She enjoyed interacting with the other teachers in the staff lounge, at the end of the morning school:

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My CT finds moments to be friendly, and before 1:00 there's this crazy thing, everybody's doing business and doing photostating and very non-person, and there's a sigh in the lounge. And then after that, 1:00, it's a complete breakdown, the teacher's lounge goes mad, they laugh, they have food, and you sit and you see the whole thing... such a wonderful experience! [INC-1258]

She intended to avoid teachers who were no longer motivated and definitely did not want to become one herself: "A teacher that just goes in and becomes mechanical." [INC-1366]

They become tired teachers and they're not motivated by their own analysis and thinking and feedback and making changes to their lesson plans; they're not alive teachers and that's where they just go through the routine. [INC-544]

She did not have any views on the Principal and little contact with him, so she continued to express vague fears of the Principal's power, especially if in her first permanent job she got a Principal who did not listen to reason. [INC-1053]

A.3.3.2 Co-operating Teacher (CT)

She was extremely happy with her CT because she supported her ideas and gave her tips based on her experience. She considered her very serious about her teaching and this impressed her. [INC-1411] [PRED-162]

Mrs. X is a very thinking person. Now, she's still thinking, and there's some teachers that, I have gone to see who talk about the pupils or the kind of personality in the class, but not about lessons. Because I'm doing that area, lesson planning I don't see people teachers talking about it. At first I was wondering that, are they that experienced that they don't have to discuss it at all? [PRED-348]

She especially appreciated the time the CT spent with her brainstorming and reacting to her ideas at the lesson planning stage.

She had given me very invaluable advice during my lesson planning. She could also tell me her perceptions of the class and what activities would get them going and how to execute. In future, I would want to look out for such a teacher in a staff room as discussing lesson plans with a teacher helps me to stay alive and inspired - input for the new teacher - a necessity. [PRAC-849]

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She enjoyed her interaction with an experienced teacher who was willing to spend time with her:

> Exciting when I could interact with teachers, and begin to begin to see that what I have in my mind, or what I'm considering it's in brief I'm going on the right track, because she's also thinking about those things and similar concerns, or I might have some ideas but it's not really clear but she's already thought about that and already had some... it's not DIRECT you see, it's like when I was planning lessons. [INC-3787]

> You see, because she's modest also and humble, she underplays herself. But not all the time, there's a balance. Sometimes you can see she's balancing a lot of things, like sometimes she's firm and sometimes she's challenging with the lesson plans. She comes from the experience and she flags out from her experience to teach you and she's also tactful. She evaluates herself too. So she's very open with me. It was a nice balance of challenge and keeping me on my toes. [INC-1223]

The CT not only fine-tuned her planning, but also made her aware of the need for balancing the needs of fast and slow pupils in her class. Once the CT had raised her awareness of this issue, it became the main focus of concern in the second half of Teaching Practice, and spurred her on to re-examine the effectiveness, not only of her lesson plans, but also of the lesson presentation and the quality of the materials she was utilising.

> A shared, kind of tacit kind of thing, looking out for something, but she's ahead because she's got the solution as well, intact with the whole thing. Now, I like that idea, I like that unit, but what I also pick up, I glean from her, is her ability to exploit on what is already there, or what she's already built, so it's very thinking on the feet. So, for me the growth there, that's because of all this because I'm beginning to see how this experienced teacher is still working, still alive, the mind is still ticking. [INC-3804]

> Mrs. X also was questioning me and helping me along especially being more sensitive to slower students in the class. There are faster students that can go along with my lesson. Then there're also a few slower ones that seem to be one step behind, and I became aware of them when I went around facilitating. [PRED-104]

A.3.3.3 School Requirements

She had no problems with either carrying out the school scheme of work or preparing pupils for the tests such as vocabulary and book quizzes [INB-465] [INB-396] [INB-499].

Also, since her CT was doing process writing with the class, she was able to continue with her main interest area:

> That's why I'm given a chance with the process writing if you persist with it, 10 weeks with them, but I can see that if I persist with them you can go somewhere. [INC-579]

> She did process writing so when I was doing process writing she was encouraging it. [INC-593]

With a good class and a positive CT, she did not encounter problems in using the Scheme of Work and was in fact encouraged to adapt it to suit her process writing focus.

> School scheme of work, comprehension, they have to do two a month, and composition not so that part they leave very much to us. Mrs. X says that the school IS doing process writing so they understand the periods given to them for the first draft, second draft, that kind of thing, so they don't expect so many essays. [INB-417]

> For composition, they're doing process writing, whereas for the grammar part the scheme of work says since they're doing their descriptive writing, we just have to go through with them the different ways that adjectives are used. I followed the scheme of work, giving them those things like order of adjectives but today when I talked to Mrs. X she'd got another way of teaching adjectives. It's not the order of adjectives, but different ways adjectives are used in the sentence and she said she got it from Swan, so I have the book and I was thinking of going through it again. [INB-455]

She felt confident enough to use textbook comprehension passages as text models for narrative writing, and to cover the required textbook questions by setting them for homework. Therefore the teaching environment gave her enough flexibility to both meet school requirements and also implement her own approach.

> I chose this comprehension passage because they have to do a comprehension thing but then of course the questions are done at home. In class we have other lessons. But they're still covering the work. [PREA-316]

A.3.3.4 Constraints

Time Management

She mentioned two concerns. One was to better organise her teaching resources to save time [INC-810], and secondly, to optimise each 35 minute teaching period. [INC-726].

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She came to realise the inadequacy of covering a lot of ground versus ensuring that the pupils learnt something:

> I have the tendency to pack in too much work in a period. Mrs. X has made me aware of this. She had said that rushing through so much in a lesson, you might end up with quantity but not quality work. [PRAC-813]

> Also when there's no time and you just want to teach them the fastest to get something across, but it might not necessarily be the most effective. [INB-818]

Over and over again she criticised herself for rushing through a lesson [INB-116] [INC-710] [PRAC-573].

Time Constraints

She mentioned three main results of trying to pack too much into a lesson. Firstly, she worried about the pace of lessons and the amount she had to cover. Even though she knew that eliciting was "one of the best methods for teaching" [INB-089], she found herself reverting to teacher monologue to cover ground:

> This usually happens when I underestimate the potential of my lesson plan and I wrongly anticipate the response level. I then plan more activities. During execution, I realised that the pupils are taking too long for this activity and I become impatient to want to move on, not realising that the they are genuinely participating in the activity and that it is taking more time than expected, but that it is not going to waste. I hope more experience would help me solve this one! [PRAC-805]

> I decided to do the eliciting bit, but when I did it halfway and I felt TIME was behind me so I just went into telling. [INB-085]

Secondly, she felt that she was not giving pupils enough time for discussion during group work [PRAC-580]. An aspect of this was that she felt that she did not include enough time for responding to pupil ideas and to exploring aspects as they arose during the lesson:

> Sometimes I find myself rushing through a planned lesson and missing the opportunity to develop on some good points coming out from the pupils themselves. Sometimes realising it in retrospect is not enough, as the moment is already gone. [PRAC-801]

Finally, she had difficulty in balancing class versus individual needs due to time constraints:

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> I find that when I attend to individual needs, I tend to get carried away. I realise it, and I say, okay, you have three minutes, and here I go, just attending to one is almost like tuition days again and then I have to get back to the class, and suddenly the next 35 pupils come into focus. [INB-124]

Personal View of Time as Challenge

She had a very realistic but positive attitude to the problems of time in a teacher's life:

> I think all teachers dream, teachers live for the time when they have no more books on their desk... but it will never come. So I've given up looking for that moment. [INC-743]

> Because when you're passionate about things and you want things done, you need the time and the space to do it. And energy begets energy, for me. [INC-834]

A.3.4 TEACHING APPROACH

A.3.4.1 Unit Planning

As teaching practice progressed Alice became more confident with unit planning. She became aware of the necessity for not just preparing from the point of view of what she wanted to cover but also starting from pupil prior knowledge; [INB-234] and the need for detailed planning:

> And I realised later, that that's quite a complex thing; you really have to plan step by step, or not, the whole thing can go into chaos. [INB-422]

> It's no more only looking for the induction in the lesson, and the climax in the lesson only, but the induction to the unit as a whole module. Because when I was doing the stereotypes, you feel the whole packet, and you see you can do a lot with that. [INC-1115]

> When I'm happy with it, it's easier to organise it, it's easier to improve it. [INC-1131]

All the units were based on writing goals. The reading lessons were used for modelling text inputs for writing and were followed by peer editing sessions. Little emphasis was placed on developing reading or listening skills per se. Grammar lessons were included in response to class requests only at the end of the practicum. Vocabulary coverage arose separately as required by the school test and the need for pupils to learn the lists of words handed out by the school in preparation for the test.

Alice was able to articulate in vivid detail her unit plans for letter writing, descriptive and narrative writing. Each unit was linked to developing some aspect of the writing types in the school scheme of work. Two such excerpts dealing first with the letter writing unit and later a much more ambitious story telling unit are quoted here to illustrate her growing command and sense of achievement in developing her approach to integrating units of work.

> For the unit plan we are doing formal letter writing. And the grammar is punctuation. I managed to find, in the textbook, a comprehension passage on an informal letter, um, someone who visited the Alcatraz Prison and he wrote back to his friend. I thought that was a good start because I found out from my class, and from the CT, that they'd been doing informal letter writing the whole last year. So they're making the transition to formal writing. So I thought that it's was good to start with that, as a kind of revision. [INB-020]

> For me now the language teaching, I've been trying to tie it back to composition. I told them that it's up to them like order of adjectives if they want to use this, want to experiment in their writing. So after teaching it because it's a composition unit, I tried to link it back to challenging them to writing it in their first drafts, and even the comprehension... because I'm so lucky this time because the comprehension passage is not only about childhood but it's descriptive writing so they were reading it, after that I read the first paragraph and, I told them to look at how it opens up, and look how it plays on the curiosity in the reader's mind. It helps your writing skills also. It's the integration that I'm getting excited about. It's not a discrete unit on its own, because in that way, if you help them link it, then the rest they can do it at home on their own. It's just to make those links for them, and that it's not one lesson on its own, and it's wasted because they go through so much compartmentalisation already. I like the linking factors. In this unit I'm feeling quite excited about it because everything seemed to fall into place, but I don't know how lucky I'm going to be next time! But even planning the unit, I do see the point of what you're saying about integrating, it's just having to look for the materials and it's like what my CT told me the challenge to your creativity is how much you exploit the textbook for your lessons, lesson objectives. [INB-532]

> I have managed to integrate three language components in a single classroom activity that lasts over a period of time - STORY-TELLING. Since the unit was narrative composition, I planned for a mini-story telling competition. Each pupil had to tell a story in front of the class. After an input session on exposition, suspense, climax, resolution and conclusion, I got a few pupils to tell their stories (a few per period). This on-going activity would help give some form of relief (or change of activity) in the English Language classroom. [PRAC-626]

This activity gave me the opportunity to highlight points for writing a plot for the narrative composition. At the same time, it gave me the opportunity to assess pupils' oratorical abilities. On the other hand, pupils get oral and listening practice which are important components in language learning. And the macro-purpose of COMMUNICATION in English language learning is also embedded. After several stories were told, I began to experiment (improvised) the lesson for variety. I stopped a story at a cliff-hanger point and invited two other pupils to continue the story. Then later asked the original story-teller to continue. This became a prediction exercise, and the pupils were not only eager to try ending the stories, but were later all ears to see how close or far away their guesses were. [PRAC-641]

A.3.4.2 Lesson Objectives

Lesson objectives were framed in terms of writing goals and ranged from broad aims of writing a descriptive composition about childhood [INB-028] to covering aspects of text structuring such as formal letter organisation [PREA-001] plot development [PRAC-050] [PRAC-168] [PRAC-284] or focusing of peer editing skills [INB-014]

A.3.4.3 Planning Approach

Her aim in planning was to structure lessons in such a was as to lead pupils through a learning experience in manageable 'chunks':

> I like to have a skeleton like, getting from A to C. The chunking, the breaking down, so it's more digestible. And that is where I find you can vary, depending on the ability of the class. The challenge is picking out of ideas of how to chunk it, because there you have to consider how to chunk it properly so that it makes sense, then how to chunk it in such a way that it's creative and imaginative so that they will participate in it. [INC-2142]

She was able to visualise in detail her presentations, including anticipating pupil reactions and learning needs. She emphasised the importance of considering prior school work and also explaining the reasons for conventions such as letter format features because she considered that this would enable pupils to retain the knowledge for future use. [INB-047] [INB-065] When discussing the utilisation of textbook comprehension passages as models for writing [PREA-284]; ways of exploiting the learning from pupil story telling in class [PREA-148]; or facilitating peer editing [PRED-005] [PRED-055] [INB-167] [INB-315] [INB-332] [INB-339] [INB-469] she was able to articulate how she was structuring her lessons to enable pupils not only to understand but also remember the strategies that she was introducing. An example to illustrate this is included below:

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When I start on Wednesday I'll tie up to Wednesday itself, and then we'll turn to the passage itself, the comprehension passage itself, which is in their book. It's called "Run or Fight". It's about a farmer meeting with a tigress and how he had to defend his family. So I've analysed the whole passage for all the points but what I'm going to do is not to tell them this. Because it's really fun, analysing the whole passage, it's like practical training, as well, I've got everything in there. But now is to prevent myself from just telling them. [PREC-168]

After they finish reading, I'll ask them for general reactions to the story. And I'll write it on the blackboard, some interesting points because I'll come back to it. I'll have to achieve three things. One is to see if they remember the salient points of past lessons on this narrative compositions that I have been doing with them, so I'm going to elicit and it's a kind of reinforcement session. The story that I've picked up here, the comprehension one, is 3rd person narrative. So I'll introduce the concept cause I have this OHT that I've made, that shows very clearly what is the 1st person narrative, 2nd person and 3rd person narrative. And the third point is something about how aware is the writer of the audience and how he deals with it in the story. It will all be on the board already by this time, and I will then ask them to break into pairs and ask them to discuss and analyse this comprehension passage in terms of all the things that are on the board. Instead of a work sheet, it's on the board. Because I have to elicit from them, worksheets will encourage me to give it to them. So no more worksheets for the time being. And after this they will discuss and then I'll go around and facilitate. I'm giving them 20 minutes, because it's quite a lot. And then I'll select a few of them and give transparencies and OHT markers. [PREC-182]

The second period the activity changes and three story tellers will come out to tell the story. And I have to give them the worksheets so that they can evaluate those three story tellers. And then I have to do the same, elicit responses from them, after each story teller, and I hope to make some links between the model... the comprehension, whatever they come out with the comprehension. [PREC-236]

Her teaching approach was based on enabling pupils to participate in their own learning via structured tasks. The lesson presentations utilised OHTs to reinforce teacher explanations; and worksheets to provide the necessary guided practice to develop strategies. Alice's concerns on how to optimise this aspect of her teaching were evident throughout the first half of the practicum; for example use of OHT summaries [INB-065] [INB-098] [INB-286] and the use of handouts with task guidelines [INB-149] [INB-157] [INB-190] [INB-227] [INB-248]

Concepts and Strategies

Central to her planning was the lesson sequence; abstract concepts should be presented first and this should then be followed by practice based on worksheets and group tasks. The aim of this order was to help pupils internalise and to help them use the concepts independently. She particularly liked to present an overview of the concept in an mnemonic diagram, then explain it and then set the class tasks to practice using the facilitating diagram. This simple diagram would then also be used at the beginning of subsequent lessons as a mental activator to remind the class of what had been covered earlier. She referred to these as 'macro guidelines' and saw these triggers as a means of cutting down on dependence on the teacher. An example was the 'triangle' consisting of 'READER' 'WRITER' and 'SUBJECT'' which she utilised throughout the practicum as a means for highlighting the communicative purpose of all writing.

> This teacher response versus teacher telling them, is when you let them, you give them a kind of a macro guideline, and trust them with the activity. [INB-308]

> The triangle, I keep using it but for different purposes depending on what unit I'm doing. So that is being reinforced throughout the year. [INC-2127]

Her whole lesson approach was based on this learning sequence.

> After you get them to know the concepts first, make them feel assured that they know these concepts cause they can take some examples from their own experience and then focusing on through the lesson. And then what would your lesson sequence be, typically? How do you think about their learning? You've bridged and you've got them focused. What would you go on to next? [INB-032]

Her main teaching focus was writing and ways of teaching pupils writing strategies.

> You might have all the skills, you can pass, but it's not effective, but if you write strategically, it takes into account manipulation. [INB-636]

> That's why I rather they know why, and not learning by heart and reproducing it without knowing. They don't know the purpose, but once you tell them the purpose you get them to think. [INB-720]

> Strategies, after all this, get them to form certain opinion or a comment, and then maybe help them to think about how they want to communicate this comment or this opinion effectively. And then get them to discuss with their friends. [INB-040]

A follow up to the presentation of the concept would be the requisite practice to internalise it. The two main tasks were first before writing to analyse a model text [INB-603] and then to go over prewriting strategies and then after writing to do peer editing on each others' work. [INB-048] Discussion tasks of this nature featured in all her writing lessons during teaching practice.

As she developed more and more purposeful tasks along these lines she felt more and more committed to continuing the process writing approach in the future.

> I like to help students to relate their thoughts to another person through crystallising their thoughts on paper. You've got a good story to tell but once you tell it, it's gone, but what about preserving it on paper so that you can actually let other people read it. [INB-566]

> I found certain concrete solutions to and I can see where I can go with it, in terms of long term like Sec 2 they're doing this, then let's say if I teach in Sec 3 If you begin to see the whole future of what you're doing, that helps a lot, and then you become positive about how you can teach them. [INB-223]

> I hope to develop the process-writing experience that I started. I want to make it more guided and more feasible in Singapore classrooms. I want to help pupils see how it can benefit their writing. [PRAC-830]

A.3.4.4 Presentation Approach

As in the discussion of her lesson planning she was able to articulate cogently her approach and her growing awareness of certain patterns emerging in her teaching. She was not only able to describe her classroom behaviours but also her aims.

> In the openings I normally give all the announcements. It's always towards the end that you try to wrap up and finish off and then the bell goes and you can't give the announcements clearly. Depending on which part of the unit I'm at, summarising, normally what was done the last lesson, and also from the beginning of that unit. Get their mind focused. Explanations, I will give if it's a lesson like, peer editing, it's not a lesson where you try to elicit or get concepts but I think the explanations, the instructions, have to be clear, so they can work on and do the work. I quite like the question and answer in the beginning, also, because it kind of gives it some dramatic opening and then it sets the students trying to answer at the back of their mind throughout their lesson. [INC-2042]

> New concepts... too abstract a level to begin induction of lesson I think always beginning with more concrete example, or more familiar life instead.

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> Conceptual level, are things that maybe you even have to build them towards it instead, because... I'm also becoming conscious of what kind of lesson there was before mine, what happened to them in that lesson. [INC-1886]

She was aware that the middle parts of her lessons centred round groups or pairs of pupils working on handout guidelines - a case in point was during peer editing sessions.

> I find that if there's group activity or pair, it's always in the middle of the lesson. That's the kind of pattern. But with peer editing I realise I broke it, not consciously, but because I was planning it then, they know what it is already, so just come, read the... your friend's compo, individual work, then peer-edit, that's about five minutes into the lesson. That's earlier than normal. [INC-2255]

His lesson endings were pragmatic:

> Instructions, finishing. I think it's linked to the worksheets. It's finishing like summarising, ending up the lesson, and then after that explaining what they have to do further, things like peer-editing, and homework. [INC-2433]

Adjusting Plans

She became increasingly aware of the necessity for rethinking her lesson plans because of not initially considering 'the value of the activity', its learning effect or how the pupils would cope with it; or how much time they would take because of inadequate guidelines or difficulty of the conceptual. [POSD-043]

A variety of events were mentioned which led her to reflect on what the actual presentation entailed as opposed to lesson planning:

> I found out the mistake when the girl was asking "Where's the concluding sentence?" that my instructions were not clear because when I said "Look for the topic sentence." I assumed that it was all there. [INB-196]
>
> It's also the phrasing of it, the question, because sometimes it can be uninteresting or it can be too high-pitched; they don't understand the question, so they just keep quiet. Why do they react? When you're setting a question: is it interesting? [INB-788]

The challenge lay in being able to respond spontaneously to pupil ideas and to make adjustments to the lesson plan:

It's when it's class interaction, when you're facilitating the class, that's where you really have to be clear-eyed, so that you can help guide the whole thing. [INB-782]

As I went through the lesson I found that I had to make adjustments, because now I understand the importance of prior knowledge. I realised when I was revising it the revision was too long, they know already, so I could have moved on. [INB-004]

By the end of the practicum she was able to move onto discussing important issues such as the effect of lesson variety and ways of considering this in lesson planning.

Variety

She felt strongly that motivational aspects based on varying lessons were crucial and this appeared to arise out of personal memories of mechanical lessons she had experienced herself:

Lessons must have a kind of appeal. There are so few lessons that you really have to work at it. For one, there are two levels - one is the technicality aspect of the lesson like, whether it goes well, whether the transitions are... the other one is the appeal how you package it. You must have a structure, the box. It's like a production some technical and the artistic side, the appeal and how you sell to the public. Student friendly, so that they can make that jump, the gap is not too wide, and it's not too thin. You're concerned about whether it makes interesting learning for them, because when I went through as a student an interesting lesson, you'd be so GRATEFUL. [INC-1067]

She was not in favour of merely looking for the novel in every lesson but rather worked with the idea of 'breaking routines' every now and then to keep pupils involved.

You must have certain routines so that breaking will make it innovative, enjoyable, interesting. But you can't be breaking every time for you don't have anything established to break off from. But you have this routine, then sometimes breaking it can move away from the stereotype conditions and then, suddenly, you can use that. To change your strategy or see it a new way. [INB-196]

I caught one teacher saying well, but then you can't entertain them all the time, can you? So sometimes I think you should just do the mundane stuff so that later when you have this other nice things, it will stand out in terms of contrast. [INC-2244]

And breaking the rules becomes necessary because you're dealing with people, and different people have different needs, and different speeds. [INC-3058]

Flow

Lesson pace and 'flow' were also a major focus for self evaluation as illustrated by this journal entry:

> I like the structured flow of the lesson; concept transfer, reinforcing point, application of what is learnt in three stages -
> 1] identifying the elements learnt from an unseen passage
> 2] seeing if they can find these elements in their own work [if not, they know what is missing and to work on it]
> 3] after learning the responsibility and skills of editing (the what and how to edit), they go on to edit their partner's work - the purpose editing makes them more aware of themselves as writers - in the long run [PRAC-502]

The way to ensure that the lesson flowed smoothly was to rehearse and visualise the presentation:

> Actually because going through my mental rehearsals I already know the parts where I'm not clear. So writing it out will make it clearer and then the lesson will flow better. [INB-046]

> I felt very good about that because I felt the flow, and then the conclusion and this I did on mental rehearsal I said to myself it will show, (unmasking OHT) so I folded this to slide it down, and then I tried the next one and I slide it down, and when it came here, this part could be seen, so I need to cover this if I want to elicit. So I found the mental rehearsal very helpful because when you go through it then you encounter this problem and these problems can be avoided before class. [INB-156]

> I study the OHT so when I take out the OHT (in class) the whole memory thing came back. [INB-083]

Pace

She became more and more concerned with maintaining the pace of her lessons after initial lessons which reverted to teacher monologue because of various instances of repairs. She became more analytical of presentation aspects that could affect the pace.

> I still am quite worried about pace. The time spent on each segment... is it proportionate or is it justified? My instructions, whether they are clear, because every time when I get the students asking me again, I find my instructions are not clear. [INB-382]

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At this stage I'm not sure whether instructions are clear, and I whether I'm managing our time properly. Pace of lesson; I'm finding it so important nowadays, because the whole lesson can just fall into pieces. Pace is very important. [INB-364]

The pace was a bit slow. Why I thought the pace was slow, was I was took too long a time for the pair work. [POSA-175]

I encounter this in class when I start stammering and not sure about the transition. How am I going to make the jump? I remembered once, it was a fantastic idea from this point to that point, but the jump, I forgot how to make it! And that can be so crucial. And I that will affect the pace, you see. [INB-043]

It's very easy to always rely on the ones that will answer you because you want to keep the pace up. I didn't want to call on someone and then and then have to wait, but that is not really being a teacher because you do have to take care of people that need you to touch them during the lesson. [INC-1612]

But she was also critical of times when she had focused on lesson pace at the expense of taking time to make sure that the slower pupils had grasped the point of her teaching.

Check for feedback to see if learning has taken place. I think that's becoming important for me cause you can be very happy, teaching, teaching, rather than genuine concern about progress, the need to monitor, anticipate that their needs are met. Cause, it's always a temptation to jump in to save the situation, or save the pace and you don't allow them to think, you don't allow it to sink in. [INC-3126]

A.3.4.5 View of Methods

A.3.4.6 Changes in Perception of Concepts

	Changes in Perception of Elements			
	TGD1	TGD2	TGD3	TGD4	%chg
pair work	3.88	–	3.75	3.75	– 3
group work	3.63	–	3.88	3.50	– 3
class debate	3.38	–	3.63	3.75	+ 11
teacher talk	3.25	–	2.88	2.63	– 19
reading aloud	3.00	–	2.50	3.25	+ 8
tape recordings	3.13	–	3.88	3.63	+ 16
games/role play	3.00	–	3.38	3.75	+ 25
brainstorming	4.13	–	3.50	3.75	– 9
presentations	3.63	–	4.00	3.75	+ 3
textbook exercises	2.25	–	2.75	2.25	0
activity cards	2.00	–	3.88	3.88	+ 94
sitting tests	1.75	–	3.38	3.75	+ 114
silent reading	1.00	–	2.63	3.75	+ 275
writing compos	1.88	–	3.25	3.63	+ 93

grammar rules	1.00	-	2.50	2.88	+	188
project work	2.50	-	3.63	3.63	+	45
memorising words	1.00	-	2.75	2.88	+	188
pronunciation	1.00	-	2.38	2.88	+	188
sentence making	1.00	-	2.63	2.88	+	188

A number of extreme changes in perception took place over the course of the four grids, particularly with regard to SITTING TESTS, SILENT READING, GRAMMAR RULES, MEMORISING WORDS, PRONUNCIATION and SENTENCE MAKING. Most of these were originally rated at 1.00 (the pits!) across the board, but were perceived more favourably as time went on. One may surmise that the original ratings were a reflection of Alice's distaste for these exercises as a pupil; subsequently they were rated more favourably as Alice's outlook changed to that of a teacher.

Changes in Perception of Constructs

The constructs in Alice's fourth grid were very similar to the constructs of the original grid.

An ENJOYABLE lesson was construed to be an CHALLENGING one and, loosely clustered, an INNOVATIVE one and an INTERESTING one.

An EFFECTIVE lesson was most likely a MOTIVATING one.

An EASY lesson tended to be an ORDERLY one. The EASY/ORDERLY cluster was the most remote from the other constructs. This cluster remained consistent since the original grid.

Generally she did not discuss methods per se but in relation to her teaching approach and her goals for pupil learning. The following were some of the few points he made without a specific lesson context.

Diagnosis and Tests

> I see it as a doctor because like diagnosis, then that means it has to be prescription also you must say why, what's the illness, like, what treatment you've been giving. That's very important, because then, don't do anything to make them turn back to their old ways, because they're in a very delicate position. Because they are capable of better work, and you don't let them

fail, and if, you neglect, that causes them to even shut off and that's my responsibility. [INC-2017]

Sitting tests now I see as a responsibility of the teacher, the need to get feedback, to see how much they have absorbed, and how much you can apply, before you can go onto the next topic. [INB-240]

Sentence Making and Memorising Words

Sentence-making, memorising words I remember I started changing my feelings about them. Last time it was at the bottom but now I think sometimes it is necessary they're basic things, and sometimes you have to go through them and, in fact, if they know this basic stuff than you can do more intermediate lessons with them and that's where you can be creative. And well, I realised that although people always take that phase for granted, it's that knowing all the basics first and then once you know the basics you can improvise, but when you see it in retrospect you always forget to value the fact that, you went through quite a hard time learning the basics. [INC-2738]

View of Materials and Aids

Whilst initially positive about the usefulness of OHTs and the 'professional' image they lent her lesson presentations she grew to realise that she was becoming over reliant on one teaching aid and began to explore more and more the use of handouts to communicate the weight of her guidelines.

I find that when I need to show examples transparencies will save time, because it's all written, and writing on the board is the time-wasting element. But if it's on the paper already, you just have to use the pointer and highlight the things that you want to say. [INB-058]

I am pleased with my use of computer-generated transparencies in my presentation. It gives a professional touch to my teaching. With a neat presentation, I am saying to the pupils, "Look, I am doing my job and you meet me halfway." Of course, I have to follow up with them on that. [PRAC-001]

Secondly, the pupils should have no excuse to not take down notes because of a teacher's ugly or incomprehensible handwriting as everything is printed out. [PRAC-407]

The handling of transparencies, because transparencies are supposed to be as a teaching aid; it's not an end in itself. Because I've got this habit of doing the transparencies and then CLINGING onto it. So don't turn the whole lesson into a transparency lesson or transparency-dependent lesson. [INB-394]

What I was not happy about with my teaching was my overuse of transparencies. Like a security blanket I felt I kept going back to the OHT instead of confidently delivering my lesson. Mrs X reminded me that transparencies are after all teaching AIDS and not the lesson itself. [PRAC-450]

Worksheets

She viewed worksheets as effective support materials for her teaching.

Worksheets it helps as a guideline, they can do in class, class activities. They're actually aids, can help get knowledge out of a student, and I feel that it can be useful in a class, or if they bring it home as homework. [INB-249]

But I find that the worksheets help a lot, and your suggestion of how to break it down, so that each pair is occupied with different tasks, so that you can have variety instead of repetitious presentations to the class. Cause they do work at it, but what I have to work at is the worksheets themselves, to make the questions less vague or even, more focused. [INB-759]

If they are faster they read the instructions once through in the worksheet and they will know, but the slower ones after I've explained it and, let's say I go to the next point and they might have forgotten, they can refer to the worksheet, the instructions are still there. [PRED-115]

She switched to using OHTs for displaying summary points during her Clarification Phases rather than task instructions. She then explored the use of worksheets as guides for strategy development especially through the use of thinking questions by the completion of which the pupils would be able to internalise strategies that they could use for subsequent writing tasks. Her approach to worksheets evolved continuously through the practicum.

It's kind of developed from when I first started the peer editing, I found that they needed more things to provoke more thought from them, because now they've gotten used to this peer editing worksheet, so now maybe they can go further to elaborate on why they think there should be less description here and justify the symbols used, or when they are evaluating, instead of just putting it, now they have to be responsible for putting a symbol into their friend's book when they are editing. [PRED-099]

Worksheets provided cumulative practice as well as a record for pupils of the concepts and strategies that she was introducing. In an endeavour to make these as relevant as possible she went back to her course work readings, did extra library searches herself and kept on evolving her own theory practice linkages based on such reading. This mention of an

active search for ideas outside the immediate school materials and even course work was atypical of the case studies in this research.

> I have this reading here, which I just only read before you called. It's by Charles Bazerman, 'Writing Skills Handbook'. To give as a check list, very simple ones, like does the writing as a whole make sense, did I leave anything out. Should things be in a different order, should I build up or explain anything more, should I give more or better details and examples, should I leave out any part, can I write a stronger beginning or ending? What I can do is just give them a handout with these questions. So after that they read the handout, and then they go back to the essay, so they re-read the essay with these questions in mind. And that would take care of the content part of the lesson. And since it's a descriptive essay, is it vivid? I mean, do they get the picture? [INB-182]

> And then, I give my handout three, which is a plan sheet that I got from a book that I looked into, a Reader's Digest writing book. The plan sheet has (1) What is the primary purpose of my letter? (2) Is there a second purpose? (3) Who is my reader? (4) What do I want the reader to know or do? (5) Why? (6) How can the reader benefit? (7) Points to be covered in my letter. And (8) What approach should my letter take? There are a few suggested things here like complimentary or congratulatory, good news, what is a reader's problem, ask for help, appreciative, apologetic, ask question, arouse curiosity, sense of urgency, sympathetic, regretful, and they are to circle one or two of it. I saw the sheet, I was so happy. [INB-259]

Blackboard

Whilst she was positive about using handouts she mentioned also the pitfalls such as making pupils too passive and dependent on teacher prepared task materials.

> First I thought, why not a handout? Well, not a handout because I don't want them to be too complacent; everything is handout. [INB-121]

Worksheets and OHTs had the same drawback in that both restricted the possibility of exploring pupil ideas in a less directed and perhaps less constrained fashion. The blackboard should be resurrected as a more immediate and responsive way of reflecting discussion ideas.

> Using the blackboard... now I'm trying to explore another medium that... the blackboard can be very powerful, because as they say you're writing the points down, there's an evolutionary process going on, it's dynamic. Because in a way OHT's, they will feel that "Oh, the teacher has thought it all out and she's just been reading it, so I don't have to participate..." But whereas on the board, they would want to say something so you can see

how their ideas will affect the lesson, and this way you are letting go, actually. [INB-766]

A.3.4.7 Evaluation and Reflection

Attitude to Reflection
Self evaluation or reflection were key concerns throughout the practicum. She was negative about trainee teacher's passive approach to their teaching experience and especially the coursework.

> I can't understand but I know these people they don't reflect. I can only judge people from my standpoint, because for me the reflection part is something that I enjoy most because then it makes life really full, and where are you coming from, where are you going to. Some of them DO reflect, it's just that the reflection stops when they need a certain answer and the danger is that the answers can come from friends from the past and they reach an instant conclusion. So it reinforces for example to say you only learn theories in I.E. that stuck in my mind, because it's already said, and then all the more there I came to have the understanding if that's the case, what are you going to do about it? Are you going to just sit there? What can you do with a situation like that, and then I saw opportunities like micro-teaching where you can actually do small practices, I began to look out for things like this will help to prepare you, that's why the Pupil Experience also helps prepare you for Teaching Practice. [INC-3257]

As a teacher, reflection was crucial in understanding the effect of her behaviour on pupils.

> Why let the public criticise when you yourself can criticise it and work on it? So I begin to value criticism. My philosophy, I found an opportunity to integrate it with my teaching. That was subconsciously my worry - whether my life philosophy could be integrated into my teaching. Cause when you get your act together, with yourself and your teaching, then you feel more one. [INC-3854]

She was motivated to continue analysing her teaching because she felt encouraged to fine tune her teaching:

> The thing that prompts me forward is also the idea of small results along the way. [PRED-338]

Focus
The focus of her reflection can be organised into three clusters: evaluation of actual classroom events, insights gained from such experiences and a discussion of concerns that highlighted aspects that she had not as yet come to terms with.

Events

She noted repeatedly moments of confusion in her lessons when she felt that the instructions had not been sufficiently detailed [INB-524] [POSA-096] and so she had to go around making repairs during group work. But problems also arose when she failed to take into consideration that during peer editing the aspect she was highlighting might not be present in all the pupil compositions.

> What did not go well was one of my instructions. I had told the pupils to look out for the theme, the topic sentence, the supporting detail and concluding idea in their compositions presuming that they had these elements in their paragraphs. I should have told them more clearly that not all of them would have these elements in their paragraphs, and if not, then they had to work on them. I only realised this when one student, in an exasperated tone, complained to me that she could not find her concluding idea. That was because she didn't write one! [PRAC-518]

Another focus for reflection was the lesson pace which was affected by the over-long time taken for pair work [POSA-175] or when materials were not optimally exploiting. [POSA-115]

> I realise my missing the opportunity to exploit it for my lesson. Never mind. The next time, I need to know the potential of my teaching materials for a more productive lesson. [PRAC-531]

She found satisfaction when pupils showed unexpected improvement in their second draft [JOU-384] or she found ways of improving on the materials she was creating for the class. One example of such reflection appears in the journal entry below:

> I managed to improve on the past peer-editing worksheets for process-writing. I developed the system of editing symbols the pupils could use while editing their partner's work. However, I was not satisfied with them just using these symbols. I felt it would challenge the pupils' thinking if they were made to substantiate their comments/suggestions. So I made them write down the paragraph numbers in the worksheet, quote the symbols which they had used, and write a few lines on why they suggested "more information on the physical description" or "please re-express". I felt that in so doing, the pupils will be trained to rationalise their comments and begin to be responsible for them. This would train them to be constructive in their thinking instead of just depending on gut-level evaluation all the time. In training them to be better editors, hopefully they would encounter writing from another dimension, and that should, if all things go right, make them more effective writers. [PRAC-709]

Insights

When her lesson presentations fell short of her expectations she found insights into lesson dynamics and grew in her pedagogical awareness. Examples mentioned were how crucial clear teacher transitions between parts of lessons were in keeping the lesson on track and maintaining the pace [INB-043]; establishing a balance between teacher under-guidance which could result in pupil confusion and over-guidance which would make pupils too passive and dependent on the teacher [POSA-077]; the need to vary where she stood in the classroom during lessons so that she could maintain contact with a greater range of pupils. [PRAC-821]

It was also important to convince pupils of the usefulness of whatever they were asked to do and to be able to respond more naturally and spontaneously during teaching:

> YOU might know the value of it and you might do this activity, but I think the more permanent thing is to transmit the value of it in the long run, so once they believe in that value they can be quite independent, or not, you will still be selling it. That's why you have to always look after the moment where I can show them that can you do this on your own, or you have a trace of concern or you discuss it with someone, you need to discuss, you need to value discussing it. [INC-2802]

> Not afraid to admit that you were wrong, or modest enough to learn from them, to express that... I'm not saying to fake it, but sometimes we check ourselves so much that we cut off the spontaneity because, we cannot behave like that; but sometimes to get excited about their discoveries, is a sudden spontaneity, some kind of spontaneity you should express so that they know that you are also learning from them. [INC-479]

She also realised that she had to find ways of monitoring pupil learning and involvement during her teaching:

> Do not do the job for them. Don't underestimate them unless I wanted a bored class. [PRAC-549]

> But after you try for first time you say it might not sink in, so you might have to repeat it or you might even finally have to conference with him and see whether he gets what you're saying students can be that stubborn - they don't want to make any progress. It's very difficult, because you are not them at that age. [INC-436]

> It might be inspiring, but you must also stop to try to chat and get feedback whether there's learning that's taking place. It's inspiring because you begin

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to have an attitude... you begin to like the subject, because there MUST be some meaning, he's so excited. [INC-619]

She reflected on the importance of teacher feedback to individual pupils because this was a source of motivation for pupils to participate more in what the teacher was trying to effect. [INC-675]

> There's this grade, language and grammar that gives you the objective, marking over the whole class, but in my comments I always look into his personal progress from the first time I see his composition writing to today. So there's a horizontal and a vertical evaluation. [INC-412]

She described her teaching approach as follows:

> You can either make your progress in a horizontal manner or vertical, but I think the best is the cyclical, so that you cover the horizontal as well as doing the vertical. [INB-161]

> Like, progress that I always monitor in drama when I look for how much horizontal ground to cover and then move onto vertical. [INB-179]

Concerns

She felt that her strength lay in the way she planned her lessons but she was concerned about the effectiveness of her presentation:

> I think it's in the planning. The delivery I have to improve it. If there's too much planning then you'll be concerned about executing it. But instead, how to know what you really want in the back of your mind, and then to go into class and... [INB-729]

In the first part of the practicum her concerns focused on the clarity of her instructions, time management, lesson pace and the effective use of OHTs. [INB-364] But in the second half of the teaching practice her concerns shifted to less specific and more complex aspects: whether her lessons were relevant to pupils and whether they were learning from them:

> I'm trying to see myself if I'm alert to these things and catch onto these opportunities to make lessons more relevant to them and leave the lesson plan, or am I rushing to complete it. [PRED-142]

> It's challenging for me how to get a lesson going where they learn something as well as enjoy it. I find you don't have to do so much work, in that sense, let them do the work and then make use of their work to teach a

lesson. One is that it will be relevant for them because it's their own work and you do a lesson out of that, and I think it's more enjoyable. You have a certain proportion of school tedium and then some of them discovering, but with a class like that then you can reduce the proportion of school tedium and increase the proportion of discovery. If a class is good enough they will be bored with the mundane stuff, so you bring them out of the minimum requirement going to another area which is more challenging. They need to LEARN something, because they might be having fun but we need to see some feedback, we need to monitor. [INC-2594]

Whether, after I've left the classroom, did I leave them with anything? Or did I leave them worse off, or did I leave them the same as when I came in? [INC-1984]

Her aim was a learner-centred classroom:

I wanted the class atmosphere to be filled with their voices too, instead of just my voice all the time, so they hear each other they hear themselves - oral skills. [POSA-197]

The problem of teacher monologue [PREA-324] arose when reacting to pupils and the interactive lesson dynamics:

It's how to make the presentation polished. At the same time, having to be spontaneous and responding to the class when, it's rehearsed but at the same time having to improvise. That's where you fall into teacher monologue very easily. That's why it's quite a strain, before I go in, I find myself reading through, I think, it's like going on stage. [INB-483]

She noted the following in her journal:

What I need to watch out for is my tendency to get carried away with myself. I have this urge to share the interesting points with pupils. But during post conferencing, I was reminded that pupils study best through examples, and especially when they experience the learning process and discover things for themselves. I am convinced of this. [PRAC-461]

Therefore, for future lessons I plan to look for alternatives to teacher monologue/narrative where possible. Less of myself and more of the pupils in focus. The role of teacher-facilitator is something I should aim to try out during the rest of my teaching practice. [PRAC-466]

She was aware that the nature of her lesson evaluation changed in the second half of the practicum.

More things were coming in, and the first five weeks when I was applying things, I think what catapulted me further was the fact that I saw some

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results, and then it encourages you on, and that's why you want to develop. I find that I have to slow myself down, because when I was developing it I didn't realise that when I want to develop it, I did evaluate, because if I didn't evaluate I wouldn't know how to develop it, but like, let's slow down, the evaluation part. I was just breezing through. There's the post-conferencing and the actual thing about having to evaluate with the supervisor as well as the CT's then they sit down and they evaluate the lesson and you get it from their point of view and also from your point of view, and you see how things that you are not aware about, are not conscious about. You teach, you are not conscious about certain things because you are actually being active, so when you are sitting down and you are observing, then you begin to look out for certain things that are important in delivering a lesson. [INC-3608]

Reflection Moments

Usually she reflected on her teaching immediately after the lesson but there were also fleeting moments of reflection triggered by some association during lesson planning times or during conversations with other teachers.

After the lesson you evaluate everything, and after that, you're finished, and then you do the next day's lesson, and three days later, when you do a lesson, suddenly something reminds you of that lesson. So it takes some time, and then there's some similarity here in this lesson to tap, I didn't see that immediately after the lesson. [INC-2058]

For me, it's that sometimes I start reflecting immediately after the thing happens, but I'm still doing the lesson, but the thing goes on. After that it will reach a point. I put it aside and then continue, but it just goes on for example, like "Oh I shouldn't ask that question" - lock it up. Later on I'll catch up with it. You can't help that few seconds, because sometimes it just connects with something in the past. Then I have to write a word down somewhere. And that will trigger it again. [INC-3872]

When just sharing recipes, or talking about different ways you are also reflecting, because it's not just reflecting on the recipe per se, but you are also thinking about how this would go down with your class, with your kind of personality. So that's another reflection taking place again. So if you consider one side too much, your analysis will be very limiting, so I like to always see the other side, or playing the devil's advocate to yourself. Then it's good again, then, you know that you're predictable in that aspect, and how one day to use that and break it and then it will work, that's why it's always looking for all these moments to do this. It's a potential moment, you see, so even if it's predictable it has a potential for effect. I think only, your reflection will bring me to this kind of awareness, and it's for me very positive. It was CYCLICAL and it's like, in the awareness before it's over there's already a reflection, and in your reflection there's the action component, and in the reflection, before you can go to the action, there's

other awareness, then, after you do the action you have to come back from the awareness that came out from the reflection phase so I think it's also like the beginning, middle and end. It's process, that's the best way to learn by implementing. Then the reflection level takes place all the time. It takes a lot of effort... for me, it took some time. It's when you begin to value it, when you reflect on things and then you begin to pick out, where you realise that if you didn't give time to think about things and review and things, then you would never come to this kind of awareness and you rob yourself of it. [INC-3922]

A.3.5 VIEW OF TEACHING

A.3.5.1 Influences

Her teaching approach was dominated by what was most meaningful in her life, i.e., her involvement with people:

> Most of the things I do, even in drama or anything I am involved with, I just find it's very important to me, concern with and being people oriented. [INC-067]

In her dealings with people she felt that she had become more open to others points of view and this had allowed her to examine her teaching and to learn from her mistakes.

> If you do a mistake, FORGIVE yourself and forget it and just carry on, because then it's happening and you're harping on it in your mind, you won't be teaching well, and then the class will know that it's a mistake. So don't be so hard on yourself. If you take things personally that's where you become destructive. [INC-3988]

> I think I started to stop becoming defensive when I could accept human nature, when I could accept human limitations and human nature, because then you don't take things personally, you do see that you're a human being and you have this human nature and you know the weaknesses and you accept them for what they are because they are part and parcel of being human, so then it's not so bad, you see. Because other than that you just will take things personally. But that case, it may turn into an excuse, so you have to be aware of how to use that kind of thinking also. [INC-4072]

University and Teaching Training Year

Her writing interest arose out of the course on writing processes that she took as part of her undergraduate degree. She continued to reinforce this interest during her training year when she chose to do the library reading assignment also on the teaching of writing. [INC-3358]

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Co-operating Teacher

Her CT had a major influence on her exploration of process writing as well on the development of her teaching approach. See A.3.3.2 Co-operating Teacher

Crystallisation Process

She described her awareness of her changing perceptions and the crystallisation process during the practicum. She differed from the other case studies in commenting on how the practicum helped her to internalise and apply coursework theories.

> It's like, oh, it's so theoretical. But slowly, when you keep sharing that, repetition has an effect on the mind and then the easy way and the lazy way out is to agree and yeah, theory is so theoretical, and then it becomes an excuse. But I think for teaching practice it's made me see that process writing that if you believe in it and you fight for it and you put it into practice, you get involved, you have to believe in it, and then you get involved and you struggle for it and then it becomes possible. Not all the reasons to justify that it doesn't work. [INC-1448]

> The question and then the answers were there but I think... what was left out was integration, application to the real environment. I needed time to relate to the theories because I had the answers, but the answers were coming in the form of theories, so I needed time which Teaching Practice provided me. [INC-3161]

> What it gave me was the time to assimilate slowly and practice the idea of plotting a lesson the whole movement, to get the basics right, the introduction. We were plunged into Teaching Practice straightaway, we were at that stage of grappling with all these concepts and first two weeks of Teaching Practice were wasted. [INC-3181]

She also saw the change in her approach to lessons and unit preparation:

> I feel that this is where you already leave the lesson plans and your concerns aside a little and consider the people you are teaching and who they are, their backgrounds, their styles. And that might have an effect on how you plan a lesson. It's the other way around from when I first started because then I didn't know the class. So it's just me and my lesson plan and I come in... but now it seems it's the other way around. It's something dynamic. That's why I can't make my unit plans. I can't make it early. I just know what I'm going to teach. What's happening is that, what you need to do is in the back of your mind and what happens throughout the day with things and when you talk... it reacts with that thing in the back of your mind and it's subconscious. I like to know what I have to do early and then you can be resourceful. [POSA-060]

I think that was after I found the materials and I had fun piecing it [unit] together and it was from there that I became more confident about executing. I started with quite consolidated materials, I had some authority and I think you need to hear all these things, and confirm certain things, reinforce what I kind of learned at NUS. And then I did prewriting and so you begin to tell yourself what you believe in the views, the writers' beliefs. It kind of come together even though I think we grumble. It's just the human side of things. [INC-3370]

Teaching Practice is not really great, but when you start teaching then you realise that it's just you and you have had experience and then you face the students and the school and so you have to get together what you have, and I think that's where everything comes to a head. [INC-3245]

A.3.5.2 Beginning of Practicum

She mentioned her initial uncertainty in dealing with pupils and then her preoccupation with lesson planning without giving due attention to pupil learning needs:

I guess you feel always intimidated by what is mysterious or what you're not feeling sure about so when you go in and you know that you can control them or you can get their attention and you get them, they won't be your enemy. [INC-1383]

First five weeks, it was like... I must get my lesson plan right, you guys don't muck it up for me especially when I'm being observed! I don't tell them this, but it's all selfish concerns. [INC-010]

During the first five weeks she focused on coping with the new teaching situation. The 'turning point' came after the two week holiday break and this was the stage at which pupil learning needs really surfaced in her planning.

The turning point really actually took place after the two weeks break when I began to relax and felt why I'm here is because of them and then how about the slower ones, and she gave me some ideas she said put in the lines, and after that in the columns for the slower ones a separate worksheet and give the lines so that they can focus on the lines and from there they can pick it out so they won't get so lost in the activity, get so discouraged. Vary the tasks according to ability levels. When she said 'the slow ones' I knew who to give. [INC-025]

A.3.5.3 End of Practicum

She was able to articulate the changes that had taken place in her view of teaching:

I'm looking out for different things now, for example, you're looking out for how the lesson is moving, how the students are responding, and how

you can push your lesson through using what transpired. Well, I think you have to know the basics first because then you can value these things and then later on when it's more crystallised the elements become real to you. [INC-2342]

The lesson plan whereas it used to be a major concern in the first five weeks, now it's kind of like condensed. I find it's like building up stamina, and at that time you needed that much time to do the planning and that was a big concern, but now you shouldn't take very much time to do that. Then when you come in it has to be looking out for where the students are at, and this is what you need to learn at this point in time. There's only this much time, the application point, which of them do you think will not be struggling with it, and which of them need more attention. I think that becomes for me a new area of concern, so that you have to think of many things simultaneously, different treatment. [INC-2384]

The major change that she perceived in her teaching approach was the evolution of an awareness of pupil learning needs and how to try to address such needs:

There's more time for the students to do the worksheets, the individual thinking or interaction. I think the first viewing I talked a lot. Great, we've through that first phase, it's important to know how to deliver and so why not go to the other phase where you get students to think more, and I guess things were getting together and the second term is more thinking, I started to think more for the students. I began to know them so now you put a name to the face and then it's no more just pupils. You've seen their work, you've made comments and you've seen them react to you. You begin to want to make sure that they learn from you, and don't just use them for ten weeks and leave them. I was getting feedback, because in small groups they are more willing to talk than in a class, so the non-threatening situation is there. [INC-1731]

Start monitoring. I should be more specific with my questions. I'm evaluating more, not just things like transitions but things like questioning technique. I guess in contrast to when I was relief teaching, it was just questions that were not structured, or even the first five weeks of teaching practice they might not have been as structured. I think now it's becoming more a challenge for me, this questioning thing. If they understand then they have access to it, they can answer. The other one is: how to make a question interesting enough that they can't wait to answer, they WANT to answer it, I want to answer it! Now, that's the hard one. [INC-1835]

I was very interested in making lessons interesting, but I didn't know how. I knew questions were important, I can still remember, I still laugh at myself in the classroom when I would ask questions but I didn't know where I was going! But I knew I shouldn't be telling them! [INC-1678]

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Sometimes I give them a question, so, if I want to give them a chance first to think through and digest what you're saying, so that is thinking time and that has to be in the lesson planning. First few weeks of teaching practice, I was still planning lesson plans without thinking of thinking time. I think it's more or less it's a cumulative effect, it's like along the way you begin to realise more and more that you do need to give them that time to think or not, you rob them of the opportunity or you just answers the questions yourself. [INC-1565]

Pitch in the sense because last time I used to talk about it in isolation, or in just conceptual level. It was one of those things that was floating in my mind, and that's why it wasn't anchored enough to bring it out in the open. [INC-924]

A.3.5.4 **Final Perspective**

Balance

A theme that emerged in her data was that of BALANCE. She valued balance in all aspects of her life as well as her teaching. She admired this characteristics in her CT. [INC-1223] This was something she had had to strive to achieve in herself as well as in her teaching:

> In the past I was very paralysed when things didn't go well, very emotional, and upset easily, disillusioned easily, but it showed me very early in my life that it's okay, it's human to complain, it's human to indulge in moments of disillusionment and just to get it out of your system, and after that snap out of it. Balancing it. I've become more realistic with things, in the lesson planning and at the same time I think I'm made aware of the value of theories because teachers talk about theories in a very derogatory way. [INC-1433]

She expressed concern that as a teacher she had to balance the firm side with a more human face when dealing with her pupils. [INC-088] Teacher self control was an aspect of balance.

> You must have some sense of humour, don't get angry because I lose respect at people who get angry without any reason, because, like I was saying, there's my hang-up about knowledge because you don't know the full context, and then you get angry and later on you find out it wasn't called for, cause anger can be so damaging and destructive so it's more constructive and more effective if you can control that anger. They KNOW that you're angry, but it's under control, what you have to say to them, so that's more effective. You must have a balance, you must know where you are standing, where you are coming from. Besides that the attitude, the essence, the need to always evaluate. [INC-2996]

Balancing of the needs of fast and slow pupils emerged as a major goal as well as concern for her. [PRED-201] [POSD-010]. See A.3.1.5 Approach to Pupils

She also realised that she would have to establish a balance between concern and distance in her approach to pupils in order to survive as a teacher:

> I still want to keep a certain distance so that it can be used again, cause it's important. If you just keep praising them and all that then the class don't work any more and so I want to be approachable, but respected, I think that's important. Because students can abuse that and when you become vulnerable they can use that against you and so I don't want that to happen because I think it's so messy. I'm happier with some distancing but you still need to be approachable. You have to draw the line because that kind of thing is also good for them to learn for their interaction skills with people, so that they don't go overboard. She's [another teacher] finding trouble in a way because a lot of them come to her for counselling, but I have a critical opinion about that because I feel that when it comes to counselling you can really feel flattered. She's finding trouble having time to mark because they keep coming to her, but in the end you are at fault in a way. [INC-2948]

And finally this construct featured in her planning decisions for example balancing the lesson focus between content and organisation in peer editing [INB-014] and balancing equitably the time spent on various types of writing [INB-070].

Teacher Role
Her definition of the teaching role responsibilities was very clear.

> The professional must know your work well and you must see that learning takes place. That's very important for it can't be just fun throughout, they have to learn something from you. [INC-275]

She realised that many factors were involved in successful teaching. Idealism was tempered with realism.

> My concern about the kind of teacher I have to be but I also realise that a lot of things that can be in the way. [INC-865]

> Because being a teacher, you have to be in a way responsible not only as delivering skills but also now more and more parents are expecting the teachers look after the growing up of their kids. So you can drive a teacher crazy, you can dry a teacher up - responsible in so many areas, that's why I have to be cynic and sceptic with the system. I don't know how I am going to go with the system, that's what I am afraid of. [INC-986]

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Because you seem to face yourself in teaching, in a certain moment, but you can also refuse to see it. Then, it's all the time the students' fault, where they don't pay attention, when they don't do the work. Yeah, it's everybody's fault except yours! [INC-4010]

B.0 CASE STUDY #3 - NORA

Table of Contents

B.1 LESSON PLANNING

B.1.1 <u>Lesson Plan Coverage</u>

Nora taught her class six periods per week, including two double-period lessons. This amounted to a total of 40 lesson plans or 60 lessons during the ten-week period of the practicum. The number of lesson plans actually available for analysis was 35, as indicated on the table in Fig. 77 below.

As will be noted from the table, Nora appeared to have a strong bias toward the teaching of language. However this was a school requirement. In an endeavour to improve language fluency the school asked each English teacher to cover and test long lists of idioms, prepositions and phrasal verbs. This then accounts for the language category in her lesson plan corpus.

```
            Nora Lesson Plans
            No of     No of
            Plans     Periods           Comments
Language      17         18     1 double period, 16 single
Writing       11         16     5 double periods, 6 single
Reading        4          6     2 double periods, 2 single
Speaking       3          4     1 double period, 2 single
Corrections    -          4     4 single periods
Test           -          2     1 double period
MC             -          6     6 single periods
First Lesson   -          1     1 single period
Last Lesson    -          1     1 single period
Good Friday    -          1     1 single period
Pre-Holiday    -          1     1 single period
              35         60
```

Fig. 77   Summary of Nora Lesson Plans

For the four lessons which were observed by the researcher, she taught one lesson on prepositions, two reading comprehension lessons, and one pre-writing lesson.

B.1.2 <u>Lesson Goals</u>

Taking the lesson objectives as stated at the beginning of each lesson plan, the overall lesson goals were collected for each of the four types of lessons that she taught during TP: language, writing, reading, and speaking.

Language [17]

These goals were grouped under topics or concepts, e.g., for language lessons dealing with idioms, prepositions, phrasal nouns and the conditional. The goal appeared to be "to know" the meaning and then reinforce by using in sentences. These rather predictable, even mechanical, goals were evident because the worksheets were provided by the school in an endeavour to improve the idiomatic fluency of the pupils. All the items listed had to be covered for there was a periodic test for every class level.

```
Know x idioms [1],[4],[14],[18],[20],[22],[23],[26]
Use in forming sentences [1],[4],[18],[20],[23],[26]
Know how to use by writing a short story using 3 idioms [22]
Realise mistakes made in 5 idioms of last lesson [15]

Be able to use prepositions by forming sentences and filling
     blanks [5],[8],[9],[10],[11],[12]

Know meaning of phrasal verbs & make sentences [27],[28]
Learn more phrasal verbs in accordance with scheme of work
   [30],[31]

Understand concord rules and know how to apply them [33],[34]
Understand mistakes they made in compo & compre; know how to
     apply various concord rules [36],[37]
```

Writing [11]

Nora's approach to writing was first to focus on collecting ideas for writing, and then have the pupils write the first draft, after which she would have a peer editing lesson. The peer editing goals were left unspecified, and in class time pupils were merely asked to read and respond to each other's work.

```
Write first draft incorporating ideas discussed [6],[7],[13],
   [19],[22],[24],[25],[28],[29]

Edit partner's work [7,[8],[25],[26],[29],[30]
```

A switch to focusing on text features took place in the prewriting stage of the last unit.

```
Be aware of techniques in writing good narrative; logical
     sequence, plot development, first & third person usage
     & effects [31],[35]
Know skills of incorporating dialogue and writing concrete
     details [32]
```

Reading [4]

Reading lesson goals were merely to read the given passage and then answer the set questions. No skill development was incorporated.

```
Understand passage and be able to answer questions [2],[3]
```

One lesson did aim to help the pupils get better marks by analysing differing sources of information for the typical questions that the class was about to have to answer in the term test.

```
Acquire the skills of answering recall and inferential
    comprehension questions [21]
```

Here again, reading lessons were also a source of ideas for subsequent writing tasks.

```
Understand plight of hikers for composition next week [2]
Be able to describe their environment fluently and be
familiar with topic for writing descriptive composition on
their surroundings [10],[12]
```

Speaking [3]

Speaking lessons were mostly aimed at preparing the pupils for an inter-class debate at the end of Term 1.

```
Be able to brainstorm ideas for debate [16]
Be able to argue for or against in debate [17]
Be able to present debate & comment critically on arguments
    presented [18]
```

B.1.3 Focus Phase

Most of the Focus Phases occurred in the language and writing lessons because these were the predominant types of lesson taught by Nora. In the language lessons, there were 10 T>C phases and 6 T+C phases, where as most, i.e., 10 of the Focus Phases of writing lessons were T+C. Similarly, all the reading lesson Focus Phases were T+C. The speaking lesson ones were two instances of T>C because she used these phases to announce the debate and the debate topic. The T>C phases in the language lessons occurred when the teacher stressed the importance of certain grammatical items. Five lessons started with the teacher merely informing the class that they were doing idioms again. The T+C interaction occurred when she elicited earlier work from the class. This was also in the form of role play, mime, quizzes, and making stories using phrasal verbs. In writing, only 3 phases

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recalled what was done in earlier lessons; the others were used to elicit ideas and arouse interest for the following task. To sum up, in language lessons the Focus Phase was either used to cover the language concept or to create a context to illustrate the grammatical item. In the writing lessons this phase was used to motivate and create an opportunity for the class to respond to ideas for the coming task. As mentioned earlier, the speaking lessons merely announced the debate activity to be carried out.

The language lessons during the Focus Phase, apart from blackboard, did not utilise teaching aids. The writing lessons used the blackboard and OHT's equally, whereas the reading lesson Focus Phases utilised mostly OHT's.

	LANGUAGE
	Total 17
	  lessons
	Total 16
	  phases
	None in 2
	  lessons
		WRITING
		Total 11
		  lessons
		Total 12
		  phases
		None in 2
		  lessons
			READING
			Total 4
			  lessons
			Total 4 phases
			In all lessons
				SPEAKING
				Total 3
				  lessons
				Total 2 phases
				None in 1
				  lesson

INT	T>C 10 T+C 6	T+C 10 T>C 2	T+C 4	T>C 2

ASP	Recall idioms
	  (2)
	Elicit
	  definition
	Inform that
	  practising
	  idioms (5)
	Role play -
	  prepositions
	Elicit via
	  mime 1
	  questions 1
	Preposition
	  quiz
	Elicit stories
	  with
	  phrasal
	  verbs
	Importance of
	  concord in
	  writing (2)
	Comment on
		Arouse
		  interest (2)
		Elicit ideas
		  (2)
		Guess topic
		  (3)
		Recall last
		  lesson (3)
		Elicit
		  adjectives
		Introduce task
			Predict topic
			  from
			  title (2)
			  excerpt (1)
			  picture (1)
				Introduce
				  debate
				Write debate
				  topic on
				  blackboard

	concord errors			
AID	None (8) Blackboard (3) Handout (1) Script (1)	Blackboard (5) OHT cartoons (3) OHT (4) Tape (1)	OHT (3) Picture (1)	None (1) Blackboard (1)

Fig. 78   Focus Phase Statistical Description (Nora)

B.1.4 Clarify Phase

Only 5 out of the 23 Clarify Phases elicited ideas from the pupils. In the language lessons, the teacher explained pupil mistakes (10) or the use of a language item. In the writing lessons, there were only 5 phases and they dealt with the importance of including certain text features in the coming task. One phase highlighted writing problems and one gave background information to the film excerpt they were about to watch. The reading lesson Clarify Phases all reinforced the teaching point of the lesson.

The language lesson Clarify Phases were based on worksheets cum handouts (8), OHT's (7), and blackboard notes (5). The writing phases depended entirely on OHT's; and the reading lessons referred to the text being studied.

	LANGUAGE Total 17 lessons Total 14 phases None in 7 lessons	WRITING Total 11 lessons Total 5 phases None in 7 lessons	READING Total 4 lessons Total 4 phases None in 2 lessons	SPEAKING Total 3 lessons Total 0 phases
INT	T>C 13 T+C 1	T>C 3 T+C 2	T+C 2 T>C 2	
ASP	Highlight common mistakes (1) Explain mistakes (9) Explain meaning (3) Explain use	Importance of focus and detail (1) Description features (1) Problem of a abrupt endings (1)	Text mood (1) Check under- standing (1) Chinese Opera acting (1) Fact and opinion (1)	

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	(1)	Importance of detail and dialogue (1) Background to movie (1)		
AID	OHT (7) Worksheets (6) Blackboard (5) Handout (2)	OHT (4) None (1)	Text (2) OHT (1) None (1)	

Fig. 79 Clarify Phase Statistical Description (Nora)

B.1.5 Do Task Phase

The point to note here concerned the number of phases: 19 in the language lessons, 21 in the writing lessons, and 14 in the reading lessons. The language lesson interaction was mostly individual work (6), group work (8), or the teacher doing the work with the class (5). The writing lesson was to a large extent individual work (9) or pair work (6) and group work (5). The reading lesson had 8 instances of individuals reading the passage and 6 instances of individuals answering written questions. There were 2 instances of pupils reading aloud to the class. The rest of the action was quite varied, as can be seen in the table. The speaking lesson, as can be expected in a debate, was based on group work, both during the preparation and presentation of the debate.

The main type of task in the language lessons appeared to be making sentences (6) and making stories utilising the language item (3). In writing lessons, 12 of the 21 phases consisted of pupils writing drafts or peer editing each other's work. The rest of the activities were pre-writing tasks focusing on text structuring activities or brainstorming ideas. Six of the phases in the reading lessons consisted of answering written comprehension questions, and 4 reading aloud. Two were to identify titles and types of questions, and the rest were role play tasks based on the text.

Teaching aids for the language lesson phases were predominantly in the form of written handouts of exercises. For the writing lessons, it was basically composition book drafts or worksheet exercises, which prepared pupils for the final writing task. Other interesting

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materials which the teacher included were post cards, Chinese opera costumes, and film excerpts to make the tasks more interesting for the class. The reading lessons were based on texts, textbook passages, and handouts.

	LANGUAGE
	Total 17
	  lessons
	Total 19
	  phases
	None in 5
	  lessons
		WRITING
		Total 11
		  lessons
		Total 21
		  phases
		In all lessons
			READING
			Total 4
			  lessons
			Total 14
			  phases
			In all lessons
				SPEAKING
				Total 3
				  lessons
				Total 4 phases
				None in 1
				  lesson

INT	4 8 T+C 5 1 6	1 9 2 6 4 5 C+T 1	1 8 1>C 2 2>C 1 T+C 1 4 1 2 1	4 3 4+C 1

ASP	Story with
	  idioms (2)
	Match with
	  meaning (2)
	Make sentences
	  (6)
	Do worksheet
	  (1)
	Guess meaning
	  (2)
	Quiz (2)
	Story with
	  phrasal
	  verbs (1)
	Mark partner's
	  work from
	  OHT (3)
		Write first
		  draft (8)
		Peer edit (4)
		Write second
		  draft (1)
		Discuss task
		  (1)
		Fill in blanks
		  (1)
		Interview
		  teacher (1)
		Organise
		  letter (1)
		Complete
		  worksheet
		  (3)
		Rewrite story
		  (1)
			Read aloud (4)
			Answer compre
			  questions
			  (6)
			Prepare role
			  play (1)
			Decide title
			  (1)
			Describe sword
			  fight (1)
			Identify types
			  of questions
			  (1)
				Brainstorm (3)
				Debate (1)

AID	Workcards (4)
	OHT (7)
	Worksheet (5)
	Blackboard (2)
	Handout (3)
	Slips of paper
	  (1)
		Composition
		  books (11)
		Worksheet (5)
		OHT (2)
		Blackboard (1)
		Postcards (1)
		Opera costumes
		  (1)
		File excerpt
		  (1)
			Text (3)
			Textbook (3)
			Handout (3)
			OHT (2)
			Blackboard 91)
			Work cards (1)
			Swords (1)
				None (3)
				Worksheet (1)

		Paper & glue (1)		

Fig. 80 Do Task Phase Statistical Description (Nora)

B.1.6 Review Phase

There were noticeably fewer Review Phases than Do Task Phases in the writing and reading lessons because not all the tasks were followed up with class review, but rather with the teacher collecting the work to mark. These phases were predominantly T+C or 4>C group presentations. For the language lessons, 8 of the phases were used to go over work, 3 for pupils to mark their own work from OHT's, and 3 merely to survey what mistakes had been made by the class. In the writing there was an equal balance between going over work and groups presenting; whereas for the reading lesson it was mostly the teacher going over answers with the class.

For the language lessons, OHT's and worksheets were the main focus. In the case of writing lessons, it was mostly worksheets that were used during the review. These contained word and organisation exercises. The final drafts were marked by the teacher and therefore did not feature during the Review Phase.

	LANGUAGE
	Total 17
	  lessons
	Total 16
	  phases
	None in 3
	  lessons
		WRITING
		Total 11
		  lessons
		Total 8 phases
		None in 6
		  lessons
			READING
			Total 4
			  lessons
			Total 8 phases
			None in 1
			  lesson
				SPEAKING
				Total 3
				  lessons
				Total 4 phases
				In all lessons

INT	T+C 11 2 3 4>C 1 T>C 1	T+C 5 4>C 3	T+C 6 4>C 2	T+C 4

ASP	Go over work
	  (8)
	Mark each
	  other's
	  work from
	OHT
		Go over work
		  (4)
		Present work
		  (4)
			Go over work
			  (6)
			Present work
			  (2)
				Go over work
				  (3)
				Give feedback
				  (1)

(3)
Present work
  (2)
Survey of
  mistakes (3)			

AID	OHT (8) Worksheet (7) Blackboard (2) Test papers (1) Handout (1)	Worksheet (4) OHT (1) Blackboard (1) None (2)	Handout (3) OHT (2) Blackboard 91) Role play (1) Textbook (1)	Blackboard (3) Debate (1)

Fig. 81   Review Phase Statistical Description (Nora)

B.2 LESSON PRESENTATION

B.2.1 Overview of Speech Acts by Lessons and Phases

As demonstrated under planning, the four observed lessons that Nora taught were typical of the language coverage required by the school, i.e., covering language use exercises in the area of idioms, prepositions and phrasal verbs, as well as past reading comprehension common tests in preparation for the forthcoming test. Her last lesson on writing was the first unit that was not theme, but discourse based, i.e., it dealt with features of narrative writing as input for the composition. So one can not actually say that her video lessons were based on her personal biases in language teaching; rather, they were based on what her CT asked her to do.

An overview of speech acts by phases for the four observed lessons is as follows:

PHASES	LS1	LS2	LS3	LS4	TOTAL	%
FOCUS	21	52	45	132	250	10.4
CLARIFY	127	95	113	141	476	19.9
SET UP	28	26	129	82	265	11.1
FINISH	8	1	35	55	99	4.1
REVIEW	222	189	148	478	1037	43.2
Subtotal:	406	363	470	888	2127	88.7
INTERRUPTS						
REPAIR	-	-	-	29	29	1.2
ADVISE	11	6	-	13	30	1.3
CONTROL	16	21	2	26	65	2.7
INTERACT	16	6	15	110	147	6.1
Subtotal:	43	33	17	178	271	11.3
TOTAL:	449	396	487	1066	2398	100.0

Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase

Fig. 82 Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase

Although there was some variation in the amount of time utilised in terms of speech acts for a given phase in a given lesson (e.g., the inordinate amount of time given over to Focus and Review in lesson [4]) some general conclusions may be drawn from the above figures:

> (1) Planned phases of the lesson accounted for about 89% of total speech acts; unplanned Interrupts accounted for about 11%, of which a large part consisted of Nora's attempts to interact with the class.

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(2) The Focus Phase was relatively long during lesson [4] because she spent a long time introducing the context for the film, going over the story line and the characters.

(3) The amount of time spent on the Clarify Phase was fairly consistent throughout the four lessons.

(4) The Set Up Phase was relatively long during lesson [3] because Nora had to not only set up the role play for the beginning of the lesson but also the observation task for the class to carry out while watching the role play. Also she set up a number of additional short tasks during the lesson.

(5) The largest single component of the average lesson was the Review Phase, which took up about 43% of total speech acts. The amount of review was particularly long during the lesson [4] because Nora had an extremely long and detailed worksheet to accompany the viewing of the film excerpt.

(6) Relatively little interrupt time was spent by Nora on Repair, Advise, or Control Interrupts.

(7) A considerable amount of interrupt time (6.1%) was spent in informal interaction with the class. This arose out of Nora's strong desire to be liked by the class, and the conviction that a good relationship could be achieved by creating "fun" activities and relating to pupils on a personal basis. Note especially lesson [4], where she kept on eliciting a reaction from the class as to whether they were enjoying themselves or liked something.

B.2.2 Focus Phase

All Nora's Focus Phases were to set the context and somehow to motivate the class before the actual lesson began. The Focus Phase took up averagely 10.4% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

LESSON 1
  Announce focus
  Introduce role play
  Teachers do role play

LESSON 2
  Elicit picture (4x)
  Elicit where to find the food

LESSON 3
  Elicit topic prediction (3x)
  Announce focus

LESSON 4
  Announce focus (6x)
  Recap story features (5x)
  Teacher reads story (4x)
  Pupil reads story #2 (2x)
  Teacher reads dialogue (2x)
  Introduce characters
  Show picture of actors
  Give story synopsis

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Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR FOCUS PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	107	RES	23	CO	113	--	123	O	81	VI	89
T+1	54	RNG	20	D4	56	KO	82	-	56	NO	48
T+C	50	NOM	14	TA	27	LA	40	K	51	TE	38
1+T	19	DIR	13	D2	19	KS	4	B	41	--	24
C+T	11	ELI	12	IN	10	CA	1	W	21	D1	23
T+4	4	ACT	11	--	9		250		250	RP	18
T>1	2	MET	11	SC	7					FE	7
1>C	2	ACC	11	TH	4					WO	3
T>4	1	INC	10	BA	2						250
	250	PHA	10	OT	1						
		ECH	10	D1	1						
		OTH	105		250						
			250								

Fig. 83   Discourse Parameters for Focus Phase (Nora)

About 43% of the interaction was teacher-centred (T>C), with the bulk of the remaining interaction split between T+1 and T+C. Speech acts varied over a wide range, with teacher response (RES) and reading aloud (RNG) somewhat more predominant than other acts. Principal aspect focus (45%) was context for the lesson episode, followed by some degree (22%) of discussion related to text genre features (D4). No continuity was implicit in nearly 50% of the speech acts; about 33% were related in some way to pupil prior knowledge associated with other real world matters. About a third of the teaching aids was based on the use of OHT's; 45% was spread between books, blackboard, and worksheets. Consistent with the emphasis on OHT's as teaching aids, about 36% of materials consisted of visuals. Notes and text examples made up another third of materials use.

B.2.3 Clarify Phase

Clarification occurred only during the Review Phase, and usually was to explain reasons for right or wrong answers. The Clarify Phase took up averagely 19.9% of a typical lesson. So in fact most of Nora's clarifications were unplanned and in response to class problems. Phase segments were as follows:

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LESSON 1
  Illustrate right answer (5x)
  Explain reason for wrong answer
    (5x)
  Explain correct answer (2x)

LESSON 2
  Explain correct answer (8x)
  Explain why pupil answer
    rejected
  Explain how to get meaning
    from text

LESSON 3
  Explain reasons for right
    answer (5x)
  Illustrate approach to answer
    (4x)
  Explain type of question (2x)
  Summarise type of questions
    (2x)
  Summarise approach to questions

LESSON 4
  Highlight effective features
    (4x)
  Highlight limits of dialogue
    (3x)
  Summarise points so far (2x)
  Explain reasons for word choice
  Explain difference between
    columns (2x)
  Illustrate choice (2x)
  Reiterate difference

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR CLARIFY PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	321	COM	37	SC	149	KH	209	W	292	WO	189
T+C	70	RSN	34	GR	118	--	169	-	101	TE	181
T+1	37	CLA	28	TA	48	CA	98	O	83	--	58
T>1	17	ILL	28	D4	45		476		476	NO	24
C+T	16	INC	26	CO	33					TS	15
1+T	15	DIR	24	VU	32					D1	9
	476	ELI	23	--	26						476
		DET	22	VM	10						
		RPH	22	BA	7						
		STA	19	IN	6						
		REP	19	TH	2						
		RNG	16		476						
		OTH	178								
			476								

Fig. 84 Discourse Parameters for Clarify Phase (Nora)

As might be expected from the nature of clarification, the large preponderance of interaction (67%) was T>C. A wide range of speech acts were involved, with no predominant features worth mention. Two principal areas of aspect included comprehension questions (31%) and grammar rules (25%). Continuity was principally (44%) based on pupil prior knowledge associated with homework or other completed

work. The bulk of teaching aids (61%) constituted work sheets or handouts. Principal materials used comprised words (40%) and whole sections of text (38%).

B.2.4 Set Up Phase

The Set Up Phase took up averagely 11.1% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
Lesson 1                            Lesson 2
 Instructions for task (3x)          Turn over papers
 Direct to do task (2x)              Direct pairs to share work
                      .              Apportion questions by rows
                                     Direct to start


Lesson 3                            Lesson 4
 Direct to do task (5x)              Direct to do task (5x)
 Instructions for task (4x)          Instructions for task (4x)
 Direct to take out books            Set time (2x)
 Ask for 2 volunteers to dress       Ask to move so can see screen
  up                                 Direct pupil to join a pair
 Direct to comprehension text
 Apportion questions to rows
 Set time limit
```

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR SET UP PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	224	DIR	81	TA	209	--	216	W	106	TE	68
T>2	12	DET	26	CO	11	KH	43	-	73	--	43
C+T	8	RPH	16	OT	9	CA	5	O	46	D1	37
T+C	6	REP	15	SC	8	LA	1	X	38	RP	27
T+1	5	NOM	13	GF	7		265	V	2	QU	26
T>4	4	MET	13	--	7				265	ST	24
1+T	4	CLA	12	TH	5					WO	19
T>1	2	OTH	89	OTH	4					TS	15
	265		265		265					FE	6
											265

Fig. 85   Discourse Parameters for Set Up Phase (Nora)

As might be expected from the nature of setting up the task, the majority (85%) of interaction involved T>C. For similar reasons, the dominant type of speech act (31%) was associated with the teacher directing (DIR) the class. Also, the preponderance (79%) of aspect involved the task to be carried out. By the explicit nature of the Set Up Phase, there was relatively little in the way of continuity to other parts of the lesson. A large percentage

(40%) of teaching aids consisted of worksheets or handouts. A range of materials were used. of which the largest element (26%) comprised whole sections of text.

B.2.5 Finish Phase

Nora's Finish Phases become lengthy and messy when she underestimated the time needs for pupils to finish set tasks. She kept on announcing 'stop work' and then was persuaded to allow a little bit of extra time. This was really a feature of poor time management on her part. Finish Phases took up averagely 4.1% of the average lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                        LESSON 2
  Check if finished               Stop work
  Set homework                    Bell rings

LESSON 3                        LESSON 4
  Allow more time (2x)            Time warning (2x)
  Stop task                       Stop work (2x)
  Will finish review later        Announce end of film excerpt
  Collect work                    Check if finished
  Coming test instructions        Direct to finish last sentence
                                  Chorus reading of blackboard
                                    notes
                                  To bring worksheet next lesson
```

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR FINISH PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	73	DIR	24	TA	76	--	87	O	43	TE	49
T+C	12	ELI	9	D4	7	KH	9	-	19	--	22
C+T	6	RSN	7	--	5	CA	3	X	18	WO	8
T+1	3	REP	7	BE	4		99	W	13	TS	7
T>1	2	DET	6	IN	3			B	5	NO	5
T>2	1	INC	5	SC	2			V	1	ST	4
C>T	1	OTH	41	TH	2				99	RP	2
1+T	1		99		99					FE	1
	99									QU	1
											99

Fig. 86   Discourse Parameters for Finish Phase (Nora)

As might be expected from the nature of the Finish Phase, interaction was primarily (74%) T>C, and the principal speech act used (24%) involved the teacher giving directions

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(DIR). The main aspect (77%) was the task being finished. Like the Set Up Phase, there was little continuity with other parts of the lesson. Principal teaching aid (43%) was the OHT; principal material used was whole sections of text.

B.2.6 Review Phase

The Review Phase took up a lot of time (averagely 43.2% of a typical lesson) because Nora not only checked answers but also spent a lot of time surveying types of wrong answers and eliciting the reasons why they were wrong. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                               LESSON 2
 Elicit wrong answer (7x)               Elicit question answer (11x)
 Elicit preposition (4x)                Re-elicit word meaning (6x)
 Survey of hands for answers (3x)       Elicit reasons for answer (2x)
 Check whether prepositions             Locate word 'accessible'
 Elicit reason for answer


LESSON 3                               LESSON 4
 Elicit answer to question (8x)         Elicit word choice (15x)
 Elicit actor training and life         Elicit preference and reasons
  (2x)                                   (9x)
 Elicit description of fight            Probe for reasons (6x)
 Elicit if predicted correctly         Pupil reads story (4x)
 Elicit reasons                         Re-direct question (2x)
                                        Elicit which preferred
                                        Probe for negative aspects
```

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T+1	287	RES	129	SC	235	CA	656	W	572	TE	495
T+C	256	DIR	81	D4	212	KH	343	O	323	WO	369
T>C	225	NOM	78	VU	173	--	38	-	120	RP	94
1+T	127	ELI	69	GF	150		1037	X	22	TS	46
T>1	61	NFC	65	TA	104				1037	--	26
C+T	52	ACC	59	GR	51					D1	7
T>4	12	PRT	46	CO	32						1037
T+4	10	LIQ	40	--	23						
T>2	2	REP	39	D2	22						
1>C	2	ACK	37	OT	15						
1>T	1	NON	37	IN	12						
C>T	1	RPH	30	BA	3						
4>C	1	PRO	30	BE	3						
	1037	OTH	327	TH	2						
			1037		1037						

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR REVIEW PHASE

Fig. 87   Discourse Parameters
          for Review Phase

The Review Phase tended to be more T+C than other phases, with 40% of the interaction being between the teacher and individual pupils (T+1, 1+T) and 30% of the interaction being between the teacher and the class (T+C, C+T). Only 21% of the phase comprised T>C interaction. A wide range of speech acts was involved with, as might be expected, more emphasis (12%) on teacher responses (RES). Principal areas of aspect included comprehension questions (23%), text genre features (20%), vocabulary use (17%), and grammar forms (14%). As might be expected, the principal (63%) area of continuity related to the earlier part of the lesson, with most of the remainder (33%) related to pupil prior knowledge of homework or other completed work. Principal materials usage was split between whole sections of text (48%) and words (36%).

B.2.7 Repair Interrupt

The Repair Interrupt took up only 1.2% of a typical lesson, and therefore will not be listed in detail.

B.2.8 Advise Interrupt

The Advise Interrupt took up only 1.3% of a typical lesson, and therefore will not be listed in detail.

B.2.9 Control Interrupt

The control interrupt took up 2.7% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                         LESSON 2
  Attention (3)                    Sit (2)
  Homework not done (1)            Attention (1)
  Other (1)                        Homework not done (1)

LESSON 3                         LESSON 4
  Attention (2)                    Attention (5)
                                   Reprimand (4)
                                   Other (3)
                                   Stand (2)
```

B.2.10 Interact Interrupt

In line with Nora's tendency to personally inter-relate with the class, the Interact Interrupt was relatively large, compared to other case studies, amounting to averagely 6.1% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                        LESSON 2
  Interactive comment (4)         Interactive comment (3)
  Elicit reaction (1)

LESSON 3                        LESSON 4
  Interactive comment (4)         Elicit reaction (9)
  Elicit reaction (2)             Interactive comment (7)
  Praise (1)                      Praise (2)
                                  Respond to pupil (1)
```

B.2.11 Overview of Discourse Parameters for All Lessons/All Phases

Turning to speech acts in terms of speech act parameters, a summary of the totals is tabled in Fig. 88 on the following page. Some general conclusions can be drawn from these figures:

(1) In terms of interaction, about 46% of all speech acts were T>C. class. Other major categories of interaction included T+C (18%) and T+1 (17%). These three categories accounted for 81% of the total.

(2) A wide variety of speech act categories occurred, but as might be expected the largest single instances of these fell into the standard "teaching cycle" categories of DIR Direct (11%), RES Respond (8%), ELI Elicit (65%), NOM Pupil Nomination (5%), and REP Repeating (4%).

(3) Principal categories of Aspect related to TA Task (23%), SC Comprehension Questions (17%), D4 Text Genre Features (14%), and Vocabulary Use (9%).

(4) The three major areas of continuity included -- No Continuity (34%), CA Earlier Part of the Lesson (33%), and KH Pupil Prior Knowledge Related to Homework or Other Completed Work (27%)

(5) As regards Teaching Aids, Nora had a clear preference for worksheets (45%). Other principal aids included OHT's (28%) or no aids at all (18%).

(6) Materials use included TE Whole Text (39%), Words (26%), or -- No materials (9%).

Transact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	1097	BID	15	TA	552	--	806	W	1077	TE	938
T+C	442	DIR	264	SC	407	CA	789	O	678	WO	625
T+1	409	NFC	90	D4	339	KH	654	-	439	--	223
1+T	179	NOM	122	VU	213	KO	89	X	80	RP	155
C+T	121	RFC	28	CO	199	LA	55	K	56	VI	96
T>1	93	ACT	12	GR	184	KS	4	B	46	DI	95
T>4	18	CLA	53	GF	157	LB	1	V	22	TS	84
T>2	15	COM	84	OT	101	CB	0	A	0	NO	77
T+4	15	COR	17	--	76	UT	0	C	0	QU	43
1>C	4	DEF	4	D2	55	UG	0	E	0	FE	34
C>T	3	DET	75	IN	46		2398	T	0	ST	28
1>T	1	HYP	8	BA	21			W-B	0	DG	0
4>C	1	ILL	38	BE	19			W-C	0	NU	0
T+2	0	MET	54	TH	16			W-E	0	PS	0
	2398	NOR	9	VM	10			W-O	0	RE	0
		PET	29	PR	2			W-T	0	SO	0
		REC	18	D1	1			C-O	0	TX	0
		RET	5	D3	0			T-X	0	TE-DE	0
		RNG	59	D5	0				2398	TE-NO	0
		RSL	16	P1	0					TE-QU	0
		RUL	10	P2	0					DI-QU	0
		RSN	88	P3	0					SO-QU	0
		STA	37	P4	0					TX-QU	0
		SUM	12	S1	0						2398
		REP	100	S4	0						
		RPH	83	SE	0						
		INC	77	GA	0						
		PHA	50	GE	0						
		CLQ	16	GM	0						
		ELI	149	GT	0						
		EXQ	25	VE	0						
		EXS	12	SP	0						
		LIQ	57	PU	0						
		PRO	40		2398						
		PRT	68								
		RQU	2								
		ACC	88								
		ACK	45								
		CON	26								
		DIS	6								
		ECH	40								
		NOC	9								
		NON	58								
		PAR	17								
		PEA	40								
		RAN	13								
		REA	35								
		RES	195								
			2398								

Fig. 88   Discourse Parameter Totals for All Lessons/All Phases (Nora)

B.3 TEACHING SCHEMATA

The following findings arising out of the textual material have been grouped under the schemata and dimensions as noted in Steps (7) and (8) on page 167..

B.3.1 PUPILS

B.3.1.1 Pupil Learning
Nora was teaching one of the better language classes in her school.

B.3.1.2 Pupil Attitude
She had a very positive view of her pupils:

> "Well, I love my pupils very much. They are very responsive and it's nice to teach them, very motivated kids. We have established very good rapport, we are very comfortable with each other."

B.3.1.3 Pupil Point of View
She was keen on making all her lessons fun and enjoyable, but she grew to realise that the pupils were more interested in whether they benefited, i.e., learnt something, from the lesson. She put this point of view down to the fact that it was a bright class and all bright classes are grade-conscious and competitive.

B.3.1.4 Pupil Behaviour
She found that her class could get out of hand and she found them difficult to control during her "fun" activities.

B.3.1.5 Approach to Pupils
Her goal was to be a caring teacher and to teach each pupil as an individual. She wanted them to "appreciate" the teacher and "enjoy" her lessons. These two words were constant throughout teaching practice. She grew to realise that such an approach was leading to discipline problems and that there was more to being a successful teacher than classroom rapport. She also had to be more firm in demanding work and attention, and to be knowledgeable in her subject so that the girls would respect her.

One of Nora's classic dilemmas was as follows:

> "It's a bit difficult for me because on the one hand I want to be nice in the sense that I respect students but on the other hand I must maintain certain discipline. You waste a lot of time and it's difficult to teach."

B.3.2 SUBJECT

B.3.2.1 View of Language

She felt that English was a very subtle language, and the real need for her pupils was to learn how to communicate interactively with other people. Reading and writing were school requirements; and grammar was technical and therefore boring.

B.3.2.2 Knowledge of Subject

She did not feel competent in the area of language accuracy. She said that she took a long time in marking compositions because she had to check pupil mistakes in dictionaries or grammar books. Finally, if she was still not sure, she had to consult her CT. She stressed that she relied a lot on the dictionary for word meanings and spelling. She wanted to make sure that she was not perceived by the pupils as being inadequate in her knowledge of language.

Halfway through teaching practice, she came to the realisation that her units were not integrated, not because the school required certain common exercises for language, but because she was using theme as the linking factor rather than discourse aspects. She felt demoralised and went to the library and did a lot of reading on language as communication. After this input, she regained her confidence because at the end of the practicum she managed to plan an integrated unit based on narrative text features.

B.3.3 ENVIRONMENT

B.3.3.1 Staff

She liked the school and the staff. She felt that they were all pleasant and friendly towards her.

B.3.3.2 Co-operating Teacher

She found her CT to be approachable, helpful, and knowledgeable. Her only worry was that "... my CT would find that I didn't know my stuff."

B.3.3.3 School Requirements

She unquestioningly carried out all her CT directives regarding the coverage of work. This included a long list of sentences for practising language use such as idioms, prepositions,

and phrasal verbs. She conscientiously went through all of them with her class. In order to cope, she got her class to mark their work from OHT's, but when there was not enough class time for this, she did the marking herself rather than cutting back on the amount of exercises that she gave for homework. She also had comprehension passages given to her as practice for the end of term common school test. The CT also insisted that the questions be answered in class time, to give the pupils experience of working within time constraints. She found that this interfered with her ability to integrate her units based on themes. It was only in the last narrative unit that she found the confidence to ignore the school scheme of work and to successfully integrate her final unit based on discourse rather than theme.

B.3.3.4 Constraints

Time

Her main concern about time was that the lessons were too short and she would not be able to complete her lesson plan. The problem arose because she overloaded her plans and also because quite often the class was late or took time to settle down. Her second concern was that she spent a lot of time marking because:

> "I'm new so I wanted to make sure that I don't miss out on these mistakes.
> So I would go through two times reading an essay."

B.3.4 TEACHING APPROACH

B.3.4.1 Unit Planning

As mentioned above, it was not until the final unit on narrative writing and after a lot of reading in the library that Nora became more confident and clear about unit and lesson preparation:

> "Initially I just planned using from my head, from the textbooks, I looked around for textbook materials, and newspapers or tapes. Actually no, the school scheme of work first, and then I tried to find other things to fit in. And I planned it according to THEME, for example the theme was on Missing People so I planned everything else like my other lessons; compre, compo were based on that theme. And it was only later that I realised that I was teaching English and I should teach communication. So with that in mind I shouldn't teach content, content is not my area, I mean, it's part of it, how to develop that content, "how" rather than the "what". So I was demoralised when I realised that. My lesson plans, my unit planning was

actually based on theme, on content, but then with the help of books on communication I was able to plan better.

My initial worries about lesson and unit preparation were things like integrating into a unit. I thought that was a very difficult part because I guess it's from my school experience. as a young girl, my teacher didn't have any kind of unit preparation, it was just compo by itself, compre by itself, grammar by itself. I guess I learned a lot about unit preparation from my supervisor, and from the books I've read, and also from my friends who are in TP also. I asked for their opinions about that.

B.3.4.2 Lesson Objectives

Her whole planning approach was based on the fact that the lesson had to be pupil-centred and lively; and the pupils had to enjoy the lesson.

B.3.4.3 Planning Approach

She aimed to move from the simple to the complex in the lesson, in a systematic way. and have "fun" materials or activities in order to get the pupils involved.

B.3.4.4 Presentation Approach

She felt that her CT was very serious and that the class were bored in her English lessons. The answer to this, she felt, was to inject humour:

> "Sometimes I just can't be humorous, so I try to be humorous by using cartoons or other media that are humorous, that are funny, comic strips. I can't be spontaneous about jokes, so you have to rely on other media."

Adjusting Plans

She came to realise that while it was important to plan a good lesson, it was also important to be flexible, because one could not completely anticipate pupil reactions and ideas during lessons.

> "I realise that it is important for the teacher to be flexible. she has to cut down on the number of questions if she has to. She should not follow the lesson plan strictly because she may not be able to anticipate the time students take to answer questions or other problems like incomplete work. In future I would put together the same types of questions so that I do not have to repeat my explanation."

Aspects

Right through teaching practice she was very concerned that she was not being totally effective in her instructions, which could make pupils unruly if they were not clear; her explanations, which if they were not clear and she had to repeat, would slow the pace of

her lesson; and her questions, which did not lead pupils to greater understanding or insights. She said that she was working at making the questions she posed "clear, specific and, more importantly, non-threatening". She said that she was writing down and practising her questions in her head in order to improve the way pupils responded to them. She was also aware that she was just looking for a response at times:

"I tend to give closed questions cause then they will give something back."

Also, she was worried that when she ran out of time she took over and just stated the answers. She felt that telling rather than eliciting was bad for her pupils.

B.3.4.5 View of Methods

She was positive towards all interactive activities such as group work, oral quizzes, discussion and brainstorming because she liked pupil participation, which to her was a sign that they were enjoying her lesson.

The results of the teaching technique grids are as follows:

	Changes in Perception of Elements				
	TGD1	TGD2	TGD3	TGD4	%chg
pair work	4.13	4.88	3.63	4.13	0
group work	4.25	4.63	3.88	4.00	- 6
class debate	4.75	4.50	4.00	4.25	- 11
teacher talk	2.38	2.75	2.88	3.25	+ 37
reading aloud	3.25	2.50	3.50	3.13	- 4
tape recordings	3.88	4.88	3.63	4.75	+ 22
games/role play	4.63	4.88	4.63	4.25	- 8
brainstorming	4.75	4.75	4.13	3.75	- 21
presentations	4.00	4.00	4.13	4.63	+ 15
textbook exercises	3.00	3.00	3.25	3.13	+ 4
activity cards	4.25	4.38	4.38	4.13	- 3
sitting tests	3.25	2.13	3.00	2.38	- 27
silent reading	4.00	3.50	3.13	3.38	- 16
writing compos	3.88	3.25	3.13	3.75	- 3
grammar rules	2.75	1.75	2.25	1.75	- 36
project work	4.63	4.13	3.75	3.88	- 16
memorising words	2.63	2.50	1.88	1.75	- 33
pronunciation	3.25	2.88	3.63	2.88	- 11
sentence making	3.13	2.75	2.88	2.00	- 36

Significant changes in perception were as follows:

	% change
sentence making	- 36
grammar rules	- 36
memorising words	- 33

```
sitting tests        - 27
teacher talk         + 37
```

Changes in Perception of Constructs

The perception of what constitutes an ENJOYABLE lesson changed over the course of the grids. In the first grid an ENJOYABLE lesson was construed to be an INTERESTING lesson and in the second grid an EASY lesson, perhaps reflecting an initial pupil-centred approach; in the third grid it was linked to CHALLENGING, a more teacher-centred perspective; and in the final grid it was once again linked to INTERESTING.

For a lesson to be MOTIVATING it has always been construed to varying degrees that it is likely to be INTERESTING as well.

What constitutes an EFFECTIVE lesson was somewhat vague in the first two grids; was closely clustered with INTERESTING and MOTIVATING in the third grid; and was remote from all other constructs in the final grid.

INNOVATIVE did not cluster closely to anything else during the course of the first three grids, and was clustered with CHALLENGING on the final grid.

B.3.4.6 Evaluation and Reflection

She said that she did not have time to do any evaluation or reflection during her lessons, but afterwards would think about pupil non-responses and unclear instructions. Afterwards she would worry about things that did no go well, and the "customer dissatisfaction" with her lessons. With time, she moved from a personal perspective in her evaluation, i.e., "pupils did not like me or my lesson" to a more objective analysis, i.e., reason for restless pupils, instructions that were confusing because there was no visual reinforcement. She grew to become more able to predict time needed for group work, and to anticipate factors that contributed to overactive classes.

B.3.5 VIEW OF TEACHING

B.3.5.1 Influences

She had a negative view of her former teachers, who she considered to be distant and authoritarian. Her goal was to be the opposite, i.e., approachable and caring.

B.3.5.2 Coursework

She felt that the theories that she had been exposed to during her coursework did not have relevance in the reality of the classroom. At the University she had had to memorise and regurgitate facts and theories during exams. What she learnt then was totally unrelated to her later career needs. She had a similar view of the teacher training coursework. It was only during the later part of teaching practice that she came to understand the principles behind such theories, and how these ideas connected with her classroom teaching. She cited prediction in pre-reading stages of lessons and the communication focus in language teaching as two such foggy areas that she came to understand only during the practicum.

B.3.5.3 Beginning of Practicum

At the beginning of teaching practice, she felt "frightened and nervous" - frightened of teaching in a real classroom and dealing with real pupils:

> "Teaching is something very new to me and I tutored before, but teaching a real classroom is something really new and it was very frightening at the beginning. I wasn't really sure if I would be good, and to me it's very important that I'm good. I learned that it's good to speak out my problems, my difficulties. It's better than to pretend that I understand because it will lead me to nowhere, I realise that. I started to think about why I do certain things rather than taking it for granted."

B.3.5.4 End of Practicum

At the end of teaching practice she stressed the importance of learning from mistakes, from pupil feedback, and reading up to get more ideas for lesson preparation. She learned not to expect to please everybody and became less threatened by negative feedback:

> "Do not take student's comments personally. You cannot please everybody. If you worry about every student's criticism of you you will grow bald soon. However never discard totally students' comments. They may be useful and help you improve your teaching.

B.3.5.5 Final Perspective

By the end of teaching practice she was still positive about teaching and her interaction with pupils. Her two key words were still "enjoy" lessons, and "appreciate" the teacher. She had become aware of the complexity of teaching, but felt that if she were more open to feedback and more enterprising in learning from books she would have a successful career in teaching. Teaching to her had become a process of growing and learning from experience.

C.0 CASE STUDY #4 - HUI LI APPENDIX C

Table of Contents

C.1 LESSON PLANNING

C.1.1 Lesson Plan Coverage

Hui Li taught her class six periods per week, including two double-period lessons. This amounted to a total of 40 plans or 60 lessons during the ten-week period of the practicum. The number of lesson plans actually available for analysis was 35 as indicated on the table in Fig. 89 below.

As will be noted from the table. Hui Li had a balanced approach in her unit and lesson planning. Equal time was given to writing and reading and less but equal time was given to speaking and listening lessons. Because she had one of the more able language classes, she felt there was no need to teach grammar but instead was concerned to extend the vocabulary range of her pupils. These vocabulary lessons were taught in the context of preparing the class to use the lexis in the subsequent writing lessons.

Hui Li Lesson Plans

	No of Plans	No of Periods	Comments
Reading	12	20	8 double periods, 4 single
Writing	11	16	5 double periods, 6 single
Speaking	5	8	3 double periods, 2 single
Listening	4	6	2 double periods, 2 single
Vocabulary	3	3	3 single periods
Corrections	-	1	1 single period
First lesson	-	2	1 double period observation
Last lesson	-	1	1 single lesson not taught
Good Friday	-	1	1 single lesson
Test	-	2	1 double period
	35	60	

Fig. 89   Summary of Hui Li Lesson Plans

C.1.2 Lesson Goals

Taking the lesson objectives as stated at the beginning of each lesson plan, the overall lesson goals were collected for each of the five types of lessons that Hui Li taught during TP: reading, writing, speaking, listening and vocabulary. These goals were grouped under discourse genre features. This text analysis focus leading to the writing output for each unit of work was a characteristic of her teaching goals. Her units were organised in a

cyclical manner with features introduced and then repeated or reinforced in later lessons leading up to the writing task. Her lesson goals have been clustered under units rather than language skills because this illustrates more clearly her unit integration based on discourse features and also the sequence: introduction to the genre examples, analysis of features in subsequent lessons, and finally the first draft followed by peer editing. The peer editing was not specific in focus and she generally expected the pupils to apply what had been highlighted earlier in the unit. Words and expressions for the writing task were also introduced in each unit. Purpose, organisation and information use were covered in all units. These points were all reiterated just before the first draft. There was no such review before the peer editing. The listening aimed at covering the same types of language features and was based on the set workbook. The speaking lesson focused on orally practising some of the discourse features of the unit.

UNIT - ADVERTISING[1]
```
R Pick out important FEATURES of an adv, make inferences &
     evaluations [1]
S Give idea of what buyers & sellers look for; learn how
     to PERSUADE [2]
S Have clearer idea of buyers & sellers POINT OF VIEW
     [3]
L Extract SPECIFIC INFORMATION, recognise alternative forms
     of WORDS/PHRASES, infer information [4]
R Introduce idea that people's WORDS play crucial role in
     determining which adv they respond to; select most
     suitable adv for a given situation [5]
W Have IDEAS for writing composition, able to use 'coloured'
     WORDS; how to ORGANISE information [6]
```

UNIT - MOVIE REVIEWS
```
R Know how movie review is ORGANISED; PURPOSE of reviews;
     have idea of what to write in movie reviews [8]
V Help pupils with WORDS for movie review [10]
R Have clearer idea about ORGANISATION of movie reviews;
     pick out SPECIFIC INFORMATION [11]
S Have clear idea as to WHAT TO TALK ABOUT in movies; express
     OPINIONS; discuss FEATURES & bad points of movies 12]
   Have clear IDEA as to what to talk about movies; express
     OPINIONS; discuss FEATURES and bad points of movies
W How to WRITE movie review [13]
     have a clearer idea of ORGANISATION for writing review
     [13]
R Locate SPECIFIC INFORMATION; distinguish FACT & OPINION;
     summarise MAIN EVENTS [15]
```

---
[1]   The letters before the goals stand for the language aspect in Fig. 89

R Extract INFORMATION; make EVALUATIONS; understand
    SENTENCE RELATIONS in a text; analyse CAUSAL RELATIONS
    [16]
L Able to take notes of SPECIFIC INFORMATION; able to
    INFER INFORMATION [17]

UNIT - PROBLEMS & SOLUTIONS
W Be able to explain CAUSE & EFFECT of an incident;
    follow chronological SEQUENCE; begin FIRST DRAFT [19]
L Be able to give suitable SOLUTIONS to problems;
    identify PROBLEMS [22]
R To identify PROBLEMS & provide adequate SOLUTIONS [23]
R Have good idea as to types of SOLUTIONS offered to solve
    problems brought out in passage [24]
F Have idea of how to ORGANISE SOLUTIONS; know how to use
    some EXPRESSIONS for making suggestions 25]
F Be able to use some of the EXPRESSIONS when giving
    solutions [26]
S Be able to give good SOLUTIONS to identified
    problems [27]
W Be able to have clear IDEA what to write for
    composition [28]

UNIT - STORY
R Be able to study CHARACTERS & analyse actions, speech,
    emotions etc; look out for interesting POINT in story
    [31]
L Be able to identify different POINTS OF VIEW in a story;
    select most interesting EVENT & explain reasons for [32]
V Be able to write VIVID DESCRIPTION of events [33]
S Be able to write out simple DIALOGUES to make story more
    interesting [34]
W Be able to SEQUENCE the given events; how to write
    INTRODUCTION & CONCLUSION [35]

All the goals concentrated on text features except the peer editing lessons below which
were tied more directly into one particular skill area and the one reading and one vocabu-
lary lesson which had general aims related to that language aspect.

WRITING
    Be able to EDIT partner's work [7] [14] [20] [30] [36]
    and WRITE final draft [7] [14] [29] [36]

READING
    Close reading of passage [9]

VOCABULARY
    Test ability to come out with words in short time [21]

C.1.3 Focus Phase

The Focus Phase did not appear in all the reading and writing lessons. The interaction was equally divided between T>C and T+C. In the reading lessons, it served the function of recapping earlier lesson coverage, predicting the text topic, or merely to read the text aloud or copy down questions for the subsequent task in that lesson. In the writing lesson, again this phase was used to recap points to include in the writing, or to merely announce the task in hand. In the other three lessons, listening, speaking, and vocabulary, the Focus Phase was used to elicit ideas or words and to introduce the context for the lesson.

All of the lessons used predominantly OHT's.

	READING Total 12 lessons Total 10 phases None in 4 lessons	WRITING Total 11 lessons Total 8 phases None in 4 lessons	SPEAKING Total 5 lessons Total 5 phases None in 1 lesson	LISTENING Total 4 lessons Total 4 phases In all lessons	VOCABULARY Total 3 lessons Total 1 phase None in 2 lessons
INT	T+C 5 T>C 4	T>C 5 T+C 3 l>C 1	T>C 3 T+C 2	T>C 2 T+C 2	T+C 1
ASP	What movies pupils watch Read aloud Copy questions from OHT Predict text topic (4) Recap fact & opinion Recap writing purpose work Recap writing features	Writing purpose (2) Inform of task Points to include (2) Organi-sation Emphasise tenses Show pupil	Features of buying and selling (2) Recap features Introduce scenario Show how to make sentences more vivid	Introduce flight schedule Recap fact & opinion Elicit teenage problems Discuss problems	Elicit words for movie review

AID	OHT (4)	OHT (5)	OHT (4)	OHT (2)	Blackboard
	None (3)	None (4)	Blackboard	None (2)	(1)
	Worksheet	Worksheet	(1)		
	(1)	(1)			

Fig. 90   Focus Phase Statistical Description (Hui Li)

C.1.4 Clarify Phase

All the Clarify Phases were T>C. In the reading lessons, the teacher used this phase to explain genre and text features; in the writing lesson, she explained how to incorporate certain features in the writing task; in the speaking lesson she summarised the main points, and explained how to add dialogue to text. In the listening lesson she explained what a point of view was; and in the vocabulary lesson the power of descriptive words.

The blackboard and OHT's were the main source of aids.

	READING Total 12 lessons Total 7 phases None in 7 lessons	WRITING Total 11 lessons Total 7 phases None in 6 lessons	SPEAKING Total 5 lessons Total 2 phases None in 3 lessons	LISTENING Total 4 lessons Total 1 phase None in 3 lessons	VOCABULARY Total 3 lessons Total 1 phase None in 2 lessons
INT	T>C 6 T+C 1	T>C 5 T+C 2	T>C 2	T>C 1	T>C 1
ASP	Features of adver-tising Types of movies Reinforce main points Function of headlines Fact/ opinion Character moti-vation Words used	Persuasive language How to write a movie review Examples of cause and effect Information to include How to organise essay (2) How to	Recap main points How to add detail and dialogue	Point of view	Use of descrip-tive words

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	in suggest- ions	write advice			
AID	Blackboard (3) OHT (2) None (2)	Blackboard (2) OHT (2) None (2) Worksheet (1)	Blackboard (1) OHT (1)	OHT (1)	OHT (1)

Fig. 91   Clarify Phase Statistical Description (Hui Li)

C.1.5 Do Task Phase

The reading lesson interaction was mostly group and pair work, with only 3 phases relying on individual work. This was also true of the writing lessons with only 4 phases utilising individual work. The speaking lesson was almost entirely group work. The listening lesson was the only one that had a predominance of individual work, plus 5 instances of pair work. Half of the reading lessons were based on answering comprehension questions, and half on analysing text features. In the writing lesson the Do Task Phase consisted of writing first or final drafts (5), or peer editing (6). The speaking lessons were mostly discussing views or preparing for role play. The Do Task Phases in the listening lessons were mostly listening and answering questions. The 3 phases in the vocabulary lessons consisted of preparing a mime to illustrate words, doing a group crossword, and improving a set text, using given words.

The reading lesson was centred on textbook passages and worksheets. The writing lessons centred mostly on first drafts. The speaking lessons utilised work cards, which were instructions for carrying out group tasks. The listening lesson was based entirely on the set workbook and accompanying tape recording.

	READING Total 12 lessons Total 16 phases None in 1 lesson	WRITING Total 11 lessons Total 13 phases In all lessons	SPEAKING Total 5 lessons Total 5 phases None in 1 lesson	LISTENING Total 4 lessons Total 13 phases In all lessons	VOCABULARY Total 3 lessons Total 3 phases In all lessons
INT	4 8 2 5 1 3	2 6 1 4 4 3	4 4 1 1	1 8 2 5	4 3
ASP	Answer compre questions (8) Identify fact Write first Analysis task Character moti- vation Choose advert for situation Analyse info use Match problem/ solution Discuss word meanings Write problems/ solutions	Brochure analysis Peer edit (6) and opinion draft (4) Write final draft Textbook exercise Add dialogue	Do group role play Prepare views on text Listen for problems & solutions Prepare role play events	Listen and answer questions (8) Listen and take notes Share work (2) Identify problems Pick out main ideas	Prepare mime of words of emotion Do cross- word Improve descrip- tion
AID	Worksheet (10) Textbook (5) Text (1) Textbook (1)	First draft (7) Brochures (1) Text (1) Composition books (4)	Workcards (3) Tape (1) Worksheet (3)	Tape (9) Workbook (8)	Workcard (1) Crossword (1) Text (1)

Fig. 92 Do Task Phase Statistical Description (Hui Li)

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C.1.6 Review Phase

The interaction here depended on whether the teacher was leading a class discussion to go over work, or if groups were presenting the work they had prepared. Thus, in reading lessons there are only 3 presentations out of 15 phases. The writing lesson was a balance between going over worksheets and group presentations, whereas naturally in the speaking lessons group presentations predominated. There were no group presentations in the listening lessons, and only 1 in the vocabulary lesson (presenting the crossword results).

The materials used in the Do Task Phases featured also in the Review Phases. As well as this, the blackboard featured in the reading, writing, and speaking lessons as a reinforcement to collect answers.

	READING Total 12 lessons Total 15 phases In all lessons	WRITING Total 11 lessons Total 5 phases None in 8 lessons	SPEAKING Total 5 lessons Total 6 phases None in 1 lesson	LISTENING Total 4 lessons Total 11 phases In all lessons	VOCABULARY Total 3 lessons Total 3 phases In all lessons
INT	T+C 12 4>C 3	T>C 3 T+C 2	4>C 4 T+C 2	T+C 10 2 1	T+C 2 4>C 2
ASP	Go over work (12) Present work (3)	Go over work (3) Present work (2)	Present work (2) Go over work (2)	Go over work (11)	Go over work (2) Present work (1)
AID	Blackboard (7) Worksheet (4) Textbook (2)	Blackboard (3) OHT (1) None (1)	Activity card (2) Blackboard (2) Text (1)	Worksheets (5) Workbook (3) None (1) Text (1)	Blackboard (1) Crossword (1)

Fig. 93 Review Phase Statistical Description (Hui Li)

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C.2. LESSON PRESENTATION

C.2.1 Overview of Speech Acts by Lessons and Phases

For her four observed lessons Hui Li taught one on features of advertising as input for a writing task, one on factual and opinion questions for reading test skill development, one on listening based on the set workbook, and one on text structure as input for a writing task. A feature of her unit of work planning was the coverage of all areas of language except for grammar. All were integrated by a clear focus on particular discourse genre features leading to writing. Even the observed reading lesson on factual and opinion questions was geared to understanding the two types of advertising information for the writing task.

An overview of speech acts by phases for the four observed lessons is as follows:

PHASES	Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase					
	LS1	LS2	LS3	LS4	TOTAL	%
FOCUS	15	24	38	8	85	8.3
CLARIFY	56	100	22	38	216	20.9
SET UP	80	59	43	46	228	22.1
FINISH	14	8	17	15	54	5.2
REVIEW	100	87	159	69	415	40.2
Subtotal:	265	278	279	176	998	96.7
INTERRUPTS						
REPAIR	-	-	4	-	4	0.4
ADVISE	2	-	2	7	11	1.1
CONTROL	1	2	-	2	5	0.5
INTERACT	2	2	10	-	14	1.3
Subtotal:	5	4	16	9	34	3.3
TOTAL:	270	282	295	185	1032	100.0

Fig. 94 Number of Speech Acts by Lesson by Phase

Although there was some variation in the number of speech acts in a given phase in a given lesson (e.g., the Clarify Phase in lesson [2]) and the Review Phase in lessons [1] and [3]) some general conclusions may be drawn from the above figures:

> (1) Planned phases of the lesson accounted for about 97% of total speech acts. Unplanned lesson interrupts accounted for only 3%, indicating that

Hui Li had very little informal interaction with the class, and that little in the way of class management was required.

(2) The amount of time spent on the Focus, Set Up, and Finish Phases was relatively consistent throughout the four lessons.

(3) A rather long time was spent on the Clarify Phase during lesson [2] because she was introducing definitions of fact and opinion, which were the focus of the subsequent Do Task as well.

(4) The largest single component of lessons was the Review Phase, which took up about 40% of total speech acts. The amount of review was quite long during lesson [1] because she spent a lot of time going over worksheet questions that the class had just answered, and particularly long in lesson [3] because she went through the workbook and listening worksheet answers. Both of these lessons were going over answers to questions that had been written by the pupils.

C.2.2 Focus Phase

In lessons [2] and [3] the Focus Phase function was to set the context, whereas in lessons [1] and [4] the function was to make a link with the previous lesson before announcing the task for the day's lesson. The Focus Phase was relatively short and took up only 8.3% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                          LESSON 2
  Recap features (2x)               Predict topic from picture
  Announce focus (2x)               Elicit newspaper report coverage

LESSON 3                          LESSON 4
  Teacher reads text (4x)           Elicit writing purpose (2x)
  Elicit link between song and      Introduce title of story
   unit theme (2x)
  Announce focus (2x)
  Elicit reaction to cartoon (2x)
  Elicit recognition of song
  Recap what just done
  Elicit where can find advice letters
```

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR FOCUS PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T+C	31	RPH	14	CO	31	--	31	O	48	VI	27
T>C	28	ELI	9	D4	16	KO	19	-	26	SO	19
T+1	12	BID	4	D2	15	KS	14	T	11	--	17
1+T	8	REP	4	D3	12	LA	13		85	NO	14
C+T	6	PRT	4	D1	7	CA	8			TE	7
	85	NON	4	D5	1		85			DI	1
		OTH	46	IN	1						85
			85	TH	1						
				--	1						
					85						

Fig. 95 Discourse Parameters for Focus Phase (Hui Li)

Interactions were 36% T÷C, 33% T>C, hence not overly teacher-centred. Speech acts included 16% RPH (rephrasing) and 11% ELI (eliciting); remaining speech acts were all less than 4 in number. As regards aspect, 60% related to various aspects of text (D1 - D5); 36% related to context for lesson episode. Major source of continuity (39%) was reference to prior knowledge associated with schooling or other real world matters. There was no continuity in 36% of the speech acts. Emphasis (56%) was on the use of OHT's for teaching aids. The largest element (32%) of materials involved the use of visuals.

C.2.3 Clarify Phase

The Clarify Phase took up averagely 20.9% of a typical lesson. The Clarify Phase in three of the lessons was used to explain the concept of information use, fact and opinion, and text features. In Lesson [3] however, this phase occurred as part of the Review Phase and the teacher's purpose was to explain why answers were correct. Phase segments were as follows:

LESSON 1
  Explain word meaning (3x)
  Information to include in penpal
    letter (3x)
  Reason for using brochures
  Restate brochure purpose
  Reiterate type of information
  Reiterate use of language for
    description

LESSON 2
  Restate reasons for answer
  (4x)
  Explain reasons for answer
  (3x)
  Define facts & opinions (2x)
  Reiterate definition (2x)
  How headline helps prediction

LESSON 3
  Explain question answer (3x)
  Summarise question points (2x)
  Explain reasons for giving

LESSON 4
  Highlight problems
  Explain text feature (3x)
  Summarise reasons for writing

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solutions   (3x)

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR CLARIFY PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	163	RNG	21	D2	96	CA	120	O	117	TX	47
T+C	18	DET	18	D3	20	KS	50	C-O	44	NO	45
T+1	17	INC	18	TA	20	--	35	-	40	TE-QU	44
C+T	9	RSN	14	--	18	KH	11	C	6	--	40
1+T	6	STA	12	D1	16		216	T-X	5	TE	18
T>1	3	RPH	12	SC	16			B	4	SO	12
	216	SUM	11	VM	9				216	DI-QU	5
		ILL	10	D4	8					TS	4
		OTH	100	VU	5					VI	1
			216	IN	5						216
				BA	3						
					216						

Fig. 96   Discourse Parameters for Clarify Phase (Hui Li)

As might be expected, the preponderance (75%) of interaction during clarification was T>C. A wide range of speech acts was involved, of which the principal acts were RNG (reading aloud), DET (giving details or listings), and INC (incomplete). The bulk of aspect (44%) involved D2 text information. The major source (55%) of continuity was based on the earlier part of the lesson. Teaching aids emphasised (54%) use of the OHT. Principal materials used included text extracts, notes or summary points, and a mixture of whole text and questions.

C.2.4 Set Up Phase

Hui Li's Set Up Phase was detailed and included instructions for the task procedure as well as frequent checks of whether people had the material which she was giving out and directions for group work. The Set Up Phase took up averagely 22.1% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:


```
LESSON 1                              LESSON 2
 Instructions for task (5x)            Instructions for task (5x)
 Check that all have brochures         Check all have copies (2x)
  (4x)                                 Direct to begin discussion
 Direct to do task (3x)                Distribute homework worksheet
 Direct to get into groups            Give deadline
 Direct to begin discussing           Direct monitor to collect
```

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Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR SET UP PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	189	DIR	70	TA	172	--	217	W	63	NO	69
T+C	16	MET	17	D1	17	LA	7	O	50	TE	43
T>4	6	DET	14	D4	11	CA	4	B	33	QU	31
T+1	6	RPH	13	CO	8		228	-	26	--	26
C+T	6	PET	10	D2	6			C	13	NU	14
1+T	3	OTH	104	--	6			T	12	DI	13
T>1	1		228	BA	3			W-T	9	TE-QU	10
T+4	1			IN	3			W-C	6	TX	9
	228			TH	1			E	4	SO-QU	9
				OT	1			X	4	DI-QU	2
					228			C-O	4	SO	2
								A	2		228
								T-X	2		
									228		

Fig. 97 Discourse Parameters for Set Up Phase (Hui Li)

As might be expected from a set up phase, interaction was essentially (83%) T>C. Principal (31%) speech act was DIR Direct. The major (75%) aspect was, as might be expected, on TA the task. There was no continuity in 95% of speech acts. Teaching aids primarily used worksheets (28%) or whole text (22%). Principal materials were notes (30%) and whole text (19%).

C.2.5 Finish Phase

The Finish Phase took up averagely 5.2% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 3                          LESSON 4
  Stop work (2x)                    Set time limit
  Check if finished                 Stop work
  Will continue solution work       Bring first draft to next
   later                             lesson
  Hand in worksheets and workbooks
```

Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR FINISH PHASE											
Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	38	DIR	15	TA	39	--	44	-	21	--	21
T+C	10	NON	4	D2	7	KH	6	W	15	TX	20
C+T	6	OTH	35	BA	5	CA	3	A	12	TE	5
	54		54	--	3	LB	1	W-T	4	QU	4
					54		54	E	2	SO-QU	4
									54		54

Fig. 98 Discourse parameters for Finish Phase (Hui Li)

Interaction was principally (70%) T>C; and principal speech act (28%) was DIR Direct. Main aspect (72%) was on the task just completed. There was little in the way of continuity, teaching aids, or materials involved in the Finish Phase.

C.2.6 Review Phase

The Review Phase was a major component in Hui Li's lessons. In this phase she not only went over the work done, but also elicited from the pupils the concepts or definitions that she had introduced during the Clarify Phases. Hence there were two types of review: A review of what she had explained previously, and also a review of the work that the pupils had just done. The Review Phase took up a large part, averagely 40.2% of a typical lesson. Phase segments were as follows:

```
LESSON 1                          LESSON 2
  Elicit question answer (7x)       Categorise statement (6x)
  Elicit meaning of word (2x)       Elicit definition (2x)
  Elicit reason for description     Reason for answer (2x)
  Elicit information about shops    Raise hands if had answer
                                    Elicit reason for wrong answer


LESSON 3                          LESSON 4
  Elicit question answer (13x)      Elicit sequence reasons (2x)
  Probe for solution (3x)           Go through group sequence (2x)
  Elicit problem (2x)               Teacher reads out original text
  Redirect question                 Survey how many have sequence #1
                                    Elicit reasons for differences
                                    Elicit sequence problems
```

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Discourse parameter statistics were as follows:

DISCOURSE PARAMETERS FOR REVIEW PHASE

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T+1	110	RES	53	D2	154	CA	390	O	174	TX	95
T>C	95	NON	40	SC	111	--	22	C-O	83	TE-QU	83
T+C	85	NOM	36	D1	62	KO	3	T-X	67	DI-QU	67
1+T	66	ACC	28	TA	26		415	W	28	TE	65
C+T	30	DIR	21	D5	12			W-B	25	SO	47
T+4	14	ELI	21	VU	11			-	23	TE-NO	25
T>1	13	RNG	20	VM	10			C	13	--	21
T>4	2	PRT	20	D3	9			A	1	NO	9
	415	NFC	13	--	9			T	1	QU	2
		REP	12	BA	4				415	TS	1
		RPH	12	IN	3						415
		PAR	12	D4	3						
		EXS	10	CO	1						
		OTH	117		415						
			415								

Fig. 99   Discourse Parameters for Review Phase (Hui Li)

Interaction was largely (27%) on a T+1 teacher-with-single-pupil basis; other major interactions involved T>C teacher-to-class (23%) and T+C teacher-with-class (20%). A large (13%) component of speech acts was RES Response by teacher. Of particular interest is the large (10%) percentage of NON Non Response by pupils, which Hui Li saw as one of the major problems in her teaching. Principal elements of aspect were D2 text information (37%) and SC Comprehension Questions (27%). Continuity was essentially all (94%) based on CA Earlier Part of Lesson. The major (42%) teaching aid was the OHT. Principal materials used involved text extracts and whole text combined with questions.

C.2.7 Interrupts

Very little time was spent on lesson interrupts. The Repair Interrupt took up only 0.4% of the average lesson; Advise 1.1% of the lesson; Control 0.5% of the lesson; and Interact 1.3% of the lesson.

C.2.8 Overview of Discourse Parameters for All Lessons/All Phases

Turning to speech acts in terms of speech act parameters, a summary of the totals is tabled in Fig. 100 on the following page.

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DISCOURSE PARAMETER TOTALS FOR ALL LESSONS/ALL PHASES

Interact		Speech		Aspect		Contin		T Aids		Mats	
T>C	537	BID	14	D2	284	CA	531	O	407	TX	173
T+C	164	DIR	122	TA	260	--	364	-	139	NO	149
T+1	149	NFC	26	SC	131	KS	73	C-O	135	TE	141
1+T	83	NOM	48	D1	102	KO	26	W	106	TE-QU	141
C+T	58	RFC	17	D4	48	LA	20	T-X	79	--	128
T>1	18	ACT	0	D3	41	KH	17	B	39	SO	80
T+4	15	CLA	24	CO	41	LB	1	C	32	DI-QU	79
T>4	8	COM	25	--	38	CB	0	W-B	25	QU	37
T>2	0	COR	4	VM	19	UT	0	T	24	VI	33
T+2	0	DEF	3	BA	18	UG	0	A	17	TE-NO	25
1>T	0	DET	43	VU	17		1032	W-T	13	DI	14
C>T	0	HYP	1	IN	14			E	6	NU	14
1>C	0	ILL	17	D5	13			W-C	6	SO-QU	13
4>C	0	MET	26	OT	3			X	4	TS	5
	1032	NOR	2	TH	2			K	0	DG	0
		PET	13	BE	1			V	0	FE	0
		REC	10	P1	0			W-E	0	PS	0
		RET	1	P2	0			W-O	0	RE	0
		RNG	51	P3	0				1032	RP	0
		RSL	10	P4	0					ST	0
		RUL	0	S1	0					WO	0
		RSN	29	S4	0					TE-DE	0
		STA	21	SE	0					TX-QU	0
		SUM	14	GA	0						1032
		REP	26	GE	0						
		RPH	55	GF	0						
		INC	38	GM	0						
		PHA	18	GR	0						
		CLQ	3	GT	0						
		ELI	49	VE	0						
		EXQ	9	SP	0						
		EXS	11	PR	0						
		LIQ	10	PU	0						
		PRO	7		1032						
		PRT	27								
		RQU	4								
		ACC	41								
		ACK	5								
		CON	20								
		DIS	2								
		ECH	11								
		NOC	3								
		NON	63								
		PAR	20								
		OTH	89								
			1032								

Fig. 100   Discourse parameter totals for All Lessons/All Phases

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Some general conclusions can be drawn from these figures:

(1) In terms of interaction, Hui Li's teaching style tended towards teacher monologue, with about 52% of all speech acts being T>C, i.e., teacher-to-class. Other major categories of interaction included T+C (16%) and T+1 (14%). These three categories accounted for 82% of the total.

(2) A wide variety of speech act categories occurred, with the largest single instance being DIR Direct (12%). Interestingly, the next highest category for Hui Li was NON No Response (6%), reflecting a continuing problem which Hui Li had in being unable to elicit responses from the class.

(3) Principal categories of aspect related to D2 Text Information (28%) and TA Task (25%), with significant categories also related to SC Comprehension Questions (13%) D1 Text Organisation (10%).

(4) The two major areas of continuity included CA Earlier Part of Lesson (51%) and -- No Continuity (35%).

(5) As regards Teaching Aids, Hui Li had a clear preference for OHT's (39%).

(6) Various materials were used, of which the principal materials constituted Text Extracts (17%), NO Notes (14%), TE Whole Text (14%), and TE-QU Whole Text and Questions (14%).

C.3 TEACHING SCHEMATA

The following findings arising out of the textual material have been grouped under the schemata and dimensions as noted in Steps (7) and (8) on page 167.

C.3.1 PUPILS

Hui Li was teaching one of the more able classes in her school.

C.3.1.1 Pupil Learning

Hui Li felt that the only aspect that she could work on was to improve their writing. There were two problems that she found with the class:

> (1) During one of the units which she taught, she was surprised to find that they were unable to express opinions

> (2) They had a negative attitude towards listening comprehension lessons; Hui Li never found a way of overcoming their view that such lessons were boring and mechanical.

C.3.1.2 Pupil Attitude

In Hui Li's view, the girls were very smart and behaved as if they did not need any help. She attributed their "sullen faces and a general indifference" to the fact that she was young, an IE student, and not yet a permanent teacher. The class was resistant to any attempt on her part to provide feedback on their work.

Her main concern was to keep them behaving themselves and control her own irritation at the "smart" remarks that they kept making during her lessons. When consulted, the CT said that she did not have the same problem and dismissed it as just a case of a class trying to test a new teacher.

Hui Li had this continuing problem throughout her teaching practice and never really came to terms with it.

C.3.1.3 Pupil Behaviour

She found the pupils sullen and uncooperative.

C.3.1.4 Pupil Point of View

Her main concern was their attitude rather than their view of her teaching methods.

C.3.1.5 Approach to Pupils

Hui Li's relationship with her class was problematic. She started off by being too strict and rigid in her demands. When she realised the negative effect this was having she tried to relax, but the situation by now was such that the class became even more uncooperative, so she reverted to a non-smiling authoritarian approach. By the end of teaching practice she felt that she still had a lot to learn about reading the psychology of pupils and knowing when to be more flexible in her demands.

C.3.2 SUBJECT

C.3.2.1 View of Language

Hui Li's principal focus was to improve pupil writing skills. In order to achieve this, she felt that it was necessary for pupils to learn grammar rules, vocabulary, and text structure, and know how to apply these in their composition writing. Speaking and listening lessons were seen as oral practice for this main focus.

C.3.2.2 Knowledge of Subject

She was confident with regard to her text level focus in her teaching.

C.3.3 ENVIRONMENT

C.3.3.1 Staff

She made few comments about the staff, except to be very negative about some staff that she thought were being too lenient and friendly with the pupils in order to gain popularity. She was very concerned that pupils should not "climb all over" teachers and justified her own strict stand on this basis.

C.3.3.2 Co-operating Teacher

She felt that her CT was helpful in locating materials and pleasant during their interaction. Her only reservation was that she had been unable to observe her CT teaching, which she felt would have been very helpful at the beginning when she was floundering.

C.3.3.3 School Requirements

She felt that she had a fair amount of leeway in how she chose to cover the school scheme of work. The textbook-based themes were given but what language aspect she chose to focus on was left for her to decide. This amount of flexibility arose because there was no common test in this particular school. Instead, at the end of term she had to submit all her composition marks. This might explain her preoccupation with improving pupil composition work.

C.3.3.4 Constraints

Time

Her only comment on time was that since she was covering all the language skill areas within each two week unit of work, she felt constantly rushed to get through work at the expense of giving more practice so that pupils would understand better what she was trying to cover.

C.3.4 TEACHING APPROACH

C.3.4.1 Unit Planning

She quickly developed an awareness of the importance of integrating lessons within a unit of work. She expressed great dissatisfaction with her first unit on advertising because she realised that there was no link between the work on advertising and writing a letter to a pen pal inviting them to visit Singapore. She avoided this mistake in all her subsequent units of work. She had a very clear planning approach to units of work:

> "I think of the written output first. From there all the other unit components. By reading I try to see if I can choose a passage which will relate to them, which they find interesting, but sometimes I just can't, I have no choice but to give them something dry. So I see if there's any link between reading, listening and writing. For speaking, I'll see if it's something which they can talk on, if they can say anything about it, it must be something that relates to them. I choose situations."

C.3.4.2 Lesson Objectives

She had few comments or concerns on this aspect of her planning. Objectives appeared to arise out of her overall unit goals.

C.3.4.3 Planning Approach

Her lessons were meticulously planned, and incorporated extra materials to motivate pupils. A common lesson sequence was to (1) explain the text features in a Clarify Phase, (2) give the pupils a practice task, and (3) review the task in order to once again highlight the main teaching points.

C.3.4.4 Presentation Approach

When asked to write down advice to be given to a teacher taking over her class at the end of the practicum, she summarised her lesson presentation approach as follows:

> 1. My class is rather smart. Therefore a teacher could cut down on the amount of explanation given to them and get then to give you more.

> 2. Set them more challenging tasks though they should not be too difficult.

> 3. Learn to handle then tactfully. Some or many of them have this idea that they do not need any help and therefore on should perhaps refrain from telling them too much and see what they come out with.

> 4. They are very unresponsive. One could perhaps merely call on them and not expect a show of enthusiasm when asked questions.

> 5. Too much of repetition or prolonging a task for too long tends to wear them out. They find it tedious.

> 6. Too many questions should be avoided. A variety of tasks should be given. They are very activity oriented and perhaps more activities could be given to them.

C.3.4.5 View of Methods

The following changes in perception of teaching techniques were noted over the course of the training year:

	TGD1	TGD2	TGD3	TGD4	%chg
pair work	3.38	3.88	3.25	3.75	+ 11
group work	3.13	3.50	3.50	3.63	+ 16
class debate	3.25	3.50	3.00	3.50	+ 8
teacher talk	3.00	2.63	3.13	3.25	+ 8
reading aloud	1.88	2.75	2.50	2.50	+ 33
tape recordings	2.50	2.75	2.75	3.00	+ 20
games/role play	3.00	3.13	3.38	3.88	+ 29
brainstorming	3.13	3.38	2.88	3.25	+ 4
presentations	3.13	3.38	3.13	3.38	+ 8

```
textbook exercises    2.88   2.75   3.50   2.75    - 4
activity cards        3.75   3.00   3.50   4.00    + 6
sitting tests         2.75   2.75   3.00   3.13    + 14
silent reading        2.75   2.75   3.25   3.13    + 14
writing compos        3.00   2.75   3.63   3.50    + 18
grammar rules         2.00   2.25   3.38   2.75    + 38
project work          3.38   3.25   3.63   3.88    + 15
memorising words      2.88   2.75   3.38   3.00    + 4
pronunciation         3.00   3.25   2.75   2.75    - 8
sentence making       3.38   3.25   3.50   3.25    - 4
```
Significant changes in perceptions were as follows:

```
                    % change
grammar rules         + 38
reading aloud         + 33
games/role play       + 29
```

The only constructs consistent across the four grids were ORDERLY and EASY, which were clustered in all cases.

A MOTIVATING lesson was construed to be a CHALLENGING one in the first and second grids, an INNOVATIVE one in the third grid, and an ENJOYABLE one in the final grid.

What constitutes an EFFECTIVE lesson was vague in the first grid; INNOVATIVE in the second grid, CHALLENGING in the third grid, and vague again in the last grid.

INTERESTING and ENJOYABLE were clustered in the first grid and the third grid (neither was closely clustered with any other construct in the second grid.) INTERESTING was clustered with CHALLENGING in the final grid.

C.3.4.6 Evaluation and Reflection

Rather than producing useful conclusions as to ways to improve her teaching, Hui Li's reflection on her lessons served more to crystallise her various concerns:

> "My lessons are basically question and answer sessions, and I don't know how to vary this."

This was despite the fact that she commented that pupils did not like to respond to her questions. She was trapped in trying to elicit because otherwise she felt that she was doing all the explanation and thinking herself:

"I think I should be able to GUIDE the students instead of just TELLING them. It doesn't really help. I think I should teach them how to look at things, see how things are developed, and teach them how to question things. I have to learn how to be a bit more specific in my questions. I think I have to cut down on my explanations and get THEM to think more."

She was also concerned that by doing the explanations herself, she had a tendency to overload her lessons. Finally, throughout teaching practice she felt that somehow she was not getting the best out of her class, and that she was not clear enough in putting across her teaching concepts. She felt that she got away with this because the class already had such a high level of language proficiency that they could produce good compositions even though (she felt) they had not entirely understood what she was teaching.

C.3.5 VIEW OF TEACHING

C.3.5.1 Influences

University
The use of written and oral questions was a central feature of her lesson presentation:

> "I want the students to think for themselves, and the only way I can get them to think for themselves is ask questions, even if they are given worksheets. In university we were asked a lot of questions and I think it's a good way of making a person think.

C.3.5.2 Coursework

She conscientiously included all the skill areas in the same sequences in her unit planning. This appeared to be a carryover from the one unit that she prepared during her coursework and taught during Pupil Experience. The only deviation was that she left out grammar because she felt that her class did not need it.

There was little traceable awareness of other sources of influence in her teaching:

> "I'm not too sure about theories. I just look at the classroom situation and the scheme of work."

C.3.5.3 Beginning of Practicum

She felt that she was very hazy about what was involved in teaching. She was not only lacking in confidence in being able to face real pupils, but also became aware for the first time that language could be divided into major skill areas of reading, writing, listening,

speaking as well as grammar and vocabulary. She also had the idea that teaching quality depended on "brilliant inductions" and computer-generated OHT's and materials.

> "Pupil experience was a little clearer because we had to come up with a unit and we had to do something on all the different language components."

She was equally nervous about beginning teaching practice, and felt that her initial lessons were messy because she was confused about what she was meant to be doing.

C.3.5.4 End of Practicum

The principal change in her awareness over the period of teaching practice was the need to change her approach to pupils, as noted above (see 1.3) under PUPILS.

> "I learnt how to relax myself and I was more realistic. I could somehow gauge the students and that's why my last unit was much better planned than the first three. I had a much better idea of how to handle the students but it was a bit too late because I was already about to leave. And I knew how to handle tense situations."

She was also aware of the fact that a carefully prepared and orderly lesson plan did not necessarily guarantee a successful lesson:

> "Teaching is not easy. Even if you plan very well, somehow many unexpected things crop up during the lessons, and one has to learn to cope with them and adjust lesson plans accordingly."

She had a sense of responsibility to teach her pupils useful aspects of language in order to improve their ability, but she realised that she had failed to take into account human factors in the learning process. She noted that it was important also to establish a good relationship with the class because this was more powerful learning influence than well-prepared lessons.

C.3.5.5 Final Perspective

> "I think the most important thing is not go in with any illusions, cause you finish up disappointed. Illusions can be shattered if you have too many."

This summed up her end-of-year negative view of teaching, arising principally out of the fact that she had not yet learned to take into consideration the human factor in the teaching process.

DISCOURSE PARAMETER STATISTICS FOR ALL CASES

The following summarises discourse parameter statistics by parameter by phase for each of the four case studies:

Case Study #1 - Ching Ching

Interactions

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
T>1		5	3		2			27		37
T>2			2							2
T>4		2	26	4	8	3		2		45
T>C	31	215	177	6	116	62	48	68	15	738
T+1	62	28	3	2	175	59	4	31	5	369
T+2					2					2
T+4	1			1	8					10
T+C	132	92	14	5	176	29	8	9	6	471
1>T										0
C>T			1		1	4		1	1	8
1+T	27	10	1	1	67	19	1	10	3	139
C+T	39	30	10	3	51	7	2	6	1	149
1>C										0
4>C					5	4		1		10
	292	382	237	22	611	187	63	155	31	1980

Speech Acts

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
BID	1	1			2			1	1	6
DIR	10	7	77	7	35	12	8	78	2	236
NFC	14	24	13		36		1	1	1	90
NOM	16	7	19	2	44	10		18	1	117
RFC	3	9	2		4	7	1	1		27
ACT					4	3				7
CLA		8	3		1	5	1			18
COM	1	3	1		6	3	4	1	4	23
COR	1	13	3		13	3	1		1	35
DEF	1	21			1	3	1		1	28
DET	3	4	9		15	1	7	3	1	43
HYP		7			1		5			13
ILL	1	21	11		8	7	1			49
MET	1		17	1	2	2	1	2	1	27
NOR		16	5		6	1				28
PET										0
REC	5	9			10	3	1	3	2	33
RET		1			1	3		3		8
RNG		4	1		8					13

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
RSL		2			6	1	5	1		15
RUL		11				2				13
RSN	1	11	7		16	6	1	2	2	46
STA	1	5	7	1	3		3			20
SUM	5	4			5	1	1			16
REP	13	16	10		14	2	1	5	1	62
RPH	9	10	9		20	10	4	1		63
INC	4	9	8		14	1	1		2	39
PHA										0
CLQ		1			5					6
ELI	26	35	16	3	67	17	3	14	2	183
EXQ	7	1			6	4				18
EXS				1	4					5
LIQ	13	6			5	3				27
PRO	1	2		1	16	4			1	26
PRT	25	18	1		18	9				71
RQU										0
ACC	18	12			24	9	1	1	1	66
ACK	9	8			24	3	1			45
CON										0
DIS	2					1				3
ECH	23	11	2		25	7	1	1	1	71
NOC	1	2			4	1		2	1	11
NON	3	2		1	13	7	1	3		30
PAR	3	8			3	5	5			24
PEA										0
RAN	2	13	3	1	6	6			1	32
REA	9	6	3	1	14	7	1	5	2	48
RES	59	34	10	3	102	19	2	8	2	239
	292	382	237	22	611	187	63	155	31	1980

Aspect

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
D1			3							3
D2			4		119	1		2	12	138
D3										0
D4										0
D5		25			66		1		1	93
P1										0
P2										0
P3										0
P4										0
S1										0
S4										0
SE										0
SC										0
GA		3	4				13			20
GE										0
GF					60					60
GM		18				6				24
GR		230	4		51	32	15		1	333

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
GT		54			99	45			1	199
VM										0
VU										0
VE										0
SP		2			6					8
PR										0
PU		9								9
BA										0
BE	4	3	36	6	15	10		136	1	211
IN					1				8	9
TA	12	6	141	16	64	45	22	8		314
TH	4		4		6	1	3			18
CO	265	25	26		104	42	8	2	3	475
OT			10		3			4	2	19
	292	382	237	22	611	187	63	155	31	1980

Continuity

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
CA	6	28	11		406	56		3	17	527
CB			1							1
LA	3	6			8		21	15		53
LB			6	1			12	5		24
UT										0
UG										0
KS		122	22		80	29	4		1	258
KO	43	1				18			2	64
KH										0
--	240	225	197	21	117	84	26	132	11	1053
	292	382	237	22	611	187	63	155	31	1980

Teaching Aids

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
A										0
B	10	25								35
C										0
E										0
K										0
O	197	309	32	0	393	119	21	3	17	1091
T										0
V										0
W		3	81	6	144	26	4	2	3	269
X										0
W-B										0
W-C										0
W-E										0
W-O										0
W-T										0
C-O										0
T-X										0
-	85	45	124	16	74	42	38	150	11	585

	292	382	237	22	611	187	63	155	31	1980

Materials

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
DI										0
DG										0
FE										0
NO		29	2				9			40
NU										0
PS										0
QU										0
RE	76				3			1		80
RP			8	4	18	11				41
SO										0
ST										0
TE										0
TS		31	33	4	190	1	5	3	13	280
TX			7							7
VI	172	26	67		92	56	4	1	5	423
WO	25	257	5	1	242	77	7	1	2	617
TE-DE										0
TE-NO										0
TE-QU										0
DI-QU										0
SO-QU										0
TX-QU										0
--	19	39	115	13	86	42	38	149	11	492
	292	382	237	22	611	187	63	155	31	1980

Case Study #2 - Alice

Interactions

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
T>1	7		3		7					17
T>2										0
T>4					2					2
T>C	78	227	250	18	61	39	32		5	710
T+1	42	49		1	41	7			4	144
T+2										0
T+4					2					2
T+C	61	75	14	2	76	3	3	1	4	239
1>T										0
C>T										0
1+T	29	19		1	25	4			3	81
C+T	3	4	1		1					9
1>C	4		1		6					11
4>C										0
	224	374	269	22	221	53	35	1	16	1215

Speech Acts

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
BID					2			1		3
DIR	10	7	72	9	6	5	7			116
NFC	5	16	10	2	6					39
NOM	7	2	2	2	7					20
RFC	5	9	6		2	1				23
ACT										0
CLA	1	11	9		2	2	2			27
COM	6	8	4		6	1	2		1	28
COR		2	1			1				4
DEF		2				1				3
DET	6	29	42		10	5	4			96
HYP		2								2
ILL		23	13			1			2	39
MET	2	1	2				1			6
NOR			2		1	2	1			6
PET	2	1	6	2		2				13
REC	9	5	2		2	1	1			20
RET			1	1						2
RNG	4	3	1		8	1				17
RSL		8			3	2				13
RUL		1								1
RSN	3	14	5		5	3	4		1	35
STA	4	19	6		5	2	1		1	38
SUM	4	12	3		4	2	4		1	30
REP	17	12	18	1	7	3			1	59
RPH	9	22	22		11	2	3			69
INC	4	14	14		9	3			1	45
PHA	16	28	16	1	12	4	3			80
CLQ	1				1				1	3

431

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
ELI	8	21	2	3	12	4			1	51
EXQ	8	3			6					17
EXS										0
LIQ	9	11			9					29
PRO	4	4			5					13
PRT	12	12			14					38
RQU	3								1	4
ACC	16	12	1		17				1	47
ACK		3								3
CON	5	15	7		10	1	2		1	41
DIS	1				1					2
ECH	7	6			5					18
NOC	3								2	5
NON					1					1
PAR	1	2		1	3					7
PEA										0
RAN	3	9			1					13
REA		2	1		5					8
RES	29	23	1		23	4			1	81
	224	374	269	22	221	53	35	1	16	1215

Aspect

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
D1	3	2	17		14	1				37
D2	14				54					68
D3		11								11
D4	145	132	7	2	109		3	1		399
D5		63	3			2	4			72
P1	2	46	1							49
P2										0
P3										0
P4										0
S1										0
S4										0
SE										0
SC										0
GA										0
GE										0
GF										0
GM										0
GR										0
GT										0
VM										0
VU										0
VE										0
SP										0
PR										0
PU										0
BA		5	3	1	1					10
BE										0
IN	16	29	16	1	12	4	3			81

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
TA	25	13	205	18	22	43	25		10	361
TH			2							2
CO	15	59	1						4	78
OT			1						1	2
--	4	14	14		9	3			1	45
	224	374	269	22	221	53	35	1	16	1215

Continuity

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
CA		34	9	2	207		2		10	264
CB										0
LA	158	26	2		1	3				190
LB						11				11
UT										0
UG										0
KS										0
KO	30	29							4	63
KH	4	16	128	9		33	6			196
--	32	269	130	11	13	6	27	1	2	491
	224	374	269	22	221	53	35	1	16	1215

Teaching Aids

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
A										0
B	158	22				2				182
C										0
E			38	4		19				61
K										0
O	6	223			40		7			276
T										0
V										0
W	3	74	111	2	62	3	9	1	1	266
X	16	15	30	4	109				10	184
W-B										0
W-C										0
W-E			73	5		26				104
W-O										0
W-T										0
C-O										0
T-X										0
-	41	40	17	7	10	3	19		5	142
	224	374	269	22	221	53	35	1	16	1215

Materials

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
DI										0
DG		36	5							41
FE										0

NO	158	118			22	2				300
NU										0
PS	34	11		3						48
QU		4	19							23
RE										0
RP										0
SO										0
ST										0
TE	25	148	149	9	190	22	26	1	10	580
TS										0
TX		24	3							27
VI										0
WO										0
TE-DE										0
TE-NO			7							7
TE-QU			66	5		26				97
DI-QU										0
SO-QU										0
TX-QU										0
--	7	33	20	5	9	3	9		6	92
	224	374	269	22	221	53	35	1	16	1215

Interactions

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
T>1	2	17	2	2	61	3		4	2	93
T>2			12	1	2					15
T>4	1		4		12				1	18
T>C	107	321	224	73	225	15	30	38	64	1097
T+1	54	37	5	3	287	7		5	11	409
T+2										0
T+4	4				10			X	1	15
T+C	50	70	6	12	256			12	36	442
1>T					1					1
C>T				1	1				1	3
1+T	19	15	4	1	127	3		3	7	179
C+T	11	16	8	6	52	1		3	24	121
1>C	2				2					4
4>C					1					1
	250	476	265	99	1037	29	30	65	147	2398

Speech Acts

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
BID			3		11			1		15
DIR	13	24	81	24	81	3	4	26	8	264
NFC	7	8	7	2	65	1				90
NOM	14	9	13	3	78	1		1	3	122
RFC	4	9	4		11					28
ACT	11								1	12
CLA	3	28	12		4	2	2	1	1	53
COM	4	37	7	3	13	1	2	1	16	84
COR		8		1	7		1			17
DEF		4								4
DET	4	22	26	6	8	1	2	2	4	75
HYP		2			2		2	1	1	8
ILL		28	6		2		2			38
MET	11	3	13	8	5	2	1	5	6	54
NOR		4		1	1		1		2	9
PET	4	2	9	1	5		3	1	4	29
REC	2	5	1	1	6				3	18
RET	1	1			1			1	1	5
RNG	20	16	3	1	18	1				59
RSL	2	7			5			2		16
RUL		10								10
RSN	7	34	8	7	16	3	3	5	5	88
STA	3	19		2	6	2	2		3	37
SUM		6	4		1				1	12
REP	8	19	15	7	39	2	3		7	100
RPH	8	22	16	1	30				6	83
INC	10	26	8	5	23	2	1		2	77
PHA	10	8	3	3	17		1	1	7	50
CLQ	2	3	2		8			1		16

ELI	12	23	9	9	69	3		5	19	149
EXQ	5	1			19					25
EXS	2	1			9					12
LIQ	6	8			40			1	2	57
PRO	4	3	1		30				2	40
PRT	8	13			46				1	68
RQU	2									2
ACC	11	11		4	59			1	2	88
ACK	1	2		1	37	1		1	2	45
CON	1	1		1	20			1	2	26
DIS		2	1		3					6
ECH	10	2			26				2	40
NOC					9					9
NON	3	10		2	37			1	5	58
PAR	1	5			11					17
PEA	4	7	7	2	6	1		1	12	40
RAN	1	6	1		4				1	13
REA	8	3		1	20			1	2	35
RES	23	14	5	3	129	3		4	14	195
	250	476	265	99	1037	29	30	65	147	2398

Aspect

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
D1	1									1
D2	19		4		22	4			6	55
D3										0
D4	56	45		7	212	3			16	339
D5										0
P1										0
P2										0
P3										0
P4										0
S1										0
S4										0
SE										0
SC	7	149	8	2	235		6			407
GA										0
GE										0
GF			7		150					157
GM										0
GR		118			51		10		5	184
GT										0
VM		10								10
VU		32			173		4		4	213
VE										0
SP										0
PR						2				2
PU										0
BA	2	7	1		3		2	4	2	21
BE			1	4	3			11		19
IN	10	6	3	3	12		1	1	10	46

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN		TOTAL
TA	27	48	209	76	104		18	5	41	24		552
TH	4	2	5	2	2			1				16
CO	113	33	11		32					10		199
OT	2		9		15				8	67		101
--	9	26	7	5	23		2	1	0	3		76
	250	476	265	99	1037		29	30	65	147		2398

Continuity

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN		TOTAL
CA	1	98	5	3	656				11	15		789
CB												0
LA	40		1				1	1		12		55
LB							1					1
UT												0
UG												0
KS	4											4
KO	82								1	6		89
KH		209	43	9	343			9	33	8		654
--	123	169	216	87	38		27	20	20	106		806
	250	476	265	99	1037		29	30	65	147		2398

Teaching Aids

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN		TOTAL
A												0
B	41			5								46
C												0
E												0
K	51									5		56
O	81	83	46	43	323		15	5	9	73		678
T												0
V			2	1			5			14		22
W	21	292	106	13	572		7	17	29	20		1077
X			38	18	22					2		80
W-B												0
W-C												0
W-E												0
W-O												0
W-T												0
C-O												0
T-X												0
-		56	101	73	19	120	2	8	27	33		439
	250	476	265	99	1037		29	30	65	147		2398

Materials

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN		TOTAL
DI	23	9	37		7		7	5	1	6		95
DG												0
FE	7		6	1			5			15		34

NO	48	24		5						77
NU										0
PS										0
QU			26	1				16		43
RE										0
RP	18		27	2	94			2	12	155
SO										0
ST			24	4						28
TE	38	181	68	49	495	13	6	8	80	938
TS		15	15	7	46			1		84
TX										0
VI	89							1	6	96
WO	3	189	19	8	369	2	18	9	8	625
TE-DE										0
TE-NO										0
TE-QU										0
DI-QU										0
SO-QU										0
TX-QU										0
--	24	58	43	22	26	2	1	27	20	223
	250	476	265	99	1037	29	30	65	147	2398

Case Study #4 - Hui Li

<u>Interactions</u>

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
T>1		3	1		13			1		18
T>2										0
T>4			6		2					8
T>C	28	163	189	38	95		9	4	11	537
T+1	12	17	6		110	4				149
T+2										0
T+4			1		14					15
T+C	31	18	16	10	85		2		2	164
1>T										0
C>T										0
1+T	8	6	3		66					83
C+T	6	9	6	6	30				1	58
1>C										0
4>C										0
	85	216	228	54	415	4	11	5	14	1032

<u>Speech Acts</u>

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
BID	4		2	1	7					14
DIR	1	7	70	15	21		2	5	1	122
NFC	3	2	7	1	13					26
NOM	2	3	7		36					48
RFC	1	4	3	1	7				1	17
ACT										0
CLA	1	9	6	3	4				1	24
COM	3	6	4	1	8		1		2	25
COR			1		3					4
DEF		2			1					3
DET	3	18	14	2	3		3			43
HYP			1							1
ILL		10	6		1					17
MET	2	1	17	3					3	26
NOR			1			1				2
PET			10	3						13
REC	1	2	4		3					10
RET			1							1
RNG	3	21	7		20					51
RSL	1	8	1							10
RUL										0
RSN	1	14	6	2	5				1	29
STA	1	12	3	1	4					21
SUM		11	2		1					14
REP	4	2	5	2	12		1			26
RPH	14	12	13	2	12	2				55
INC	1	18	6	3	9				1	38
PHA	1	5	5		4		2		1	18
CLQ			1	1	1					3

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
ELI	9	6	8	3	21				2	49
EXQ		1			8					9
EXS				1	10					11
LIQ	1	3			6					10
PRO					7					7
PRT	4	1	1	1	20					27
RQU			1		1		2			4
ACC	3	7	1	2	28					41
ACK					5					5
CON	2	5	4		9					20
DIS					1	1				2
ECH	1	1	1		8					11
NOC					3					3
NON	4	9	6	4	40		.			63
PAR	2	6			12					20
PEA	2			1					1	4
RAN	1	2			2					5
REA	1	2			6					9
RES		6	3	1	53					71
	85	216	228	54	415	4	11	5	14	1032

Aspect

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV	RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
D1	7	16	17		62	.				102
D2	15	96	6	7	154		2		4	284
D3	12	20			9					41
D4	16	8	11		3		7		3	48
D5	1				12					13
P1										0
P2										0
P3										0
P4										0
S1										0
S4										0
SE										0
SC	0	16	0	0	111	4	0	0	0	131
GA										0
GE										0
GF										0
GM										0
GR										0
GT										0
VM		9			10					19
VU		5			11		1			17
VE										0
SP										0
PR										0
PU										0
BA		3	3	5	4			3		18
BE								1		1
IN	1	5	3		3		1		1	14

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
TA		20	172	39	26					3	260
TH	1		1								2
CO	31		8		1					1	41
OT			1						1	1	3
--	1	18	6	3	9					1	38
	85	216	228	54	415		4	11	5	14	1032

Continuity

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
CA	8	120	4	3	390		4	2			531
CB											0
LA	13		7								20
LB				1							1
UT											0
UG											0
KS	14	50						7		2	73
KO	19				3					4	26
KH		11		6							17
--	31	35	217	44	22			2	5	8	364
	85	216	228	54	415		4	11	5	14	1032

Teaching Aids

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
A			2	12	1				2		17
B		4	33					2			39
C		6	13		13						32
E			4	2							6
K											0
O	48	117	50		174			7	1	10	407
T	11		12		1						24
V											0
W			63	15	28						106
X			4								4
W-B					25						25
W-C			6								6
W-E											0
W-O											0
W-T			9	4							13
C-O		44	4		83			2		2	135
T-X		5	2		67		4			1	79
-	26	40	26	21	23				2	1	139
	85	216	228	54	415		4	11	5	14	1032

Materials

	FO	CL	SE	FI	RV		RP	AD	CO	IN	TOTAL
DI	1		13								14
DG											0
FE											0

NO	14	45	69		9		9	1	2	149
NU			14							14
PS										0
QU			31	4	2					37
RE										0
RP										0
SO	19	12	2		47					80
ST										0
TE	7	18	43	5	65				3	141
TS		4			1					5
TX		47	9	20	95			2		173
VI	27	1							5	33
WO										0
TE-DE										0
TE-NO					25					25
TE-QU		44	10		83		2		2	141
DI-QU		5	2		67	4			1	79
SO-QU			9	4						13
TX-QU										0
--	17	40	26	21	21			2	1	128
	85	216	228	54	415	4	11	5	14	1032

CODING CONVENTIONS

INTERACTION

This code indicated the type of interaction which was taking place, i.e., between who and whom, as well as the nature of the interaction. The operator '>' indicated that somebody was talking AT somebody, e.g., teacher addressing the class, whereas '+' indicated that somebody was talking WITH somebody, e.g., teacher involved in question-and-answer exchange with the class.

Code	Type of Interaction
T>1	teacher to individual pupil
T>2	teacher to pair
T>4	teacher to group
T>C	teacher to class
T+1	teacher with individual pupil
T+2	teacher with pair
T+4	teacher with group
T+C	teacher with class
1>T	pupil to teacher [call out]
C>T	class to teacher [call out]
1+T	pupil with teacher [respond]
C+T	class with teacher [chorus answer]
1>C	pupil presenting to class
4>C	group presenting to class

SPEECH ACTS

This code indicated the kind of speech act which was taking place. For convenience, speech acts were grouped into the following categories:

Directing	teacher directing class behaviour or directing their attention to something
Informing	teacher telling class something
Eliciting	teacher or pupil elicitations
Responding	teacher or pupil responses
Other	miscellaneous speech acts which might fall into more than one category

Code	Type of Speech Act

DIRECTING

BID	opening bid to class
DIR	directing, giving instructions
NFC	focus nomination, directing attention to something
NOM	nominating or naming pupil to answer

INFORMING

CLA	clarifying
COM	commenting - giving opinion or evaluation
COR	correct version given by teacher
DEF	defining
DET	giving details or listing
HYP	hypothesising - if + situation
ILL	illustrating, giving examples
MET	metastatement regarding what teacher is doing or will do
NOR	incorrect version given by teacher
PET	metastatement regarding what pupils are doing or will do
REC	recapitulating what was said or done earlier
RET	retrospective - referring to past action of teacher
RFC	refocus the lesson
RNG	reading aloud
RSL	resulting in, conclusions
RUL	rule for language use
RSN	reason for, because
STA	stating 'truth', giving hint, advising
SUM	summarising points so far

ELICITING

CLQ	clarifying question
ELI	eliciting
EXQ	'anything else' 'any other points'
EXS	'anyone else'
LIQ	linked questions
PRO	probing for more detail
PRT	prompting, giving clues
RQU	recall question 'remember'

RESPONDING

ACC	accepting by use of 'okay' 'right'
ACK	acknowledging by restating answer
CON	confirming via question, usually indicates wrong answer
DIS	disagreeing
ECH	echoing exact words of pupil answer
NOC	answer not clear or audible
NON	no response
PAR	paraphrase what pupils said or thought - "said"
PEA	pupils reacting
RAN	teacher answers own question
REA	reacting e.g. 'good' 'wrong'
RES	responding to question

OTHER
ACT   acting in a role play (this occurred only in one lesson,
         and represents group presentations to the class during
         role play)
INC   incomplete
PHA   communication filler, e.g., "okay", "right"
REP   repeat what was said
RPH   rephrasing

ASPECT

Aspect categories are different from other codings in that they include both a priori intuitive categories as well as those naturally arising out of the data.

A priori categories were established to indicate the linguistic and cognitive level of teaching aspect in the lesson. Intuitively, such categories were envisioned to exist on a cline ranging from information at the discourse level (relatively abstract) downward through paragraph- and sentence-level to the most basic items such as grammar, vocabulary and spelling. The basic purpose in tracing Aspect was to explore the extent to which pre-service teachers tend to engage in cognitively challenging communication in the classroom as opposed to remaining at a simplistic level.

The last seven categories relate to aspects of classroom communication, and arose out of the data.

Code	Aspect
D1	discourse organisation
D2	" information
D3	" purpose/audience
D4	" genre features
D5	" format
P1	paragraph or extract organisation
P2	" " " information
P3	" " " purpose/audience
P4	" " " genre features
S1	sentence structure
S4	" type features
SE	" errors

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```
GA   grammar application
GE      "    errors
GF      "    form
GM      "    meaning/function
GR      "    rules
GT      "    terminology

VM   vocabulary meaning
VU      "        use
VE      "        errors
SP   spelling
PR   pronunciation
PU   punctuation
BA   attention
BE   behaviour
IN   interactive comment
TA   task
TH   thinking
CO   context for lesson episode
OT   other
--   no focus
```

CONTINUITY

This category was included to indicate the degree to which the teacher attempts to establish cognitive or affective linkages between the current focus of the lesson and other segments of the lesson itself, the unit of work, homework, or pupil prior knowledge gained either from the school or from the outside world.

```
Code                        Cognitive Linkage
CA   earlier part of lesson
CB   later part of lesson
LA   earlier lesson
LB   later lesson
UT   unit theme
UG      "  goals
KS   prior knowledge associated with schooling
KO      "        "           "        other real world matters
KH      "        "           "        homework done
--   no continuity
```

TEACHING AIDS

These codes arose out of the variety of teaching aids which were observed to be utilised by the pre-service teachers. Review of this aspect of the lesson was expected to indicate the extent to

which pre-service teachers tend to develop predilections for some particular teaching aids over others.

Code	Teaching Aids Used
A	activity cards, written instructions
B	blackboard or whiteboard
C	brochures
E	exercise books
K	book
X	textbook, workbook
O	OHP
T	tape recording
V	video recording
W	worksheet or handout
W-B	worksheet and blackboard or whiteboard
W-C	worksheet and brochures
W-E	worksheet and exercise books
W-O	worksheet and OHT
W-T	worksheet and tape recording
C-O	brochures and OHT
T-X	tape recording and textbook or workbook
-	no teaching aids

MATERIALS

Similarly to teaching aids, review of materials used during the lessons was expected to indicate the extent to which pre-service teachers tend to develop predilections for some particular materials over others.

Code	Materials Used
DI	dialogue
DG	diagram
FE	file extract(s)
NO	notes or summary points
NU	numbers
PS	pupils story telling
QU	questions
RE	realia
RP	role play
SO	song
ST	statements, instructions
TE	text whole
TS	" sentence or headings
TX	" extract
VI	visuals
WO	words
TE-DI	text whole and dialogue
TE-NO	text whole and notes or summary points

TE-QU text whole and questions
DI-QU dialogue and questions
SO-QU song and questions
TX-QU text extract(s) and questions
--   no materials

SUMMARY OF CHING CHING LESSON PLAN GOALS (GRAMMAR)

```
GRAMMAR LESSONS [1.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0, 8.0, 9.0, 10.0, 12.0, 13.0,
                 14.0, 15.0, 16.0, 19.0, 21.0, 22.0, 26.0, 31.0
                 32.0]

GOALS:  SIMPLE PAST TENSE [1.0]
        SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE [5.0]
        SIMPLE FUTURE TENSE [14.0]
           know how to use [5.0]
           use to describe [angry feeling 'now'] [5.0]
           practise using [6.0]
           use verbs correctly [14.0]
        SIMPLE PRESENT & PAST TENSES [6.0]
           evaluate pupil ability to differentiate [6.0]

GOALS:  PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE [13.0] [19.0]
        PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE [16.0] [26.0]
           be aware of form is>was, are>were, +ing, [13.0] [16.0]
           know when to use singular or plural verb according to
              subject of sentence [13.0]
           know function of [16.0]
           remind pupils that has verb to be in front of main verb
              [19.0]
           practise using with exercise, [16.0] charade, [19.0]
              'while' [26.0]
           know how to use correctly with 'while' [26.0]

GOALS:  ADJECTIVES [7.0] [8.0] [31.0]
           be aware of how these can improve writing [7.0]
           know order of [7.0]
           reinforce function & definition of [8.0]
           be aware that there are 3 degrees of comparison for
              [31.0]
           know how 3 degrees are formed [31.0]
           practise using [7.0] [8.0] [31.0]

GOALS:  ADVERBS [9.0] [10.0] [21.0] [22.0]
           know -ly form [9.0]
           know function related to action [9.0]
           introduce types of [10.0]
           heighten awareness of use by picking out uses from
              Exercise [10.0]
           know how to position adverbs correctly [21.0]
           practise using appropriately to describe events [22.0]
```

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GOALS: TENSES and SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT [22.0]
        practise using correctly [22.0]

GOALS: COUNTABLE & UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS [15.0]
        be aware of [15.0]

GOALS: QUESTION TAGS [11.0]
        be aware of what these are [11.0]
        practise using [11.0]