Encouraging Teachers to Be Reflective: Advantages, Obstacles and Limitations

BY

Umama AL Kalbani

A research essay submitted to

The faculty of Graduate Studies and Research

in partial fulfillment of the requirements of

Masters of Arts

School of Linguistics and Applied Language Studies

Carleton University

Ottawa, Ontario

Canada

April 2007

ABSTRACT

Within the constructivist perspective of teaching, which views skilled teaching as knowing what to do in uncertain and unpredictable situations, this research essay explored the topic of reflective teaching by investigating the following questions: (1) What is reflective teaching and why is it important? (2) Why should teachers be trained to be reflective and how can they be prepared to be reflective? (3) What is the role of the teaching context in teachers' attempts to be reflective? This paper suggests that reflective teaching is important because of the various potential benefits to teaching. Through reflection, teachers can maintain their voices and creativeness thus having authority to affect students, curriculum and school policies. The discussions also highlight the need to prepare student teachers and their professional counterparts to be reflective, so they can develop the characteristics of reflective teaching and gain the potential benefits of reflection. This can be achieved by adopting models and techniques that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches. The paper also suggests that maintaining teachers' attempts to be reflective in a workplace context and aligning practice with pre-service teacher education programs, requires the administrators or the policy makers to provide the following: sufficient time for teachers to reflect and work collaboratively to discuss challenges encountered in teaching, fewer non-classroom duties, regular in-service opportunities, more facilities and freedom in choosing suitable ways of evaluating their students' progress and needs.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

In the past, teachers were viewed as technicians who narrowly constructed the nature of the problems confronting them and merely carried out programs and ideas formulated elsewhere. Historically, teachers have been considered to be "consumers of curriculum knowledge, but are not assumed to have the requisite skills to create or critique the knowledge" (Paris, cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996). Lytle and Cochran-Smith (cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996) argue that teachers' direct involvement in the classroom, and their own perspectives about teaching complexities have been ignored in the literature of research on teaching. As these two authors point out:

> The voices of teachers, the questions and problems they pose, the
> frameworks they use to interpret and improve their practice, and the way
> they define and understand their work lives are absent from the literature
> of research on teaching. (p. 5)

Many staff development and school improvement initiatives also ignore the knowledge and expertise of teachers and rely primarily on top-down models of school reform that attempt to get teachers to comply with some externally generated solutions to school problems. Nowadays, research on teacher development (Crooks, 2003; James, 2001; Johnson, 2003; Moore, 1996; Roberts, 1998) stresses the need to involve teachers in educational change which is vital to its success, especially if the change is complex and affects many settings over long periods of time. Freeman and Richards (1996) say that there is a necessity to have more effort to engage teachers in the change process, to

create more ownership of change among the change force, and to give teachers more opportunities for leadership and professional learning.

Research on teacher empowerment (Crooks, 2003; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Schoeppach, 2001) also has emphasized that giving teachers more authority to make decisions affecting instruction is essential for teacher and school development. Marks and Louis (1997) point out that if teachers are to engage in meaningful development, they require a voice in school decision making, and an influence in decisions pertaining to instruction. They argue that teacher empowerment is an important condition for real change in the teachers' practice and pedagogical quality as well as for affecting students' academic performance. Moore (1996) views teacher empowerment and improving students' learning as interrelated since teachers assume full responsibility for all that happens in their classrooms. James (2001) reports that teachers who are empowered to affect students, curriculum and school policies put much effort into generating solutions for teaching related problems. Roberts (1998) stresses the need to give teachers the chance to have a voice over the curriculum they use in their teaching, arguing that:

> Only if teachers were centrally involved in the research, and thereby able to engage with the implications of classroom practice for students' learning, would it be possible to develop the curriculum in any meaningful way (p. 95).

Farrell (cited in Fox, 2004) argues that if curriculum reform occurs from the inside out, it can succeed and make a difference as opposed to occurring from the outside in, or the top down. Van den Berg (cited in Fox, 2004) stresses that curriculum reform can make a difference when curriculum designers shift their focus from a *rational-linear perspective* to *a cultural-individual perspective*. This is because, according to Van den

Berg (cited in Fox, 2004), the *rational-linear perspective* views teachers as technicians or consumers of the top-down forms of the educational reforms. In contrast, the *cultural-individual perspective* views teachers as active agents who can act and contribute in generating new knowledge to the betterment of teaching in the classroom. Freeman (1996) shows the importance of listening to teachers' voices and their own stories about their teaching since they provide valuable insights into the teaching-learning process that an outsider may disregard. He explains:

> Teachers and learners know the story of the classroom well, but they usually do not know how to tell it, because they are not often called upon to do so, nor do they usually have opportunities. Researchers, curriculum developers, and policy makers, on the other hand, are very skilled at telling certain things about classrooms; however, they often miss the central stories that are there... (p.90).
>
> Freeman continues, "To refer to what teachers know in order to teach as "stories" is not to trivialize it. In fact, much recent work in education has focused on...narrative ways of knowing.... if the teller of the story of teaching is the teacher we can be permitted access to valuable insights"" (p.90).

Russell and Ties (cited in Schoeppach, 2001) argue that encouraging notions such as the self-monitoring teacher, the teacher as a classroom researcher, the teacher as a decision maker and the teacher as a more reflective practitioner can directly improve the quality of teaching and learning. Freeman (1996) argues that there are three perspectives that are widely held in research on teaching. These three perspectives vary on how they empower teachers' voices or active role in making decisions and acting on them in order to improve their teaching practice. The first one is the behavioral perspective, which

focuses on what teachers actually do, and tries to connect their actions to student learning. The second is the cognitive perspective, which sees skilled teaching as a combination of thinking and doing. The constructivist perspective is the third, which perceives skilled teaching as knowing what to do. Freeman (1996) points out that within this perspective experienced and effective teachers interpret the available information in their own particular settings, make decisions, and act on them. It is within this context, the constructivist perspective of teaching that this research essay examined *reflective teaching*.

1.2. Research Questions

This research essay aimed to explore the following questions related to this topic: (1) What is reflective teaching and why is it important? (2) Why should teachers be trained to be reflective and how can they be prepared to be reflective? (3) What is the role of the milieu or the teaching context in teachers' attempts to become more reflective on their teaching?

This research essay is divided into five Chapters. In this first Chapter I have discussed the importance of giving teachers more authority to have a voice to affect students' learning, curriculum development and school polices instead of only being viewed as technicians and consumers of others' ideas and programs. In this research essay, I will argue that encouraging teachers to be more reflective, drawing on the constructivist perspective of teaching, can empower teachers to take an active role in making decisions. The second Chapter, based on a review of the literature, shed lights on the historical roots of reflective teaching, its definition and its potential benefits. It also explains the stages that teachers go through when they reflect. Using a literature review

the third Chapter explores the constructivist models and techniques that help promote reflective teaching in both student teachers and their professional counterparts. The fourth Chapter, based on a small study, presents the effects of the teaching context on the attempts of three innovative EFL teachers to reflect on their self-initiated teaching approaches in a university in the Middle East. This small study aims to investigate if the teaching context can help or hinder teachers' efforts to reflect on their teaching. Finally, Chapter five sums up the paper by addressing the main points discussed in this paper and provides the researcher's own perspective about reflective teaching as well as the limitations of this paper and some recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

WHAT IS REFLECTIVE TEACHING? AN OVERVIEW

This Chapter, based on a review of the literature, aims to shed light on the historical roots of reflective teaching, its definition and its potential benefits. The stages teachers go through when they reflect will be also explained.

2.1. Historical Roots of Reflective Teaching

Numerous philosophers, theorists, teacher educators and researchers contributed to the establishment of reflective teaching. According to the education literature, however, a few key theorists with their varied concepts of reflection have had an important influence on much of the writing on reflection in teacher education (York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere, and Montie, 2006). One of these theorists is John Dewey (1933), and he is frequently recognized as an eminent twentieth century influence on reflection in education. Much of his discussion about reflection which is found in his book, *How We Think* (Dewey, 1933), help to promote thoughtful action by teachers. His work was influenced by earlier Eastern and Western philosophers and educators, including Buddha, Plato, and Lae-tzu (York-Barr, et al., 2006; Zeichner and Liston, 1996). Dewey was also one of the first educational theorists in the United States to view teachers as reflective practitioners and as professionals who could play very active roles in curriculum development and educational reform (Zeichner and Liston, 1996).

2.1.1. Routine action. Dewey (1933) distinguishes between human action that is reflective and that which is routine. According to Dewey, routine action is behavior that is guided by impulse, tradition, and authority and it can also be defined as the random "stream of consciousness" of everyday experience (Calderhead, 1989, p.44). Dewey

states that in every school there are routine definitions of reality or a collective code in which problems, goals and the means for their accomplishment become defined in particular ways. Teachers, who are less reflective, according to Dewey, often uncritically accept this everyday reality in their schools and concentrate their efforts on finding the most effective means to solve problems that have largely been defined by this collective code. This means that teachers who are less reflective teach in a routine fashion and follow what is recommended in the designated textbooks or in the guidelines of teaching. They also teach lessons in the same way it was taught in the past without questioning or adjusting their teaching methods.

*2.1.2. Reflective action***.** Dewey (1933) defines reflective action as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" (p.9). Dewey also views action based on reflection as intelligent action, in which its justifications and consequences have been considered, as opposed to appetitive, blind, or impulsive action (Calderhead, 1989). Dewey argues that reflective action is a process that involves more than a logical and rational problem-solving process. Instead, it involves intuition, emotion, and passion and it is not something that can be neatly packaged as a set of techniques for teachers to use (Green, cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996). This indicates that in reflective action, in contrast to routine action, reason and emotion are integrated. Dewey also states that the sense of wonder at a problem and the purposeful and reasoned search for a solution are the most important features of reflection. In addition, Dewey claims that the acquisition of certain attitudes (e.g., of open-mindedness, responsibility,

wholeheartedness) and skills of thinking (e.g., reasoning and ordering thought) are essential for the development of reflection (cited in Calderhead, 1989).

   2.1.3. Open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness. According to Dewey (cited in Calderhead, 1989), open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness are dispositions that push a more reflective teacher toward a critical and supportive examination of his/her teaching. Zeichner and Liston (1996) show that open-mindedness is an active desire to listen to different sources, to give full attention to alternative possibilities and to accept strengths and weaknesses of the one's and the others' perspectives. Dewey's conception of open-mindedness can be compared to the sociologist C. Wright Mills' (cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996) conceptions of beliefs and believers. According to Mills, there are three types of believers: vulgar, sophisticated, and critical (Valli, cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996). Dewey's conception of open-mindedness is similar to Mills' understanding of critical believers. Critical believers, according to Mills, are willing to enter sympathetically into opposing points of view because they realize that all belief systems have weaknesses and can be strengthened by the confrontation with different beliefs.

   The second precondition of reflective action, according to Dewey (1933), is the attitude of responsibility which involves careful consideration of the consequences to which an action leads. Teachers acting responsibly think of three kinds of consequences of their teaching: (1) personal consequences (the effects of one's teaching on pupils' self-concepts); (2) academic consequences (the effects of one's teaching on pupils' intellectual development; (3) social and political consequences (the projected effects of one's teaching on the life chances of various pupils) (Pollard and Tann, 1993).

The third attitude necessary for reflection, according to Dewey (1933), is wholeheartedness. Dewey indicates that teachers who become wholehearted regularly examine their own assumptions and beliefs and the results of their actions. Larrivee and Cooper (2006) point out that teachers acting wholeheartedly approach all situations with the attitude that they can learn something new and Farrell (cited in Larrivee and Cooper, 2006) characterizes these teachers as being committed to seek every opportunity to learn.

According to Dewey (1933) the possession of these attitudes (open-mindedness, responsibility, wholeheartedness) and skills of thinking "emancipates us [more reflective teachers] from merely impulsive and routine activity…enables us to direct our actions with foresight and to plan according to ends in view of purposes of which we are aware. It enables us to know what we are about when we act" (p.17). However, Dewey (1933) argues that more reflective teachers do not reflect about everything all the time. Instead, he suggests that a balance between reflection and routine, between thought and action should be undertaken by teachers who want to become more reflective.

2.1.4. A balance between reflection and routine in the classroom. Zeichner and Liston (1996) point out that the teachers in their classrooms must make hundreds of spontaneous decisions each day because classrooms are fast-paced and unpredictable environments. Zeichner and Liston (1996) ague that there are different and many institutional constraints that may increase the complexity of the teachers' work such as lack of time, high teacher-pupil ratios, and pressure to cover a required and broadly defined curriculum. They claim that these constraints hinder teachers from reflecting on the problems that may encounter them in their classrooms. Dewey (1933) argues that teachers need to seek a balance between routine and reflection. This is because he

believes that it is blindness to act without questioning our received truths and it is arrogance to question everything all of the time.

2.1.5. Schön 'reflection-on-action' and 'reflection-in-action'. The American Sociologist Donald A. Schön in his various writings (1983, 1987) has also influenced teacher education with his concepts of *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action*. In his widely cited book, *The Reflective Practitioner*, Zeichner and Liston (1996) argue that Schön (1983) presents a very thorough critique of the technical rationality that has dominated professional practice throughout most of the twentieth century. Schön's concepts of *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action* are extended views of Dewey's notion of reflection by emphasizing the context and the moment in which reflection takes place (Freese, 1999). Schön (1983) also distinguishes between *reflection-on-action* and *reflection-in-action*. Schön (1983) argues that *reflection-on-action* refers to the thinking about the lesson before, as well as after the lesson. Van Menan (cited in Larrivee and Cooper, 2006) refers to this kind of reflection as *recollective reflection* noting that it promotes deeper insights into past experience. Larrivee and Cooper (2006) demonstrate that reflecting after being removed from an event is the most frequently used form of reflection because reflecting while engaging in the teaching process is too challenging for most teachers.

Reflection-in-action, on the other hand, refers to the thinking that occurs during the act of teaching and this form of reflection is claimed to be often tacit by Schön (1983). Schön (1987) defines *reflection-in-action* as "a reflective conversation with the materials of a situation. Each person carries out his own evolving role…listens to the surprise ('back talk') that result from earlier moves, and responds through online production of

new moves that give new meanings and directions to the development of the artifact" (p.31). Schön (1983) also asserts that "some of the most interesting examples of reflection-in-action occur in the midst of a performance" and can be described by "phrases like thinking on your feet, suggesting….that we can think about doing something while doing it" (p.54). This kind of reflection, according to Larrivee and Cooper (2006) requires teachers to have keen awareness of what is going in the classroom and it also requires teachers to have a high level of consciousness to allow them to make adjustments while they are in the process of teaching. Larrivee and Cooper (2006) show that with this type of reflection, for instance, the teacher may recognize that the students' engagement is trailing off, so he/she will do something novel to recapture students' attention.

According to Schön (1983), more reflective teachers reflect both *in* and *on* action. He (1983) also shows that both *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action* are based on a view of knowledge and an understanding of theory and practice that are very different from the traditional ones that have dominated educational discourse.

2.1.6. Schön: Technical rationality and reflection. Schön (1983, 1987) argues against the traditional methods of instructing prospective professional teachers that are adopted in universities. He claims that using applied science knowledge (Wallace, 1991) or technical rationality (Schön, 1983, 1987) does not equip professionals with the training required to solve the practical problems that they may come across in everyday practice. He suggests that viewing professional action as an applied science undervalues the artistry of the professional that should be a process of *reflection-in-action* or *reflection-on-action*. In the traditional view of technical rationality, according to Schön (1983),

there is a separation between theory and practice that must somehow be overcome. The traditional view of technical rationality is based on a belief that theories are generated only in universities, research and development centers, and that only practice exists in schools. This traditional view also gives little recognition to the knowledge that is embedded in a teacher's practice, what Schön (1983) termed as knowledge-in-action. Schön (1983) argues that the application of external research to the world of professional practice does not work efficiently in helping teachers to meet the key problems that they face in the 'swampy lowlands' of their work. He writes commenting on this point:

> In the varied topography of professional practice, there is a high, hard ground where practitioners can make effective use of research-based theory and technique, and there is swampy lowland where situations are confusing "messes" incapable of technical solution. The difficulty is that the problems of the high ground, however great their technical interest, are often relatively unimportant to clients or to larger society, while in the swamp are the problems of the greatest human concern (Schön, 1983, p. 42).

Schön (1983, 1987), in his reflective practitioner model, proposes that professional practice should involve the use of knowledge-in-action that can be acquired in three ways. The first way is through self-instruction and the second is via an apprenticeship in a real world context. The third, most favored, way to Schön (1983) is by means of a practicum or virtual world. In this practicum, Schön (1983) argues that the novice practitioner should be closely supervised by a master practitioner and coached "in solving the problems posed in professional practice and how to negotiate the ladder of reflection" (Wakes, cited in Kernaghan, 2006, p.6). By this process, Schön (1983) argues that the novice will gradually build on his/her repertoire of experience that will ultimately enable

him/her to *reflect-in-action* as an independent and effective practitioner. Schön (1987) believes that the challenge to professional school is that of educating for artistry. In other words, helping people become more competent in the indeterminate zones of practice, uncertainties, and surprise. Surprise and uncertainties according to Schön (1987) are the daily occurrences for beginning teachers as they encounter novel and unpredictable situations in their classrooms.

   2.1.7. Reflection as self-determination. A review of the literature on reflective practice reveals that the Frankfurt School of Social Research has had another major influence on the concept of reflective teaching. For example, the work of Habermas (cited in Calderhead, 1989) has inspired a critical science concept of reflection as self-determination. According to Habermas' work, reflection is viewed as a process of becoming conscious of one's context, of the influence of social and ideological constraints on previous practices, and gaining control over the direction of these influences. This concept of reflection as self-determination has recently been used to support action-research or teacher-as-researcher approaches. This kind of research, according to Carr and Kemmis (cited in Calderhead, 1989) can empower teachers to gain greater professional self-determination through the heightened awareness and understandings that accompany their own research.

   The work of Habermas, in addition to the work of Dewey and Schön, offers a framework for the other researchers and educators to use in their attempts to define reflective teaching. In the next Section, different definitions of reflective teaching are explored in greater detail.

2.2. Definition: What Is Reflective Teaching?

Having considered the key philosophers associated with reflective teaching, in this Section I consider how reflective teaching has been defined in the literature. The teacher education literature is filled with various definitions of reflective teaching or reflective practice. Writers or researchers on reflection in teacher education do not have a general consensus on what reflective teaching amounts to and what it implies for teacher education. Terms such as *reflective practice*, *inquiry-oriented teacher education*, *research-in-action*, *teacher as decision-maker*, *teacher as professional*, and *teacher as problem solver*, all draw on some notion of reflection in the process of professional development (Larrivee and Cooper, 2006; Taggart and Wilson, 2005; Zeichner and Liston, 1996). At the same time, Calderhead (1989) argues that these varied terms of reflective teaching indicate a vast number of conceptual variations with their alternative implications for the organization and the design of teacher education courses. In addition, he argues that the concept of *reflective teaching* has been defined in various ways based on the context of the writer's or researcher's professional education or beliefs about teaching and teacher education. Although scholars and researches define the term reflective teaching differently (Bartlett, 1990; Calderhead, 1989; Jay and Johnson, 2002), these various definitions can be classified into five perspectives: that is, reflective teaching from a technical perspective, a contextual perspective, a social perspective, an experiential or deliberative perspective and a critical perspective. Each one of these aforesaid perspectives will be explored in greater detail below.

2.2.1. The technical perspective. Reflective teaching from a technical perspective means that teachers when they reflect, focus on the strategies and methods used to

research predetermined goals (Bartlett, 1990; York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere and Mortie, 2006). Teachers who reflect within this perspective are also concerned with what works in the classroom to keep their students quiet and to maintain order rather than with any consideration of the cultural and social context in which their teaching is embedded. Cruickshank (cited in Bartlett, 1990) defines *reflective teaching* within this perspective as the teacher's thinking about what occurs in the classroom lessons, and about possible means of achieving goals or aims. Cruickshank (cited in Bartlett, 1990) also views *reflective teaching* as a means to give a more reflective teacher "an opportunity to consider teaching even thoughtfully, analytically, and objectively" (p.203). According to Cruickshank's definition of *reflective teaching*, the development of teaching techniques is regarded as the most essential way for helping teachers to improve their practice.

     2.2.2. The contextual perspective. Reflective teaching from a contextual perspective means that reflection involves clarification of and elaboration on the underlying assumptions and predispositions of classroom practice as well as consequences of strategies used. Taggart and Wilson (2005) point out that teachers when they reflect within a contextual perspective, can understand concepts, contexts, and theoretical bases for classroom practices and can defend those practices and articulate their relevance to student growth. They also argue that clarification of assumptions and predispositions of practice and consequences help contextual practitioners assess implications and consequences of actions and beliefs.

     2.2.3. The social perspective. Reflective teaching within the social perspective indicates that reflection should not be viewed as a solitary process involving a teacher and his or her situation, but as a social process taking place within a learning community.

Solomon (cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996) stresses the idea of reflection as a social practice and argues that without a social forum for the discussion of teachers' ideas, their development is inhibited. Pollard and Tann (1993) also argue that reflective teaching is enhanced through collaboration and dialogue with colleagues. Pollard and Tann (1993) state that the value of engaging in reflective activity is almost always enhanced if it can be carried out in association with other colleagues. Collaborative work or collaboration and dialogue with colleagues are based on the social nature of learning (Vygotsky, cited in Pollard and Tann, 1993). According to Pollard and Tann (1993) through collaboration aims can be classified, experience can be shared, language and concepts for analyzing practices can be refined. Also, through collaboration the personal insecurities of innovation can be reduced, evaluation can become reciprocal and commitments can be affirmed. Brookfield (2002) points out that although critical reflection often begins alone, it is most fruitfully conducted as a collective endeavor. Teachers, according to Brookfield (2002), need colleagues to help them know what their assumptions are, how these could be researched, and how they might change their practices.

2.2.4. The experiential or deliberative perspective. The experiential or deliberative perspective means that teachers when they reflect, do not only rely on what research says they should be doing, but they also consider their own practical theories, teaching experiences, values and beliefs in making their decisions. Within this perspective, according to Zeichner and Liston (1996) teachers exercise their judgment about various teaching situations while taking advantage of research, experience, intuition and their own values. Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) argue that teachers when they reflect, must develop a conscious awareness of the actions and ideas that shape their strategies and

come to an understanding of their own values, beliefs and teaching experiences in making their decisions. Thus, when they reflect on their teaching, they can assume a dual stance as the actor in a drama and the critic who sits in the audience. Pollard and Tann (1993) also state that more reflective teachers differ from less reflective ones because they use their own educational experiences, values and assumptions and not depend only on the research in their reflection. Richards and Lockhart (1994) also define *reflective teaching* as "one in which teachers and student teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching" (p.1).

2.2.5. *The critical perspective.* Within this perspective, teachers in their reflections do not only reflect on what works in the classroom, but they also examine the ethical and political consequences of their teaching (Zeichner and Liston, 1996). Bartlett (1990) argues that reflection has a dual meaning that could be described as "critical critical" (p. 203). The first one involves the relationship between an individual's thought and action and the second meaning, however, consists of the relationship between the teacher and the other members in the society. Bartlett (1990) also indicates that the first relationship involves the subjective meanings in the teacher's head; while the second relationship investigates consciously the relationship between individual teaching actions and the purposes of education in society.

Bartlett (1990) argues that becoming critical entails teachers going beyond the technicalities of their teaching and thinking ahead of the need to develop their instructional techniques. This means that teachers have to move away from 'how to' questions, to the 'what' and 'why' questions which view instructional and meaningful

techniques as a part of broader educational purposes rather than as ends in themselves. Bartlett (1990) points out that asking 'what' and 'why' questions give the teachers a certain power over their teaching. He argues that when the teachers reflect on 'what' and 'why' questions, they begin to exercise control over their everyday classroom actions. This process of control according to Bartlett (1990) is called *critical reflective teaching* which refers to enabling teachers to witness their actions according to the historical, cultural, and social context in which their teaching is embedded. Bartlett (1990) argues that reflective teaching is also located in a socially critical orientation to teaching since it is a form of critical inquiry. Thus, this form of critical inquiry can enable teachers to discover the factors that could hinder innovations that would lead to improvement.

Based on these five perspectives I define teachers who want to become more reflective as those who avoid adopting a bureaucratic or technical role that has been historically given to teachers. Instead, more reflective teachers focus internally and externally on the social conditions of their practice. Thus, action plans that are generated from the process of reflection examine the ethical and political consequences of teaching based on their experiences, values, beliefs and research, and generally occur as collaborative work.

These reviewed definitions from these diverse perspectives assume that educators and researchers in the field of teaching and teacher education realize the importance of reflective teaching. However, this may not be always the case. What is clear, however, is the benefits that can accrue when teachers do reflect on the teaching and learning in their classrooms. In the next Section, based on a review of the literature, I explore why reflective teaching is important and why teachers should be reflective.

2.3. *Potential Benefits of Reflection*

Research acknowledges a number of potential benefits that arise from reflecting on one's teaching both for pre-service and in-service teachers (Bailey, 1997; Cruickshank, 1987; Mckay, 2002; Oterman and Kottamp, 1993). Larrivee and Cooper (2006) argue that reflective teaching can help teachers to deal with the inevitable uncertainties and tradeoffs involved in everyday decisions that might affect the lives of their students. They claim that today's classrooms are characterized by complexities, ambiguities and dilemmas that require effective teachers to engage in both critical inquiry and thoughtful reflection. They also argue that reflective teaching can help teachers to accommodate students' differences in ethnicity, socioeconomic status, developmental levels, motivation to learn and achievement.

In addition, today, teaching and being a teacher is not an easy task. This is due to the fact that teachers cannot ignore the cultural, psychological, and political complexities that may create challenges to achieving their goals in the classroom. Teachers may also encounter various challenges in their teaching such as learners' resistance to learning, learners' low motivation, and low achievement in learning. If teachers innocently and without critical reflection view any of the above challenges as the result of their own insensitivity or unpreparedness, they would start to have feelings of hopelessness, demoralization and self-laceration as teachers. Teachers who are less reflective in their teaching practices would also end up to be ineffective in meeting student needs, developing a more complex understanding of teaching issues, and growing continuously as professional teachers. Thus, avoiding these negative consequences in one's professional career as a teacher is by becoming critically reflective. This stance towards

teaching "might not win us easy promotion or bring us lots of friends, but it does enormously increase the chance that we will survive in the classroom with enough energy and sense of purpose to have some real effect on those we teach" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 2).

Mckay (2002), and Larrivee and Cooper (2006) state that reflective teaching can free teachers from routine behavior. They argue that when teachers teach in a routine fashion, they follow the designated textbooks or teach a lesson in the same way it was taught in the past without an effort to change or innovate. This mechanical way of teaching, however, according to Mckay (2002), results in ineffective lessons and teachers become slaves to routine. Thus, being a more reflective teacher frees one from routine action and can result in more creative and effective lessons.

Another benefit of reflective teaching, according to Mckay (2002) is that being more reflective enables teachers to act in a deliberate manner. When teachers begin to think about the reasons for doing something in a particular way and not simply following what is being said in the textbooks or what they have done in the past, they will be able to act in a deliberate manner. Larrivee and Cooper (2006) show that when teachers act in a deliberate manner, they can understand the theoretical basis for classroom practice and foster consistency between espoused theory (what they know and believe about teaching and learning in the classroom) and theory-in-use (what they actually do in the classroom). Acting in a deliberate manner, according to Zeichner and Liston (1996), also can lead teachers not to focus only on the classroom, but on the context in which teaching and schooling is embedded.

Mckay (2002) shows that being a more reflective teacher can help improve teaching practice. According to Mckay (2002) when more reflective teachers begin

teaching a particular lesson, they will consider various factors such as students'
proficiency levels and interests, curriculum's goals, and the teaching time that is
available. Mckay (2002) argues that considering these factors in deciding how to teach a
particular lesson will generally result in more effective classes.

Larrivee and Cooper (2006) point out that reflective teaching can assist teachers
become empowered decision makers and agents of change who can act to change and
understand the world they live in. Zeichner and Liston (1996) argue that reflective
teaching consists of the recognition that teachers should be active in formulating the
purposes and the ends of their work, examining their own values and assumptions, and
playing leadership roles in curriculum development and school reform. Reflective
teaching also involves recognition that colleges, universities, research and development
centers are not the exclusive contributors in generating new knowledge that can lead to
the betterment of teaching in the classroom. This indicates that teachers with their ideas,
beliefs, and theories can also participate in formulating ideas and programs instead of
being "consumers of curriculum knowledge" (Paris, cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996,
p. 4).

York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere and Montie (2006) identify a number of potential
benefits of reflective teaching or reflective practice. They state that reflective teaching
can provide new teachers with the guidance to adopt new roles and provide experienced
teachers with continuous learning. They also present that reflective teaching can bridge
the gap between theory and practice, offer considerations of multiple perspectives, and
provide productive engagement of conflict and knowledge for immediate action. York-
Barr et al. (2006) show that reflective teaching also can provide teachers with embedded

formative assessment (diagnostic use of assessment to provide feedback to teachers and students over the course of instruction), growth in cultural competence, and understanding of role and identity. They also indicate that reflective teaching can maintain individual and collective efficacy, strong connections among staff, great professionalism and voice and less external mandates.

Gaining these potential benefits of reflective teaching requires teachers to be aware that the process of reflection is a dynamic process. This process goes through successive cycles that can eventually lead to higher-quality teaching. In the next Section, I examine this process more closely.

2.4. Process: How Do Teachers Reflect?

Research shows that the process of reflection or how teachers reflect is based on a cycle of activity (Bartlett, 1990; Jay and Johnson, 2002; Pollard and Tann, 1993; Taggart and Wilson, 2005; Wallace, 1991). This implies that teachers are expected to plan, make provisions and act in a manner that can eventually lead to higher-quality teaching. The different models of process of reflection with its varied theoretical understandings of reflection adhere to the ideas first formulated by Dewey (1933) when he said that it was necessary to:

> have a genuine situation of experience- that there be a continuous activity in which he [a more reflective teacher] is interested for its own sake; secondly, that a genuine problem develops with this situation as a stimulus to thought; third, that he possesses the information and makes the observations needed to deal with it; fourth, that suggested solutions occur to him which he shall be responsible for developing in an ordinary way; fifth, that he has an opportunity and occasion to test his ideas by

application to make the meaning clear and to discover for himself their validity (p.174).

According to Schön (1983), when teachers reflect *on* and *in* action and learn from their practice, the process of reflection moves through stages of appreciation, action, and reappreciation. Schön (1983) argues that teachers interpret and frame (appreciate) their experiences through a repertoire of values, knowledge, theories, and practice and these repertoires are called *appreciative systems*. Teachers during and after their actions, reinterpret and reframe their situation on the basis of their experience in trying to change it. Schön (1983) shows that when teachers engage in this process of reframing, they look at their experiences from a new perspective. Munby and Russell (cited in Zeichner and Liston, 1996) describe the significance of this reframing process as follows:

> Reframing describes the familiar process in which an event over which we
> have puzzled for some time suddenly is "seen" differently and in a way
> that suggests new approaches to the puzzle. The significance of reframing
> is that it sets the puzzle differently. And it frequently does so in a fashion
> that is not logical and almost beyond our conscious control (p. 17).

Bartlett's (1990) model of reflective process provides the most comprehensive description of how teachers reflect. Bartlett argues that the process of reflection is best described as a cycle of activity and this cycle consists of five phases which are mapping, informing, contesting, appraising, and acting. These phases constitute the process of reflective teaching, but they are not linear or sequential. This is due to the fact that this cycle, according to Bartlett (1990), offers a systematic approach to the process of making committed choices as the basis of good teaching. So, when teachers reflect on their teaching, they may pass through the cycle several times. In addition to this, Bartlett

(1990) points out that one phase in the cycle is not always followed by the next phases and the phase may be omitted in moving through the cycle, especially when different courses of action are adopted.

In the first phase, mapping, teachers begin the process of their reflection by observing and collecting evidence about their teaching. Observation may consist of tape-recording, using photography, keeping a diary or a journal. Bartlett (1990) points out that teachers can observe and reflect on their routine and conscious actions in the classroom, conversations with pupils, critical incidents during a lesson, their personal lives as teachers and their beliefs about teaching.

The second phase is informing whereby teachers, according to Bartlett (1990), revisit their first record (their maps) add to them and make meaning of them. Bartlett (1990) states that the informing may occur after a teaching sequence or a lesson and it may be accomplished by the individual teacher or by having a discussion with others. The third phase, contesting, is uncovering the teachers' assumptive worlds and searching for inconsistencies and contradictions in what teachers do and think. The fourth phase is appraisal in which teachers, according to Bartlett (1990), begin to link the thinking dimension of reflection with the search for teaching in ways that are consistent with their new understanding. In this phase teachers may ask themselves, what would be the consequences to teaching if I changed….? The last phase in Bartlett's (1990) model is acting. Paulo and Freire (cited in Bartlett, 1990) argue that reflection without action is verbalism and action without reflection is activism. Bartlett (1990) claims that though acting is listed chronologically as the last phase in the process of reflective teaching, it is

not the final phase since a continuing dialectical relationship exists between the preceding phases and the idea of acting out new ideas about teaching.

Dewey (1933), Schön (1983), Eby and Kujawa, Pugach and Johnson (cited in Taggart and Wilson, 2005) also propose a cyclical process approach to reflective teaching. Taggart and Wilson (2005) show that the first stage in this cyclical process approach involves a problem which Dewey (1933) refers to it as *a felt difficulty* while Schön (1983) uses the term *problematic situation*. The second stage in this process is to step back from the problem, in order to look at the situation from a third-person perspective, so the problem may be framed or reframed. Dewey (1933) refers to this stage in which the problem is understood as one of providing definition and location. Eby and Kujawa (cited in Taggart and Wilson, 2005) suggest using components of observation, reflection, data gathering, and consideration of moral principles in an attempt to define the *problematic situation*. In the third stage, the more reflective teachers devise possible solutions and predictions that are based on reasoning through similar past experience. In the fourth stage, the generated solutions are systematically tested with subsequent observations and experimentations. Dewey (1933) shows that if the proposed solution is proven to be successful, acceptance takes place and if this proposed solution, according to Taggart and Wilson (2005), however, is proven to be not successful, the problem may be reframed and the process will be repeated.

These are two models from various proposed models in the field of reflective teaching that indicate what steps, stages and phases teachers should follow when they reflect on their teaching. Although there are some significant differences in these models, they all maintain a central concern with self-reflection (Pollard and Tann, 1993).

2.5. Conclusion

This Chapter, based on the reviewed literature, examined the role that Dewey and Schön have played as the key theorists who have had an important influence on reflection in teacher education. Dewey advocated for reflective teaching, distinguishing between routine action and reflective action. He also urged teachers to become more reflective in their practice, by developing the attitudes of open-mindedness, responsibility, wholeheartedness and skills of thinking. Dewey argued against those who claimed that teachers cannot reflect because of the complexity of their work. He stressed that though teachers might face many institutional constraints, they still could have a balance between reflection and routine in their classrooms.

Schön was also a strong proponent of reflective teaching. This was apparent in his arguments against the traditional methods of teaching that viewed professional action as an applied science or as a technical rationality. He suggested that professional action should be viewed as a process of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. These two types of reflection were distinguished by Schön according to the moment in which teacher's reflection occurred. Schön also stressed the need to give recognition to knowledge-in-action that was embedded in a teacher's practice. In his reflective practitioner model, Schön proposed that professional practice should involve the use of knowledge-in-action that could be acquired in three ways. These were self-instruction, an apprenticeship in a real world context and a practicum or a virtual world.

The work of the Frankfurt School of Social Research has had a major influence on the concept of reflective teaching. The work of this school, in addition to Dewey and

Shcön, provides a framework for other researchers and educators in the field of teacher education to use in their attempts to define reflective teaching.

There is no consensus among researchers on the definition of reflective teaching. These definitions vary based on the context of the professional education and the writer's or researcher's beliefs about teaching and teacher education. These varied definitions, though they differ in the way they view reflective teaching, can be classified into five perspectives: that is, reflective teaching from a technical perspective, a contextual perspective, a social perspective, an experiential or deliberative perspective and a critical perspective. The definitions, based on these perspectives, share in common the need to and value of preparing teachers to be more reflective. They also suggest that teachers in order to become more reflective, should not be viewed as consumers of top-down polices, rather they must strive to maintain a broad vision about their work, not simply looking internally at their own practices.

In this Chapter I have argued that reflective teaching is important because of the potential benefits to teaching --especially when compared with the work of less reflective teachers. Less reflective teachers according to Dewey, automatically accept the view of the problem that is commonly accepted in a given situation without attempting to find the most effective and efficient means to solve this problem. These teachers often lose sight of the fact that there is more than one way to frame every problem. This concept of the work of less reflective teachers will be elaborated again in the next Chapters. Reflective teaching is significant because it can maintain the teacher's voice, confidence, creativeness, and personal capacities for learning and improvement. It also enables teachers to act in a deliberate manner and not to be slaves to routine. Reflective teaching

can aid teachers to gain an insight into their own practice and increase the sense of who they are and how things work in their schools. Reflective teaching can also assist teachers to maintain collegiality, professional and social support as well as empower them to be decision makers and agents of change in curriculum development. In addition, reflective teaching can prepare teachers to effectively encounter the complexity and the ambiguity that are embedded in their classrooms. Through reflection, teachers can also accommodate students' differences in ethnicity, socioeconomic status, developmental level and motivation to learn. The potential benefits that more reflective teachers may gain in their teaching make it clear why reflective teaching is important and why it is appealing to teaching scholars and teacher educators.

In addition, there is much literature suggesting that teachers who want to become more reflective should go through a number of stages or phases when they reflect as reflection is a dynamic process. There are different models of the process of reflection that have been proposed to show how teachers reflect and these models adhere to the work of Dewey and Schön. Teachers when they reflect, go through stages of appreciation, action and reappreciation in order to look at their experiences from a new perspective. Through these stages teachers observe and collect evidence about their teaching, revisit the collected data, uncover their assumptive world, find appropriate solutions, and act using them. This process is not easy since it requires teachers to be experienced and to have the sufficient time to go through all these stages. Although these stages constitute the process of reflective teaching, they are not linear or sequential. So when teachers reflect on their teaching, they may pass through the cycles of reflective teaching several times. Therefore it is essential to think of ways to encourage teachers to

go through this process both in their training programs and in their teaching. Encouraging teachers to become more reflective in their pre-and in-service teacher education programs is explored in greater detail in the next Chapter.

CHAPTER 3

PROMOTING REFLECTIVE TEACHING IN PRE- AND IN-SERVICE

TEACHER EDUCTION PROGRAMS

In order to develop the characteristics of reflective teaching, go through the different stages and steps of reflection and to gain the potential benefits of reflecting on teaching, teachers should be trained. This training and preparation should start with their pre-service teacher education programs and continue into their in-service or workplace contexts. As such, this Chapter attempts to explore models and techniques that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches that help promote reflective teaching in both student teachers and their professional counterparts.

3.1. Promoting Reflective Teaching in Student Teachers

3.1.1. The evolution of models of teacher education. Four models of teacher education have been identified from a review of the literature. These appear to have evolved over time and have focused on theory or practice or integrated both theory and practice. Day (1991) shows that the oldest form of professional education is the 'Apprentice-Expert Model' which Wallace (1991) refers to as the 'Craft Model' (Figure. 1). In its most basic form, the trainee or the novice learns by imitating the expert's techniques and following his/her instructions and advice. In this model of teacher education, knowledge is acquired through observation, instruction and practice with less emphasis placed on theory. Stones and Morris (cited in Wallace, 1991) argue that this model is basically conservative and depends on a static society which cannot be sustained in an educational context of new methodologies and new syllabuses. Thus, this model has been criticized as being a static approach, viewing teaching as a craft and not allowing for

the expansion of scientific knowledge and vast developments in the subject areas which teachers teach.

Figure 1: Craft Model (cited in Wallace, 1991)
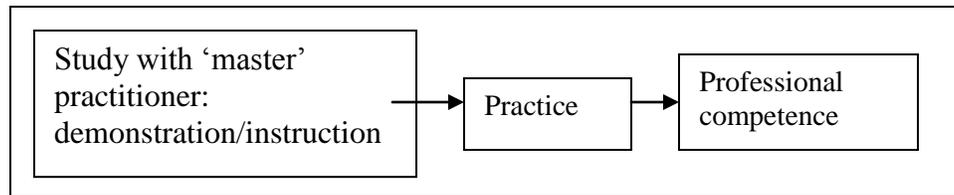
The second model is called the 'Rationalist Model' and "involves the teaching of scientific knowledge to students who, in turn, are expected to apply this knowledge in their teaching" (Day, 1991, p.42). Wallace (1991) refers to this model as the 'Applied Science Model' (Figure. 2). This model, according to both authors, is the most prevalent model underlying most teacher education programs in ESL and EFL contexts. This model provides scientific knowledge in analyzing teaching problems and putting the problems of the discipline "on a scientific footing" (Stones and Morries, cited in Wallace, 1991, p. 8). Wallace (1991) notes that within this model practical knowledge is simply a matter of relating the appropriate means to objectives. According to him "the issue of the practice of a profession is therefore merely instrumental in its nature" (p.8). Wallace(1991) also argues that this model seems to be 'one way' since scientific knowledge and research findings are passed on to student teachers by experts. The student teachers are left to their own devices with their conclusion, interpretations and implementations of this knowledge in their practice. Although this model focuses on 'received knowledge' by providing the student teachers with content and support knowledge, it is criticized for its separation between researchers (thinkers) and practitioners (doers).

Figure 2: Applied Science Model (cited in Wallace, 1991)

```
                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │   Scientific Knowledge  │
                    └─────────────┬───────────┘
                                  │
                                  ▼
        ┌────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │ Application of scientific knowledge/    │
        │ refinement by experimentation           │
        └─────────────────────────────┬──────────┘
                                       │
                                       ▼
                              ┌──────────────────┐
         ┌────────────────────┤ Results conveyed │
         │                    │ to trainees      │
         │                    └──────────────────┘
         ▼
┌──────────────────────────────┐
│ Periodic up-dating (in-service) │
└──────────────┬───────────────┘
               │                    ┌──────────────┐
               └───────────────────▶│   Practice   │
                                    └──────┬───────┘
                                           │
                                           ▼
                              ┌──────────────────────────┐
                              │ Professional development │
                              └──────────────────────────┘
```
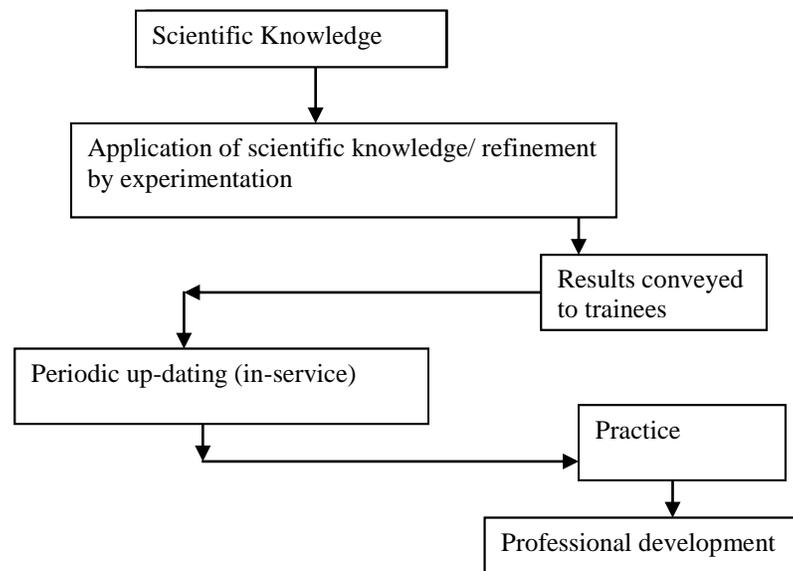
The 'Case Studies Model' is the third model and according to Day (1991), this model is a useful way of learning in law, business, and medical schools, but is not widely embraced in teacher education programs. The objective of this model is "the generalization of particular behaviors into broader understandings of the discipline" (Day, 1991, p. 43). In addition, this model resembles the theory of narrative inquiry and story telling developed by Connelly and Clandinin (cited in Day, 1991).

The fourth model that consists of all the strengths of the three aforementioned models is referred as the 'Integrative Model'. Day (1991) points out that this model enables the student teachers to be exposed to the four types of knowledge that cannot be achieved in the previous models. Wallace (1991) based on Schön's (1983) concepts of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action, describes the same model under the name 'Reflective Model' (Figure. 3). This model stresses a reflective practice component

which provides student teachers with the received knowledge (i.e., facts, data and theories related to research) and the experiential knowledge (i.e., knowledge comes from experience). Day (1991) views the reflective practice component of the integrative model as "the possibility of being integrative in that received knowledge provides the theoretical aspects for thinking about experiential knowledge, and experiential knowledge offers opportunities for trying out and testing received knowledge" (Day, 1991, p.46).

Figure 3: Reflective Model (cited in Wallace, 1991)
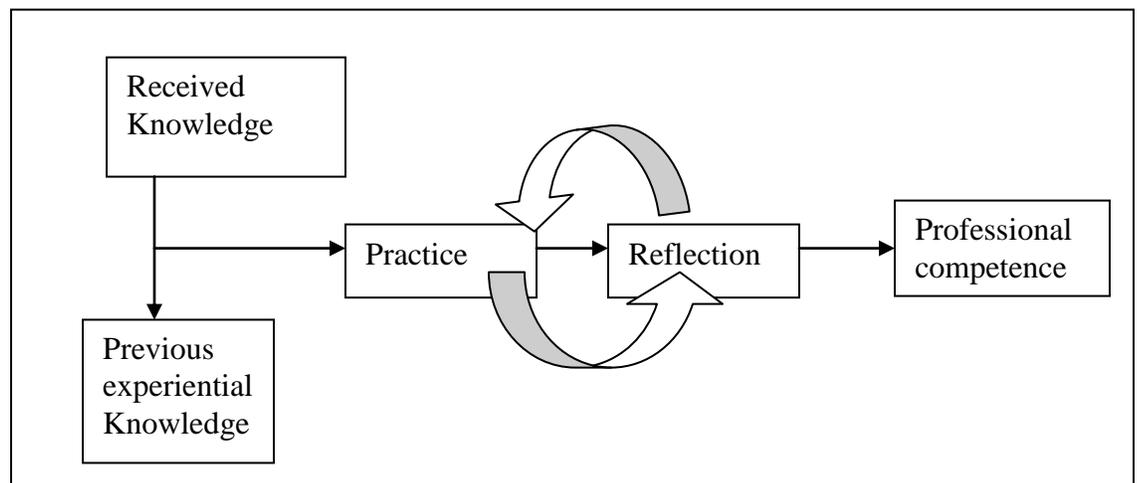
Thus, the 'Reflective Model" described by Wallace (1991) and the 'Integrative Model' by Day (1991) make an attempt to relate theory and practice in the form of reflection in the teaching process. In addition, these two models, unlike the other models, are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches rather than traditional ones. These aforementioned models have been summarized in the following table.

Table 1: Models of pre-service teacher education programs (cited in Day, 1991)

The name of the Model	Its focus (theory or practice)	Its purpose	Its pedagogical approach
(1) Apprentice-Expert Model/ Craft Model	Focuses on practice more than theory	Training the novice by imitating and following the expert's techniques and instruction/ knowledge is acquired through observation, instruction and practice	Based on traditional pedagogical approaches
(2) Rationalist Model/ Applied Science Model	Focuses on theory or received knowledge	Teaching students scientific knowledge that will be applied in their teaching	Based on traditional pedagogical approaches
(3)Case Studies Model	Resembles the theory of narrative inquiry and story telling developed by Connelly and Clandinin	A useful way of learning in law, business and medical school	Based on traditional pedagogical approaches
(4)Integrative Model/ Reflective Model	Focuses both on theory and practice	Stresses a reflective practice component which provides student teachers with the received knowledge and the experiential knowledge	Based on Constructivist pedagogical approaches

3.1.2. Traditional versus Constructivist pedagogical approaches. Traditional pedagogical approaches are characterized by a transmission orientation in helping student teachers to acquire the received knowledge (i.e., facts, data and theories related to research) for teaching. Hu (2005) states that various traditional approaches of instruction are still widely used in teacher education programs around the world. These approaches, however, have been found to be problematic in several respects (Hu, 2005; Osterman and Kottkamp, 2004). First, these approaches view student teachers as *tabulea rasae* (i.e., blank slates) and ignore their previous knowledge, beliefs, and experiences that they may bring with them to a teacher education program (Hu, 2005, p. 659). Second, these traditional approaches aim at imparting to student teachers knowledge about good teaching generated by experts (Hargreaves and Fullan, cited in Hu, 2005). According to Calderhead, Hedgcock, Freeman and Johnson (cited in Hu, 2005) this codified and decontextualized knowledge simplifies the complexity of teaching and gives rise to a separation between theory and practice. Third, Dewey, Tillema and Knol (cited in Hu, 2005) argue that traditional teaching forces student teachers to stow away the transmitted knowledge in a static and a disjointed form which makes it difficult to apply in the real world. Constructivist approaches provide alternatives to traditional teaching approaches in teacher education programs.

Constructivist approaches are theoretically based on the work of Dewey and Vygotsky (cited in Hu, 2005) and advocate experience-based, student-centered, interactive and inquiry oriented instruction that stress " active discovery, reflectivity, and meta-cognition, cooperation and community" (Mintop, cited in Hu, 2005, p. 660). Research (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, Freeman and Johnson, Grossman, Niemi, Samaras

and Gismondi, Zeichner and Liston, cited in Hu, 2005) indicates that constructivist approaches aim at helping student teachers with some or all of the following: (1) to build their own knowledge on the basis of mutual and teacher-provided support; (2) to promote links between knowledge and practice through situated learning tasks; (3) to integrate knowledge from different sources and to draw on collective expertise in group work, problem-solving tasks, and action research; (4) to overcome the apprenticeship-of-observation effect by recognizing and making explicit student teachers' preexisting beliefs, conceptions, experiences and knowledge in relation to new, challenging ideas and experience; (5) to develop autonomy, an inquiry stance, and reflectivity through self-regulating activities that encourage student teachers to self-determine their learning needs and to negotiate curricular contents.

These aforesaid outcomes of constructivist approaches can help student teachers to acquire the received knowledge through effective pedagogical practice. In addition, these outcomes suggest that student teachers should be trained in their pre-service teaching programs by using reflective teaching models and techniques that are grounded in the constructivist pedagogical approaches (Osterman and Kottkamp, 2004). Thus when student teachers start practicing, they will be qualified to teach within the constructivist perspective, which views skilled teaching as knowing what to do in uncertain and unpredictable situations.

3.1.3. Reflective models and techniques. According to Osterman and Kottkamp (2004) adopting reflective models (e.g., Wallace's reflective model, Day's integrative model, Schön's reflective practitioner model) and techniques (e.g., action research, peer observation, writing journals, case studies) can help student teachers to: (1) create and

apply received knowledge in effective and appropriate ways instead of acquiring it passively; (2) be motivated to learn and have an active role in determining the direction and the purpose of their learning; (3) explore, articulate, and represent their own ideas, beliefs and prior knowledge; (4) observe and assess actions, and develop and test new ideas; (5) promote their effective learning through collaborative rather than isolated activities. These potential positive outcomes from reflective models and techniques suggest that educators in pre-service teacher education programs should adopt these models and techniques in order to prepare student teachers to become more reflective. These reflective models include Wallace's reflective model, Day's integrative model or Schön's (1983) reflective practitioner model.

Within Wallace's reflective model, what the student teachers bring to the training/development process is emphasized and the student teachers are viewed as the center of the professional education or development process. Wallace (1991) in his reflective model distinguishes two stages in the process in order to achieve the goal of professional competence. The pre-training stage is the first stage in which a person has decided to "undertake professional training or development" (Wallace, 1991, p. 48) but before beginning the process. Within Wallace's reflective model, student teachers can get two types of knowledge. The first type of knowledge contains facts, data, and theories related to research. The received knowledge (i.e., subject matter knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of learners and context) is the knowledge that student teachers usually receive in their teacher education programs as a precondition to effective teaching. The second type of knowledge is the experiential knowledge that comes from experience. The experiential knowledge is

knowledge being constructed through experience by giving the student teachers opportunities to observes, assess actions, develop and test new ideas based on prior received knowledge, classroom experiences, values and beliefs. Wallace (1991) points out that student teachers are able to reflect on their received knowledge and experiential knowledge through their practice. Their reflection about their classroom practice can help bridge the gap between the received knowledge and the actual teaching. This is a continuing process that is referred as a 'Reflective Cycle" by Wallace. As explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.4, Bartlett (1990) describes the phases of a cycle for the process of reflective teaching as comprised of mapping, informing, contesting, appraising and acting. He also emphasizes that all the phases constitute the process of reflective teaching; however they are not linear or sequential.

As discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.1.6, Schön's (1983) reflective practitioner model can also be applied in pre-service teacher education programs. Schön (1983) argues that exercising a particular profession, (in our case teaching), should involve the use of knowledge-in-action which refers to the knowledge that is embedded in a teacher's practice. According to Schön (1983) this knowledge-in-action can be acquired in three ways namely self-instruction, apprenticeship in a real world context, and a practicum or virtual world.

Along with these models of reflective teaching, Hu (2005), Hatton and Smith (1995) argue that pre-service teacher education programs, designed to foster reflective teaching in the student teachers, should adopt and promote various techniques. These techniques are based on the constructivist approaches that can help to develop the attitudes and skills needed for critical reflection. In addition, these adopted techniques

can encourage student teachers to reflect on their received and experiential knowledge. Richards (1991) gives some examples of techniques for critical reflection that reveal the process of reflection such as recording lessons, self reports, autobiographies, journal writing, collaborative diary keeping and peer observation. Hatton and Smith (1995) point out that there are four broad techniques that have been adopted to instill reflective practice in student teachers in their pre-service teacher education programs. These techniques are action research projects, case studies and ethnographic studies of students, teachers, classrooms and schools, microteaching and other supervised practicum experiences, and structured curriculum tasks. Hatton and Smith (1995) show that within these overall broad techniques more specific techniques can be used. These techniques include oral interviews, writing tasks, journals and peer observations. The following table summarizes the reflective models and techniques that educators in pre-service teacher education programs can use to train student teachers to become more reflective.

Table 2: A summary of reflective models and techniques that can be adopted in pre-service teachers education programs

Reflective models that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches	Techniques that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches
(1) Wallace's reflective Model/ Day's integrative Model (2) Schön's reflective practitioner Model	**(1) Broad techniques** Research projects, case studies, ethnographic studies, microteaching, supervised practicum experiences, structured curriculum tasks **(2) Specific techniques** Overall interviews, writing tasks, keeping journals, peer observation, recording lessons, self report

Although student teachers can be prepared to be reflective in their pre-service teacher education programs, a review of the wealth of research on in-service teacher development suggests that pre-service programs are inadequate in preparing teachers to be able to engage effectively in reflection in a workplace context (Crooks, 2003; Hu, 2005; Roberts, 1998). Gonzalez (2003) emphasizes that the first task of preparing teachers is the responsibility of the universities and teacher colleges, but the second one is of the teachers themselves through self-development activities, and of teacher educators and schools through professional development programs. Roberts (1998) says that

> Teacher learning takes time; it is gradual and cumulative; it requires a mix of experiences, reflection, discussion and input, its focus changes as teachers' thinking, practice and self-awareness change. Therefore, it needs to be sustained over time. It should be seen as a process, not as a series of one-off events (p. 231).

In the next Section, based on a review of the literature, I explore how to encourage teachers to be reflective in their in-service or workplace context.

3.2. Inititing Reflective Teaching in the In-service Teacher Development

3.2.1. The need for in-service teacher development. Crooks (2003) argues that teacher education programs are not enough to equip pre-service teachers with the skills they would need in order to deal with teaching complexities in the workplace. He instead views teachers' learning as an ongoing process that continues from pre-service education to the workplace context.

> Without teachers who are able to engage in reflection, obviously a practicum could not foster teacher development….A practicum should not be the only period during a teacher's career in which a teacher develops…. It would be regrettable if there was only ever one time in a teacher's career when the teacher was helped to focus closely on their teaching (p. 180).

Research shows that in-service development bridges the gap between theory provided in pre-service programs and the actual learning practice in school context (Crooks, 2003; Hu, 2005; Roberts, 1998). Hu (2005) points out that the workplace has a vital role to play in teachers' development as it provides arbitrary, undetermined learning outcomes through a continuous learning process. It has been argued in Section 3.1.3, that teachers in their pre-service teacher education programs should be prepared to become more reflective using models and techniques that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches. Teachers in their in-service teacher development programs should also be prepared using models of professional development that are based on these approaches.

3.2.2. Models of professional development. Sparks and Loucks-Horsley (cited in Hu, 2005) identify five models of professional development in the workplace that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches which encourage teachers to be more reflective in their teaching. The first model is the 'Individually Guided Development Model', which involves "a process through which teachers plan for and pursue activities they believe will promote their own learning" (p. 661). This model includes forms of instructional experimentation, professional exchange, and lesson observation. The second one, the 'Observation/Assessment Model', "provides teachers with objective data and feedback regarding their classroom practice" (p. 662) through activities such as mentoring student teachers, peer coaching, peer observation, and teacher evaluation.

The 'Development/Improvement process Model' is the third one and it "engages teachers in developing curriculum, designing programs, or engaging in a school improvement process to solve general or particular problems" (p. 662). This model, according to Hu (2005), also consists of developing instructional standards and goals collaboratively, coplanning curriculum, and participating in school improvement committees. The fourth model is the 'Training Model' which "involves teachers in acquiring knowledge or skills through appropriate individual or group instruction" (p.662). This model includes training sessions, collegial problem solving, and peer coaching. In the training sessions, Wallace's reflective model, Day's integrative model or Schön's reflective practitioner model can be applied in preparing teachers to be reflective. The fifth model is the 'Inquiry

Model' which "requires that teachers identify an area of instructional interest, collect data, and make change in their instruction based on an interpretation of these data" (p. 662). This model encompasses certain activities that can foster reflective teaching such as collaborative action research, reflective conversations with colleagues, and participation in study groups. These five models are summarized in the following table.

Table 3: Models of professional development (cited in Hu, 2005)

The name of the Model	The activities or forms that this model provides reflective teachers with	Its pedagogical approach
(1) Individually Guided Development Model	Instructional experimentation, professional exchange, lesson observation	
(2) Observation/Assessment Model	Mentoring student teachers, peer coaching, peer observation, teacher evaluation	**All these models are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches. They help foster reflection among teachers if the teaching context supports collaboration, collegiality and experimentation**
(3) Development/Improvement process Model	Developing curriculum, designing programs, developing instructional standards and goals collaboratively	
(4) Training Model	Training sessions (Wallace's reflective Model, Day's integrative Model or Schön's reflective practitioner Model can be used), collegial problem solving. Peer coaching.	
(5) Inquiry Model	Collaborative action research, reflective conversations with colleagues, study groups	

Hu (2005) argues that these five models that have been summarized in Table 3 can help to foster reflection among teachers if the community where the teacher teaches supports collaboration, collegiality and experimentation. Research, however, suggests that not all types of collaboration and collegiality in a community of teachers are equally effective in supporting teachers' professional development and help them become reflective (Hargreaves, Little, cited in Hu, 2005).

Hargreaves (cited in Hu, 2005), based on his empirical research, distinguishes between two types of collegial collaboration in teachers' professional development. The first type is *contrived collegiality* that is a kind of teacher collaboration, but is introduced as a matter of administrative convenience, made compulsory through administrative means, fixed in time and space and aimed at making teachers implement mandates from others. According to Hargreaves (cited in Hu, 2005) this kind of collaboration does not enhance teachers' professional development because it violates personal sensitivity, ignores teachers' needs, undermines their commitment to teaching and holds them accountable for others' decisions. On the other hand, collaboration within a *collaborative culture* emerges naturally among the teachers, operates on a voluntary basis, extends across time and space and is not bounded by predictable outcomes (Hargreaves, cited in Hu, 2005). Hargreaves shows that this kind of collaboration can provide moral support that carries teachers through failures and

frustrations, reduces their overload through sharing of resources and expertise, and empowers teachers to be politically assertive. It can also foster teacher's capacity for reflection through mutual feedback, increase their opportunity to learn from each other, and promote their ongoing learning process through shared reflection and a joint pursuit of excellence.

3.3. Conclusion

This Chapter showed that models and techniques that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches may help support active discovery, interaction, reflection, cooperation, problem-solving tasks, and action research, and recognize a teacher's previous knowledge, beliefs, and experiences in relation to new ideas and experiences. Models and techniques that are based on traditional pedagogical approaches, however, tend to ignore teacher's previous knowledge, beliefs and experiences; encourage student teachers or practicing teachers apply the transmitted knowledge in a static and a disjointed form that may lead to a separation between theory and practice. Thus, this Chapter explored four models of teacher education that have evolved over time (Section, 3.1.1, Table 1). These models, summarized in Table 1, differ in their emphasis regarding theory, practice or a combination of the two as well as in their pedagogical approaches (Constructivist or Traditional).

This Chapter suggested that in order to promote reflective teaching with student teachers in their pre-service teacher education programs they should be trained and prepared by using reflective models and techniques (Section, 3.1.3, Table 2) that are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches. Application of

these models and techniques can encourage student teachers to apply the received knowledge in effective and appropriate ways, provide them with opportunities to construct knowledge through experience, and promote active learning through collaborative rather than isolated activities. Using Wallace's reflective model, Day's integrative model or Schön's reflective practitioner model could help student teachers gain the aforesaid outcomes. Techniques such as action research, case studies, ethnographic studies, microteaching and other supervised practicum, and structured curriculum tasks might also encourage reflective teaching. Specific techniques such as oral interviews, writing tasks, keeping journals, and peer observations could be used to do this as well.

There is much literature on in-service teacher development that suggests the inadequacy of pre-service programs in preparing teachers to engage effectively in reflection in the workplace context. The vital role of in-service teacher development stems from the fact that it bridges the gap between theory provided in pre-service programs and actual learning practice in school context.

In addition, in-service teacher development is effective in encouraging teachers to become more reflective. This Chapter has presented five models of professional development that have been summarized in Table 3 which can encourage teachers to be reflective in their teaching. These five models as illustrated in Table 3 are also based on constructivist approaches to professional development. These models (Section 3.2.2, Table 3) can help foster reflection among teachers if the community of the teachers supports collaboration, collegiality, and experimentation. Not all types of collaboration, however, can

lead to reflective teaching. The importance of collaboration and its vital role in enhancing teacher's attempts to be effectively involved in reflective teaching will be discussed in the next Chapter.

Although teachers can be prepared and trained to become more reflective in their pre- and in-service teacher education programs, we should not ignore the vital role that the teaching context or milieu can play in promoting or impeding the innovative teachers' attempts to reflect on their teaching. The next Chapter, based on a small study, examines the effects of an EFL teaching context on the attempts of three innovative EFL teachers to reflect on their self-initiated teaching approaches in a university in the Middle East.

CHAPTER 4

THREE EFL TEACHERS' ATTEMPTS TO REFLECT

In the previous Chapters, the concept of *reflective teaching,* its importance and its potential benefits in teaching practice as well as the need to prepare teachers to be reflective both in their pre- and in-service teaching programs have been discussed. Becoming enlightened about reflective teaching, as a lay teacher, makes me more interested in adopting this approach when teaching in an EFL context. However, will the teaching context or milieu provide me with the support I need to be an effective reflective teacher?

This Chapter, based on a small study, aims to shed light on this question by exploring the role of the EFL teaching context in the attempts of three innovative EFL teachers to reflect on their self-initiated CLT (Communicative language teaching) teaching approaches in a university in the Middle East.

4.1. Theoretical Framework and Methodology

The three teachers involved in this study are EFL teachers in the Department of English in the College of Arts and Social Science in one of the universities in the Middle East. These teachers attempted to implement CLT through their own initiatives in their classrooms. CLT is unlike the dominant traditional approaches to teaching which are adopted by most teachers in this department. CLT does not focus on the subject matter or the content and does not view learners as "receptacle(s), [or] the teacher as a dispenser" as traditional approaches do (Connelly and Clandinin, 1998, p. 84). Instead, this approach is learner-centered and experience-based since it views students as negotiators,

communicators, and discoverers of the delivered knowledge. The teacher's role in CLT approaches is not regarded as the transmission of authoritative knowledge, but as one of a co-communicator, a needs analyst, an organizer of resources, a facilitator of procedures and activities and reflective of his/her own teaching and his/her students' learning progress (Hu, 2002; Li, 1998; Savignon, 2002). Thus, this approach supports student-centered tasks such as collaborative work (pairs or group work), information gap, problem solving, discussion, debating, role plays, simulation and creativeness. This approach also implies global and qualitative evaluation of learner's achievement (i.e., reflective journals, essay writing, in-class presentations, portfolios, learning contracts) as opposed to quantitative assessment (i.e., mid and final exams or multiple choice question examinations) (Savignon, 2002).

The three teachers involved in this study vary in gender (two females and one male) and in their years of teaching experience (1 1/2 years to 5 years). They obtained their Bachelor degrees as EFL teachers in their home country with MA degrees from different universities in Canada. The participant teachers teach first year language courses (e.g., effective reading, writing, modern grammar) that must be taken by English education majors. These students speak Arabic as their first language and English as a foreign language. They are required to take intensive introductory courses and one-year credit language courses as freshmen at the Language Center before they join the Department of English as sophomores. At this stage, they have completed these courses.

These three teachers were sent, by email, an open-ended questionnaire (see Appendix 1). Email was chosen as the primary means of communication because these teachers reside in the Middle East. This open-ended questionnaire was designed to get

these teachers to reflect on their own experiences as EFL teachers, and to recall the challenges they might have encountered when using the CLT approaches. This questionnaire also aimed to make these teachers state the constraints that have discouraged them from reflecting on their teaching while using CLT approaches.

As an analytical tool for analyzing the three teachers' responses to this open-ended questionnaire, the researcher used Connelly and Clandinin's (1988) framework of c*ommonplaces*. Connelly and Clandinin (1988) define c*ommonplaces* as "a set of factors or determiners that occur in statements about the aims, content, and methods of the curriculum" (p. 84). Connelly and Clandinin (1988) identify four commonplaces: The role of the teacher, the role of the learner, the role of the subject matter, the role of the milieu. Fox (in press) added a fifth commonplace, the role of the evaluation or testing. This analytical framework helped to identify these aforesaid *commonplaces* as interconnected factors that caused the emergence of the various challenges that these three teachers have encountered in their attempts to reflect on their self-initiated CLT approaches in this EFL context. Although this study focuses on the role of the milieu or the teaching context which is one of the *commonplaces* that these three EFL teachers are involved in, it does not ignore the effects of the other *commonplaces*. This is due to the fact that when exploring any teaching context either in an EFL or in an ESL context these *commonplaces* work as interrelated factors though they have been identified as separate factors in Connelly and Clandinin's framework.

Although these three EFL teachers vary in their years of teaching experience and gender, they have generally agreed on a number of challenges, both at the classroom level and at the policy level of the Department of English. These challenges caused them to be

ineffective in their attempts to reflect on the problems encountered when introducing CLT to their students.

4.2. Obstacles to Reflection in CLT in this EFL Context

These three teachers shared the same perceptions of the usefulness of using CLT approaches when teaching their students because they have made students more involved and engaged in the teaching-learning process. These teachers reported that they would like their students to perceive them as facilitators and co-communicators instead of the one who lectured all the time. Thus, they endeavored, through their syllabus design and classroom activities, to prepare students to use the target language communicatively inside and outside the classroom. They also attempted to foster students' autonomy in learning by adjusting the evaluation of their students' learning progress through using qualitative tools of evaluation such as journal writing, group projects, problem-solving, discussions, debating and in-class presentations. However, these attempts to shift the focus from the subject matter to the learner's role encountered different challenges since they came to realize that they were introducing this approach in an EFL context. In an EFL context unlike an ESL context the learning environment outside the classroom does not reinforce what the students learn in their classes because it does not provide them with the chance to practice English. The constraints the teachers reported were a lack of appropriate materials, equipment, and facilities, use of traditional teaching methods by other language courses teachers, large class sizes, overloaded schedules, lack of cooperation among the same teacher teaching the same language courses, and the use of grade-oriented examinations. Their questionnaire responses indicated that while these teachers were introducing CLT to their students, they were also trying to reflect on how

they should effectively involve their students in student-centered activities and what techniques they should use to motivate their students to take over self-learning outside the classroom. They stated that while reflection and inquiry about the constraints encountered when using CLT was vital, the teaching context or milieu did not provide them with the support they needed. They argued that since the policy of the department retains traditional grade-oriented approaches to teaching their innovative attempts to reflect on their teaching are restricted. They reported that traditional and grade-oriented approaches to teaching, lack of time, limited collaboration among the different teachers, and lack of meaningful in-service professional development opportunities impeded them from effectively being involved in reflective teaching. Each obstacle reported by the participants is explored in greater detail below.

4.2.1. Traditional and grade-oriented approaches to teaching. These teachers argued that the dominant teaching approach adopted by most of the teachers in the department is a traditional approach (Barnes, 1976). This approach presents the instructor's role as the one who should convey the information in a clear and a concise manner and the learner's role is as the one who should absorb the delivered knowledge. One teacher reported that students in the Department of English preferred to be taught by this approach because they were exposed to traditional and didactic models of teaching in their high school. As well, when these English education majors enrolled in the university, they had already spent one year in the intensive program courses offered in the Language Center. The Language Center attempts to equip these students with the required language proficiency before they start their credit language courses. Since these students came from high school with low language proficiency, they would be exposed to

didactic models of teaching such as grammar translation when they started to take the intensive program courses and the credit language courses offered through the Language Center.

Adopting didactic models of teaching or traditional approaches to teaching will lead teachers to teach by following the designated text books or teaching a lesson in the same way it was taught in the past without change. This mechanical way of teaching can make these teachers operate from fixed and unquestionable assumptions when they encounter a problem such as low achievement or low motivation to learn. For example, teachers using these fixed assumptions will assume that low achievement or low motivation of students' learning lies with the student themselves. Thus, they will not attempt to alter the way they teach their students. One teacher pointed out that when teachers adopt an authoritative role in the process of teaching, this leads them to believe that nothing is wrong in their teaching and thus there is no need to be reflective. In reflective teaching, teachers should view their learners as the main contributors, negotiators and discoverers of the received knowledge. If the learner is active in this CLT process, the teachers can adopt roles as a needs analyst, an organizer of resources, and a facilitator of procedures and activities that can help them question, analyze, and interpret any problem that they might have in their teaching. One teacher argued that adopting the role of the teacher and evaluator at the same time, and not allowing another party (e.g., colleagues, students) to be involved in the teaching process did not permit the teachers to be realistic and objective when evaluating their teaching. However, this teacher stated that if students were involved in the teaching process and not viewed only as consumers of the delivered knowledge, they would be able to indicate to the teachers how they

should adjust and modify their ways of teaching based on these students' interests and needs.

The others reported constraints in their attempts to reflect on their CLT approaches as a result of being restricted to choosing grade-oriented exams (e.g., continuous quizzes, mid and final exams) to test their students' learning progress, which do not enhance the self-assessment aspect of reflective teaching. Although the results of these grade-oriented exams can provide information and feedback for the students to see their learning achievement, they do not supply the reflective teacher with an ongoing feedback or a formative assessment that can help him/her question, analyze, reframe and change the designed activities. These participants also indicated that they are restricted by a policy of the department, which urges teachers not to give grades for students' participation in classroom discussion. Participation in classroom discussions is not seen as something students should be graded for. Therefore, teachers were not able to gather the information needed for reflective teaching from sources other than exam results such as students' journal writing, portfolios, learning contracts, project work and in-class presentations. One teacher argued that the grade-oriented approach leads to the justification of ineffective teaching, which blames the students for not doing well in courses. This teacher said commenting on this:

> If students do not do well (grade-wise), they would be blamed for their lack of interest or carelessness in approaching the class materials or in preparing for their exams. It will not be attributed to teacher's deficiency of teaching. Teachers, therefore, would not reflect on their teaching for the purpose of improving it because they do not admit their role in this low performance in the first hand.

The teachers also reported that the grade-oriented approach does not allow them to reflect because the effectiveness of teaching is falsely thought to be represented in the distribution of the grades gained by the students. When some students get high grades, the teachers will not think of the need to reflect on their teaching because they will use students' high grades as a sign that their teaching meets the course objectives. One teacher stated that having good grades is mistakenly associated with good teaching because it is an indicator that students managed to absorb the teaching materials or the content of the course. However, this is not always true because students will only work hard to memorize the information and information held in short term memory quickly disappears after completion of the course.

4.2.2. Lack of time. Teachers should have sufficient time in order to go through the different stages of the process of reflection such as observing and collecting evidence about their teaching, revisiting collected data, uncovering their assumptive world, finding appropriate solutions, and act on using these solutions. This process as explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.4., is not linear or sequential and it goes through successive cycles that can eventually lead to higher-quality teaching. This indicates that these three teachers who attempted to implement CLT should have been given the time to design the suitable activities and reflect systematically on them to find whether they motivate students to learn or not. However, these teachers reported lack of time as another key factor discouraging them from being able to effectively reflect on the challenges that emerged from implementing CLT. One teacher pointed out that they did not have the sufficient time that could help them reflect and think, either individually or collaboratively, of better solutions to develop students' awareness of the significance of self-learning and to

change negative perceptions that students may have towards student-centered activities. These teachers stated that they were busy finding the appropriate materials to evoke students' interests and needs to work as discoverers, contributors and communicators. They argued that though there are textbooks for some of the language courses that they teach, they are not designed to foster the activities that are built around real communication and student-centered approaches. Consequently, these teachers in their attempts to maintain student-centered approaches in their teaching, either modify the content provided in these textbooks or prepare extra activities with their designed supplementary materials. They also pointed out that the lack of the administrative support such as computer labs, e-learning facilities and an English library that consists of resource books and materials for CLT in the department burdened them with the preparation and the search for the suitable materials. Being preoccupied with finding the appropriate materials that are built around real communication and student-centered activities did not provide them with enough time to reflect on the effectiveness of these activities to develop students' awareness towards student-centered activities. One teacher commented on the limited time that they had in their teaching as the following:

> Time is one of the problems that we face in the department here. There is not enough time to reflect on our teaching on daily or weekly basis. We barely have enough time to prepare for teaching (preparing learning materials, quizzes and exams; looking for other supplementary materials etc.). Reflection on teaching needs enough time to be spent on evaluating teaching and then coming up with recommendations of how to improve one's teaching. Our time does not permit doing so, however.

These teachers also stated that being burdened with other administrative or non-classroom duties was another obstacle that impeded them from reflecting on their designed activities in implementing CLT approaches. The policy of the department requires every teacher, in addition to his or her responsibility for classroom preparation, supervising students, meeting students' needs and addressing students' inquiries during their office hours, to be in charge of other administrative duties. These include invigilation for exams, preparation for conferences and attending or responding to regular administrative meetings or duties. Thus, being burdened with non-classroom duties plays a role in limiting the time these teachers have to reflect on the designed activities for CLT as well as on the problems that emerge when introducing CLT activities.

4.2.3. Limited collaboration and collegiality among teachers. These teachers stated that the traditional approaches to teaching used by other teachers in the department made it difficult for them to implement reflective teaching. They also pointed out that the discontinuity and inconsistency in the designed activities and teaching methodologies used among the teachers in this department discouraged the innovative teachers who aimed to teach using CLT and be reflective in their teaching. Thus, limited collaboration and collegiality among other teachers in the department is a key issue. One teacher stated the need to establish a social support and a collegial collaboration among the teaching staff, so they can work to unify their teaching approaches and methodologies to be student-centered and to regularly discuss the difficulties they encounter in their teaching. By doing this, they will be able to engage in reflective teaching and, in turn, help their students internalize their roles as contributors and not as consumers of the delivered knowledge.

Although there is some collaboration among teachers who are teaching the same language courses, this collaboration does not support teachers to be reflective. One teacher argued that this kind of collaboration did not emerge spontaneously and naturally among the teachers, but is introduced as a matter of administrative regulation with fixed times and space with highly predictable outcomes --precisely the type of 'contrived collegiality' that Hargreaves criticized (Hargreaves, cited in Hu, 2005). According to these teachers, when the teachers who are teaching the same language courses meet, they only exchange tests, supplementary materials and samples of previous course syllabi. One teacher pointed out that though they exchanged these materials, each teacher later on did not make use of these exchanged materials. Besides, in these infrequent meetings, teachers do not discuss their diverse teaching strategies, reflect on the problems that students encounter in their classrooms, or learn from each other's experience based on shared reflections or shared collaborative study. One teacher commented that in these meetings one or two of the members or coordinators of the language courses would dominate the discussion. This teacher explained the kind of collaboration that they had in their meeting with other colleagues who were teaching the same language courses as the following:

> We do not really reflect on our teaching when we meet. We meet twice or three times a semester (which is not enough) and we basically discuss what we have covered so far, what we need to cover next, and what to include in the final exam. We just listen to each others' exchange about what he/she did in his/her teaching, but we do not question them. It is about presenting one's ideas about how teaching should be, but not about questioning those ideas to come up with good and new ones. One has to come up with his own new ideas to be implemented in his teaching by

eliciting them from the ongoing discussions, not by having them clearly stated by other colleagues in the meetings.

If teachers' collaboration does not provide the sense of security and trust for exchanging assumptions, ideas and beliefs about their teaching experiences but rather forces them to implement mandates, it will not be effective in promoting innovative teachers' attempts to become more reflective.

4.2.4. Lack of meaningful in-service opportunities. The three teachers indicated that the training they received in their teacher education program in their Bachelor degrees did not prepare, or provide them with opportunities to be reflective in their teaching or to teach using CLT approaches. Instead, the teacher training program they received put much emphasis, theoretically and practically, on the traditional approaches to teaching. These teachers pointed out that they became aware of the importance of being reflective and innovative in their teaching only after they finished their MA degrees from the Canadian universities. Since most of the teachers in the Department of English advocate traditional ways of teaching and may not be aware of the advantageous role of reflective teaching, this will not provide innovative teachers who attempt to reflect on their teaching with necessary collegial support. Theses teachers should be supplied with meaningful in-service teacher development programs or opportunities in order to be aware of the great role of reflective teaching. The lack of in-service programs or opportunities will lead the teachers who advocate traditional ways of teaching continue to teach in a mechanical way without an effort to change or innovate by reflecting on their teaching.

The Department of English should supply all the teachers with regular conferences, and workshops using models based on constructivist approaches as the ones explained in

Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2, Table 3, to help these teachers change their perceptions. In addition, these in-service programs will help them to reframe or adjust their own educational theories and attitudes towards the importance of innovation and the significance of reflective teaching. By having these in-service programs, innovative teachers who attempt to be reflective about their teaching will not be discouraged because these programs will make their colleagues realize the vital role of reflective teaching. These programs also will help teachers who teach the same language courses realize the importance of collaboration, mutual feedback, shared experience, and reflection in the teaching-learning process.

4.3. Conclusion

This Chapter, based on a small study, examined an EFL teaching milieu or context in relation to three EFL teachers' attempts to reflect on their self-initiated CLT teaching approaches. This teaching context was not supportive or encouraging for these teachers' attempts to reflect on how they should effectively motivate and involve their students in student-centered activities. Also the teaching context did not support reflection on the obstacles encountered (i.e., lack of appropriate materials, facilities, students' low motivation, large class sizes, overloaded schedules) or appropriate solutions when they introduced CLT in their classrooms. These teachers, though they were innovative to reflect on their CLT approaches to teaching, were restricted by the policy of the department that retained traditional grade-oriented approaches to teaching.

This Chapter suggested that traditional and grade-oriented approaches to teaching, lack of time, limited collaboration among the teachers, and lack of meaningful in-service professional development about reflective teaching can impede teachers from effectively

being involved in reflective teaching. This Chapter indicated that administrators or policy makers in any teaching context should undertake certain steps and strategies to nurture innovative teachers' attempts to be reflective and thus help them solve the problems they might face in their teaching. First, teachers should be encouraged to adopt roles as needs analysts, organizers of resources, and facilitators that can help them question, analyze, and interpret any problems that they might have in their teaching. Students should not be viewed as passive receptive, but as contributors, negotiators and discovers of the delivered knowledge. If teachers and students adopt these roles, teachers will not be solely responsible for evaluating the teaching-learning process, but students will be also active members in this process. These students will indicate to teachers how they should adjust and modify their ways of teaching, based on these students' needs and interests.

Second, teachers' self-assessment that is essential for providing ongoing feedback or a formative assessment should be promoted by not restricting teachers to choose grade-oriented exams to test their students' learning progress. Teachers can then use students' journal, portfolios, learning contracts, project work and in-class presentations to gather the information needed to reflect on the way they teach. Third, teachers should be supplied with administrative support such as more computer labs, e-learning facilities and a supportive language library that consists of resource books for CLT, so teachers will not be burdened with the preparation and the search for the suitable materials. Also, teachers should not be excessively burdened with other administrative or non-classroom duties which can prevent them from reflecting on their teaching approaches.

Fourth, establishing social support and collegial collaboration among teaching staff can help teachers work collaboratively to unify their teaching approaches and

methodologies and discuss the difficulties they encountered in their teaching. In addition, effective collaboration should incorporate all the teachers' needs and not force them to implement mandates from others. This will provide sense of security and trust to exchange assumptions, ideas and beliefs about their teaching experiences. Fifth, teachers should be supplied with regular in-service professional development opportunities (i.e., workshops, conferences, using constructivist training models) in order to help these teachers change their perceptions of the way they should teach. These in-service programs will also help the teachers, especially those who have no ideas about reflective teaching, to reframe or adjust their own educational theories and attitudes towards the significance of reflective teaching and the importance of innovation.

Implementing these suggestions should encourage innovative teachers to become more reflective about their teaching since the teaching context gives them a sense of support and aid. The limited scope of this study, however, prevents claiming a decisive role for the aforesaid suggestions. It is recommended that more research be undertaken to investigate the role of different teaching contexts in the teachers' attempts to be more reflective by using a wider variety of teachers. This will help to come up with accurate, significant and insightful results.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Main Points Discussed in the Paper

Within a constructivist perspective of teaching, which views skilled teaching as knowing what to do in uncertain and unpredictable situations, this research essay explored the topic of reflective teaching by investigating the following questions: (1) What is reflective teaching and why is it important? (2) Why should teachers be trained to be reflective and how can they be prepared to be reflective? (3) What is the role of the teaching context or milieu in the teachers' attempts to become more reflective?

Dewey and Schön, two key educational philosophers and theorists, who elaborated differing concepts of reflection, have had an important influence on much of the writing on reflection in teacher education. Their work offers a framework for other researchers and educators to use in their attempts to define reflective teaching. A review of the literature reveals that there is no consensus among researchers on the definitions of reflective teaching. These different definitions vary based on the context of the writer's or researcher's professional education or beliefs about teaching and teacher education. However, I argued that though these varied definitions differ in the way they view reflective teaching, they can be classified into five main perspectives: that is, reflective teaching from a technical perspective, a contextual perspective, a social perceptive, an experiential or deliberative perspective and a critical perspective. Based on these aforesaid perspectives I defined more reflective teachers as those who avoid adopting a bureaucratic or technical role that has been historically given to teachers. Instead, more reflective teachers focus internally and externally on the social conditions of their

practice. Thus, action plans that are generated from the process of reflection examine the ethical and political consequences of teaching based on their experiences, values, beliefs and research, and generally occur as a collaborative work. In Chapter 2, based on a review of a wealth of literature, I stated that reflective teaching is important because of the potential benefits to teaching. One such benefit is that reflective teaching can maintain the teacher's voice, confidence, creativeness, and personal capacities for learning and improvement. It also enables teachers to act in a deliberate manner and not be slaves to routine. Acting in a deliberate manner aids teachers to gain an insight into their own practice and increase the sense of who they are and how things work in their schools. Reflective teaching can also assist teachers to maintain collegiality, professional and social support as well as empower them to be decision makers and agents of change in curriculum development. In addition, reflective teaching can prepare teachers to effectively counter the complexity and the ambiguity that are embedded in their classrooms. Through reflection, teachers can also adjust to students' differences in ethnicity, socioeconomic status, developmental level and motivation to learn. These potential benefits that more reflective teachers may gain in their teaching make it clear why reflective teaching is important and why it is appealing to teaching scholars and teacher educators.

In Chapter 2, I also pointed out that teachers, who want to become more reflective, go through a number of stages or phases when they reflect, as reflection is a dynamic process. Through these stages teachers observe and collect evidence about their teaching, revisit collected data, uncover their assumptive world, find appropriate solution and act using this solution. This process is not linear or sequential and thus teachers may pass

through the cycles of teaching and reflection several times before resolving on a course of action or finding a potential answer to a question that arises in their day-to-day practice. This process is not easy and it requires teachers to be experienced and also to have sufficient time to go through all these stages. Therefore, I argued that teachers, in order to become more reflective about their teaching, should be encouraged and prepared in their pre- and in-service teacher education programs.

In Chapter 3, I discussed how to promote reflective teaching pointing out that student teachers, in their pre-service teacher education programs, should be trained using reflective models and techniques (Chapter 3, Section, 3.1.3, Table 2). I emphasized these models and techniques that are summarized in Table 2 because they are grounded in constructivist pedagogical approaches that can encourage these student teachers to apply the received knowledge in effective and appropriate ways. These models and techniques can also provide the opportunity to construct knowledge through experience and promote an active role in student teachers' learning by collaborative rather than isolated activities. I argued that Wallace's reflective model, Day's integrative model or Schön's reflective practitioner model can help student teachers to gain the aforesaid outcomes, which in turn can promote reflective teaching. The techniques that can also be used to promote reflective teaching include action research, case studies, ethnographic studies, microteaching and other supervised practicum, and structured curriculum tasks. Specific techniques such as oral interviews, writing tasks, and peer observations can be used to encourage teachers to be involved in reflective teaching.

I also stated that since in-service teacher development is effective in encouraging teachers to be more reflective, teachers should be supplied with models of professional

development that promote reflective teaching. Thus I presented five models of professional development as illustrated in Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2., Table 3 that can foster reflective teaching. These models are 'Individual Guided Development Model', 'Observation/Assessment Model', 'Development/Improvement process Model', 'Training Model' and 'Inquiry Model'. They are based on constructivist pedagogical approaches to professional development and each model can help provoke reflection among teachers if the teaching context supports collaboration, collegiality and experimentation. Thus, this research essay suggested that the teaching context or milieu plays a decisive role in the teachers' attempts to become more reflective.

In Chapter 4, based on a small study, I explored the role of an EFL teaching context or milieu in relation to three EFL teachers' attempts to reflect on their self-initiated CLT approaches to teaching. This small study reported that traditional and grade-oriented approaches to teaching, lack of time, limited collaboration among teachers, and lack of meaningful in-service development can impede teachers from effectively being involved in reflective teaching. To nurture innovative teachers' efforts to reflect and to maintain the pre-service training they have received about reflective teaching, I argued that administrators or policy makers in any teaching context should provide the teachers with the following: sufficient time for teachers to reflect and work collaboratively to discuss challenges encountered in teaching, fewer non-classroom duties, regular in-service opportunities, more facilities and freedom in choosing the suitable way in evaluating their students' progress and needs.

5.2. The Researcher's Perspective about Reflective Teaching

Exploring the concept of reflective teaching, its importance and its potential benefits in teaching provokes my interest in adopting this role when teaching. After being enlightened about reflective teaching and going through the process of learning so much about this concept, certain prior beliefs, values and educational theories that I have had as an EFL teacher have been adjusted. Interestingly as an EFL teacher, I have become convinced that if I want my students to be thoughtful and analytical in their learning process, first I should start achieving this within myself. This means that if I want my students to be critical discoverers of knowledge rather than passive recipients, I should adopt this role as a teacher. Thus, I should critically and systematically reflect on my teaching, so that I can effectively involve and motivate my students to take over self-learning outside the classroom. I cannot deny that being a more reflective teacher is not easy, but the process will enable me to narrate my own story of what I have succeeded or failed to achieve in my classroom. Indeed, being a more reflective teacher will promote my own self-assessment that is vital in keeping me in the classroom with enough energy and sense of purpose to have an effect on those I teach.

The other amazing point that I learnt from this research essay is that in my teaching and preparations for my classes I mentally went through all the different stages and phases of reflective teaching without being aware that I was in the process of being reflective. This means that many teachers regardless of their teaching contexts, teaching subjects or teaching methodologies are unconsciously reflective. Being aware of this concept and having a qualified facilitator may give these unconscious reflective teachers an opportunity to speak their minds and uncover their mute creativity and innovation in

improving the quality of teaching and learning. I believe that this process must start in their pre-service teacher education programs and continue to the workplace context. This indicates that teacher should be trained in their pre-service teacher education programs to know how to teach within the constructivist perspective where they reflect on and interpret the available information in their own particular settings, make decisions, and act on them. This will lead these teachers, when practicing their teaching, to become more innovative and creative when preparing for their classrooms as well as develop a more complex understating of the teaching issues.

The other point I realized from researching reflective teaching is that as a teacher I should not ignore the role of the workplace or the teaching context when planning to become a more reflective. This is because the teaching context either supports collaboration, collegiality and experimentation or not. Since I am enthusiastic about becoming a more reflective EFL teacher I should not expect from the very beginning that the teaching context, either at the classroom level or at the department level will entirely assist my attempts. The small study within this research essay enabled me to know in advance, the challenges that I would face in my attempt to be more reflective in my EFL context. Thus I will expect to encounter certain difficulties such as teaching within traditional grade-oriented approaches, lack of time to reflect, limited collaboration and meaningful in-service teacher development opportunities. Awareness of these difficulties will not discourage or demotivate me to continue in the process of becoming more reflective. This indicates that introducing the idea of reflective teaching at the beginning in my EFL teaching context may not be appealing to those who advocate for traditional grade-oriented approaches to teaching. As such, more reflective and innovative teachers

should be aware of their own, their students' and the other teachers' perceptions of an innovation. This is due to the fact that when initiating an innovative idea in any teaching context we should not immediately expect everyone to give compliments or approval. In addition, the resistance that more reflective and innovative teachers may get towards their attempts is not because their innovative ideas are not good but because they have not been understood by the other stakeholders (i.e., students, parents, colleagues, policy makers) in the teaching-learning process. Thus I believe that in order to gain the support from my students, colleagues and the administrators I should introduce this idea of reflection gradually. This may mean that first I internally reflect, then extend outward to reflection with a partner, and then reflection with a small team and finally with the whole teaching staff in the department. Moving gradually from an individual reflection to a collaborative reflection is one of the solutions that I think will work in my EFL context.

5.3. Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

Reflective teaching is a very broad topic which means that there are still areas related to reflective teaching that have not been given attention in literature and have not been discussed in this paper. For example, this research essay did not explore the effectiveness and challenges of using the reflective models and techniques that are based on the constructivist pedagogical approaches in preparing student teachers. Investigating this area will help educators in pre-service teacher education programs become aware of the potential benefits and challenges of reflective models and techniques when introducing them to student teachers. It also did not take into account the teachers' perceptions of the usefulness of being prepared in their pre-service teacher education programs by using reflective models and techniques that are based on constructivist

rather than traditional pedagogical approaches. Incorporating teachers' understanding and perceptions can permit valuable insights into the effectiveness of these models and techniques in preparing student teachers to be more reflective. The perceptions of teacher education programs and institutions of reflective teaching should also be investigated to see whether reflective teaching is something to be taken seriously or only a passing fad. This perception will affect the implementation of reflective teaching methods in the training curriculum as well as the promotion of the administrative support and facilities to practicing teachers.

This research essay also explored the role of an EFL context in relation to three EFL teachers' attempts to reflect on their self-initiated CLT approaches to teaching. It is recommended that a variety of teachers from different teaching contexts be used in further research to develop a more complete picture of the role of the teaching context in relation to the teacher's efforts to become more reflective.

REFERENCES

Bailey, K. M. (1997). Reflective teaching: Situating our stories. *English Language Teaching,* 7, 1-19. Retrieved September 19th, 2006, from http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt/vol7/art1.htm.

Barnes, D. (1976). *From communication to curriculum.* Harmondsworth: Penguin Education.

Bartlett, L. (1990). Teacher development through reflective teaching. In J. C. Richards, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp. 202-214). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Brookfield, S. D. (1995). What it means to be a critically reflective teacher. In S. D. Brookfield (Ed.), *Becoming a critically reflective teacher* (pp. 1-27). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brookfield, S. D. (2002). Using the lenses of critically reflective teaching in the community college classroom. *New Direction For Community Colleges*, 118, 31-38.

Calderhead, J. (1989). Reflective teaching and teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 5 (1)*,* 43-51.

Connelly, E., & Clandinin, D. (1988). Recovery of curriculum meaning. In E. Connelly & D. Clandinin (Eds.), Teachers as curriculum planners (pp. 81-97). Toronto: OISE Press.

Crookes, G. (2003). *A practicum in TESOL: Professional development through teaching practice.* Great Britain: Cambridge University Press.

Cruickshank, D. R. (1987). *Reflective teaching: The preparation of students of teaching*. Reston: Association of teacher education.

Day, R. R. (1991). Models and the knowledge base of second language teacher education. In Sadtono, E. (Ed.), *Issues in Language teacher education* (pp. 38-48). *Singapore*: SEMAEO Regional Language Center.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the education process.* Boston: D. C. Health & Co.

Fox, J. (2004). Curriculum design: Does it make a difference? *Contact*, 30(2), 1-4.

Fox, J. (in press). The introduction of enriched English in Taiwan: Seven teachers' practice, perception and purpose in the context of curricular renewal.

Freeman, D. (1996). Redefining the relationship between research and what teachers know. In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp. 88-115). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Freeman, D., & Richards, J. (1996). *Teacher learning in language teaching.* Great Britain: Cambridge University Press.

Frees, A. R. (1999). The role of reflection on pre-service teachers' development in the context of professional development school. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15(8), 895-909.

Gonzalez, A. (2003). Who is educating EFL teachers? A quantitative study of in-service in Colombia. *Journal of Language and Culture*, 8(14), 153-171.

Hatton, N., & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 11(1), 33-49.

Hu, G. (2002). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: The case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 15 (2), 93-105.

Hu, G. (2005). Professional development of secondary EFL teachers: Lessons from China. *Teacher College Record*, 107 (4), 659-598.

James, P. (2001). *Teachers in action: Tasks for in-service language teacher education and development.* Great Britain: Cambridge University Press.

Jay, J. K., & Johnson, K. L. (2002). Capturing complexity: A typology of reflective practice for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11, 73-85.

Johnson, B. (2003). Teacher collaboration: Good for some, not good for others. *Educational Studies, 29 (4), 237-252.*

Kernaghan, A. (2006). *Is reflective practitioner model an impractical theory?* Retrieved September 19th, 2006, from http://www.qub.ac.uk/schools/EssentialSkills/filestore/Filetoupload,14115,en.doc.

Larrivee, B., & Cooper. J. M. (2006). *An educator's guide to teacher reflection*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Li, D. (1998). It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine: Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(4), 677-703.

Marks, H.M., & Louis, k. S. (1997). Does teacher empowerment affect the classroom? The implication of teacher empowerment in instructional practice and student academic performance. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 19(3),* 245-267.

Mckay, S. L. (2002). *The reflective teacher: A guide to classroom research*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Center.

Moore, Z. (1996). *Foreign language teacher education: Multiple perspectives.* United States: University Press of America.

Osterman, K.F., & Kottkamp, R. B. (1993). *Reflective practice for educators: Improving schooling through professional development*. Newbury Park, California: Corwin Press.

Osterman, K. F., & Kottkamp, R. B. (2004). *Reflective practice for educators: Professional development to improve student learning.* Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.

Pollard, A., & Tann, S. (1993). Reflective teaching and competence. In A. Pollard, & S. Tann (Eds.), *Reflective teaching in the primary school: A handbook for the classroom* (pp.1-22). London: Cassell.

Richards, J. C. (1991). Reflective teaching in TESOL teacher education. In Sadtono, E. (Ed.), *Issues in language teacher education* (pp. 1-19). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Center.

Roberts, J. (1998). *Language teacher education*. Great Britain: Arnold.

Richards, J. C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective teaching in second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Savignon, S. (2002). Communicative language teaching: Linguistic theory and classroom practice. In S. Savignon (Ed.), *Interpreting communicative language teaching* (pp. 1-24). New Haven: Yale University Pres

Schoeppach, M. R. (2001). The new role of the teacher as decision maker. *Review of Educational Research, 68,* 100-104.

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action.* New York: Basic Books.

Schön, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Taggart, G. L., & Wilson, A. P. (2005). Becoming a reflective teacher. In G. L. Taggart, & A. P. Wilson, (Eds.), *Promoting reflective thinking in teachers: 50 action strategies* (pp.1-10). Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

York-Barr, J., Sommers, W. A., Ghere, G. S., & Montie, J. (2006). *Reflective practice to improve schools: An action guide for educators*. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.

Zeichner, K. M., & Liston, D. P. (1996). Reflective teaching: An introduction. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

APPENDIX 1

Open-ended questionnaire to the three EFL teachers

Years of teaching experience: ……………….
MA from: ……………………..
Number of courses you are teaching: ………………………….

1. Define what are the key elements of a CLT approach?
2. As an EFL teacher which approach (CLT or traditional approaches to teaching) do you think is more efficient when teaching these EFL students in the Department of English and why?
3. Do you think the dominant traditional teaching approaches as well as the grade-oriented system encourage you to be a reflective teacher?
4. Have you been trained to teach EFL students using CLT approach in your training program in your Bachelor degree?
5. Did your study in the Canadian context when pursuing your MA changes your view of the efficient approach to teaching?
6. What are the courses are you teaching now?
7. Do you have a specific curriculum, written text or syllabus or teaching guideline when you teach these courses?
8. Which way of teaching (traditional/being passive, non transmissive (CLT)/being active) do you think these EFL students prefer more and why?
9. Do you think that students prefer that you take a role of a guide while they take the role of communicators and discoverers of the delivered knowledge?
10. Does students' English proficiency enable them to participate and communicate actively in the class discussion?
11. Are students motivated to learn English to be able to communicate in English or only to pass the test and get the desired grade?
12. Does the class size encourage you to implement student-centered activities (e.g., discussion, role play, jigsaw activity)?
13. What do you think the most crucial aim students seek industriously to gain by the end of these courses that you teach?
14. What are the ways that you use in evaluating students' progress in your classes and what are the students' reactions toward these ways of evaluations?
15. Do you have sufficient time to prepare for your classes the materials that can evoke students' needs, interests and make them think critically, reflect, and adopt problem-solving skills and communication skills?
16. Do you think students favor being provided with everything (e.g., step by step explanation, more guidance) in lectures or do they prefer to challenge, question, and critique the delivered knowledge?
17. Do you think that collaboration among the other different EFL teachers who are teaching the same course in the department is beneficial and supportive to the way of your teaching?
18. Does the Language Center have any role in preparing students to be autonomous in their learning of English before they attend the department?

19. Do you think that students have abundant opportunities to develop their English and communicate using it outside the boundaries of the classroom? If these opportunities do exist are these students aware of them?
20. Is it easy to teach EFL students in an EFL context using CLT that is established in an ESL context and why?
21. What are the recommendations that you would like to make regarding the best way you can promote and enhance your teaching using CLT approaches in this EFL context as opposed to the traditional ways to teaching?