' If a teacher never questions the goals and the values that guide his or her work, the context in which he or she teaches, or never examines his or her assumptions, then it is our belief that this individual is not engaged in reflective teaching'
(Zeichner and Liston 1996 *p.1)*

REFLECTION AND REFLECTIVE TEACHING
A Case Study of Four Seasoned Teachers in the Cayman Islands

Mark A. Minott
M.Sc, Post Graduate Diploma, D.J.S.M (Honours),
A.T. Diploma, C.J.S.M (Credit), C.E.E. E.T.C

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree
Of Doctor of Education in Teacher Education to the School of Education
University of Nottingham
United Kingdom

March 2006

ACKNOWLEGEMENT and DEDICATION

Being a deeply religious man, I must first give thanks to God my creator and Saviour for empowering me with the necessary intellectual skills and determination to bring this project to fruition despite the many personal and family challenges and bereavements encountered while carrying out this project.

Sincere gratitude and thanks to my supervisors, Dr. Roger Firth and Mr. Tony Fisher, also known to me as Dr. 'R' and Mr. 'T'. Gentlemen, I appreciate your regular and forthright comments about the study and your encouragement and support during my personal difficulties.

Thanks also to Dr. D. Charles and Mr. Herbert Crawford of the Cayman Islands Department of Education for their continued support and encouragement. Special thanks to all my colleagues, friends, and acquaintances that gave so willingly of their time to make this study a success.

 I must also thank my wife, Fayonia, and daughter Asa. Indeed, I am indebted to them for their patience with me during the course and, even more so, during the production of this dissertation.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge and dedicate this prized piece of intellectual property to my late mother, Miss Melita Morrison who gave her all so that I could achieve this level of education.   Also, to my late uncle, Mr. Constantine Morrison, and late bothers, Mr. Donnaree Minott and Mr. Heavor Simms, and sister-in-law, Cherry Simms, who all departed this life over the course of two years i.e.2003-2004. In their own ways, they imparted to me words of encouragement and wisdom on how to succeed.

<u>Gone, but not forgotten.</u>

ABSTRACT

This research was motivated by my personal desire to learn more about reflective teaching, and by the fact that a number of local researchers in the Cayman Islands highlighted the need to accumulate a body of knowledge addressing local issues in all disciplines, including teaching and learning. The purpose of this investigation was to provide a practically adequate understanding of lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation—from the perspective of selected seasoned teachers in the Islands—and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas.

This qualitative instrumental case study employed a critical-realist philosophic stance. Six broad research questions guided the study. Participants included four seasoned teachers. The field research included interviews and documentary analysis. Interviews focused on participants' experience and observations, regarding the research areas. Documents, in the form of lesson plans, were used to confirm or make findings, more or less plausible. Interview transcripts were analysed to determine similarities and differences in respondents' perspectives, and issues warranting further attention.

I ended the study by summarising what I perceived was the respondents' practically adequate understanding of the areas being researched. In addition, I made two major conclusions, regarding reflective teaching. One, how the respondents carried out their role as lesson planners, implementers, and evaluators, resulted from a dynamic relationship between their teaching

philosophy and/or belief, personal choice, mood and the varied contextual constrains such as administratively decreed policies and heavy workload.

I then made a case for the relevance and importance of reflection in coping with, understanding, and effectively using this relationship in the teaching/learning process.

Two, the respondents employed their practical knowledge or experience of 'what works', and generally, they were found to exercise degrees of reflectivity that is, being 'more or less' reflective about their teaching.

Limitations of the study were stated and avenue for further work suggested.

DECLARATION

I confirm that this dissertation is my original work. It does not include material previously

presented for the award of a degree in this, or any other University.

Signed……………………………………..

Mark Anthony Minott

March 2006

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Chapter 1

How I developed an interest in Reflective Teaching
(Introduction to the Study)

In this chapter, I give an anecdote which relates to my interest and which provides a direct means of introducing the topic. I also identify the research area and specific concerns, state the aims of the study, justify the research problem and state why I thought it necessary. I discuss some key sources, Day, Gayle and Gayle, Coyle, Zeichner and Liston, highlight the source of data, the method and procedure, and the treatment of the findings. I end the chapter with a discussion and definition of key words and phrases and an outline of the structure of the dissertation.

1. My research area and interest

I made a decision to focus my research in the area of reflective teaching, which I found interesting for two reasons. First, during my second year in the doctoral programme at the School of Education, University of Nottingham, the leadership of the school decided to use the notion of reflection to guide the entire programme of Teacher Education. This meant that the concept permeated all aspects of the teaching and learning carried out. Therefore, through this constant bombardment with the subject, I became very interested in learning more about the practice. Second, while working through the doctoral module, 'Fundamental Principles of Teacher Education' during my first year of study, I had critically examined and compared reflective teaching with other models of teaching and concluded that both seasoned and novice teachers and, by extension, students, could benefit from engaging with it. For example, as I observed

from the interview with one respondent, her questioning disposition as a 'more reflective teacher' allowed her to find a novel and creative response to a difficult question posed by a student, or to identify a weakness in her teaching, which caused students to misunderstand aspects of a particular lesson. Posner (1989) coined the phrase 'more reflective teacher' which is defined in chapter six. Chapter 2, however, displays the benefits of reflective teaching to teachers, schools, and students.

Through a series of discussions with my supervisors regarding possible research topics within my area of interest, I decided to examine the degree to which teachers, generally, were employing elements of reflective teaching during lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. An underlying theoretical model supported this decision and idea. Diagram 1.1 gives a visual representation of this model.
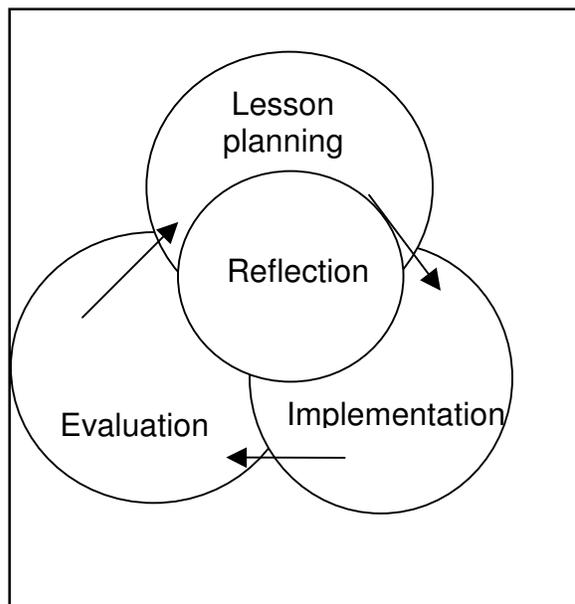
Diagram 1.1 visual representation of the theoretical model underlying the study

Diagram 1.1 indicates three things first, there are clear overlaps between the various areas of the research, even though they are examined separately throughout the study, and an attempt made to show—in chapter two—how each is a complex and

multifaceted activity. Second, it also indicates the cyclical nature of teaching. Usually, while lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation seem separate occurrences, lesson planning directs the lesson implementation process, and lesson implementation influences evaluation. The evaluation process then gives clues regarding alterations, what should be included, excluded or re-introduced in the next lesson, and this process is repeated. Therefore, the process is indeed cyclical and the components do influence each other. Third, diagram 1.1 also displays reflection as central to the process outlined in the foregoing discussion. It displays the fact that reflection and reflective teaching do not exist in an abstract sense, but is enacted through teachers' activities of planning, implementation, and evaluation, i.e., through specific practices, as purported by Fisher (2005) personal communication. Whenever someone says, 'I am reflecting or thinking', the question that follows is, 'On what are you reflecting or thinking?' This suggests that reflection cannot be void of an object, situation, or issue, which is central to the reflective process, and through which the process is enacted and made available for scrutiny.

With this in mind, I decided to investigate teachers' use of elements of reflective teaching through lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation for the reason given in the foregoing discussion and also, because the three areas were central to teaching. In other words, by examining these aspects of teaching, I could identify actions and thoughts indicating teachers' use of elements of reflective teaching. The results of the study exemplify this occurrence. For example, all respondents use questions as they plan, implement, and evaluate lessons, and the questioning of various aspects of teaching is linked to reflective teaching as pointed out by Zeichner and Liston (1996). Two respondents spoke of recall or 'flashbacks' during lesson evaluation as a means of

improving future lessons. In addition, connected to reflective teaching is the use of flashbacks as Coyle (2002) discussed. Another respondent read research and used the findings to improve lesson planning and implementation, and still another carried out research with a view to improve lesson planning, implementation, and her teaching overall. Elder and Paul (1994) and Halpern (1996) suggest that these actions are indicators of elements of reflective teaching. For further discussion of potential indicators of the use of elements of reflective teaching via lesson planning, implementation and evaluation, see chapter two.

One way to address my research interest as well as determine its potential and suitability for research was to examine the literature to find out what written works already existed on my intended research area.

1.1 Problem with the literature

I found an abundance of literature addressing the issue of reflection and reflective teaching. For example, Ghaye and Ghaye (1999) argue that becoming a teacher and continuing with professional development is a challenging and complex business, therefore reflection-on-practice is an essential part of the process of teaching.
Hatton and Smith (1995) highlight problems associated with fostering reflective approaches, particularly in the pre-service teaching context.

Day (1999) examines the nature of reflective practice, its purposes and contexts and the kinds of investment individuals need to make in order to sustain and develop quality teaching over the course of a career. Day (1993) examines people's understanding of the term 'reflection' and the role of partnership and coalitions within collaborative organisational cultures, which are able to support opportunities for various kinds of reflection.

Zeichner and Liston (1996) examine the difference between teacher as technician and teacher as reflective practitioner. Reiman (1999) provides a guide to reflective practice for mentor teachers and teacher educators that should enable them to help novice teachers develop as reflective practitioners.

Farrell (2001) argues that reflective teaching involves teachers learning to subject their beliefs to critical analysis and taking responsibility for their actions, therefore opportunities for them to use conscious reflection is necessary. Posner (1989) seeks to help pre-service teachers to document and begin to reflect on their field experience.

Schon (1987) argues for, and demonstrates, the benefits of reflection. Coyle (2002) outlines a case for reflective teaching, arguing for it hermeneutic value. Calderhead (1992) outlines the goals of reflective teaching and suggests ways to promote it in teacher training. Hyrkas, Tarkka and Ilmonen (2000) integrate theories of reflection in education and nursing practice and Cunningham (2001) discusses reflective teaching and its implication for practice in the subject English as a Second Language. In spite of the abundance of literature, I encountered three problems.

First, while the literature on reflective teaching had grown substantially over the past several years including those that situated it in teacher education and, there was a large number that examined separately my areas of interest. For example, for Lesson planning see Pricewaterhouse-Coopers (2001), Department for Education and Skills (2002), Johnstone (1993), Bridge (2004) and McAvoy (2004). For Lesson implementation, see Cole (1964), Panton (1956), Hunter (1982) and Brophy (1989). For Post lesson evaluation, see Steinberg (1991), Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), James-Reid

(1983), N Gordon-Rowe (1983) and Bryant (1992). It seemed additional research that combined the areas of concern were needed. I arrived at this conclusion because a search for reflective teaching combined with lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation on the Eric - CIJE & RIE database 1966 – 1983 returned no articles (0); 1984 – 1989 returned two articles (2); and 1990 - June 2004 returned fifteen articles (15) which looked at or mentioned lesson planning or evaluation and reflective teaching, but not lesson implementation. The British Education Index database returned no articles (0) and the Australian index database 1976- September 2004 returned ten articles (10).

Second, I found that literature that examined separately the areas pertinent to this study tend to focus primarily on pre-service teachers. Some researchers who employed seasoned teachers and their involvement in aspects of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and reflective teaching are Eastwell (1993) who provides an account of a teacher's attempts to adopt a constructivist approach to lesson planning, Williams (1994) who uses teachers at a teacher education conference in his experimentation with the semantic map lesson planning technique. Freire and Sanches (1992) study secondary teachers' conceptions of teaching physics. The subjects examined vignettes describing various plans for physics lessons and then reflected on the situations. Researchers analysed subjects' pedagogical arguments and delimited types of science teaching conceptions and Athanases (1993) describes research on ways teachers adapt and tailor lessons to changing circumstances and class populations, and reported on teachers' reflective practices.

As a result of this initial exploration of the literature, I concluded that there was evidently the need for additional studies of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation,

and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas, but more so, from the perspective of seasoned teachers. Third, a search of the local archives, college libraries, and teacher resource centre at the Ministry of Education in the Cayman Islands, yielded no literature addressing the areas pertinent to this study. This suggested that locally the areas were understudied and the limited local literary resources seemed to support this fact.

Seeing that—in addition to other places—it was from these local resource centres that information used in the development of education, and training material for in-service teachers were derived, the absence of local research reports addressing the concerns of this study could be a potential setback, especially when the need arises for developing training programmes in the areas pertinent to this study. Therefore, I concluded that aside from the fact that the concerns of this study were of personal interest to me, this investigation would also be potentially useful to the local in-service teacher education and training programme in the Cayman Islands. However, before stating exactly how useful the study could be to the local in-service teacher education and training programme, an overview of the nature of the local programme would help to further situate the study into the discipline, teacher education, as well as to show exactly how the knowledge gained through the investigation could be utilised.

1.2 My research interest and the Local Teacher Education and Training Programme

The local teacher education and training programme in the Cayman Islands takes the form of in-service training days, national teachers' conferences, workshops, and induction days, organised by the Ministry of Education or other relevant authorities, as outlined by the Education and Training Bill, 2005. There is a fledgling initial teacher-

education programme offered by one of the Islands' colleges. They offer bachelor's degrees for teachers of Business and Elementary Education. However, a large number of teachers are expatriates with a minimum of five years teaching experience. The minimum of five years of teaching experience along with a Bachelor's degree is a requirement for employment. These stipulations ensure that a number of teachers on the Islands are qualified teachers with at least a minimum of five years teaching experience.

Allocated for conferences and seminars are six days for the year. Topics that are deemed by the Department of Education to be relevant to teachers, as well as those teachers consider relevant, are presented and discussed in these sessions, for example, how to address the needs of students with ADHD (Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder) or, more recently, addressing the emotional needs of students who had experienced the hurricane. Also discussed are topics related to subjects in the curriculum.

So, while there might not be an immediate need—locally—for training in the areas covered by my study, it would be adding to the body of knowledge that examines lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. Thus, it would be a ready local resource whenever the need arises. There is the need to accumulate and develop a body of knowledge addressing local issues in all disciplines, including the processes involved in teaching.

A number of local researchers highlighted this fact. Gomez (1997) in the area of health services could only identify one piece of research done. Minott (2001) identified one article that addressed the relationship between churches and schools. Reid (2004) also cited the limited local literary resource as a cause for concern when addressing

students at risk for academic underachievement. Whittaker (2000), in the area of Special education, hinted at the lack of knowledge and formal assessment of children with special needs and Godet (1995), researching racial valuing stated that there was no research done in that area before his study.

In addition, it is my desire that the findings of my study will act as a catalyst for the process of constructing a working conceptual framework for the local teacher education and training in-service programme. The framework should guide further discussion, thus resulting in a final document that would give overall direction to the programme. From informal discussions with friends and colleagues, I find this a worthwhile and needed undertaking. See chapter six for further discussion. Therefore, given my personal interest in the research areas, the potential usefulness of the study in the local teacher education and training programme, and the seeming need for additional literature, both locally and globally, I launched an investigation.

2. My research aims and questions

The aim of the investigation was three-fold: First, it was to provide a practically adequate understanding of lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation—from the perspective of selected seasoned teachers in the Cayman Islands—and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. Practically adequate means that, as a critical-realist researcher, the overall account that I produce of the selected teachers' perspective and involvement—mediated through my own thoughts and experiences—with the research areas, must be believable, intelligible and realised. This means that when thought of, in light of the practice of teaching and reflective teaching, as posited by literature, readers of my research must be able to believe the account. The account

should also be logical and understandable to them, as promoted by Sayer (1992). See chapter three for further discussion of my research philosophic paradigm.

Second, it was to use the emerging results to develop theories, thus contributing to the body of knowledge relevant to the research areas. Third, it was to use the results of the study to suggest implications for teacher education and training, both globally and locally, thus making the study pragmatic.

My analysis of both the concerns and the aims of the study outlined in the foregoing discussion, suggests the need to provide answers to a number of broad research questions that I also used to guide the study. Questions were formulated by using the main components of the study, that is, seasoned teachers, lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and reflective teaching. The questions are:

1. What are the selected teachers' lesson planning practices--where do they plan, what influences their planning and how do they plan?

2. To what extent is reflection-on-action present in these teachers' lesson- planning practices?

3. What are the selected teachers' lesson implementation practices?

4. To what extent is reflection-in-action present in these teachers' lesson-implementation practices?

5. What are the selected teachers' lesson evaluation practices?

6. To what extent is reflection-on-action present in these teachers' lesson evaluation practices?

Included in the discussion in chapter three are the philosophical underpinning of these questions, how they set the research agenda, established the data collection

method, limit the boundaries of space and time within which the study would operate, facilitate the drawing up of ethical guidelines, and suggest how analysis could start.

3. Significance of the study

The study offers some fresh insight into teachers' lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and the use of elements of reflective teaching in the areas, generally and in the Cayman Islands in particular. There is no known similar investigation in teacher education locally.

The study could also be a reference for teachers who would like to know more about reflective teaching and/or employ aspects of reflective teaching in their practice, as a means of improving their practice, and improved teaching practices should eventuate into improved student learning, as purported by (Cole 1997, Coyle op.cit, Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen 2001 and Calderhead 1992). In addition, while the study is not a manual on the research areas, those who consult it will find my interpretation and synthesis of information regarding appropriate practice in the areas pertinent to the study, such as teachers' engagement with these areas, factors influencing them, how these factors act in influencing, and their impact on students. They will also find my definition of reflective teaching and a list of the characteristics of reflective teaching that I created from the literature reviewed. There is also a list of actions and thoughts indicating the use of elements of reflective teaching. There is my understanding of the reasons for questioning in reflective teaching, the kinds of questions to ask, and at what point of the lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation processes to ask such questions, and what aspects of teaching are to be the primary targets for questioning, for example, one's values, beliefs about teaching, practical knowledge, teaching context and policies.

The study could also influence the belief in its readers that reflective teaching, or a version defined by, and set within their unique particular socio-political contexts could usefully drive the area of teaching as stated by (Coyle 2002).

Given the fact that the Cayman Islands' Government proposes to introduce a nationally recognised initial teacher education programme, an understanding of the nature of seasoned teachers' lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and the extent to which elements of reflective teaching were present in their practices, could aid in the construction of a module for initial teacher education. This would introduce, sensitise, train and encourage student teachers to incorporate elements of reflective teaching in their practice.

However, it is my hope that by making the research report available to educators and policy-makers who are responsible for the proposed initial teacher education programme, it could act as a catalyst in ensuring that the whole programme supports the idea of reflective teaching. Alternatively, at the very least it could raise curiosity regarding reflective teaching.

The study occurs in the Cayman Islands and the uniqueness of the selected teachers' involvement with lesson planning, implementation and evaluation justifies the need for, and lends significance to, the study.

4. Methodology, Respondents, Data Analysis and Method

A critical-realist philosophic paradigm influenced my choice of methodology, which was an instrumental case study methodology. See chapter three for an examination of critical realism, methodology and methods. Creswell (1998) and Stake (2000) in Denzin and Lincoln define an instrumental case study as a type of case study

with the focus on a specific issue, rather than on the case itself. The case then becomes a vehicle to understand the issue or to provide insight into the concerns of the study.

The respondents/cases for this study were four teachers who were my friends and colleagues, who were willing to assist me by participating in a number of interviews. I used the process of purposeful convenience or opportunity sampling in their selection and I considered them 'information-rich', as defined by Guba and Lincoln (1998) in Denzin and Lincoln. See chapter three for an explanation of the term 'information-rich'. Interviews and documentary analysis--in the form of teachers' lesson plans--were the data collection methods employed.

The data from the interviews, which were transcribed from tape-recording, were analysed using within and cross-case analyses. This meant that, as Creswell (1998) states, an analysis of each case was carried out as well as a cross-examination of emerging categories to discern findings that were common to all cases. Also used in the analysis process was direct interpretation of the data. This involved looking at each case and drawing meaning from the data, as well as categorical aggregation, where a collection of instances were sought with the hope that issue-relevant meanings would emerge. See appendix 10, page 238, for a sample of the within-case analysis, chapter four for the results of complete cross-case analysis, and chapter five for a detailed discussion of the results of both. The main method used for the collection of data was a semi-structured interview. Wragg (2002), in Coleman and Briggs states, that there are many pitfalls associated with interviewing as a method of data collection. However, the pitfalls I found most relevant to this study were the issues of loaded questions and the nature of the research I carried out. Precautions to safeguard against loaded questions included

vetting the questions, as recommended by Wragg (2002). The subject of the research and the research questions were not of a sensitive nature, therefore, there was no cause for the respondents to be reluctant to speak truthfully.

I piloted the interview schedule twice and after the second pilot, further modification, which included omitting questions or altering words, occurred. From the analysis of the results of the pilot study and the subsequent refining of the questions, five main sections, along with questions, emerged. See chapter three for an outline of these sections or appendix 1, page 216. Where possible, I used the lesson plans submitted by the respondents to support the findings from the interview.

I will define key words and phrases to establish parameters for this study and to make clear the sense in which these words and phrases are utilised.

5. Definition of Terms and Phrases
5.1 Reflection and Reflective Teaching

There are criticisms of reflective teaching like those highlighted by Zeichner and Liston (1996) and Hatton and Smith (1995). These writers point out that there is confusion regarding the meaning of reflective teaching. Underlying the apparent similarities among those who embrace the model are vast differences in perspectives about teaching, learning, and schooling. Further, the term is vague and ambiguous, and there are many misunderstandings as to what is involved with teaching reflectively. An examination of these criticisms shows that the difficulty with the model rests in its conceptualisation, the underlying and varied beliefs, values, and assumptions embraced by those employing it, and not in its usefulness as a model of teaching.

Coyle (2002), responding to these and other criticisms, points in the right direction when she calls upon educators to make explicit their interpretation of reflective

teaching, rooted in their particular political and social context. Despite these and other criticisms, a sample of the writings on reflective teaching and reflection, for example: Cole (1997) Canada, Hatton and Smith (1995) Australia, Zeichner and Liston (op.cit) United States, Ghaye and Ghaye (1998) United Kingdom, Day (1996) United Kingdom, Hyrkas, Tarkka and Ilmonen (2000) Finland, Farrell (2001) Singapore and Coyle (2002) United Kingdom, suggests its worldwide appeal.

Adhering to Coyle's recommendation, I will make clear the sense in which I use reflection and reflective teaching in my study. Gayle and Gayle (1999) see reflection as thinking about what you do, and Farrell (2001) sees it as thinking critically about what you do, which involves recall, consideration, and evaluation of experiences. For the purpose of my study: reflection is careful consideration or thought; it is a process of disciplined intellectual criticism combining research; knowledge of context, and balanced judgment (critical thinking) about previous, present, and future actions; events or decisions. Additionally, as stated by Fisher (2005), personal communication, reflection does not exist in an abstract sense, but is enacted through specific practices such as lesson planning, implementation and evaluation. A common feature of the reflective process is the questioning of 'self', that is, one's belief, values, assumptions, context, and goals, in relation to such actions, events, or decisions, as outlined by Cruickshank (1987) and Zeichner and Liston (1996).

In light of this, reflective teaching is an approach to teaching, learning and problem solving that uses reflection as the main tool. It encourages teachers to create distance between themselves and their practice, as outlined by Bengtsson (1993). It involves them analysing, discussing, evaluating, changing and developing their practice,

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by adopting an analytical approach to their work as purported by (Martin Jr. Wood, & Stevens 1988 and Coyle 2002).

Zeichner and Liston (1996) put this in practical terms when they point out that reflective teaching involves teachers in examining, framing, attempting to solve dilemmas of classroom and schools, and asking questions about assumptions and values they bring to teaching. It also involves attending to the institutional and cultural context in which they teach, taking part in curriculum development, being involved in school change and taking responsibility for their professional development.

The goal of reflective teaching according to Cunningham (2001) is not necessarily to address a specific problem or question, as in a practitioner's research, such as action research, but to observe and refine practice generally and on an ongoing basis. While this is the main goal of reflective teaching, I can infer from Zeichner and Liston (1996) that it could also be quite useful in the process of addressing a specific problem, as well as contributing to action research, especially when questioning as espoused by the writers, is utilised in the practice. I address the use of questions in reflective teaching in chapters four through six.

Essentially, the act of reflecting and reflective teaching are intertwined, for reflection supports the actions that are unique to reflective teaching, as outlined by Zeichner and Liston (1996) in the foregoing discussion. In other words, reflection enables these processes to occur and is enacted through them.

The Eastern Mennonite University website (2005) suggests that another goal of reflective teaching is to support teachers' professional knowledge bases and these knowledge bases centre on knowledge of self, knowledge of content, knowledge of teaching and learning, knowledge of pupils, and knowledge of context within schools

and society. Prominently featured and discussed in the area of teacher knowledge is the concept of 'pedagogical content knowledge'. A search of databases of the British Education Index, Australian Education Index, and ERIC, reveals over one hundred and twenty-two (122) articles with the phrase 'pedagogical content knowledge' included in the titles, and numerous others that had the phrase included in the text. This occurrence highlights both the importance and magnitude of the debate surrounding the subject. Diagram 1.2 below displays the concept of pedagogical content knowledge as presented by Shulman.

| Subject Knowledge | | Pedagogic Knowledge |

Pedagogical Content Knowledge
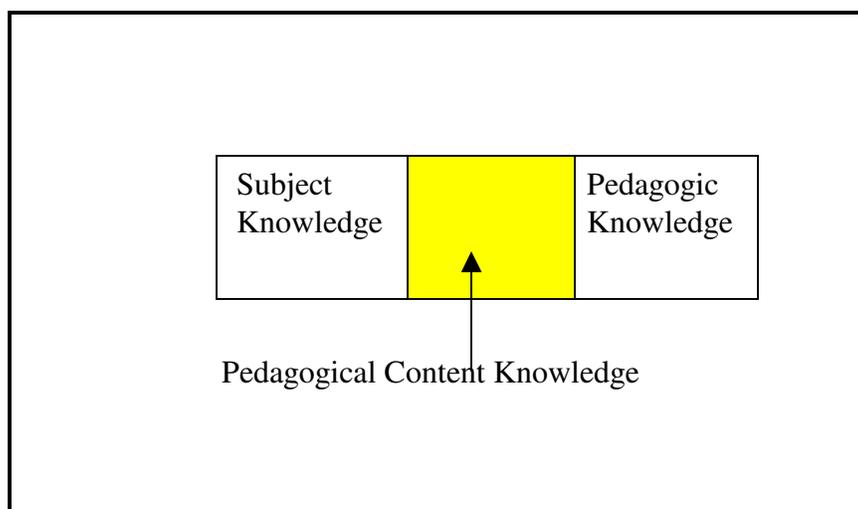
Diagram 1.2 Displaying Shulman's Pedagogic Content Knowledge

Speaking about teacher certification and accreditation procedure, Shulman points out that there was a focus either on pedagogic knowledge or on content knowledge that resulted in teachers either being pedagogically skilled and were not held accountable for the development of their content knowledge, or were content specialists and pedagogy was considered secondary. To solve this dilemma, he advocated the need to explore the inherent relationship between the two through what he termed

pedagogical content knowledge. The coloured area between the two outer blocks in diagram 1.2 represents Pedagogical content knowledge, as coined by (Shulman 1987).

It is on this midpoint or intersection, that is, pedagogical content knowledge, that Shulman asks us to focus when addressing teachers' certification and institutional accreditation. He defines this mid point or intersection as **'a special amalgam of content and pedagogy, this is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding (p.64).**

In other words, there was the need to explore both areas to improve teacher education. Schulman (1987) defines teachers' knowledge primarily as cognitive, individual constructs, that is, teachers construct their knowledge and such knowledge is of a mental nature. While a number of writers have debated this concept—as I will show later—Shulman's idea was timely according to Connelly, Clandinin and He (1997), for it highlighted the fact, that teacher knowledge--how they know and how they expressed their knowledge--affected every aspect of teaching and learning.

However, Loughran, Milroy, Berry, Gunstone and Mulhall (2001) point out that as the investigations into pedagogical content knowledge grew during the late 80s and early 90s, the concept was developed and conceptualised and was examined in relation to various subjects, for example, Niess (2005) in the areas of Science, Mathematics and Technology. However, Connelly, Clandinin and He (1997) further point out that the very distinct, cognitive nature accorded to pedagogical content knowledge by Shulman and his co-researchers became less tenable. Therefore, a number of criticisms both of Shulman's conception and the phrase he coined emerged. For example, McEwan and Bull (1991) reject Shulman's dualistic theory and affirm an alternative: that all knowledge is, in varying

ways, pedagogic. McCaughtry (2005) points out that the traditional conceptions of pedagogical content knowledge overlook the important sociological ways that teachers think. Sockett (1987) claims that Shulman's focus on content embodies a relative lack of attention to context and ignore the moral dimension of teaching.

The difficulty with Shulman's conception of pedagogical content knowledge rests in the fact that it highlights teacher knowledge as solely cognitive and excludes the moral and sociological dimensions. In the words of Connelly, Clandinin and He (1997), it does not acknowledge nor seem to recognise the complexity and enormity of teachers' knowledge landscape. I will define the term 'knowledge landscape' later in this section.

The recent work of Shulman and Shulman (2004)—while it does not satisfy the debate—seems to display a shift in his original perspective and he is now promoting a situated view of teachers' knowledge, which employs certain phrases such as 'learning communities', 'knowledge landscape' 'socio-centric view of teachers' knowledge' and 'situated cognition'.

`Putman and Borko (2000) highlight the essence of this shift in perspective by stating that the situation or context in which an individual learns becomes a fundamental part of that learning process. In other words, while teacher knowledge is cognitive and individually constructed, learning, which contributes to knowledge or 'knowing', cannot be divorced from, and does involve, a social dimension, interaction and communication with others. Leach and Moon (2000) also support this trend of thought. As indicated in the foregoing discussion, Connelly, Clandinin and He (1997) also saw the development of an understanding of teacher knowledge as strongly connected to an understanding of teacher knowledge landscapes that is, the personal and the in-classroom and out-classroom life of

the teacher.

From a philosophic perspective, it is my belief that teacher knowledge is a cognitive process influenced by personal experience. Hence, it is not objective nor can it be totally independent of the teacher in its production. This thought is compatible with critical realism that guides this study.

The Eastern Mennonite University website (2005) continues by pointing out that among other things, reflective teaching is useful when examining underlying assumptions and it is a useful tool to understand the interaction between dispositions (being), practice (doing), and professional knowledge (knowing). A discussion of an idea similar to the one presented here occurs in chapter six of this study.

Schulman and Schulman (2004), however, make clear the role of reflection in their shifted perspective on teachers' knowledge. The writers suggest that despite their shift in perspective, it is still important that teachers develop the capacity to learn from their experiences, for this improves their ability to effect purposeful change and integrate various aspects of teaching, and that reflection is the tool to enable these to occur. Jones and Moreland (2005) in their study also used reflection as a strategy to enhance teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. They, however, argue that when teachers have an understanding of the characteristics of the subject they teach, they develop more secure guidelines for thinking about what is important in the learning activities. In other words, this would enhance reflection-on-activities and learning. This argument points to a strong connection between reflection and teacher knowledge in the process of improving teaching and learning for both teachers and learners.

To sum up, reflection is careful consideration or thought, it is a process of disciplined

intellectual criticism combining research, knowledge of context and balanced judgment (critical thinking) about previous, present and future actions, events or decisions. It does not exist in an abstract sense but is enacted through specific practices. A common feature of the reflective process is the questioning of 'self', that is, one's belief, values, assumptions, context and goals in relation to such actions, events, or decisions. Reflective teaching uses reflection as the main tool and encourages teachers to create distance between themselves and their practice to analyse, discuss, evaluate, change and develop their practice, by adopting an analytical approach to their work.

5.2 Reflection-in-action and Reflection-on-action

Smith (2001) points out that, there is a clear relationship between both reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action because people draw upon the processes, experiences and understandings generated through reflection-on-action during reflection-in-action. Reflection-in-action involves teachers in critically thinking—on the spot, in 'the thick of things' as discussed by (Schon 1983)—about what is being taught and the intended outcome, sometimes having to assess, revise and implement new approaches and activities immediately. Adler (1994) states that critical to reflection-in-action is the ability to recognise problematic issues and to frame the context in which to attend to them.

Schon (1987) states that reflection occurs before and after action. This he refers to as reflection-on–action. Therefore, before teaching, teachers reflect and plan the lesson and, after teaching, they consider or think about what occurred.

5.3 Lesson planning

Gordon-Rowe (1983) states that to plan is to organise and James- Reid (1983) is of the opinion that lesson planning involves order and structure and working towards certain

goals. However, for this study, lesson planning involves outlining a process geared to achieving set goals or objectives. Bailey (2005), however, states lesson planning is a process that involves identifying the means, resources and actions necessary to accomplish such goals or objectives.

5.4 Lesson Implementation

Lesson Implementation is the carrying out of a planned lesson based on set objectives or guidelines set by the individual teacher involved.

5.5 Lesson evaluation

Lesson evaluation is the careful assessment of the lesson implemented, to determine the achievement of goals, to note areas of strength, and to identify areas of weaknesses in both students' understanding and lesson implementation.

6.   Structure of the dissertation

The organisation of the dissertation is as follows: **Chapter 1** introduces the dissertation concerns, methodology and methods. **Chapter 2** provides an initial review of the literature related to the concerns of the study thus aiding in the construction of the main data collection instrument. The discussion of the data found in chapter five uses this review. **Chapter 3** discusses the research philosophic paradigm and the implications it has for the research methodology, methods, and participants' selection. Chapter 3 also describes how I conducted the study. **Chapter 4** presents the results of the cross-case analysis. **Chapter 5** discusses the results of both the within and cross-case analysis. Comparison of the ideas emerging from the discussion with assumptions derived from the literature reviewed in chapter two occurs. The emergent ideas are developed and this necessitates additional review of literature. **Chapter 6** summarises and further discusses the results of chapter five, thus providing a practically adequate understanding of the

selected teachers' lesson planning, implementation and evaluation and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. It also discusses the emerging conclusions resulting in the development of theories that form a contribution to the body of knowledge relevant to the research areas. Global and local implications of the results for teacher education and training programme are highlighted, along with the limitations of the study and avenue for further research.

Chapter 2

Reflective Teaching and Teachers' Lesson Planning, Implementation and Evaluation Practices

(An initial review of literature)

Introduction

This is an initial review of literature with a two-fold aim. First, it provides information that aids in constructing an interview schedule (see appendix 1, page 216) and, second, this information—along with additional review of literature—will aid the discussion of the data in chapter five. In this review chapter I:

1. Identify the characteristics of reflective teaching then through a process of synthesis, highlight actions and thoughts which are likely to indicate teachers' use of elements of reflective teaching. Throughout the discussion, these potential indicators of reflective teaching are bold-faced and italicised for ease of reference.

2. Outline and discuss lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation practices, factors influencing these, and how teachers engage the processes. I then used the identified characteristics of reflective teaching to suggest, potentially, the actions and thoughts that would indicate the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas.

1. Characteristics of reflective teaching

The advantages of teaching reflectively are many, for individual teachers, the teaching profession, and schools that are willing to employ and encourage its use. For example, I can infer from Farrell (2001) and Coyle (2002) that reflective teaching demands

that teachers employ and develop their cognitive skills as a means of improving their practice. They would recall, consider, and evaluate their teaching experiences as a means of improving future ones. Cole (1997), Coyle (2002), Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen (2001) and Calderhead (1992) point out that reflective teachers develop and use self-directed critical thinking and ongoing critical inquiry in their practice, initiated by them and not administratively decreed. This results in the development of contextualised knowledge.

Elder and Paul (1994), and Halpern (1996) also point out that reflective teachers would think critically, which involves the willingness to question, take risks in learning, try out new strategies and ideas, seek alternatives, take control of learning, use higher order thinking skills and reflect upon their own learning processes. They would discuss and analyse with others, problems they encounter in their classroom, to aid their analysis of situations, which could eventuate into improved future classroom encounters, as suggested by (Cunningham 2001). I also infer from Zeichner and Liston (1996) that reflective teachers would be subject conscious as well as standard conscious, because the model promotes the individual as responsible for identifying subject content deficiencies and, through the act of reflection and being autonomous, address such deficiencies.

Reflective teaching also demands that teachers use and develop their affective skills as a means of improving their practice. According to Markham (1999), they would use their intuition, initiative, values, and experience during teaching, and exercise judgment about the use of various teaching and research skills. Reiman (1999) suggests that they would identify personal meaning and or significance of a classroom or school situation and this would include the disclosure and examination of personal feelings. Markham (1999) further suggests that teachers would also take personal risks, for reflective teaching demands the sharing of perceptions and beliefs with others. They would engage in the disclosure of

feeling, ideas, receiving and giving feedback as a part of a collaborative experience, as purported by (Day 1999a) and, as Cunningham (2001) states, they would confront the uncertainty about their teaching philosophies and indeed their competence.

If teachers hone their cognitive and affective skills via reflective teaching, this could improve their ability to react and respond—as they are teaching—to assess, revise, and implement approaches and activities on the spot. According to Cunningham (2001) and Bengtsson (1993), this could also develop further self-awareness and knowledge through personal experience. More important, this could aid in encouraging teachers in their role as autonomous professionals, by encouraging them to take greater responsibilities for their own professional growth by deepening an awareness of their practice, set within their unique particular socio-political contexts.

As stated in the foregoing discussion, schools also stood to benefit from reflective teaching. For example, as Cole (1997), Coyle (2002), Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen (2001) and Calderhead (1992) point out, reflective teaching can lead to creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations and problems, and this could eventuate into improved learning opportunities for students. When this happens, the school could boast improved student learning. Reflective teaching also includes self-examination by teachers that involves assessing personal beliefs and values. According to Coyle (2002), Posner (1989), Zeichner (1992), Eby and Kujawa (1994), Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen (2001) and Hatton & Smith (1995), it also involves engaging in discussions that lead to self-understanding and self-improvement and could eventuate into being a better teacher-learner, thus facilitating necessary changes both in self and others and teaching context.

Posner (1989) points out that reflective teaching involves critical thinking, which aids teachers in being deliberate and intentional in devising new teaching methods, rather than

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being a slave to tradition or to challenge accepted ways that schools have always carried out the tasks of teaching. Calderhead (1992) also points out that reflective teaching enables teachers to analyse and evaluate their own practice, school and classroom relationships, and make use of what they have learnt to inform decision-making, planning and future action, and this can eventuate into school improvement. The practice places value on both the individual and the development and implementation of knowledge derived from critically thinking about the practice of teaching, which can eventuate into improved competence and standards in teaching and learning. This idea is can be inferred from (Hatton and Smith 1995, Farrell 2001 and Coyle 2002).

Outlining these benefits of teaching reflectively points to its value and role in encouraging effective teaching and teachers but, more importantly,--as I stated in the foregoing discussion--these characteristics of the practice will be used in the process of synthesising the actions and thoughts that indicate the use of elements of reflective teaching in lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. It is to this task that I now turn my attention.

2. Where teachers plan generally (School)

This section provides answers to the following questions, where teachers plan and what influences their planning; how they plan and what actions and thoughts indicate their use of elements of reflective teaching.

While it might seem to the readers of this thesis that an examination of teachers' lesson-planning venue is irrelevant, even unnecessary, I feel it is an integral aspect of their teaching practice, so there is the need to examine this area if I am to gain a thorough understanding of their teaching practice. The literature both directly and indirectly suggests

that the place for lesson planning should be the school and it outlines advantages to teachers when this occurs.

The Golden Plain School Division (2004)—while encouraging teachers to plan by providing time for planning—states that teachers are expected to be in a school during planning time. Boatwright (2004) reporting on the Person County Schools states:

…Prior to the establishment of early release days, elementary teachers had no set planning times, as do middle and high school teachers, who get ninety minutes of planning time during the regular school day.

The Department for Education and Skills (2002) reports that the United Kingdom Government proposes and guarantees teachers the equivalent of at least ten percent of their timetabled teaching time for professional planning, preparation, and assessment in the School day. These examples appear to acknowledge the centrality of lesson-planning and preparation to teaching and that, ideally, planning should take place in schools and during the regular school day.

While this is the case, the literature also draws attention to the negative factors in schools that force teachers to carry out planning elsewhere, including their homes, and it also suggests corrective measures. While there are many factors contributing to this occurrence, the main one identified by the literature is that of teachers' workload, more specifically, the lack of time for planning caused by their numerous work related activities and responsibilities.

Pricewaterhouse-Coopers (2001), School Teachers' Review Body (2000), Johnstone (1993), Bridge (2004), and McAvoy (2004) are examples of studies of teachers' workload and its impact on teachers' stress, lesson planning, and various aspects of their lives in and out of school. For example, Merttens and Robertson (2002) point out that some primary school teachers spend many hours on Sundays on work for which there is no cover

provided during the week. Johnstone (op.cit) records similar comments and conclusions in her study. A number of solutions to the problem are available.

2.1   Solutions to teachers' workload as a barrier to lesson planning

The solutions to the problem of teachers' workload can be categorised under three headings. One: Electronic and computerised aids to planning including the World Wide Web. This includes making use of available pre-prepared lesson plans found on the World Wide Web, thus reducing teachers' workload by reducing time spent on planning. These lesson plans are in easy-to-use formats, such as Word documents, and can be downloaded and adjusted according to personal and contextual needs. This also includes the use of electronically assisted approaches to lesson planning such as online lesson planning templates for teachers to fill in the blank slots and the purchasing of laptops for use by teachers in lesson planning. These ideas emerge from the work of (Hamilton-trust 2002, teachersupport.org.uk 2004, Whittaker 2002, Becta 2002 and Pricewaterhouse-Coopers 2001). Two: human resources. This involves hiring more support/administrative or specialist staff to relieve teachers of certain tasks. The additional staff would take on routine but essential administrative tasks or supporting behaviour management and provide guidance to pupils, thus giving the classroom teacher more time for planning. These thoughts are supported by (Bridge 2004, Department for Education and Skills 2002, and Pricewaterhouse-Coopers 2001). Three: Pricewaterhouse-Coopers (2001), Braggins (2004) and teachersupport.org.uk (2004) suggest structural changes in schools, which involve adjusting timetables to accommodate specialist staff and/or changes in timetabling and school practices to accommodate time for lesson planning in school and during the school day. Finding full solutions to these issues is not easy, therefore, what is required is

further systematic research into policy, practice, culture of schools, and school systems, which are outside the scope and focus of this study.

However, the argument so far is that teachers ought to carry out lesson planning in schools, but there are difficulties, because there is not sufficient time for planning during the actual school day. The main cause of this lack of time, generally and specifically, for lesson planning, was teachers' workload. A number of solutions to this problem are available.

Having said all this, teachers recognise the importance and need for planning and, because there is no time available at school, they do it at home or elsewhere.

2.2 Where teachers plan generally (Home or Elsewhere)

There are a limited number of literary sources which examine this area of concern. When discussions do occur, they are usually in conjunction with some other aspect of teaching. For example, Becta (2002) states that teachers with access to a private or personal printing device can prepare high quality materials off site and this action can—at key times of the day in school—relieve some of the pressure on school equipment. There are a number of inferences that I can make about lesson planning at home from Becta's statement such as the fact that lesson planning at home can aid in reducing the pressure on school equipment and because of the pressure on schools' equipment, teachers prefer to plan at home. Furthermore, teachers might feel comfortable carrying out lesson planning at home because of the availability of certain multi-functioning devices that they have there and are comfortable using as aids to lesson planning.

First, while these inferences are credible, they also suggest that schools having these experiences may need to re-examine, upgrade, and add to their present equipment. Secondly, if teachers are comfortable carrying out lesson planning at home because of

familiarity with certain personal equipment, this act suggests the need for training in the use of schools' equipment. Having said this, there are teachers who plan at home because it keep them in touch with family, and family members can learn to appreciate and might receive some insight into their work situation. There are teachers who simply prefer to plan at home rather than at school. However, given the seemingly limited literature sources that examine 'the place where teachers ought to plan; I can only speculate about these occurrences and the reasons for them. Another important area—given the purpose of this study—is to understand the role of reflection-on-action in lesson-planning venue.

2.3 Reflective Teaching and where teachers plan

The literature on reflective teaching is silent in this area. Possible reasons for this might include the fact that researchers never thought of this link and/or thought that reflection-on-action does not influence teachers' choice of planning venue. I cannot corroborate these reasons for, to my knowledge, there are no known literary sources to consult. Since this is the case, I will proceed to discuss factors influencing teachers' lesson planning.

2.4 Factors influencing teachers' lesson planning.

The literature identifies the following broad areas as influencing teachers' lesson planning practices. Richards (1996), Barry (1982), and John (1991) refer to teachers' beliefs and practical knowledge. Hastie (1991), Barry (1982), John (1991), Richards (1996),

Reed & Peyton (1987), Venn & McCollum (2002), Phillips & Solomon (1998), Department for Education and Skills (2002) all identified schools' contextual factors and curricula resources. O Grady (2003), Modern Foreign Languages (2004), Hastie (1991), Fischer (1984), Reed & Peyton (1987), Venn & McCollum (2002), Department for Education and Skills (2002) highlight students' learning needs, and Becher and Trowler

(2001) and Gardner and Boix-Mansilla (1999) suggest curriculum subject matter content. I will now examine these factors.

2.4.1 Teachers' beliefs and practical knowledge

Borg (2001) defines belief as a proposition which is held either unconsciously or consciously. The individual accepts it as true and it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour. Marland (1998), Aguirre and Speer (2000), Bird, Anderson, Sullivan and Swidler (1993), Virta (2002), Barry (1982), Richards (1996), and Kupari (2003) support the idea that beliefs shape practice and orient practical knowledge.

Borg (2001) points out that a difference between belief and practical knowledge is that a belief is held to be true by the individual involved, though this may not be absolutely so, while knowledge must actually be true in some external sense. Joram and Gabriele (1998) however took this further, by stating that especially among experienced teachers, beliefs and practical knowledge about teaching can coexist, and that the transformation of beliefs into practical knowledge via the process of reflection can occur. I will elaborate on this point because it displays an action that is an indicator of reflective teaching.

Borg (2001) suggests that a belief is a proposition or an idea consciously or unconsciously held. The individual accepts it as true and it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour. Marland (1998) defines teachers' practical knowledge as that which is built up by them on the job, as they grapple with the daily challenges of teaching and as they seek to refine their professional practice. Calderhead (1992) points out that one characteristic of becoming a reflective teacher involves critically examining one's own and other's educational beliefs and developing a coherent, articulated view of teaching and learning. Based on this, it seems that through a critical examination of beliefs, the transformation of what teachers believe about teaching will occur. ***The act of examining***

one's beliefs about teaching and testing these beliefs in the rigour of classroom realities should result not only in the development of new knowledge but could also reinforce beliefs held about teaching. See chapter five for further development of this argument. Having defined and showed succinctly the relationship between beliefs and practical knowledge, the questions now become, 'How do they actually influence lesson planning?' and 'What actions or thoughts indicate teachers' use of reflection-on-action in relation to how their beliefs and practical knowledge about teaching influence their lesson planning?'

2.4.2 Teachers' beliefs about teaching and their lesson planning

While the study carried out by Barry (1982) reports a number of factors that influenced teachers' lesson planning, teachers' beliefs ranked high among those considered very potent. Richards (1996), in a study of pre-service music teachers' pedagogical knowledge and beliefs, concludes that well established beliefs about teaching of music are formed from the participants' experiences as high school music students, as private music tutors, and as university students. Virta (2002) makes similar observations among student history teachers.

Richards (op.cit) concludes that for some student teachers, their beliefs about teaching formed orientations that guide the way they thought about and planned for instruction. I can infer from Richards' conclusion that essentially, teachers' beliefs cause them to lean to a particular way of acting and thinking about lesson planning. Borg (2001) also supports this observation, for she states that teachers with contemporary beliefs are significantly more likely to have their students analysing mathematical relationships and working in groups, and those with traditional beliefs emphasise models of teaching where the teacher transmits information and rules to the students. Kupari (2003) supports Borg's

conclusion. I can infer from Borg's and Kupari's statements that teachers' beliefs influence the kinds of activities they include in their lesson plans. The examples given by these writers in the foregoing discussion also display some practical ways in which this occurs. The question posed in the foregoing discussion of what action or thoughts indicate the use of reflection-on-action in relation to teachers' beliefs and their lesson planning will guide the discussion in the next section.

2.4.3 Reflective Teaching, teachers' beliefs and lesson planning

As stated in the foregoing discussion, one of the many characteristics of reflective teaching is that it includes self-examination by teachers. This involves assessing beliefs and values and engaging in discussions that lead to self-understanding and self-improvement, and can eventuate into being a better teacher-learner, thus facilitating necessary changes both in self, others, and teaching context, as inferred from (Coyle 2002, Posner 1989, Zeichner 1992 in Valli Linda, Eby and Kujawa 1994, Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen 2001, and Hatton & Smith 1995).

Given this particular characteristic of reflective teaching, teachers engaged in reflection-on-action during the planning stage of a lesson will critically think about or consider a number of things including—but not limited to—how their beliefs about teaching influence lesson content, activities, and how they organise their lessons. In addition, they will be critical of, and shall be able to identify, the impact of their beliefs on the planned lesson, and try to alleviate any negative impact it may have on the overall lesson and the students.

Carrying out these actions are ways of improving future lessons and enriching teachers' lesson-planning process, as inferred from (Farrell 2001, and Coyle 2002). Cunningham (2001), and as stated in the foregoing, states that these actions also aid in

teachers' professional growth, for they will cause them to consider and confront the uncertainty of their teaching philosophies, beliefs and, indeed, their competence as teachers. In addition, as stated in the foregoing discussion, these actions could lead to self-understanding and self-improvement. The literature also identifies teachers' practical knowledge as influencing lesson planning.

2.4.4 Reflective Teaching, teachers' practical knowledge and lesson planning

Marland (1998) states that teachers, and in particular expert teachers, draw heavily on their practical knowledge about how to teach and they rely less on research. Their practical knowledge—that which they build up on the job as they grapple with the daily challenges of teaching and as they seek to refine their professional practice—inevitably influences their lesson planning. Gage (1977) and Clark and Peterson (1986) state that teachers' practical knowledge is credited with forming a large part of the knowledge base which shapes their classroom actions and, I will add, including how they plan, implement, and evaluate lessons. The work of Venn and McCollum (2002) strongly supports these points and suggests that seasoned teachers rely on their teaching experience or on what had worked in the past when planning lessons.   Van Manen (1995) argues that reflective practice should address teachers' practical knowledge or what he refers to as teachers' 'pedagogical tact'. However, the isolation for examination of teachers' practical knowledge is not without challenges. For teachers at times carry out actions in the classroom that seem 'second nature', and when asked to give an account of these actions—so as to understand their practical knowledge and how this is developed--they will most likely be stymied, as suggested by (Van Manen 1995, Marland 1998, and Bruner 1999). This is not to propose that their actions are unexplainable, but to

make the point that they sometimes find it difficult to articulate how they came to know and how and why they act the way they do in certain circumstances.

Most recently, I had to address a large class of teenage boys and girls in a school's gym. Given the size of the class, I deemed the lecture method most appropriate. Yet my experience told me that there was the need to not just lecture but to engage them in some way in the process, if I was to reduce the sense of boredom which seems to plague teenagers. At the end of the exercise, the head teacher, in an informal conversation, summarised and applauded my use of quick questions and allowing the students to respond by just raising their hands and, at times getting them to repeat, in chorus, certain key words and phrases I wanted them to remember. Upon reflecting on that teaching experience, I realised that immediately following the event, if pressed, I could not easily answer the questions of how and why I carried out the teaching session the way I did.

However, given time to reflect, I would be able to give some explanation. Therefore, ***I can infer that reflection-on-action could be quite useful to teaching, if teachers used it to critically analyse their practical knowledge and specifically how this knowledge influences their lesson planning practices.*** Other factors influencing lesson planning are schools' context and the curricula resources.

2.4.5 School contextual factors and curricula resources

Richards (1996) in a study of pre-service teachers concludes that their use of course work or teaching strategies given by their universities is based on how relevant they think the strategies are to their teaching situation or context. From this conclusion, I can infer that teaching situations and context help to determine what strategy teachers employ generally and specifically in their lesson plans. How do school context and curricula influence teachers' lesson planning practices? To aid in answering this question, I will use the study

of Venn and McCollum (2002), which displays a thorough examination of school contextual

factors in relation to lesson planning. I will succinctly examine the areas of schools'

administration, physical plant, and curricula resources, and how these influence teachers'

lesson planning, for Venn and McCollum found these to be significant influencing factors.

2.4.5.1 School administration and lesson planning

Venn and McCollum (2002) point out that teachers indicate that their schools'

administrators are very supportive in providing them with materials or resources they need

for their classroom and that administrators are very approachable and willing to help in any

way they can. Generally, this is a reasonable assumption to make regarding schools'

administrators for, in my teaching experience, I have found this to be the case. However,

the majority of teachers in Venn and McCollum's study report that administrative

requirements, such as attending required workshops, completing home visits, attending

meetings and conducting developmental review, are barriers to lesson planning, because

they often result in a loss of weekly or daily planning time. In the foregoing discussion, I had

already outlined potential solutions to teachers' workload and its impact on teachers'

planning time, which included the hiring of support/administrative staff. I also pointed out all

what would be required of schools and school systems to implement these. Therefore, no

further comments are necessary at this stage.

2.4.5.2 School physical plant and lesson planning

Adequate classroom space and access to various areas in the school, for example,

the gym, a kitchen, computer or multimedia facility, are seen as supports to lesson planning

because they help teachers to include in their lesson plans large-group activities requiring a

large space, or the use of specialised instruments, such as computers. The flip side to

this—as indicated in Venn and McCollum study—is that a place like the gym is a 'community' space and so teachers could be locked into a 'use it or lose it' block of time.

2.4.5.3 Curricula resources and lesson planning

Venn and McCollum (2002) conclude that the findings of their study support other research that report that the current curricula resources in teachers' immediate environment heavily influenced lesson planning. I will look closer at this under the heading of the influence of curriculum subject content on lesson planning later in this chapter. However, having shown how these school contextual factors could influence lesson planning, 'what actions or thoughts indicate the use of reflection-on-action in relation to school contexts and their influence on lesson planning?'

2.4.6 Reflective Teaching, school context and lesson planning

Cunningham (2001) suggests that reflective teaching demands that teachers discuss and analyse with others problems they encounter in their classroom, to aid their analysis of situations, which could eventuate into improved future classroom encounters. Reiman (1999) suggests that reflective teaching includes identifying personal meaning and/or significance of a classroom or school situation, and this includes the disclosure and examination of personal feelings.

Some characteristics of reflective teaching also indicate that schools could benefit from teachers employing elements of reflective teaching. For example, Cole (1997), Coyle (2002), Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen (2001) and Calderhead (1992) point out that employing reflective teaching could eventuate into creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations and problems, and this can eventuate into improved learning opportunities for students. When this happens, schools can boast improved student learning. In addition, Posner (1989) states that reflective teaching includes critical thinking,

which aids teachers in being deliberate and intentional in a number of ways, such as devising new teaching methods rather than being a slave to tradition, or to challenge accepted ways that schools have always carried out the tasks of teaching.

Given these particular characteristics of reflective teaching, teachers who engage in reflection-on-action during the planning stage of a lesson will—in addition to critically thinking about the lesson being planned—discuss and analyse with others, problems or situations they encounter in their classroom or school, so as to aid their analysis of situations and problems encountered. In other words, teachers will embrace a collaborative approach to lesson planning. During these collaborative encounters, individual teachers will identify personal meaning and/or significance of such classroom or school situations. Doing this will also involve the disclosure and examination of their personal feelings.

The use of reflection-on-action during the lesson planning stage should eventuate into creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations or problems and devising new teaching methods. Carrying out these actions should improve not just future lessons, but should lead to a deeper understanding of the school context or the development of contextualised knowledge, as pointed out by (Cole 1997, Coyle 2002, Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen 2001; Calderhead 1992). ***In addition, carrying out actions outlined in the foregoing discussion enables teachers to make use of what is learnt to inform decision-making, planning and future action, and this should eventuate into school improvement and improvement in students' learning as stated by (Calderhead 1992).***

The literature also identifies students' learning needs as strongly influencing lesson planning.

2.4.7 Students' learning needs and teachers' lesson planning

Students' learning needs influence teachers' lesson planning. The United Kingdom Department for Education and Skills (2002) states that the new programme of guaranteed planning, preparation and assessment time will drive up pupils' standards by giving teachers time to focus on how pupils are doing and to develop teaching strategies based on knowing what works best for every pupil in their class. This statement suggests that students' should be the focus of lesson planning. However, what are students' learning needs? How are these identified, and how do they influence lesson planning?

Educational psychologists have been leaders in the area of defining students' learning needs. Morgan and King (1975) state that needs or motives—terms used synonymously—drive us to do the things we do. For example, when asked why they went to college, persons may answer in terms of the need to learn or to gain a good job. Morgan and King also believe that understanding needs help us to make predictions about behaviour. Shultz (1990) states that apart from the basic need for food, water, and sex, there are psychological needs, created socially and which vary greatly from one individual to another. Some are universal and others are not. The work most frequently cited in relation to needs is that of Maslow and his hierarchy of needs. Others have argued that Maslow never achieved a final coherent theory of self-actualisation--see (Daniels 2001). Others seek to modify the work; see for example Norwood (2003). Despite these, references to his hierarchy exist, for example (Shultz 1990 and Morgan and King 1975).

Tying Maslow's theory of needs to students' learning needs means that for the student to self actualise, physiological, safety, social, or love and esteem needs need to be fulfilled. Relating this to lesson planning means that the lesson content should have built into it aspects that support and encourage the development of safety, social, or love and

esteem needs. Therefore, while teachers should not write these needs into their lesson plans, how they implement the lesson should reflect care and concern for students' cognitive and affective development. Van Manen (1995) states that the concept of teachers as pedagogue assumes that a caring interest in the growth and welfare of students motivates their practice. What actions and thoughts indicate teachers' use of reflection-on-action in relation to students learning needs and their lesson planning?

2.4.7.1 Reflective teaching, students' learning needs and lesson planning

One characteristic of reflective teaching indicates that schools can benefit from teachers employing elements of reflective teaching, for this can eventuate into creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations and problems, which in turn can eventuate into improved learning opportunities for students; see (Cole 1997, Coyle 2002, Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen 2001 Calderhead 1992). ***Given this particular characteristic of reflective teaching, a teacher engaged in reflection-on-action during the planning stage of a lesson will critically think about his or her approach to lesson planning and classroom situation, and if found deficient in filling the needs of students, as identified by Maslow, will then make adjustments in that regard.*** Carrying out this action is a way of improving future lessons but, more importantly, it could make lessons relevant to students' learning needs.

2.4.8 Curriculum subject content and lesson planning

As I indicated in the foregoing discussion, Venn and McCollum (2002) essentially conclude that schools' curricula heavily influenced lesson planning. The work of Becher and Trowler (2001) is often cited when examining the culture of disciplines/subjects. They are of the opinion that subjects have distinctive methodological approaches and conceptual and theoretical frameworks. This trend of thought suggests that there maybe features

unique to, as well as communal to, the different curriculum subjects that are taught in schools. What are the communal features of curriculum subjects? How do these features influence teachers' lesson planning, and what actions or thoughts indicate the use of elements of reflective teaching in relation to curriculum subject content and teachers' lesson planning? The overall aim in this section is to answer these questions.

2.4.8.1 Communal feature of curriculum subjects

The work of Gardner and Boix-Mansilla (1999) points us in the right direction when they suggest that curriculum subjects are a collection of contents that students need to learn. Even though the writers argue strongly that models of thinking or interpreting the world that students need to develop is not pursued in the teaching of subject content in schools, I must beg to differ. There are teachers who, while engaging the teaching of subject content do teach students the unique methods of enquiry, the networks of concepts, theoretical frameworks, techniques for acquiring and verifying findings, appropriate images, symbol systems, and the vocabularies and mental models employed by scholars of the subject being taught. These are sometimes required in some syllabi, for example, Walker (1985) in her syllabus states that the processes used by historians to gather and interpret information should be included and taught during lessons. As a teacher of history, I could not successfully teach students how to interpret information without teaching methods of enquiry, acquiring and verifying findings, and vocabulary.

The answers to the question of how these aspects of curriculum subjects influence lesson content, activities, and how lessons are organised, must be of a general nature, for to look at each curriculum subject will consume space and time and, while it is an aspect of this study, it is not its main focus. Having said that, and according to Gardner and Boix-Mansilla (1999), given the nature of curriculum subject, lesson planning should reflect, to

varying degrees, the subject's unique methods of enquiry, networks of concepts, theoretical frameworks, techniques for acquiring and verifying findings, appropriate images, symbol systems, vocabularies, and mental models

For example, in the subject history that I highlighted earlier, as a teacher of this subject I introduce and seek to reinforce the idea of questioning as the method of enquiry. I also highlight the idea of primary and secondary sources and seek to clarify students' understanding of facts, as outlined by (Carr 1987). Or as a teacher of music, I must teach symbols and vocabularies, such as standard notation or alternative notation, the use of Italian terms and signs, and the thinking that contrast is indeed the first law of the arts, hence how to play an instrument or sing loudly, and to be able to contrast that with soft singing or playing. What actions or thoughts indicate the use of reflection-on-action in relation to curriculum subject content and teachers' lesson planning?

2.4.8.2 Reflective Teaching, curriculum subject content and lesson planning

One characteristic of reflective practice that I can infer from Zeichner and Liston (1996) is that reflective teaching demands that teachers are subject conscious as well as standard conscious, because it promotes the individual as responsible for identifying subject content deficiencies and, through the act of reflection and being autonomous, take steps to address such deficiencies. ***Given this particular characteristic of reflective teaching, teachers who engage in reflection-on-action during the planning stage of a lesson will critically think about the subject they are teaching. They will also seek to ensure that the planned lesson is not only faithful to the unique methods of enquiry, the networks of concepts, theoretical frameworks, techniques for acquiring and verifying findings, appropriate images, symbol systems, vocabularies, and mental***

models employed by the subject being taught, but that students are instructed in the

subject's unique features.

Carrying out this action is a way of improving lesson planning but, more importantly, it will expose students to the various approaches devised by scholars who are engaged in that particular subject.

2.5 How teachers organise and develop lesson plans (the process)

In one sense, already known is the answer to the question of how teachers organise and develop lessons, for I can infer from the foregoing discussion that plans are developed based on teachers' beliefs and practical knowledge about teaching, school context, students' learning needs, and curriculum subject matter. However, this answer would only be partial, because the course of action taken in lesson planning by teachers is not considered. I will use the work of Panton (1956) as a springboard for the discussion in this section and by so doing display developments in lesson planning practices.

Panton speaks of steps in the planning process. In step one, he suggests the need to make clear the purpose or intent of lessons. The purpose of the lesson must be clear in the teacher's mind at the beginning, for it will also establish the standard by which the work is evaluated and the kinds of activities to be included. Step two involves the teacher in making an appreciation of a number of factors, such as students' interest, attainment, and readiness for the new material, by assessing their background, in light of how prepared they are to receive the new knowledge. The teacher also assesses the nature of the new activities and how these will facilitate future progress. In other words, how will the planned tasks advance students' learning about a particular subject or theory? The teacher also assesses the facilities at his or her disposal, in other words, what teaching aids are available, for example, a film or book.

Step three involves drawing up a plan of action that is likely to 'hit the target' outlined in step one and all the relevant factors in the appreciation step. Step three also involves mental rehearsals of the lesson, where the teacher tries to foresee what will happen and to anticipate difficulties. Step four involves working out the plan in detail, with the administrative items noted and checked, for example, the need for chalk, or additional paper, or construction paper or extra pencils.

Panton's lesson planning process resembles that which Court (1982) refers to as the prescriptive rational model that involves the formulation of objectives, choice of appropriate learning activities, sequencing of these activities, and the selection of appropriate evaluation procedure. John (1991) also refers to the planning process outlined by Panton as the rational model. He points out that this model emphasises aims and objectives and needs to be evaluated in light of the continuing evidence that it bears very little relation to the thinking and action of either experienced or novice teachers. John concludes that teachers use a variety of methods and the planning processes employed by them are much more complex than the rational approach suggests.

Despite the seeming lack of use by experienced teachers of the rational model, aspects of it seem to remain popular and still linger in lesson planning. For example, Panton suggests that teachers should first consider the purpose or objectives of the lesson however, Komulainen & Kansanen (1981) report that teachers no longer plan lessons based on objectives. John (1991) qualifies this statement by pointing out that sometimes hidden inside teachers' plans are the purposes or objectives of the plan. The lesson planning process is indeed complex and variegated because, unlike the process outlined by Panton, teachers' focus during the planning process is not as linear and organised, for the curriculum, syllabus, school contextual matters, and pupils, sometimes take

precedence during the planning process, as suggested by (Reed & Peyton 1987, Fischer 1984, Hastie 1991). Kurfiss (1984) points out that teachers sometimes emphasise activities, plan for evaluation, and include high-level cognitive or affective outcomes. They consider and include student questions in the planning process, as stated by (O Grady 2003). They plan for children as a group and not for individual children with disabilities, according to the work of Venn and McCollum (2002). Some believe that planning is unnecessary because, as Maroney and Searcy (1996) point out, they habitually perform the components and they sometimes take a holistic approach to the planning process, as pointed out by (Phillips and Solomon 1998).

John's (1991) advice to teacher educators reflects the present trend in lesson planning practices employed by seasoned teachers. He is of the opinion that perhaps teacher educators should begin to create models of lesson planning that replicate the institutional role of the teacher and develop planning processes that are both dialogical and problem solving in conception. This suggestion indeed reflects the happening in lesson planning practices carried out by seasoned teachers.

2.5.1 Critiquing Panton's planning process (Appreciation, Evaluation)

Panton (1956) refers to appreciation as outlined in the foregoing discussion. According to Panton, teachers—during the lesson planning process—think about the students, the nature of the new activities students need to learn, and the available school facilities. In fact, every factor which affects the plan of action needs evaluating. He suggests that the process should involve evaluating the students. This means all the known facts about their interest, attainment, capacities and their previous work. This means there is the need to consider how their previous work has prepared them for the new advances and the teacher should examine-- in light of the students' background--the new knowledge

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or skill about to be presented. New activity should be also evaluated to see where it would lead to, that is, the part which it plays in the greater whole, where future progress can be facilitated without sacrificing the requirements of immediate needs. Teachers should also consider the facilities and how these influence teaching, in other words, it may be that the use of a picture or videotape could aid and enhance their teaching.

Naace (2004) and Kizlik (2004) are of the opinion that the lesson planning process is in two parts, the thinking part and the written part. Kizlik's ideas in the thinking section reflect that of Panton's and she makes explicit the fact that the curriculum must be consulted regarding what is to be learnt by students, a point that Panton omitted or failed to make explicit. In addition, and unlike the Modern Foreign Languages (2004) website, Panton did not make clear the act of evaluation, in particular, how gains in pupils' learning will be identified, or indicate that during the appreciation step the plan should anticipate problems or areas of difficulty, and include strategies to deal with them.

In addition, Panton stresses the point that teachers did not necessarily have to carry out a written lesson plan. Maroney and Searcy (1996) in their study of seasoned teachers' lesson planning practices support this thought. They observed that teachers used no expert lesson format, or format suggested in pre-service teacher training programme, and did not write detailed lesson plans. Teachers in Maroney and Searcy's study state that they planned lessons 'consciously' because they perform the components by habit or instinct. The data in my study seem to contradict these findings (see chapters five and six)

Having discussed how teachers engage in lesson planning, by using Panton's thoughts as a launching point for the discussion, what actions or thoughts indicate their use of reflection-on-action in relation to how they carry out their lesson planning?

2.5.2 Reflective Teaching and the organisation and development of lesson plans

A thought by Panton makes a good starting point for this section because it not only hints at, but may also be suggesting, that reflection-on-action is an integral aspect of the lesson planning process. He states that a great deal of reflection and hard thinking is essential to the lesson planning process and the subsequent written notes – if one chooses to write lesson plans. Van Manen (1995) argues strongly that, given the nature of pedagogy, the notion of reflection is implied, for teaching must be done in an intentional manner that constantly distinguishes what is good or most appropriate from what is bad or inappropriate for students. One kind of reflection that I am particularly concerned with is that which Van Manen (1995) refers to as anticipatory reflection, where planned lessons are thought about as future occurrences, which will inevitably include future experience for teachers and students.

The overall characteristic of reflective teaching demands that teachers think critically, which means that they recall, consider and evaluate their teaching experiences as a means of improving future ones, as inferred from (Farrell 2001 and Coyle 2002). This involves the willingness to question, take risks in learning, try out new strategies and ideas, seek alternatives, take control of learning, use higher order thinking skills, and reflect on one's own learning processes, as pointed out by (Elder and Paul 1994 and Halpern 1996).

Given this particular characteristic of reflective teaching, teachers who engage in reflection-on-action will critically think about the lesson planning process that they will employ, ensuring that the steps taken during the planning process are thoroughly and carefully thought out, with a view to discard or amend steps that are obsolete or unnecessary. During the rehearsal of the lesson (Panton 1956), teachers

will seek to improve or eliminate aspects of the lesson that are considered counter productive to students' acquiring the new material to be taught.

3. How do teachers implement lessons?

Essentially, the aim of this section is to understand, potentially, how teachers implement lessons, and to understand the actions and thoughts that are indicators of their use of reflection-in-action in lesson implementation.

Cole (1964) speaking of Johann Friedrich Herbart, an eighteen-century teacher and scholar states that Herbart, in carrying out instructions, did so in four stages or parts: showing, associating, teaching, then philosophising. **Showing**: When introducing a new topic the teacher helps the children recall any relevant facts they know about the subject. **Association**: At this second stage, the teacher and students proceed together from the specific bits of knowledge furnished by students' observation or memory, to the level of general ideas by means of association. During this stage, the teacher guides the students' effort to separate the general from the specific and does not instruct, but speaks to and interrogates the children. Up to this point, the teacher allows the students to contribute information, drawing out from them the needed facts and observations. **Teaching**: During the third stage, the teacher expounds at great length to add to what the students could not find out for themselves, points to additional relationships, and synthesises the data previously offered by the students. **Philosophising**: This final stage consists mainly of an application by means of definite exercise of the knowledge acquired through the first three stages. At this stage, students are supposed to provide proof through personal work that they have profited from the instruction and can use the concepts developed in the lesson. For example, students may be asked to work out problems, to give a definition, and/or write a summary of the main points of the lesson.

Panton (1956) states that while this model gained universal applicability for a very long time it however, had a number of shortfalls and, over the course of time, had to undergo radical modifications. Cole (1964), commenting on Herbart's model, states that it was too rigid, too systematized, and too complicated. However, the idea of having a logical lesson implementation process was both new and excellent. Panton (1956) also expressed this sentiment. Panton comments on the model by outlining that its chief defects include the fact that it is too intellectual in character, it pays little regard to the emotional components of interest, and relies on the ideas generated by students and teachers to motivate learning. It assumes that association is a mental process going on in the learner's mind from the very start of the presentation. It assumes that generalisation is a simple and straightforward process and the fact that the acquisition of skills and the conduct of activities involving aesthetic appreciation do not fit in this model of lesson implementation

Panton (1956) states that Herbart's model for lesson implementation is influenced by his need to 'psychologise' school instruction, that is, to make it an ordered process, in which the stages are determined by the psychological order of the development of ideas in human minds. In light of these criticisms, Panton proposes four steps for the acquisition of skills, knowledge, or appreciation in students. These are preparation, presentation, practice and application. **The preparation** step is common to all teaching activity, whether its aim is to develop the students' skill, knowledge, or appreciation. At this stage, which is either the commencement of a new lesson or a new topic, the teacher aims at getting the right learning conditions, with the students in the appropriate physical and mental state to profit from what they are about to undertake. The main aim of the preparation stage is to bring the students to realise the nature and purpose of the new work. **The presentation** step generally involves imitative practice; here, the teacher shows what the students are to

accomplish and the level to attain. The aim is to get students to carry out the required activity themselves. During **the practice** step, students are encouraged to practice to achieve mastery over the material and to refine their performance so that it reaches a satisfactory standard of achievement. **The application** step will need no special attention, if the work or activities chosen by the teacher are suitable and purposive. The application step will look after itself, for example, if the skills to be learnt are to play the piano or swim, the fact that the student carried out these actions are themselves the application, since there is no purpose other than those applications for undertaking the learning in the first place.

While Panton's lesson implementation model considered the intellectual, emotional and physical conditions of teaching—which are shortfalls in Herbart's model—he seems to have omitted, or does not make explicit, the need for teachers to explain concepts and pull students' ideas together. Over time, other writers, scholars, and organisations have radically modified and adjusted Panton's and Herbart's ideas.

Hunter (1982) was a twentieth century writer, scholar, and lecturer, whose work is associated with lesson implementation and widely quoted. Her guide for group discussion or individual study was adapted for lesson implementation, even though she did not set out to construct a lesson implementation model. In addition, a behaviourist paradigm influenced her model. Hunter found that no matter the teachers' style, grade level, subject matter, or economic background of the students a properly taught lesson contains eight elements that enhanced and maximised learning. The eights steps are as follows:

1. **Anticipatory Set** (focus) - A short activity or prompt that focuses the students' attention before the actual lesson begins, used when students enter the room or in a

transition. Handouts given to students at the door, review questions written on the board, or 'two problems' on the overhead are examples of Anticipatory Set.

2. **Purpose** (objective) - The purpose of today's lesson, why the students need to learn it, what they will be able to "do", and how they will show learning as a result should be made clear by the teacher.

3. **Input** - The vocabulary, skills, and concepts the teacher will impart to the students - the 'stuff' the kids need to know in order to be successful.

4. **Modeling** (show) - The teacher shows in graphic form or demonstrates what the finished product looks like - a picture worth a thousand words.

5. **Guided Practice** (follow me) - The teacher leads the students through the steps necessary to perform the skill using the trimodal approach - hear/see/do.

6. **Checking for Understanding-** the teacher uses a variety of questioning strategies to determine 'Got it yet?' and to pace the lesson - move forward? /back up?

7. **Independent Practice** - The teacher releases students to practice on their own based on sections 3-6.

8. **Closure** - A review or wrap-up of the lesson – 'Tell me/show me what you have learnt today'.

The National Academy for Curriculum Leadership (2002) devised the Five (E) instructional Model for lesson implementation; the steps are as follows:

1. **Engage:** The instructor assesses the learners' prior knowledge and helps them become engaged in a new concept by reading a vignette, posing questions, doing a demonstration that has a non-intuitive result (a discrepant event), showing a video clip, or conducting some other short activity that promotes curiosity and extracts prior knowledge.

2. **Explore:** Learners work in collaborative teams to complete activities that help them use prior knowledge to generate ideas, explore questions and possibilities, and design and conduct a preliminary inquiry.

3. **Explain:** Learners have an opportunity to explain their current understanding of the main concept. They may explain their understanding of the concept by making presentations, sharing ideas with one another, reviewing current scientific explanations and comparing these to their own understandings, and/or listening to an explanation from the teacher that guides them toward a more in-depth understanding.

4. **Elaborate:** Learners elaborate their understanding of the concept by conducting additional activities. They may revisit an earlier activity, project, or idea and build on it, or conduct an activity that requires an application of the concept. The focus in this stage is on adding breadth and depth to current understanding.

5. **Evaluate:** The evaluation phase helps both learners and instructors to assess learners' understanding of concepts and whether they meet the learning outcomes. There should be opportunities for self-assessment as well as formal assessment.

The statement made by the writer Brophy (1989) holds true for all these models, for he states that lesson implementation is not a linear process that always begins with content presentation, then moves to assessment of student understanding, and so on, just as these models may be indicating. This is not always the case in practice, where many variations occur that violate the linear sequence implied. The writer refers to the nonlinear form of lesson presentation frequently seen in elementary and junior high school classes as interactive teaching, in which the teacher works through the content with the students in ways that involve rapid movement back and forth between content presentation and

questioning. Having identified potentially how teachers implement lessons, I will discuss the actions or thoughts indicating their use of reflection-in-action in their lesson implementation.

3.1 Reflective Teaching and Teachers' lesson Implementation

Van Manen (1995) helps to delimit reflection-in-action given the immediacy and quick changing nature of the classroom. He states that given the nature of the classroom, it is not possible to use reflection-in-action in the fullest sense. In such situations, reflection-in-action is only limited and restricted to the tasks at hand and cannot accommodate the full range of possibilities of interpreting what is going on, understanding and considering alternative course of action, weighting their various consequences, deciding on what must be done and then actually doing it. The important point to note is that in everyday classroom situations reflection-in-action is only possible in a qualified and circumscribed sense, as pointed out by (Van Manen 1995).

Never-the-less, reflection-in-action does occur during the actual implementation of a planned lesson even in a circumscribed sense. There, the teacher thinks critically--on the spot, in 'the thick of things' as stated by (Schon 1983)--about what is being taught and the intended outcome, sometimes having to assess, revise, and implement new approaches and activities immediately. Crucial to reflection-in-action is the ability to recognise problematic issues and to frame the context in which to attend to it as pointed out by (Adler 1994). Framing, according to Schon (1987), means the teacher selects—in a qualified and circumscribed sense—what will be treated as the problem. The teacher sets the boundaries of his/her attention to the problem, imposes on it a coherence, which allows him/her to say what is wrong and in what directions the situation needs to be changed. See chapters five and six for further discussions and examples of framing. ***Given this characteristic of***

reflection-in-action, a teacher implementing a lesson will critically think—on the spot, in 'the thick of things'— about the various aspects of the lesson. However, as Van Manen (1995) suggests, the thinking will be limited and restricted to a task or a specific situation at hand. In other words, the thinking and subsequent action will be task or situation specific.

4. The nature of lesson evaluation

Steinberg (1991), Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) support the idea that post lesson evaluation is an integral part of lesson development and not an addendum. Through regular evaluation, the teacher is better able to prepare work with students' learning needs in mind and will be able to address individual problems when they arise. Moreover, the process, if carried out effectively, will eventuate into students' progress and the improvement of teaching and the teacher as a teacher, as stated by (James-Reid 1983). In this section, I will answer the question, how teachers carry out post-lesson evaluation. Before I do so, let me examine and discuss evaluation, how it is used and what its characteristics are. Answers to these questions will aid in understanding the nature of lesson evaluation.

Steinberg (1991) and James-Reid (1983) bring to our attention the fact that lesson evaluation occurs at all stages of the teaching process. Steinberg spoke of the fact that during planning there is the generating of tentative, sometimes incomplete, measures to evaluate. He continued by stating that when creating the instruction, each component is evaluated and upon implementing the lesson, evaluation serves the purpose to (a) review and revise the students' performance measures generated during initial planning and (b) to evaluate the overall lesson.

James-Reid (1983), while agreeing with the statement that evaluation should be an on going process, took the idea further, when she stated that teachers should be deliberate

in planning for evaluation. In the process of planning for evaluation, they should determine the purpose, decide on the means of measuring the processes and outcome and collect information via observation and careful monitoring of activities. This statement highlights the fact that observation and monitoring of activities are critical to the process of lesson evaluation. If teachers are to embrace James-Reid's idea, there is the need to firmly establish, before a lesson, what to observe. For example, as Moyles(2002) states, in a classroom they may look at how often individual students interact with them or, while checking for students' understanding of a particular concept or skills, they may look at the number of those who indicated and those who remained neutral. At the end of the teaching session, observations made during the session should be critically assessed via the use of questions. The act of questioning is an integral aspect of the lesson evaluation process. Highlighted later in this chapter are the kinds of questions used at the evaluation stage of the lesson.

Other characteristics of evaluation highlighted by James-Reid included the fact that evaluation does not have to be on a large scale and that, overall, evaluation is concerned with the process and product of teaching, that is, teaching procedure and the outcome or results, whichis, student learning.

4.1 How teachers evaluate lessons

The questions of when to evaluate, and forms of evaluation, areas to evaluate, and the process of evaluation are critical to an understanding of how teachers evaluate lessons.

4.1.1 When to evaluate, and the forms of lesson evaluation

Rowe (1983) suggests that lesson evaluation should occur directly after a lesson and in a written form. This is a useful suggestion, for the greater the time gap between lessons taught and their evaluation, the more likely it is that teachers will forget what

actually happened in the teaching session. As Wragg (2002) states, teachers recall less

and less of what occurred in a class if several days are allowed to pass. He attributes this

to the 'busyness' of teaching and the thousands of daily incidents, which demand teachers'

attention.

Computer software specifically designed for evaluation has revolutionised the form

and process used by teachers to evaluate lessons. Bryant (1992) elaborating on the use of

computer software in the process of evaluation states that it enables the conversion of

check sheets used for evaluating students' progress into electronic form making them more

quantifiable. It enables not only the assessment of students and records their progress on

the computer, but it also generates reports that can be used for parent reporting sessions

and offer greater flexibility in modifying various aspects of a written report. It also enables

teachers to reflect on the abilities that they wish to measure and minimise 'paperwork'

because it allows the scanning of actual copies of students' work into the computer and

have them easily available for reference

4.1.2 Areas to evaluate and the process of evaluation

An examination of the literature suggests that the following areas are critical to

lesson evaluation, students' learning--including the actual learning activities, teachers'

actions, lesson implementation, and goals or aims of the lesson.

4.1.2.1 Evaluating Students learning

Writers and websites such as Panton (1956), Rowe (1983), RMC Research

Corporation (2004), Foxworth (2004), Olga James-Reid (1983), Ferris and Hedgcock

(1998), P.S.U (2004), WC Schools (2004) and UCC Lesson Evaluation (2004) all agree on

the fact that students' learning and their responses to learning activities need to be

evaluated. These writers and others, like Bryant (1992), also agree that written or mental

records should be made of skills students have acquired and those on which they are working.

There seems to be a consensus according to Sparapani (2000) that questions regarding students' response to various learning activities are necessary during lesson evaluation. However, these questions should not only focus on the achievement of cognitive skills but also on the affective. The following are some practical suggestions of how to assess students during the process of evaluating a lesson, according to Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), Foxworth (2004), RMC Research Corporation (2004) and Olga James-Reid (1983). They suggest the need to ask yourself: How well did students respond to the activities you planned? Were they mentally prepared for the learning activity? Were they actively involved in the learning process most of the time? Did all students learn something from the content taught? Then, try to diagnose the cause of problems you encountered. Record what worked and what did not work well. Seek to identify students with special weaknesses and to whom special attention must be given.

Integral to the process of evaluating students is that of self-evaluation by teachers. This is so because a question such as how mentally prepared were students for a given lesson cannot be divorced from the question of the degree to which the teacher tried to focus students' attention on the learning activities.

4.1.2.2 Evaluating teachers' actions and lesson implementation

The literature does not exclude teachers looking at their actions during lesson evaluation. Rather, it encourages critical assessment via the use of questions directed at teachers' actions during lesson implementation. The WC Schools (2004) website reminds teachers of the necessity to access their work, and that being able to critically analyse their own actions enhances their ability to grow. During the process, the literature suggests that

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teachers are to critically examine their actions in relation to the planned lesson and its overall implementation by asking questions such as, 'Did I feel the lesson was successful?' If not, why?' 'Which parts of the plan did I not cover, why did I not cover certain items?' 'Were there any particular difficulties or problems encountered?' 'What one thing might I have done differently which would have made the lesson more effective?'

There is also the need—based on the evaluation of the planned lesson and the overall implementation—to decide whether the lesson can be repeated using the same procedure, or would changes be necessary. Rowe (1983), Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), and UCC, Lesson Evaluation website (2004) support this idea.

During the evaluation process, the literature also suggests that teachers should include an assessment of their actions in relation to the learning activities presented and students' participation in these activities. During this process, Foxworth (2004) suggests a number of useful questions. For example, teachers should ask, 'Did I get the students mentally prepared by focusing their attention on the planned learning activities?' 'Did I draw a logical relationship from previous learning to new learning?' 'Did I actively involve most of the students in the learning process most of the time?' 'Did I check frequently whether or not the students were learning, for example, looking at their writing, getting a choral response from them by asking them relevant questions and giving them opportunities to tell each other what they understood?' 'Did I make appropriate adjustments to the instruction according to students' participation?' 'Did I guide the students through problems or examples, checking how well they were doing?' 'Did I assess whether or not the students were ready to go on to independent practice?' Have the students identified the significant concepts and skills they learnt from the lesson, and did I assign appropriate independent practice?

The other areas that would require teachers' attention during lesson evaluation are teaching methods and objectives. Here too Foxworth (2004) suggests that teachers should ask, 'Did I make the learning objectives clear to the students?' 'Did I make the purpose and rationale for the lesson clear to the students and present information that was relevant to the learning objectives?' 'Did I use a visual model to supplement the verbal or text information?'

Having identified potentially how teachers' evaluate lessons, I will examine what actions and thoughts indicate their use of reflection-on-action in their post lesson evaluation.

4.1.2.3 Reflective Teaching and lesson evaluation practice

As stated in the foregoing discussion by James-Reid (1983), the overall aim of the process of lesson evaluation is to enable teachers to prepare work with students learning needs in mind but, more important, if the process is carried out effectively, it will eventuate into students' progress and the improvement of teaching and the teacher as a teacher. The idea of teacher and students' progress is integral to reflective teaching. According to Cole (1997), Coyle (2002), Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen (2001) and Calderhead (1992), reflective teachers are involved in analysing, discussing, evaluating, changing, and developing their practice, which will eventuate into student improvement.

There are a number of other characteristics of reflective teaching which demand that teachers, recall, consider and evaluate their teaching experiences as a means of improving future ones, as inferred from (Farrell 2001 and Coyle 2002). Elder and Paul (1994) and Halpern (1996) point out that teachers need to think critically. This involves the willingness to question, take risks in learning, try out new strategies and ideas, seek alternatives, take control of learning, use higher order thinking skills and be able to reflect upon their own

learning processes. According to Cunningham (2001), they discuss and analyse with others problems they encounter in their classroom, to aid their analysis of situations, which can eventuate into improved future classroom encounters. Reiman (1999) suggests that they identify personal meaning and or significance of a classroom or school situation, confront the uncertainty about their teaching philosophies and, indeed, their competence. In addition, they should include self-examination. This involves assessing beliefs and values and engaging in discussions that lead to self-understanding and self-improvement which can eventuate into being a better teacher-learner, thus facilitating necessary changes both in self, others and teaching context, as inferred from (Coyle 2002, Posner 1989; Zeichner 1992 in Valli Linda, Eby and Kujawa 1994, Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen 2001, and Hatton & Smith 1995). Calderhead (1992) states that reflective teachers also analyse and evaluate their own practice, school, classroom relationships, context, and make use of what they have learnt to inform decision-making, planning and future action, and this can eventuate into school improvement.

Given these particular characteristics of reflective teaching, teachers who engage in reflection-on-action during the post lesson evaluation will think critically about lessons they implement, and this involves recalling, considering, and assessing their teaching experiences as a means of improving future ones. Teachers ask questions about lessons implemented, try out new strategies and ideas, seek alternatives, take control of learning, use higher order thinking skills and reflect on their own learning processes. They will also discuss and analyse problems they encounter during lesson implementation, with others/colleagues, to aid their analysis of situations and this can eventuate into improved future classroom encounters. In addition, they will examine their teaching philosophies and

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competence, as well as their beliefs and values, and engage in discussions that lead to self-understanding and self-improvement. They will analyse and assess their own practice, including relationships with students, and make use of what is learnt to inform decision-making, planning, and future action.

5. Summary

To summarise, reflective teaching has a number of characteristics and can be advantageous to schools and individuals willing to encourage and employ the practice. Teachers' workload seemed to be a barrier to planning lessons at school, therefore, they carried this out elsewhere, including their homes. There seemed to be no connection between reflective teaching and teachers' choice of lesson planning venue. The chapter displayed the fact that a number of factors influenced lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, and that reflection-on-action, which is an element of reflective teaching, could be applied to all the identified factors. There were various ways of implementing lessons and reflection-in-action did occur during lesson implementation, but only in a qualified and circumscribed way. While there were many forms of lesson evaluation, post lesson evaluation was the form mainly untilised. The chapter also displayed the fact that reflection-on-action could be applied to post lesson evaluation.

The chapter supported one underlying theoretical model which guided the study and which was visually displayed in diagram 1.1 in chapter one. The examination and subsequent identification of potential indicators of reflective teaching via lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation displayed the fact that reflective teaching could be enacted through these activities and made available for scrutiny. In the next chapter, I make explicit my philosophical stance that underpins the study, outline and describe the methodology, methods and procedures employed in the actual implementation of this study.

Chapter 3

How My Philosophic Paradigm Influenced the Research
(The Research Methodology)

As I indicated at the end of the previous chapter, a particular philosophical paradigm influenced how I conducted the research. A discussion of this paradigm should aid in making clear my reasons for choosing an instrumental case study methodology and the research methods, interview, and documentary analysis. In addition, the discussion will inform those who read this report about the values and principles underpinning the way I conducted the research. Therefore, as Etherington (2004) states, they can use that knowledge to aid in judging the study's validity and rigour.

Articulating my personal philosophical research stance

Guba and Lincoln (1998) refer to a paradigm as a worldview that defines for its holder the nature of the world, the individual's place in it, the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts, and it binds a community together. Ferrante (1995) states that paradigms are dominant and widely accepted theories and concepts linked to a particular field of study. However, they extend beyond the boundaries of a field of study and offer the best way of looking at the world for the time being. The phrase 'for the time being' hints at the fact that paradigms undergo changes or shifts. Ferrante (ibid) elaborates by making the point that anomalies, or the out of the ordinary, or the unexpected, threaten paradigms. An anomaly alone will not cause a change or a shift in a paradigm; someone must articulate an alternative paradigm to

the old, and then the change will occur. So paradigms can be changed or altered, but must be replaced by another that can account convincingly for the anomalies experienced as stated by Ferrante. Morrison (2002) and Southgate (1999) point out that researchers draw implicitly or explicitly on a particular philosophic paradigm when engaging any piece of research and Pring (2003) points out that present thought is able to influence the future and, I will add, present reactions. The idea I am advancing is the fact that my research philosophic paradigm influenced my actions, reactions, and ultimately, how I carried out the research. Guba and Lincoln (1998), and Morrison (2002) made the point that researchers' philosophic paradigms also define for them what they are about and set the limits to the research. In other words, my research philosophical paradigm influenced my choice of methodology. How this works, will be the subject of the first section of this chapter that addresses the study's paradigm, ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology.

When I read the writings of Morrison (2002), Pring (2003), Imel, Kerka and Wonacott (2002) and Guba and Lincoln (1998) they revealed that a 'war' between proponents of two dominant research philosophic paradigm is being waged or until recently, was being waged. The research philosophic paradigms are interpretivism and positivism or, as Morrison (op.cit) states the 'isms'. The Encarta.msm.com/ dictionary (2004) states that positivists believe that acquiring knowledge and reality occur only through direct observation and experimentation rather than through metaphysics and theology. According to Morrison (2002), Interpretivists'/constructivists' believe that knowledge and reality are constructs, formulated by human beings, and that people understand reality in different ways, therefore, reality cannot be 'out there' as an objective entity ready to be observed and

subjected to experimentation. Some writers propose combining them, for example, Morrison (2002), while others such as Pring (2003), caution not to polarise them, for differences rest only in the respective languages of each and in the way key ideas or concepts take on different logical characteristics.

I am in total agreement with Morrison for, I believe, like positivism, reality is indeed 'out there' as an objective entity ready to be observed and, like Interpretivism, knowledge of the reality being observed, experienced, or studied, is a construct, formulated by human beings. Therefore, for this study, it is my belief that lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and teachers' use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas are objective occurrences or realities. This means they occur and are events, irrespective of what I think or feel, or my lack of experience or encounter with them. Therefore, to understand them demand that I access both my own thoughts and the thoughts of those who are involved with the realities under investigation. For example, my thoughts coupled with those of the respondents influenced the assertions I made in chapters five and six. For example, in chapter six, after the analysis of the data, I concluded that one or more respondents generally perceive lesson planning implementation and evaluation as:

1. Functions or roles of a teacher, aimed at addressing students' learning needs, and influenced by the curriculum subject matter.

2. Involving either a holistic approach or an exclusive focus on students' need for structured and well-organised presentation of information.

3. Employing students practically in peer and self-evaluation during lesson implementation and evaluation; see chapter six tables 6.1, 6.2, and 6.3 for a complete list of assertions.

However, now that I have articulated and brought to consciousness my belief about reality and knowledge, the issue for me was to find a 'label' for my ontological and epistemological stance. In other words, I needed to define my research philosophic paradigm in a way that I think would be philosophically acceptable to academic readers of this report but, more importantly, in a way that it could be used to guide my thinking and actions when carrying out the research.

1.1 Defining my research philosophic paradigm and its relation to reflective teaching

The research philosophic paradigm that best summarises my ontological and epistemological position is 'Critical realism'. Farmer and Gruba (2004), Johnson and Duberley (2000) state that it is a paradigm which embraces objective ontology and subjective epistemology. Objective ontology refers to the nature of things, regardless of what we or others may think about them; in other words, reality exists whether we are aware of it or not, sometimes unobservable or un-researchable, but it still exists.

The idea that an understanding of reality is connected to our conception but does not determine it is supported by critical realism. This means, according to Fisher (2005), personal communication, any attempt to give an account of that 'reality', in both natural science and social science, is mediated through processes, which are themselves socially determined and depend on the existence of language, the fundamental cultural tool. This occurrence led Emami and Riordan (1998) to point out that neither social structure nor the natural order can be understood without the human power of consideration. This also means that our knowledge of such reality is dependent on how we conceive such reality, as purported by (Fisher 2005 personal

communication). This line of thought suggests that critical realism embraces the fact of socially constructed reality as posited by (Spencer 1995).

Subjective epistemology suggests that what is known is subjective. According to Balihar (2004), subjective here concerns what we think, experience, believe, or feel about something—hence, it is fallible and represents only one possible explanation of events, circumstances, or situations. This idea is brought into shaper focus when it is realized, as stated by Farmer and Gruba (2004), that for any one social event, circumstance, or situation, there are numerous mechanisms or powers at work, hence there could be many causational factors bringing about that effect, event, circumstance or situation being observed or researched. Therefore, my account of teachers' lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas is really just one possible explanation, my own. If this is the case, then criteria for evaluating knowledge or reality are not neutral, but subject dependent; hence, not value neutral or value free (Axiology), and the account that I give of the research and, in particular, the findings that I produce are neither value free, nor can they be objective, as espoused by positivist researchers. The account is a personal reconstruction, which really amounts to my version of, or my interpretation of, other people's value-laden personal reconstruction of the events or occurrences of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas.

A critical realist paradigm is compatible with my espoused underlying philosophy of reflective teaching. Critical realism highlights objective ontology and subjective epistemology, as indicated in the foregoing discussion. Reflective teaching involves a seeking to understand realities such as a classroom problem, school

issues, policy and the practice of teaching generally, that exists independent of teachers' thinking (Objective ontology). Normally, the realities that those who employ reflective teaching seek to understand are also socially constructed and from the foregoing discussion and Spencer (1995), we realise that critical realism embraces the thought of socially constructed realities. In addition, the idea of subjective epistemology, as espoused by critical realists, is also compatible with my philosophy of reflective teaching. The results of the reflective process are a personal account or explanation and interpretation of an individual's encounter with an event or happening. Hence, the account is both value laden, fallible and representative of only one possible explanation or account.

Critical realism also influenced the aims I formulated for the study. Johnson and Duberley (2000), Guba and Lincoln (1998), and Morrison (2002), argue for the pervasive nature of one's epistemology in influencing all aspects of one's study.

1.2 Critical Realism and the study's aim

As indicated in the foregoing discussion, the aim of this study was to understand lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation from the perspective of seasoned teachers and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. However, given my philosophical paradigm, the account must be a practically adequate account of the selected teachers' unique ways of operating as purported by (Sayer 1992). I will define the term 'practically adequate' later in this section.

Critical realism influenced the study's aim in two ways: First, I believe that reality exists whether I am aware of it or not but, more important, my conception does not determine reality, but an understanding of reality is tied to my conception. Tied to it means 'neither social structure nor the natural order can be understood independently

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of considerations of human powers', as suggested by (Emami and Riordan 1998, Balihar 2004, and Spencer 1995). Lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation are real events, for they are identifiable via actions that are observable and external to the observer. Having said this, one tenet of critical realism, according to Johnson and Duberley (2000), is the fact that things that are not measurable or observable via our senses may still be real. I will say more about this later in this chapter.

However, Guba and Lincoln (1998) note that the act of giving an account of or gaining an understanding of these cannot be divorced from an analysis of the perspective and conception of those who engage the processes. Pring (2003), however, included the researcher in this process. He states that realities being researched are not independent of the researcher. Therefore, the position I have taken is that while the aim is to understand the actual events or occurrences of the selected teachers' lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas, this understanding should emerge from their perception of these events coupled with my own. Therefore, to gain an understanding of such realities, that is, lesson planning, implementation and evaluation, demands that research be carried out with and not 'on' people, as Morrison (2002) warns. The point is, while teachers' perceptions may not be easily measured using standard scales and metres they are real.

Based on my ontological position already given, I can see suggestions for the selection of appropriate research methods, because getting at people's perceptions demands that I talk with them or ask them about this, and using interviews or questionnaires are ways this is possible. In addition, Critical realism forces me to be involved with my subjects or, put another way, I must interact with my subjects to

obtain data, as highlighted by (Imel, Kerka and Wonacott 2002, and Cohen and Manion 1989). The study's methodology and chosen method of interviewing facilitated interaction with the participants, as will be shown later in this chapter.

Second, Johnson and Duberley (2000) suggest that, according to the critical realist philosophical paradigm, the purpose of social scientific inquiry into 'whatever' is to produce causal explanations. It is not only concerned with external observable causes, but also with the possibility of there being some internal feature, liability, or power (commonly referred to by realists as a mechanism). Cause describes the potential for change; whether or not the change actually takes place (that is, the mechanism operates) depends on the conditions and circumstances. Causality does not mean discovering a regular pattern of empirical events; however, causes must be understood as tendencies, in other words and, according to Johnson and Duberley (2000), Robson (2004), and Balihar (2004), one aim of critical realism is to emphasise tendencies of things to occur, as opposed to regular patterns of events, which carries with it aspects of foundationalism.

However, given the fact that there are numerous mechanisms operating that could cause factor X to result in Y (foundationalism) when addressing social issues, my objective is not to identify causality, but to provide an account--that is practically adequate--of teachers' lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas.

This means, as Sayer (1992) states, that as a critical realist researcher, the overall account that I produce of the selected teachers' perspectives and involvement—mediated through my own thoughts and experience—with the research areas, must be believable, intelligible and realised. Therefore, when the account is

measured against the practice of teaching and reflective teaching, as posited by literature and against the understanding of the research issues, the readers of this report must be able to believe it, and the account should be logical and understandable.

Given the critical realist paradigm, the account when produced must confine to the respondents and the research issues, limited by their context, and display a quality of tentativeness. In addition, the wordings of such assertions must take into account the need to emphasise the fact that the assertions made represent my account. In addition, there are many other possibilities. However, I believe my assertions emerged from the data and fit my understanding of the issues under examination.

Axiologically, since people are involved with the research, it cannot be value free, for they are unable to extricate their values from what they write, say, or do, as I indicated in the foregoing discussion. If this is the case, then criteria used by the teachers involved in the research to evaluate their actual events of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and their use of elements of reflective teaching, are not neutral but subject dependent and, if so, cannot be value-free— as I also indicated in the forgoing discussion. This led Imel, Kerka and Wonacott (2002) to point out that research is value bound and value laden; thus, biased and subjective. Therefore, the resulting knowledge is valid for a particular time and context, rather then for all times and contexts. This means that I will leave the readers of this report to make their own judgments about the transferability of the results of this study to other settings. In addition, embraced are the respondents' subjective values and mine, expressed in and through the data; no attempt is made to 'weed these out'.

In the foregoing discussion there were indications regarding appropriate research methodology and method. However, before discussing these and by so doing continue to highlight my research philosophic paradigm, there is the need to present a balanced view by also highlighting the criticisms and purported limitations of the paradigm. I will list these criticisms along with rebuttals and then display the implications they have for my study.

1.3 Criticisms of critical realism as a research philosophic paradigm

Farmer and Gruba (2004) highlight the fact that critical realism resorts to foundationalism (the theory that knowledge is based upon a finite set of indivisible, unique, and universal qualities) through its adherence to the stratification of knowledge. All knowledge is constructed of basic levels or strata of reality that is, the **Empirical**: which consists of people's unique or phenomenal experiences; the **Actual:** which consists of events; the **Real or Causal**: which consists of causal mechanisms and their powers or properties. To this criticism Farmer and Gruba (2004), suggest that while knowledge is vertically constructed or ordered, its nature is heterarchical, as opposed to hierarchical. While it is true that each level builds upon information from basic levels of knowledge that is, knowledge of the objective world to knowledge of the social world, it is important to assert that information itself is not reducible to any particular stratum (positivistic reductionism). This is so because of the complex codetermination of events that occurs in an open system, such as society, where a myriad of causal mechanisms codetermine all evidence of knowledge.

Farmer and Gruba (2004) in summarising the key principles of critical realism, state that knowledge is stratified and heterarchically ordered, this stratification posits

the possibility of discovering the true nature of a thing via closed scientific investigation.

Given the fact that the three-tier reality is intimately linked to the stratification of knowledge, means that knowledge exists at specific levels. My intention in this study is to gain an understanding of what is 'known' by those who experience lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas, at both the empirical and actual levels. This means that as Farmer and Gruba (2004) point out, information solicited is the respondents' knowledge, gained through their unique experiences and their daily events of lesson implementation. However, as I indicated in the foregoing discussion, my objective is not to highlight causality or to seek to identify 'the mechanisms at work', but to suggest practical adequacy. Hence, even though potential causal factors may inadvertently emerge in the presentation and discussion of the findings and factored into developing an understanding of the teachers' engagement with the research areas, it is still not my intention to make these the centre of focus. For example, the following findings that emerged from the interview responses in chapter five do indicate potential causality, for the responses to select interview questions suggest that sometimes misplaced teaching resources and various interruptions caused the respondents to make unplanned changes in a single lesson. Or the interview responses suggest that the main cause for planning outside of school were: personal convenience; personal planning style; added school responsibilities and the demands that these made on time, and the availability of planning resources at school.

Another criticism of critical realism suggests that any discussion which posits the existence of possible unknowable structures in order to support a given conception

of reality, must resort ultimately to rationalism (the theory that pure reasoning generates knowledge). Farmer and Gruba (2004) again refute this by stating that the basis for this opposition rests in the argument that if there are emergent properties that do not possess knowable structures and powers and can be unobserved and unexercised, then how can we observe them and empirically justify their existence. First, this is problematic for the critical realist only if debate continues to focus on material structures in reality and neglects the importance of social belief structures. Second, Farmer and Gruba (2004) suggest that it may be possible to analyse the nature and impact of unknowable structures and powers through an application of mixed coherentism that is, combining independent and objective empirical findings by discussing them coherently within a subjective and social framework. The argument is this: knowledge or social knowledge is transformed through social processes. This means, the knowledge I have of something, for example, a social event, can be changed through my engagement and experiences of various social encounters, activities and or anomalies thus, the society helps to impact/transform the human knowledge, as various agencies transform/impact the society. So, through the transformational powers of social encounters and given time, I may be able to make known what seemed to be unknowable social structure or what was previously unobserved. To delve deeper in this criticism would require time and space. However, given the aim of my study and the word limit, this is not possible.

I am nevertheless interested in the area of social belief structures raised by this criticism. While an examination of teachers' social belief structures is not the aim of my study, it will indirectly expose their beliefs through their response to interview questions as well as the examination of their lesson plans. Hodder (2000) in Lincoln

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and Denzin states that meaning and perceptions are evident in documents. The point is, while the unearthing of the respondents' beliefs is not the focus of the study, readers of the report should be able to recognise these if this area is of interest.

Still another criticism aims at the relationship between science and critical realism when it states that science is a social construction rather than an attempt to describe a real world. Given the fact that the concept of reality is central to a critical realist research philosophic paradigm, Southgate (1999) suggests that this idea runs counter to what all practicing scientists think they are doing which is, contributing to the real world. If this were the case, then no human analysis could be more than a social construction, so the social scientists who made this claim would have to face up to the fact that their analysis and conclusions suffer from the same problem, that of being socially constructed; hence their analysis would not be saying anything about the world or about what scientists are actually doing. I can only agree with this rebuttal for it is my hope that the results of my social scientific study—while it is influenced by my and the respondents' social construction, cultural, and language mediated knowledge—would be contributing to the body of knowledge relevant to this study. It is my hope that the things I will be saying are believable, intelligible, and realised.

Southgate (1999) continues by pointing out that critics highlight the fact that under-determination of theory by experiments and the theory-ladenness of data are hindrances to critical realism. Southgate then states that these criticisms focus on the impossibility of detaching data from the instrumental and experimental design which produced them. Given that we can neither think, nor speak, nor engage with the world at all except through language, theory and concept, there can be no way to step beyond our theoretical frame-work and assess directly how adequate any particular

theory is to the complexity of reality. As indicated in the foregoing discussion, the examination of theories and embracing human values are integral to being a critical realist researcher and this position helps to drive this study.

Schodtak (2002)(p.251) states that what is in dispute for critical realism is the 'real'; he then cites Baudrillard's opinion, which is that the 'Gulf war' did not happen. Schodtak then asked if what is 'real' is only experienced through the senses, or is what is 'real' a construction that stands in place of the complex messy realities of what really did happen, but rarely got reported. Cruickshank (2004) makes the point that although critical realists slide between the two mutually exclusive definitions of ontology that is, reality as an objective entity and knowledge of reality as a human construct, this does not mean that we ought to reject critical realism outright. Instead, there is the need to ask ontological questions as the critical realists do, bearing in mind that ontological theories are fallible interpretations of reality. The focus is to continually develop ontological theories through critical dialogue, rather than arguing that an individualist, structuralist, or praxis based ontology is the correct definition of social reality.

As a criticalist researcher, I believe that the actual occurrence and events of lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching is real, meaning they do happen. As real, are the accounts given by the respondents about their experiences of the events relevant to this study although these accounts are mediated though culture and language and are fallible.

In the foregoing discussion, I had partially displayed how my research philosophic paradigm influenced my choice of methodology and method. Therefore, as indicated in that discussion, I will now return to that subject.

1.4   Methodology and methods

I employed an instrumental case study methodology bound by the fact that the respondents were teaching in the Cayman Islands (time and place) and by the focus of the study. A reading of the work of Joffe (2001), Creswell (1998), and Stake (1988) in Jaeger support these facets of a case study.

This methodology fits my research philosophic stance because the aim of an instrumental case study methodology, according to Creswell (1998), Stake (2000) in Denzin and Lincoln, is to produce insight or understanding. In other words, the primary aim of this study is to provide insight or understanding of the realities of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas, but from the perspective of the respondents. Given the study's philosophic paradigm, understanding how the respondents view and conceptualise these areas is integral to the success of the study (Subjective epistemology). In addition, as Creswell (1998), Stake (2000) in Denzin and Lincoln, Patton (1983) and Yin (1994) highlight, a case study methodology aims to provide in-depth understandings of units of analysis in qualitative research, such as an industry, a policy, a process, a programme, an event, occurrences, or incidents.

Other reasons aiding my choice of this methodology involve the fact of its flexible and facilitatory capacity purported by (Creswell 1998 and Stake 1994). Given the primary aim of this study, the flexible and facilitatory nature of the methodology comes into sharper focus when one considers the fact that an in-depth analysis of the participants is not the desired end, and that they are of secondary interest to the study. According to Stake (2000), and Creswell (1998), an instrumental case study

methodology allows the research areas to become the unit of analysis and not the participants per se.

Speaking of the participants as being of 'secondary interest', I do not intend to devalue their role and importance in the research, for in the study I rely heavily on their description and perception of events and occurrences and the meaning they attached to these happenings and interactions. Also of importance is the fact that the selected methodology, or others of similar framework, such as phenomenology or ethnography, was the only way to acquire the respondents' description and perception of events and occurrences, and the meaning they attached to these happenings and interactions. See chapter four for a detailed description, via a cross-case analysis, of the respondents' responses.

Having looked favourably on instrumental case study methodology as the methodology of choice, there were other possibilities, such as Biography, Phenomenology, or Ethnography. These are applicable to human subjects; however, differences among them and an instrumental case study methodology exist both at the philosophic and methodologic levels. For example, an interpretive approach supports Biography and the methodological focus of the approach is entirely on the researcher and his or her own interpretation. The aim of this study, which is to provide a practically adequate understanding of the research issues from the perspective of the respondents, made biography inappropriate. A philosophical perspective that focuses on the structures of consciousness in human experience supports Phenomenology. In addition, methodologically, it requires the researcher to set aside all personal experiences and prejudgment and rely on intuition, imagination, and universal structures. The philosophical underpinning and aims of my study require the

respondents and me to make use of, and give meaning to, our personal encounters with the research areas. A number of philosophical approaches, for example, interactionism, structural functionalism, and symbolic interactionism, support Ethnography. Methodologically, its aim is to discern pervasive patterns, such as events and cultural themes. The concerns of this study and the adopted paradigm do not dictate such needs.

Based on the research philosophic stance and methodology of this study, interviews, questionnaires, and observation were highlighted in the foregoing discussion as appropriate research methods. I chose to use interview as the main data collection method, along with documentary analysis for triangulation purposes. Discussed later in this chapter is the idea of triangulation. Cohen and Manion (1989) define research methods as that range of techniques used in educational research to gather data to use as a basis for inference, interpretation, explanations, and predictions.

1.4.1 Interview as a research method

As indicated in the foregoing discussion, my ontological and epistemological stance indicate the kind of method that would be appropriate-- interview or questionnaire. I chose to use interview, for there was the need to get in-depth information. However, the main reason for employing this method is the fact that it provides the opportunity to include follow-up as well as supplementary questions thought of during the actual interview and used as necessary to illuminate or clarify, thus facilitating depth in responses, as suggested by (Joffe 2001).

Treece and Treece (1973) point out that interviewing as a method of data collection has pitfalls, such as, sample bias, hired interviewers, where there might be

difficulty in making a comparison of data collected by one interviewer with another, unless a rigid structure is adhered to. Wragg (2002) in Coleman and Briggs also highlights other pitfalls such as ethnic issues, too tightly structured interview schedule, interviewer's or respondent's image, loading questions with the specific aim of confirming a prejudice, and respondents lying, particularly if the truth might show them in a bad light.

Wragg (2002) in Coleman and Briggs warns that users of this method should give forethought to these and other issues which might render interviewing worthless. The concerns I found relevant to my study were the issues of loaded questions and the nature of the research. Precautions to safeguard against loaded questions being included during the construction of the interview schedule involved having the questions vetted, as recommended by (Wragg 2002 in Coleman and Briggs). The subject of the research and the research questions were not of a sensitive nature nor required deeply personal information, therefore, there was no reason for the respondents to be reluctant to speak truthfully.

There are different forms of interviews as outlined by Wragg (2002), in Coleman and Briggs, Parnell (1995), Creswell (1998) and Treece and Treece (1973); for example, open, semi-structured and closed structured format and types, such as face-to-face, telephone and focus group. Though writers use different terminologies, the essence remains the same; for example, Treece and Treece (1973) refer to a 'focus interview' as the kind where the interviewer employs a series of questions based on previous knowledge of the problem; Parnell (1995) refers to this same approach as a closed-structured interview. Each of these forms and types has its drawback, such as the inability to see informal communication like facial expressions,

during a phone interview, or the closed-structure format could preclude valuable areas that would have been helpful to the research.

I used a semi-structured interview schedule, which contained both semi-structured and closed-format questions for this study (see appendices 1, 2, 3, 4, pages 212- 223). Later in this chapter, I will discuss both the process of data collection and the actual interviews.

There are, however, certain general features that should be included in any interview form, such as opening with an explanation of the level of confidentially and anonymity which would be assured (ethical issues form the subject of the last section of this chapter) and closing with the interviewer thanking respondents for the information and time given to the interview. It is also necessary, according to Parnell (1995), to record some basic biographic data such as age, sex, and other qualifications; see appendix 6, page 231. As outlined in the foregoing discussion, the study also employed documentary analysis.

1.4.2 Documentary analysis

The foregoing discussion justified the use of the interview as a research method that is compatible with my research philosophic paradigm. However, the fact that meaning and perception are evident in documents, as stated by Hodder (2000) in Lincoln and Denizen, justifies the use of documentary analysis. Hence, the analysis of a document could bring many of the author's perspectives to the fore.

A critical realist philosophy suggests that there is the need to examine people's conception in trying to determine their understanding of certain reality, for reality is connected to conception, but is not determined by it, as Balihar (2004) and Spencer (1995) point out. Therefore, one way to elicit people's perceptions is to examine their

writings. The existence of people's conception and perspective in documents and the

research philosophic paradigm supports the inclusion of documentary analysis as a viable

research method. This comes into shaper focus when we consider the epistemological

stance assumed by critical realist researchers. According to Balihar (2004) website:

> **Misconception c) concerns the common tendency to think of knowledge as a product or thing (e.g., a book or newspaper) which exists outside of us, which we can possess and which is stored in finished form in our heads or in libraries. We tend not to think in terms of knowing, which is in the process of becoming. This active nature of developing and sharing knowledge tends to be neglected. To combat this misconception, we have to consider the production of knowledge as a social activity, requiring material and discursive resources (e.g., raw materials and linguistic tools). Knowledge as a product, a resource, a skill is both the ever-present condition and continually reproduced outcome of human agency (Balihar, 2004, not paginated).**

I can infer from this quotation that from a critical realist's standpoint, knowledge is a product

and found in documents such as books or newspapers. While this thought supports the use

of documents in this study, critical realists take this further by inferring that the production of

knowledge cannot be divorced from its human producers. Hence, knowledge is both a

production resulting from social activities or human agency, as well as existing in books

and documents. This means that as a critical realist researcher, my own perceptive and the

focus of the study will influence how I read and interpret documents, as well as the

knowledge that is the product of my reading and interpretation (subjective epistemology).

Given these realities, teachers' lesson plans do contain information regarding their

perception and therefore are useful tools in understanding what they know, as well as what

they think about the research areas. Therefore, the use of documentary

analysis in the form of teachers' lesson plans is not only compatible with my overall philosophical paradigm, but also a useful aid in achieving the main research aim.

Since from the foregoing discussion I stated that an interview schedule was the main data collection instrument, the purpose of documentary analysis was to supplement that is, to confirm or make more or less plausible, findings of the interview–as shown in chapters four and five–and aid in gaining additional insight into the areas pertinent to this study.

Cortazzi (2002) makes the point that documents employed in educational research are many, ranging from policy document to graffiti on walls. For this study, written copies of respondents' lesson plans are analysed. Cortazzi suggests that in analysing documents, a number of questions are necessary. The main questions asked of the lesson plans are the extent to which they provide support for and confirm findings, or made the findings more or less plausible (see chapters four and five). Outlined later in this chapter is how the documents were analysed.

2. Research questions

The argument advanced by this chapter and indeed the study is the idea that critical realism influences all aspects of its design. Cohen and Manion (1989) highlight this same thought and connect it to the formulation of research questions when they state that a researcher's research philosophic paradigm and subsequent methodology have implications for the formulation of research questions. Since this research's main aim was to understand lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation from the perspective of seasoned teachers, and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas, and to provide a practically adequate account of these occurrences,

questions of 'how' and 'why' are critical to gaining this understanding, as pointed out by (Yin 1994).

From my study's aim and concerns emerged the following broad research questions:

1. What are the selected teachers' lesson planning practices that is, where do they plan, what influences their planning and how do they plan?

2. What are the selected teachers' lesson implementation practices?

3. What are the selected teachers' lesson evaluation practices?

4. To what extent do the selected teachers employ reflection-on-action in their lesson planning and evaluation practices?

5. To what extent do the selected teachers employ reflection-in-action in their lesson implementation practices?

While these questions do not commence with the words, 'how' and 'why', these are implied, for they cannot be answered with a simply 'yes' or 'no', but are formulated in such a way that they are researchable, aimed at finding out, and set the immediate agenda for the research.

For my study, the agenda is an examination of teachers' lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. The questions also establish how data are to be collected. This involved asking teachers about their experiences. They limit the boundaries of space and time within which the study would operate, as indicated in the foregoing discussion that is, selected seasoned teachers practicing in the Cayman Islands. Bassey (2002) in Coleman and Briggs states that the questions should facilitate the drawing up of ethical guidelines and suggest how analysis could start. Ethically, the questions suggest that discussions should centre on lesson planning

implementation and evaluation and not on respondents' personal or in-depth personal biography. The research questions should guide data analysis by displaying the fact that the study adheres to, and operates within a framework, which is a set of research questions.

3. Participants' selection and qualitative sampling strategy

I intended to commence interviewing teachers from a local primary school during the month of October 2004; however, a hurricane devastated the largest of the three Cayman Islands (Grand Cayman) in September of that year. This caused extensive damage to all schools, resulting in considerable delay and uncertainty about the date and time for the return of teachers to, and the reopening of the school I intended to use.

This considerable delay threatened to shorten both the time allocated for interviewing, which was October though to December 2004, but, more importantly the allocated time for writing the report, which was the year 2005. If these threats were to stop and the research schedule not totally altered, I needed an alternative source of information.

I selected four teachers to participate in the study using the process of purposeful convenient or opportunity sampling. Creswell (1998) points out that typically researchers choose no more than four cases. The teachers selected were friends and colleagues who were willing to assist me. To preserve anonymity I gave them pseudonyms when referring to them in the study.

Each had between twenty to twenty five years of teaching experience in a number of countries, including the Cayman Islands. They taught Spanish, Geography, Science and Art. Being seasoned teachers, they could aid in fulfilling the overall

objectives of the research, which was to examine lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. This is so because as Guba and Lincoln (1998) in Denzin and Lincoln states, they were 'information-rich participants', who were able to illuminate or provide a great deal of insight into the issues of central importance to the research. An examination of their responses to the interview questions will reveal that they were indeed able to provide in-depth, relevant and unique perspectives on the research issue. For, in chapter six, I was able to draw conclusions based on information they supplied and, thus, contributed to the knowledge base of reflection and reflective teaching, by confirming a number of existing theories in these areas.

Provided is a succinct profile of each of the four participants (see appendix 6, page 231). The sketches of the participants presented are to aid in describing them as part of the case study analysis process and not to suggest any patterns related to lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. I also realised that my belief in subjective epistemology, which is one aspect of critical realism was my reason for choosing the respondents. For like Balihar (2004), I believe that in order to gain an understanding of a social occurrence, I must consult the perceptions of people engaging the process.

The aim of the study also lends credence to my chosen method of participant selection. For, as Stake (2000) and Creswell (1998) point out, being an instrumental case study, the focus is not on the participants, but they are being used to illuminate the processes involved in lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. This point highlights the fact that

the respondents were appropriately suited for my study and is not intended to suggest that

the selection of participants should occur without due consideration.

4. Piloting the interview schedule

Wragg (2002) in Coleman and Briggs states that a pilot study is a testing of some

aspect of a study, an experiment, or an observational protocol, with the intention of

revealing deficiencies to improve the final product or process. Wragg continues by

suggesting that a way to pilot an interview was to pass it on to experienced people for their

comment. I employed this method during the construction of the interview schedule used in

my study. Wagg continues by pointing out the need to carry out one or two pilot interviews,

after which further modification would be necessary.

I piloted the interview schedule twice during the month of August 2004, and after the

second pilot further modification, which includes omitting questions or altering words,

occurred. (See appendix 1, page 216 for a copy of the schedule). I used two teachers to

pilot the interview schedule. I conducted one interview at the teacher's home and the other

at a place mutually convenient for both the other teacher and me. From the analysis of the

results of the pilot study and the subsequent refining of the questions, five main sections

emerged, with appropriate questions under each.

Section A: Where teachers plan: Questions in this section are to reveal where teachers

plan and factors aiding in determining their choice of planning venue.

Section B: What influence teachers' lesson planning: Questions in this section are to reveal

factors influencing lesson planning.

Section C: How teachers' plan: The first set of questions are to reveal the processes

involved in lesson planning and the second set reveal how and if teachers use

reflection-on-action and other elements of reflective teaching during planning, and the extent of this use.

Section D: Lesson implementation practice: Questions in this section are to reveal how teachers implement lessons and how and if they use reflection-in-action, other elements of reflective teaching and the extent of their use.

Section E: Lesson evaluation practice: Questions in this section are to reveal how teachers evaluate lessons and how and if they use reflection-on-action, and the extent of its use.

The questions ranged from very general to specific and were structured to facilitate recall and to elicit the respondents' perception and conception about their practice. The interview schedule contains thirty-one questions, with some having several parts. See appendix 1, page 216.

5. Conducting the Interviews

During the month of November 2004, I contacted all four teachers via telephone and set dates and times for interviews. During the telephone contact, I told them what was to be done and for what purpose, how the data collected would be utilised, the overall length of time they would be required to be involved with the research, and that there maybe the need for a second stage interview to explore in more depth issues emerging from the transcript of the first. They all agreed to accommodate a second round of interviews, if I considered it necessary. I carried out two interviews at teachers' homes and two at a place mutually convenient for both the other teachers and myself.

To commence the interviews, I opened with an explanation of the level of confidentiality and anonymity that was possible, which was that their names would not

be associated with the study in any way and that records of their interview transcript would be inaccessible to others. I then reconfirmed their willingness to participate in a second stage interview.

I sought their permission to use tape recording equipment, which they gave, but, in addition, I took handwritten notes during the proceedings. I then proceeded to ask the questions listed on the interview guide, giving sufficient time for the respondents to answer. I closed the session by thanking the respondents for the information given and for the time that they gave to the interview. Follow-up interviews were also semi-structured and designed to encourage respondents to reflect and expand on points raised during the first interview.

6. Interview analysis process

Having established in the foregoing discussion that an interview schedule was the main data collection instrument of choice and the way it could be utilised, there is now the need to outline generally the steps I used to analyse the data. I transcribed and summarised the interviews from the audiotapes–see appendix 5, pages 228-230 for a copy of the summary sheet. To preserve the respondents' voice, wherever feasible, their own words were reported. Since I conducted the interviews in informal, conversational speech, the transcripts contained many instances of repetition, sentence fragments, and false starts. Before commencing actual analysis of the interview schedule, I asked respondents to read transcripts of their interview and say if the account faithfully represents their experience. Elliott (1991) refers to this as validating by appealing to the participants. They all agreed and carried out this task and, as stated in the foregoing discussion, only minor changes were necessary.

I analysed the data using within-case analysis or content analysis and an overall cross-case analysis. The within-case analysis involved a detailed description of each respondent's response to the interview. The purpose of this, as stated by Creswell (1998), was to allow me to become intimately familiar with each respondent's response to the interview, which in turn allowed me to identify the unique patterns in each of their views and according to Eisenhardt (1989), carrying out this process accelerated the cross-case comparison.

The fact that there was no set standard formats to carrying out within-case analysis or content analysis, as stated by Eisenhardt (1989), gave me the freedom to create my own with the help of the writing of (Powell and Renner 2003).

The processes used in carrying out both the within case and cross-case analyses are outlined later in this chapter.

In the interview analysis process, I also used direct interpretation of the data in the analysis. Creswell (1998) states that this involved looking at each case and drawing meaning from them, as well as categorical aggregation, where a collection of instances were sought, with the hope that issue-relevant meanings would emerge.

Where possible during the analysis, I used lesson plans submitted by the respondents to support the findings from the interview. For example, it was Maxwell's practice to plan activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject she taught. She said, **'it is my practice; it is part of me' (Maxwell).** An examination of her lesson plan revealed this. For, in her plan was a section entitled 'skills or skills to be developed' and a reading of the plan revealed embedded skills which students needed to acquire. For example, the skill of listening, listing, and categorizing. (See appendix 7, page 232 lesson plans).

In another example, Louis made use of a particular model of lesson planning, which started with objectives or goals and used activities based on her goals to challenge students to achieve. Her lesson plans that I analysed confirmed her response for they revealed written objectives, learning activities, the sequence of these activities, and the selection of an appropriate evaluation procedure. (See appendix 8, pages 233-236).

Connelly and Clandinin (1990) point out risks, dangers and abuse of narratives. Here they include interview transcriptions as part of their definition of narratives. They are of the opinion that there exists the possibility of faked data or a fictitious story told, and the data used to tell a deception as easily as a truth. Connelly and Clandinin strongly suggest the use of criticism as the tool to safeguard against these occurrences. The use of participant and supervisory criticism of my study's research narrative helped to reduce the occurrences outlined by Connelly and Clandinin. The writers also point out the danger of writing narratives where everything works out well in the end-- the 'Hollywood plot'. The narrative writer must help his or her readers by self-consciously discussing the selection made and possible alternative stories seen from the point of view of the writer.

Essentially, while there is the need to represent the respondents' voices, there is also the need for me to be critical of narratives I present, to suggest possible alternate interpretation, and to justify the particular interpretation I embrace. In other words, as Balihar (2004) states, there is the need to point out that the assertions made represent only one possible explanation of the findings, and how these assertions are worded will aid greatly in this regard. These actions are consistent with a critical realist philosophical paradigm.

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One aspect of a case study is to provide an in-depth picture or a detailed description of each case, or as Creswell (1998) states, this means stating the 'facts' about the case, as recorded by the investigator. To aid in providing this detailed description, I have employed both a within case and a cross case analysis.

6.1 How I carried out within-case analysis

To commence the within-case analysis or content-analysis process, I read transcripts in their entirety, to get an overall feel for the data. To focus the analysis, I placed together in files answers to each question according to respondents. See appendix 11, pages 240-241, for an example of this process. By reading and re-reading the transcripts of respondents, listening to answers given on the interview tapes and using my own judgment and experience to make sense of these answers, I categorised the responses. First, by identifying categories, which were mainly ideas, words, phrases, incidents, terminologies, which I thought, condensed and expressed the essence of the given responses. Powell and Renner (2003) support this process.   Below is an example of this process.

C6. Look at the following lesson-planning outline…tell me if this is the main way you approach your lesson planning.
Yes- it works, *'because if you don't, you have a 'harem sacrum' thing where you are feeling for what you want to teach. The* children *know when you are adlibbing they [students]* **like structure, whether or not they will admit it, they like to see progression,** *for these who don't have an orderly mind, it* helps to focus, on what you want them to focus on. (Shawn)

Emerging from this excerpt is the category of 'structure in her lesson plans' and its relationship to students.

C7. Do you plan activities that introduce students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject you are teaching?
Well I am trying to, with science which is a process skill approach so you have to teach them skills not really knowledge, so therefore you have to teach them to think like a scientist, I do this regularly maybe 90%, of the time. **However, there are times**

as teacher our ==mood== *affect the teaching. For depend on your* ==mood== *you* may decide to write on the black board and let the **student** copy the notes and we will discuss it 'another day kind of thing'. We all have days like that … any teacher who is without days like these she needs to teacher me a thing or two, Sometime you start a lesson and you know that nobody is into it, not you not them so you say lets try this another way and another day *(William)*

Emerging from this excerpt are the ideas of planning students' activities, which teach them skills, and how mood can affect a lesson. So, essentially, while this particular response is about student activities, it adds the dimension of teachers' mood and its influence on lesson implementation. Because these two examples and others like them seem to focus on the students, I invented the category 'students' (S) and defined it based on thoughts and ideas that emerged from the responses.

For example, I found respondents spoke about student activities, students' roles and learning styles, so I used these parameters to define the category. Carrying out this process helped to summarise and bring meaning to the responses (Powell and Renner 2003).

By employing this strategy, other categories emerged and were defined based on parameters taken from the responses. The additional categories were Mechanics (M) and Teaching context (TC). I define these categories in chapter four. See appendix 10, pages 238-239 for an example of a fully categorised interview transcript. Carrying out this within-case analysis provides an overall sense of what each respondent was like. Essentially, the aim of the within-case analysis was to identify categories.   I then began the process of a cross-case analysis of the responses.

6.2 How I carried out cross-case analysis

A cross-case analysis is valuable to compare the cases systematically to see factors that are present in all the responses, those that are present in some responses

and not others, and those that are entirely absent. However, one important reason for employing a cross-case analysis, according to Moore, Petrie, Braga, and McLaughlin (2003) and Eisenhardt (1989), is that it forced me to go beyond initial impressions, which increased the possibility of developing accurate and reliable theory, assertions or claims.

Importantly, carrying out a cross-case analysis involves re-presenting the teachers. Day (1991) is of the opinion that researchers give little thought or effort to the involvement or learning of teachers who are their subjects. The cross-case analysis in chapter 4 reveals my attempt to preserve the respondents' voice by reproducing verbatim their comments in the transcription of the interviews and the subsequent analysis of the transcriptions. As Elliot (1991) suggests, I also preserved the respondents' opinion by having them verify their interview transcription. In addition, I promised an abstract of the study to the teachers involved.

A cross-case analysis involves examining themes or categories across cases, to discern those that were common to all cases. I started this process with the development of categories based on my examination of the responses from the within-case analysis, as outlined in the foregoing discussion. In the cross-case analysis process, I first summarise the answers given to the interview questions and, through a fluid process of moving between these summaries, I looked for similarities and differences, as suggested by (Powell and Renner 2003). See appendix 12, page 242 for an example of this process. I then disregard the interview questions and through a process of further analysis, draw conclusions about differences and similarities in respondents' views, according to the identified category.

For example, after analysing respondents' perspective on student and students'

activities in relation to their understanding of lesson planning, implementation, and

evaluation, I found that all said that students are priority, and the thoughts they expressed

focused on the students. Differences in perspectives rest in the aspect of the students or

students' activities that became the object of focus. For example, the focus of Louis was on

the affective.

'I think most of them need more contact time with adults, so I make myself available to them'.

The focus of William was the cognitive.

'*You just don't teach for teaching sake, you have to ask what is it you want them to know what do you want them to learn… what you are expecting them to understand'*.

The focus of Maxwell was on developing both the cognitive and psychomotor skills.

'I will need to differentiate with the different abilities, cause you can have 'High flyers, average, and easy, you will have to set the activity base on their needs. This also means that you have to set the activity based on the type of students in terms of, students, who are ADHD positive, or hyper so you need a lot more hands on activity'

The focus of Shawn was on engaging students in structured lessons and

implementation, and in what works

…They [students] like structure, whether or not they will admit it, they like to see progression, for these who don't have an orderly mind, it helps to focus, on what you want them to focus on. (Shawn)

See appendix 13, page 243 for an example of the summary of similarities and

differences of respondents' views, according to identified categories.

I then used the categories and the summary of similarities and differences to discuss

and display the respondents' practically adequate understanding of lesson

planning, implementation, evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. See chapter six.

7. Data trustworthiness and triangulation

Wragg (2002) suggests that there is the need to ask 'does the interview measure or describe what it purports to measure or describe?' In other words, 'can the data collected be trusted? Bush (2002) in Coleman and Briggs point out that, triangulation is fundamentally a device for improving trustworthiness either by using mixed methods or by involving a number of participants. This involves comparing many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of information. It is a means of cross checking data to establish their soundness.

As indicated in the foregoing discussion, I employed participants' validation by presenting the participants with a transcript of their interview and ask them to say if the results faithfully represent their views. In checking that the study faithfully represented their views, participants were also encouraged to point out if it obscured their identity. I also employed methodological triangulation by using interview and documentary analysis to explore the same issue. Bush (2002) in Briggs and Coleman also recommend this process. This checking maximised the consistency of data and interpretation. In addition, these ensured accuracy of data, which in turn should facilitate accuracy in research conclusions, as purported by (McWilliam, Tocci and Harbin 1998). Only minor changes to spelling and grammar based on respondents' checks of interview transcripts were necessary.

8. Ethical issues

There are judgments of a moral nature that researchers in the field have to make. Bush (2002) in Briggs and Coleman suggests that the establishment of ethical

frameworks is to aid in this process and to guide and inform their judgment. Pring (2003) makes the point that there is the need to exercise respect for the dignity and privacy of those people who are subjects of research. To this end, there are codes of conduct for researchers in education and other disciplines, for example, the code of conduct established by the British Sociological Association and British Educational Research Association.

Writers such as Stake (2000), Fontana, and Frey (2000) draw our attention to various kinds of dilemmas, mainly of a moral nature, facing researchers in the field. This includes–but is not limited to–a researcher having to take part in nearly criminal activities, such as having to witness a 'gang rape' perpetrated by the gang he was studying, then having to decide whether or not to report it to the authorities; if that was done, the research would be ruined.

I had to make decisions— nothing as severe as the example cited in the foregoing discussion— but none-the-less decisions that were still moral in nature. For example, I promised anonymity regarding the participants' names not being associated with the final report, therefore, I took precautions by using pseudonyms when writing the report, as stated in the foregoing discussion (see chapters four and five) and keeping interview summary sheets in a safe place. British Sociological Association (2002) strongly suggests that if anonymity is promised, then it is imperative that effort is made to uphold this promise. Zeichner (1995) states that teachers can be suspicious of researchers and one way of alleviating this suspicion is to reassure them that reports of findings will be accurate and faithful to their views. I took this further by employing the method of participant verification, as indicated in the foregoing discussion. Apart from the moral aspect of this study, there are political

concerns linked to any discussion of morals, which Pring (2003) defines as being concerned with what is right or wrong.

The utilisation of the research report can be a micro-political concern. The degree to which, and how it is utilised, is a matter outside my control. In passing however, the study can usefully contribute to teachers' professional development, furthering teacher professionalism, school improvement, and teacher education and training in the Cayman Islands. However, in using it in regard to teachers' professional development and furthering their professionalism, teachers themselves must be thoroughly involved in the decision-making processes, for commitment to change is more likely when those who will be affected are consulted. Zeichner (1995) points out the need to respect teachers' views and that their initiative and contributions should be acknowledged. The execution and subsequent report of this study is mindful and sympathetic to these facts. In addition, I managed the technical and administrative needs of the study. These were limited to the purchasing of paper and the preparation and production of interview schedules.

9. Summary

To summarise, Critical Realism as a research philosophic paradigm influenced all aspects of the study; for example, the research questions, aims, choice of methodology, and the selection of participants. Criticisms of the philosophic paradigm were highlighted and discussed. What is in dispute for the critical realist is his or her understanding and definition of the 'real'. The study employed an instrumental case study methodology, which allowed the research issues to be the focus and not the respondents. In addition, justification for the chosen methodology was provided. The research methods employed were interview and documentary analysis. The use of

within and cross-case analyses was also justified. In addition, how these were carried out was outlined. Also discussed were ethical issues, the utilisation of the study, and a micro-political concern regarding the use of the study, along with the administrative aspects of the research.

In the next chapter, I outline the similarities and differences in the responses that emerge from the cross-case analysis. Doing this provides a detailed description of the respondents' perspectives, coupled with my own, on the areas relevant to the research; besides, accomplishing this task is customary for case studies (Creswell 1998).

Chapter 4
Stating the facts about Lesson Planning, Implementation, Evaluation and Reflective Teaching
(Presenting the Findings)

Introduction

In this chapter, I look across all the responses to the interview questions in order to identify similarities and differences. By highlighting similarities and differences from what was said or how the respondents said it, I constructed an understanding of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas, from their perspective and mine. See chapter six. As indicated at the end of chapter three, one aim of a case study is to provide an in-depth picture or a detailed description of each case/respondent as a part of the data analysis process. The aim of this chapter is to do just that. Essentially, I will state the facts about the case as I see them, as stated by (Creswell 1998). Three useful categories emerged from the within-case analysis that I define in this chapter. I also use them as a template in describing the respondents' understanding of the research areas.

Defining the main categories

During the data analysis, three useful categories emerged. Each represents things that the respondents described regarding lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. The categories are Students (S), Teaching context (TC), and Mechanics (M).

As I read and reread the interview transcripts and listened to the tapes, there were certain words and phrases repeated, events outlined, and thoughts expressed that I used to define each category. **Students,** this refers to the use of students in peer evaluation or

their engagement in other activities specifically geared to facilitate the acquisition of information, or references made to students' well-being, welfare, their activities, roles and learning styles. The category of **teaching context,** includes policies, teaching and teaching material/supplies, facilities, school responsibilities, school physical layout, school philosophy and how each respondent interpreted, conformed, interacted with, and utilised these aspects in their practice. The category of **mechanics** emerged from the data because the responses were replete with descriptions of 'when', 'how' and 'what was done' during the respondents' practice, for example, respondents engaged in long term or short term planning and included activities that aided students in acquiring certain skills and attitudes about the subject.

Since the primary concern of this study is the degree to which respondents used elements of reflective teaching, this aspect permeates the presentation in this chapter.

1. Students, Lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and reflective teaching

From the data analysis, respondents displayed particular ways of thinking, behaving, or reacting. These influenced their lesson planning, implementation and evaluation in relation to students and students' activities and the use of elements of reflective teaching.

1.1 Louis

Louis viewed her students as in need of contact with adults and believed that they should be consulted regarding what they were taught. Thus, she involved them in a collaborative manner during the teaching of a lesson by getting their input. She believes in,

'Letting the students own what is being, or is to be taught' (Louis)

She stated that the 'shared experience in the practical subject is very important', in other words, the idea of sharing and collaboration shaped the kind of students' activities

she included in her lessons, and this could be the result of teaching reflectively. Day (1996) points out that the willingness to engage in collaborative experience is a characteristic of a reflective teacher. For Louis, this collaborative dimension to students' activities involved working in groups, large and small, brainstorming in groups, and students giving feed back to classmates on work done.

The need to 'be there' for the students, plan with their needs in mind, include their opinion during lesson implementation, involve them in lesson planning and peer evaluation was a perspective which influenced her teaching. Her lesson plans seemed to be consistent with this claim for they revealed objectives that focused on students but, more importantly, they indicated the development of the skill of group-work as an aspect of the plan, as emphasised in the foregoing discussion.

Curriculum relevance to students' needs was an area that Louis reflected on and questioned. This action is compatible with Zeichner and Liston (1996), who see the use of questions by teachers as an aspect of reflective teaching. International guidelines, however, restricted her from introducing things that she thought students should know, might enjoy, and were able to do.

'Generally, I wonder a lot why to a certain extent we stick to the defined areas. I know why, but I have questioned that a couple of time. There are areas in my subject that kids might enjoy doing even more and might do well at, but because it would be difficult to safely ship those kinds of work off, and preserve their works to get them to the examiner, we don't bother to do those area in the exam (Louis).

1.2 William

'Thank God for the Internet, I use it for those subjects that I don't have a lot of knowledge about. Certain subject like, science and social studies, that I don't have a lot of knowledge about I get on the 'net' to understand basic concepts then I can apply this to my lesson. I try not to 'wing it' for I realise that with children, if you don't give them the right knowledge, I have to go back and say 'that is not what I meant'. So you have to be careful that you give them the ideas that you really want them to know' (William)

In this excerpt, William was concerned about her knowledge base of two subjects and how a deficiency in these areas could affect her students' knowledge and understanding. It seems the development of students' knowledge via the teaching of subject matter was the focus of William's teaching based on her frequent use of the words 'know' and 'understand'.

For example, when I asked her why she adhered to a particular lesson-planning outline, she said that it was useful in aiding students in gaining knowledge. Further analysis of her responses again affirmed her interest in students 'knowing'. For she told the students what it was they needed to know by the end of the lesson, explained aspects of the lesson to them, engaged the students in discussions, and students would be called to the chalk board to demonstrate their knowledge of the subject taught. At the end of the lesson she looked with the students at the lesson objectives, calling at random on a few to answer questions. The questions she asked were to indicate the degree to which they had grasped the information. Via a second round of interviews, she confirmed the fact that the development of students' knowledge was her focus.

William is of the opinion that what she teaches to students must be meaningful to them. The use of the term 'meaningful' refers to the fact that information they are given must be relevant to their everyday life. Hence, curriculum relevance to students' needs was an area that she reflected on and passionately questioned.

'Now I think about it a lot, you teach them things and you wonder, 'why am I teaching them about active and passive voice or stuff like that?' Why are we teaching them to convert fractions when in everyday life we don't do those kinds of fraction? If we truly look at genuine life, we don't convert any thing to any thing now, so it is just nonsense! It frightens me' (William)

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1.3 Maxwell

Maxwell was not only generally concerned with the students in the class, but also reflected on their differences, with the aim to improve how she taught them. The idea of thinking or reflecting on what you do regarding any aspect of your teaching, with the aim to improve or change is a characteristic of reflective teaching as stated by (Cunningham 2001).

Specifically, her concern was with how students were to acquire information and the cognitive and psychological factors that affected their acquisition of the information cognitive-factor needs, such as grade level, i.e. *'High flyers*, *average*, and *easy',* as well as psychological-factor needs; *'ADHD positive or hyper'*. She also used these factors to determine students' activities for her classes.

The analysis of her lesson plan supported this claim, because the focus of the objectives and overall lesson were the students' needs. For example, there was a focus on students' need to be able to identify, list, categorise, utilise the computer, work in pairs, to critically examine a video show and participate in discussion (See appendix 7, page 232).

Maxwell seems to believe that students must be an active part of the process of learning and this philosophy guides her teaching. She explained this in the next excerpt, from which I will also infer that she must have reflected on her belief regarding this matter, hence, she is able to articulate this particular view.

'I find that, people say 'oh you try to do too much' but it is my belief that the children must be actively engaged. And so I am always thinking, ' what can I do to actively engage them' while someone will just come and give them the text books and the paper and ' that's a no no.' So they are an active part of the learning process and this is one of the philosophy which guides my own teaching' **(Maxwell)**

In addition, she also carried out self-evaluation or reflection-on-action, as described by (Schon 1987), regarding students' activities in her lessons, and how, and if, they were actively engaged in the lesson.

I can infer from Maxwell's lesson plan that she believes that students are able to learn and there is the need to get them actively involved in the lesson. She also believes that they are able to work on their own to varying degrees, with varying levels of supervision, and to do so in groups or in pairs. She also believes that students need incentives (reward) when they complete assignments correctly, and they are able to achieve set lesson objectives (see appendix 7, page 232).

Maxwell believes in 'grabbing' students' attention as well as giving them information in the process of teaching, especially at the beginning of a lesson. Sometimes this process provides her with an opportunity to utilise her talent as a dramatist. She explains this,

'I don't carryout all my lessons in one way I have a lot of 'set induction', it is really just a motivational activity or attention grabber, (Maxwell)

Her concern for the school's curriculum to be relevant to students' location, age and experience has led her to question it and to become proactive in this regard by joining the national curriculum team. Both these actions are indictors of reflective teaching according to (Zeichner and Liston 1996).

It seemed the development of students' abilities, attending to their psychological and cognitive needs, keeping them actively involved in the learning process, and developing their knowledge, was of importance to Maxwell in her teaching practice. In addition, she also engaged students in the process of lesson implementation and evaluation.

1.4 Shawn

Shawn pointed out that the need to develop skills in students via the learning of the subject matter guided the process of planning a lesson. Because of this, she seemed to focus her lessons on students' developing mastery of certain skills. In addition, she thought that students needed structure to aid their progress in acquiring information and developing skills. She believed that students must be introduced via the lesson content to activities and skills unique to the subject she taught. She said that doing so was the only way to teach.

In her lessons, students must be engaged in the learning process, and to accomplish this she used a number of teaching techniques, such as, role-play, singing, written work, group work, and homework. In addition, she used students' age and grade levels to determine lesson implementation and the use and selection of learning activities.

Shawn thought that students' activities connect with students' ability. For example, she used flash cards to aid the lower achievers in using the foreign language she taught, or she emphasised the oral exercise with some students, because they do not read very well or, further, she used visual aids, such as a video, to aid the slow readers in grasping the concepts being taught.

Quite evident in Shawn's responses is the fact that she engaged selected students with certain skills, such as, being a native speaker of the foreign language she taught, in the teaching, learning, and evaluation process. Shawn made it clear that the questioning of her beliefs, values and assumptions about lesson planning in regard to her students was a philosophic exercise that she avoided. She said,

> *'No, 'uh uh uh! I don't get into the philosophy of it for that will stress you out'* **(Shawn)**

1.5 Similarities and differences across responses

All respondents seemed to believe that students were significant to the process of teaching. Therefore, their responses included ideas about students and students' activities. Differences in perspectives rested in the aspect of the students and students' activities that were the focus. For Louis, her focus was on the students' affective behaviours, while William concentrated on developing their cognition. Maxwell focused on developing the cognitive, psychomotor skills and on the psychological state of the students. The focus of Shawn was on engaging students in structured lesson implementation.

Similarities and differences also existed in the use of elements of reflective teaching. Shawn made it clear that she did not engage in 'reflection-on-her teaching'. The idea of sharing and collaboration shaped the kind of students' activities Louis included in her lessons, and I inferred that that resulted from her being a reflective teacher, given the fact that Day (1996) points out that the willingness to engage in collaborative experience is a characteristic of a reflective teacher.

Maxwell, William and Louis employed reflection or 'thinking about' and questioned the relevance of their schools' curriculum to students' needs. Giving thought to, and the employment of questions in this regard, is compatible with Zeichner and Liston (1996), who saw the use of questions by teachers as an aspect of reflective teaching. While Maxwell was also concerned about this area, she not only questioned it, but the process of questioning led her to become proactive in addressing this perceived need by joining the national curriculum planning team. Zeicher and Liston (1996), in their definition of a reflective teacher, highlight this proactivity and involvement with curriculum issues.

Maxwell was not only generally concerned with the students in her class, but also reflected on their differences, with the aim to improve how she taught them. The idea of thinking or reflecting on any aspect of teaching with the aim to improve or change is a characteristic of reflective teaching as stated by (Cunningham 2001).

She also seemed to have reflected on her belief regarding matters to do with students and students' activities, for she was able to articulate a particular personal view regarding this matter. In addition, she also carried out self-evaluation or reflection–on self in regards to students' activities included in her lessons, and the degree to which students were actively engaged in the lesson.

2. School context, lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and reflective teaching

From the data analysis, respondents displayed particular ways of thinking, reacting to, and interacting with their teaching context, in relation to their lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching.

2.1 Louis

Louis' additional responsibilities at school, such as being head of sport's house, made extra demands on her time. This was one reason she planned at home. She also seemed to adhere to either a policy or practice of the school that encouraged her to engage in a process of 'scheme of work' planning, as well as constructing individual lesson plans.

Louis also reflected on or thought about the impact of the school layout on her choice of student activities during her lesson planning, especially when the activities required students to be outside her classroom. For all other student activities, her reflection centred on her self-contained classroom.

Her lesson plans that I analysed revealed the fact that she reflected on resources, school facilities, and supplies in relation to her lessons. The plans contained specific sections labeled resources, and included the Library as one such resource (see appendix 8, pages 233-236).

For Louis, the existence of a number of art classes and teachers also warrants reflecting on the school's layout and its influence on lesson implementation. This occurrence dictates that a degree of information sharing took place between teachers, for the act of not having all three art classes outside at the same time would require a degree of sharing.

2.2 William

The availability of planning resources in school encouraged William to plan lessons there. William's responses displayed the fact that there was a policy or practice, which administratively decreed the use of the national curriculum as the primary aid to lesson planning.

She also reflected on, or thought about, her school layout and the extent to which it influenced her choice of student activities. She, however, extended her thinking to include the availability of school resources, space, and the degree to which the lack of these resources negatively influenced lesson implementation.

William identified administrative hindrances to the sharing and discussion of lesson plans with colleagues. For, she said, there was no time for this and the authorities stipulated teachers' contact-time/ teaching time and the number of hours that they should allocate to teaching.

'You don't have time, you might share a thought about something that really went well or share resources that's about it. We don't have time and that's one of my areas of interest that I could go on about. In all they want us to have 190 teaching

days and directed instruction and all that garbage but they don't give teachers time to sit down and plan, talk about what is happening in the classroom, share ideas and I think this is so important but they don't give us time for that' (William)

2.3 Maxwell

An underlying school philosophy to include Information Technology and improve numeracy and literacy in the school influenced the kind of lesson plans Maxell included on the local intranet in her school. Her lesson plan also supported this observation, for the use of the computer was featured quite prominently; see appendix 7, page 232.

Maxwell's responses displayed the fact that those in authority administratively decreed the use of the national curriculum as the primary aid to lesson planning. She said that it had to be used for it was provided by the authorities and those who were responsible for curriculum development in the Islands.

She highlighted the fact that during the school term, her heavy school responsibilities deterred her from going over her lesson plans, looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson. However, she did this during the summer months when school was not in operation.

Maxwell reflected on the school layout and the extent to which it influenced her choice of student activities, but only in relation to class size and special occasions. She said she thinks about this when she invites special speakers to address a number of classes at the same time, which requires a large area for the students to congregate.

Maxwell's lesson plan that I analysed revealed the fact that she reflected on resources, school facilities, and supplies, in relation to the lesson, and she listed these in a specific section labeled resources (see appendix 7, page 232).

2.4 Shawn

Shawn thought that it was either a policy or practice of the school to have teachers engaged in a process of 'scheme of work planning'. This policy or practice seemed to have been an administrative dictate. In addition, the policy seemed to dictate that the national or school curriculum should be used to aid in lesson planning and that there should be collaboration in syllabus planning between teachers in her school and those in the senior high school.

She reflected on—during lesson planning— the school's layout and the extent to which it influenced her choice of student activities. However, her reflection was centred not on the whole school, but on her self-contained classroom, and how best to adjust it to accommodate a variety of teaching/learning activities.

Shawn did not question the administratively decreed ways of teaching, such as the scheme of work planning, the awarding of numerical grades and the promotion and demotion of students based on these grades, as she said in the following excerpt:

'That is the way the school said you should do it, if you are going to question it, then you will have to come up with something that is universally accepted' **(Shawn)**

2.5 Similarities and differences across responses

All respondents seemed to adhere to an administratively decreed policy or practice of their schools to have them engaged in a process of 'scheme of work' planning as well as individual lesson planning. The policy also encouraged a degree of collaboration with colleagues. Maxwell adhered to a particular school philosophy that required a certain approach to lesson planning and implementation, that is, allowing the concept of improving numeracy and literacy to permeate both their lesson plan and its subsequent

implementation. All respondents spoke of being heavily involved with either additional school responsibilities or having to give certain prescribed number of hours to teaching students, and the negative impact that these had on where and how lessons were planned.

Similarities and differences also existed in the use of elements of reflective teaching. All respondents reflected on their school layout and the extent to which it influenced their teaching activities. Differences in this area were seen in the fact that while all reflected on or thought about their school layout and the extent to which it influenced their choice of student activities, they did so either in relation to how their classroom could be arranged to accommodate student activities, when they were planning special events for students, when a large space and special teaching resources were required for the lesson, or when a lesson required the students to be out of the self-contained classroom.

3. Mechanics, lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and reflective teaching

From the data analysis, respondents spoke about 'when', 'how' and 'what was done', during their lesson planning, implementation and evaluation.

3.1 Louis

For Louis, lesson planning occurred in and out of school. A personal planning style or preference, which made use of a process of careful reflection on her ideas and concepts and on different ways to present them, influenced her choice of planning venue. The act of self-directed critical thinking about teaching or aspects of one's teaching are characteristics of a reflective teacher as inferred from (Cole, 1997, Coyle 2002, Hyrkas, Tarkka and llmonen 2001 and Calderhead 1992).

Another reason she gave for planning lessons outside of school was that her time at school was primarily for her students and she liked 'being there for the students',

For Louis, lesson planning occurred 'on your own'. However, identifying and addressing students' needs direct the process of planning a lesson. The nature of the subject matter also influenced the lesson plan. She also believed that planning must be goal oriented. In her subject, lessons were planned to help students achieve various levels or objectives.

Her lesson plans that I analysed strongly supported this response, for they feature prominently objectives which focused on students' need to manipulate watercolour paint and to display an understanding of space and perspective in art. Behavioural and cognitive objectives existed in her plans; for example, students were to develop an awareness of… At the end of the unit, most pupils would have completed the following… (See appendix 8, pages 233-236).

While Louis did not question the way she went about planning her lessons, as suggested by Zeichner and Liston (1996), she questions the lesson content and how it could be improved. In addition, she also reflected on her assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching, and the degree to which her lesson plans displayed these.

The nature of the subject she taught influenced the need to carry out long term planning. The subject that Louis taught was an internationally examined subject and the students followed one syllabus for two years. However, within the long term planning there were individual short-term expectations.

 According to Louis, this international examination body and the guidelines they established influenced her lesson planning. This coupled with other elements such as previous lesson plans, personal experience, research, and research with students and colleagues, which she employed. As Elder and Paul (1994) and Halpern (1996) point out,

the act of engaging in research and research with students to improve teaching is an indicator of reflective teaching, for it implies a willingness to try out new strategies and ideas and seek alternative ways of operating.

Louis made use of a particular model of lesson planning, starting with objectives, and uses activities based on these objectives to challenge students to achieve. Her lesson plans that I analysed confirmed her response, for they revealed written objectives, learning activities, the sequence of these activities, and the selection of an appropriate evaluation procedure. (See appendix 8, pages 233-236)

For Louis, the content of a lesson plan must involve planned activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the curriculum subject taught. She however did this at the beginning of every new assignment. Her lesson plans that I analysed also revealed this. For example, in the plans were sections entitled skills or skills to be developed. Also, a reading of the plans revealed embedded skills to be acquired by the students such as the skills of observation, using one's imagination, carrying out research, problem solving, drawing, using shapes, lines, form, and colours, which were critical to her subject (See appendix 8, pages 233-236).

Ideas for lessons emerged from anywhere and experiences she had. She explained this:

'I get ideas from every where, when I say every where, I go some where and see some thing and say, maybe I should try teaching that. And some times I look back on my old and own portfolio and say, 'haven't done this for a while maybe I should practice it again so that I can teach it to my kids.' I borrow ideas from where ever, they are not all mine' (Louis).

This excerpt again displayed Louis's emphasis on using personal experience in preparing for lesson implementation. She used her colleagues to help fine-tune difficulties she discovered when she went over her lesson plans in advance of the class,

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looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson. This was an integral aspect of her lesson planning process.

While she used—for the majority of her classes—a pattern of lesson implementation, an overview of how she implemented lessons highlights the idea of feedback or sharing of ideas. This is consistent with the overall philosophy that influenced her teaching practice, as stated in the foregoing discussion.

While her lesson plans that I analysed could not be used to support the fact that she employed the lesson implementation pattern she outlined in her interview, it did indicate the development of the skill of 'group work', which is tied to her teaching philosophy of using sharing and feedback in her classes.

For Louis the making of unplanned changes or reflection-in-action during a single lesson did occur. Changes were made to students' activities, but not to the subject being taught. In other words, during the process of reflection-in-action she usually 'frame' students' activities as the cause for change.

Louis made use of continuous or ongoing evaluation during the teaching sessions, which took the form of making a mental note of the success or failure of the lesson to achieve the desired goals. Her lesson plans also indicated this, for there was a section entitled 'expectation' that outlined what students were supposed to have accomplished by the end of the unit (see appendix 8, pages 233-236).

Louis evaluated her lessons to assess the achievement of lesson objectives and to ensure that the students were comfortable. She explained:

> *'I evaluate to make sure that what I hoped to have taught is learnt. Secondly to ensure that the children were comfortable, a level of comfort with what you are given, there is challenge but not so challenging that they* [students] *give up, so there is a certain amount of comfort in that, 'Oh I can't bother' not because I am tired but because it is just too difficult to be done' (Louis)*

In addition to evaluating her lessons, she also evaluated the students and the scheme of work that she planned, and included students in the process of evaluation. She also discussed her lesson evaluation with her head of department.

While Louis did not question the way, she went about evaluating her lessons, she used questions in the process of evaluation. What she did question periodically was whether she gave enough of herself during the time she was teaching, and how this influenced the success or failure of the lesson. The act of self-examination is a fundamental tenet of reflective teaching. Cunningham (2001) points out that one characteristic of reflective teaching involves teachers asking and confronting 'self', and the uncertainty about their teaching in relation to classroom experiences and situation.

In addition, during evaluation she employed what she referred to as flashback. By this, she meant to think about, or replay the lesson in her mind, remembering the aspect of the lesson with which she was concerned. Flashback or replaying was also for a specific purpose, which was to refine, or in her case, to improve practice as suggested by (Coyle 2002).

3.2 William

Ninety percent of William's lesson planning took place at school, with the other ten percent at home. The availability of planning resources in school dictated that she planned there. Her lessons focused on developing students' knowledge via the teaching of subject matter, and this directed her process of planning. She carried out short-term lesson planning normally on a weekly basis, but also prepared separate lessons for each class taught. However, if she were to teach a new topic, she would carry out a detailed written outline.

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William's learning style influenced her lesson planning. In the past, she relied on this but, by engaging with research, she managed to include activities in her plans that were appropriate to students with diverse learning styles.

'That's my learning style, I am a visual learner; my learning style use to impact my teaching style a lot, but now that there is more inter-brain research, we are still discovering that children are visual and auditory learner, but then we leave out all the others… Now I try to engage all the learning styles, by using activities that will engage as many learning styles as I can' (William)

According to William, research involving human brain function and how students learnt suggests the need for her to be more practical and 'hands-on' and do less talking during her classes. This was necessary because the research in that area suggested that a child's attention span was their age. Therefore, for a seven-year-old child, seven minutes of full and total concentration on a single learning task would be reasonable to expect.

William's reliance on research and reading, and the use of the Internet to aid in lesson planning emerged particularly when she had to teach a subject with which she was unfamiliar. She used the Internet to get an understanding of basic concepts, and then applied these to the lesson she was planning.   As indicated in the foregoing discussion, Elder and Paul (1994) and Halpern (1996) point out that the act of engaging in research and reading to improve teaching is an indicator of reflective teaching.

William also adhered to a set way of planning her lessons. The content of her lesson plans involved planned activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject. In her responses, she raised the issue of teachers' mood and its impact on lesson planning and, in particular, lesson implementation and the methods and procedures used to transfer knowledge to students.

Difficult circumstances at school, for example, difficulty with the school system, act as a trigger for her to question her values, beliefs, and assumptions about teaching generally and this includes her mood. She also questions her whole interaction with students, her attitude about discipline, and not only in relation to how she planned lessons. Here too, Cunningham (2001) recognises this act of self-examination as an element of reflective teaching.

Giving thought to or reflecting on lesson plans in order to identify possible difficulties that students might encounter was a practice of William. In the process she considered all the things that could go wrong during the teaching session and devised ways of address, such things as difficult questions students might ask during the lesson and that to which she does not have the answer. One such solution she used is to acknowledge that she does not have the answer and encourage the student to find the answer and share it with the class on another occasion.

A tenet of reflective teaching is that it fosters creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations and problems, as inferred from Cole (1997), Coyle (2002), Hyrkas, Tarkka and Ilmonen (2001), and Calderhead (1992) in Villi Linda. It seems William has displayed this characteristic of reflective teaching.

William adhered—the majority of times—to a lesson implementation pattern, which includes a large number of student activities.

For William, the making of unplanned changes or reflection-in-action during a single lesson did occur. She, however, tried to avoid these by carrying out pre-testing. Sometimes misplacing her teaching resources contributed to the making of unplanned charges. She believed that teachers needed to be flexible, in order to make changes to

students' activity in the middle of a lesson. What she 'frame' as the problem are usually the student activities included in her lesson plan and implementation.

William's lesson evaluations occurred at the end of lessons and took the form of mental notes of her involvement and activities, and written notes for the students. Students' evaluation sometimes took the form of correcting their books or papers. She also carried out what she referred to as self-reflection, and thought this to be critical to the lesson evaluation process. This involved thinking about the lesson (flashbacks). During these times of reflection-on-action, she questioned her role in the learning process and as a result, periodically had to re-teach a section of a class after devising a new approach based on her reflection-on-action.

Because lessons build on each other, post lesson evaluation was not optional for her. Post lesson evaluation also aided in assessing the achievement of objectives and diagnosing for future lessons. William only discussed her lesson evaluation with one colleague, and in a very informal manner.

3.3 Maxwell

Maxwell wished for a day set aside for lesson planning and would include collaborative lesson planning between colleagues, not just scheme of work planning. For her, this would be very beneficial to the students. An examination of her response in this regard, displayed a desire for sharing ' best practices' and plans between colleagues, to aid in developing students' learning, attitudes, and skills.

In the absence of a day for planning--that would facilitate this collaborative exercise--she shares her lesson plans and encourages others to do so via the local school intranet. Here, too, I will infer that the desire and willingness to participate in

collaborative exercises in order to improve an aspect of your teaching is a characteristic of a reflective teacher, according to (Day 1996).

Maxwell did all her lesson planning at home. Her school responsibilities and having little non-contact time with the students were factors that she identified as contributing to this occurrence.   She saw the development of students' mental or physical power to do something that is, developing their ability, as the main factor influencing her lesson planning. Her definition of students' needs included their psychosocial needs, as well as intellectual needs. She used these factors to determine the kinds of students' activities she included in her lessons.

The analysis of her lesson plan strongly supported this claim, for the lesson focused on students' need to be able to identify, list, categorise, utilise the computer, work in pairs, critically examine a video and participate in discussion (See appendix 7, page 232).

She engaged in long and short-term planning, schemes of work planning which covered a module, last for a term, or half term, or a couple of weeks, and she also did individual lesson plans. She wrote detailed lesson plans and referred to them as 'student centred'.

Her lesson plan I analysed, displayed some degree of detailed outlining. Areas outlined were the topic for the unit or scheme of lesson planned. In addition, also outlined are the subject or aspects of the topic, time or length of the lesson, and the objectives and expectations, that is, students' assigned tasks. She also outlined the skills to be developed, teaching resources needed, such as library, slides, handouts, worksheets, books, videos, material, and the actual steps to teaching the lesson. (See also appendix 7, page 232).

Other elements that she used to influence her lesson planning included colleagues to discuss 'what works' or 'what did not work' in a given lesson.

Maxwell took a flexible approach to lesson planning, for while she made use of set elements of a lesson plan, such as objectives, choosing students' activities, sequencing of activities, and lesson evaluation, she did not stick to them in a rigid way. Her lesson plan confirmed her use of the various elements of the lesson outline spoken of in the foregoing discussion, for it revealed written objectives, learning activities, the sequence of these activities, and the selection of an appropriate evaluation procedure (See appendix 7, page 232).

It was Maxwell's personal practice to plan activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject she was teaching. For she said, *'it is my practice, it is part of me' (Maxwell).* An examination of her lesson plan revealed this. For example, in the plan was a section entitled 'skills or skills to be developed', and a reading of the plan also revealed embedded skills to be acquired by the students, for example, the skill of listening, listing, and categorising (See appendix 7, page 232).

Maxwell did consider the degree to which lessons that she planned displayed her assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching. She also questioned the way she went about planning lessons and, by so doing had, over the year, used a number of ways of planning, which she shared with her colleagues. During this sharing, she tried to get their ideas about teaching, for she was interested in 'best practice'. While focusing on making her lessons 'student centred', she even questioned the effectiveness of that kind of approach to teaching and compared it with other methods that her grandmother used.

Maxwell went over her lesson plans, looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson. However, she did this only at the beginning of

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the school term, for a number of reasons, but mainly that of heavy workload and a lack of time.

The example Maxwell gave of how she implemented a lesson showed an equal number of teacher and student activities. It also displayed the fact that she made herself available to the students and moved around the computer room assessing their progress. She also made use of a variety of 'set induction' activities in her lesson implementation, as indicated in the foregoing discussion.

The analysis of her lesson plan reflected the steps in lesson implementation that she highlighted in the interview. It displayed the kinds of student activities. In addition, it also displayed some evidence of the steps used in teaching that lesson (See appendix 7, page 232).

Maxwell made unplanned changes or employed reflection-in-action during a single lesson. She highlighted the need for flexibility and to adjust to the various interruptions, which caused her to make these changes to her lessons. Usually she frames students' activities as the cause of the problem, but she had periodically, famed the structure or organisation of the lesson as the cause of the problem. She stated that what was also required was knowledge of the students.

Maxwell used on-going evaluation and self-evaluation by students. However, most evaluations she did were post lesson evaluation or, if it was a series or a project, at the end of the series or project. For student evaluations, she employed a personally constructed 'rubric'. She explained that a rubric was a tool for evaluating students. It contained the areas in which students' evaluation should focus, scores they would receive, and criteria for their evaluation. She further explained that the use of the rubric

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made clear what and how she would evaluate (See appendix 9, pages 237 for a copy of her rubric).

For Maxwell the primary purpose of evaluation was to assess the achievement of lesson objectives. It was also to aid future planning and curriculum changes. Self-evaluation or reflection-on-action was also important, for she did this to assess what she set out to do and how effective she was in achieving her stated aim. She also carried out refection-on-self in regard to the degree to which students were actively engaged in the lesson she taught.

She did not adhere to a pattern of evaluation; for example, starting with herself and then moving to lesson objectives. However, she did evaluate her students, for her lesson plan displayed the fact that the students were to be evaluated, based on their response to a worksheet. (See appendix 7 page 232).

She shared her lesson evaluation with at least one colleague. She explained that there were other colleagues that used only traditional methods, for example, not putting their students in groups, the chairs were always straight and facing the teacher at the centre, and they would justify their way of teaching based on the challenges with using a student centred approach that she highlighted. A proper evaluation done at the end of a previous lesson also acted as a guide to future lesson planning. She also considered the degree to which her assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching influenced how she evaluated her lessons.

3.4 Shawn

Shawn was of the opinion that lesson planning should occur in or out of school. The choice of planning venue was a matter of personal convenience. While she thought that lesson planning involved finding a convenient place, the task occurred mainly on a

Saturday. The need to develop skills in students via the learning of the subject matter directed the process of planning a lesson. As a result, she focused her lessons on the mastery and development of skills, as indicated in the foregoing discussion.

Shawn was of the opinion that lesson planning could be both long and short term and written in detail. However, the onus was on the individual teacher to plan his or her lesson. She was also of the opinion that a planned lesson could aid in teacher accountability, for the teacher could account for time spent in the classroom. She used a set lesson planning outline to plan her lessons, which she said 'works'. In addition, she said that the content of any lesson plan must involve planned activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject being taught.

She believed in solving problems on the spot, instead of going over lesson plans to identify them in advance.

'Dig into it' whatever difficult will happen it will come up you either solve it there and then, or if it does not work you revamp or re-teach. Sometime you have to make unscheduled changes because you either over estimate their ability as children or sometime you underestimate their ability or have to upgrade the plan in the middle of it. It is seldom that some thing will run smoothly all the way though, you have to 'tweak' it and get it to work' (Shawn).

She engaged in discussions of lesson plans with colleagues. However, the discussions were mainly about what 'works' and technical matters. Shawn also believed that students must be engaged in the learning process, as indicated in the foregoing discussion. Students' age and grade level were aids in determining the process of lesson implementation and the use and selection of learning activities.

Shawn did not see the need to question the way she went about planning a lesson, for she relied on and employed her teaching experience/practical knowledge and 'what works'.

'If it aint broke don't fix it, it works, after a couple of year you know what works and what definitely does not work, and there are time when certain thing wont' work but this is when you have unforeseen circumstances, which you don't plan for, and experience comes in very handy where you can quickly switch, by now you should know what wouldn't work and what will work if the first one [plan] **that you have does not work, so you have plan A, B, C all over' (Shawn).**

She did not see the need to reflect on students' learning needs and the relevance of the school curriculum to fulfilling these needs. She suggested that instead of thinking about the degree to which the school's curriculum was meeting their developmental needs, she would check to see if it was, and would keep abreast of what was happening globally in the area of student needs, by reading teaching texts, and applying current teaching techniques.

In Shawn's classes the making of unplanned changes during a single lesson or reflection-in-action did occur. In the example she gave, she framed the make up of the group of students as the cause for change, so she moved students from one group to another to accomplish the set objective. Usually framed are students' activities, not topics, and reflection-in-action demand flexibility on the part of the teacher.

Evaluation of how much the students learnt or remembered was the focus for Shawn, and accomplishing this task occurred at the end of a lesson. Specifically, students' activities and the development of skills were evaluated, skills such as writing, speaking, listening and viewing/looking. Evaluation involved giving the students feedback, as well as getting instant feedback about how to plan for the next lesson. It also served the purpose of seeing what the students accomplished. Gaining this feedback involved asking questions of 'self' regarding the students and the process of teaching employed.

Shawn believes that the process of evaluating student learning includes the use of standard evaluation tools, such as quiz competition, where students are placed in groups,

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quizzed, and marks awarded for giving correct answers. Other evaluation tools include written assignments or a test. During these processes, Shawn made a mental note of those who 'got it' and those who did not.

Another of Shawn's reasons for evaluating was to be able to award each student a numerical grade. She also thought that using a number of evaluating tools at different times was to the advantage of the students, for if a student was unwell during one evaluation exercise, there would be other kinds for evaluation in which that student could participate. She also discussed students' evaluation with colleagues. She did not question the way she went about evaluating lessons.

3.5 Similarities and differences across responses

All respondents planning venues were their homes, schools, or any convenient place. However, differences existed in the reasons they gave for choosing their planning venue. This included factors such as personal convenience, personal planning style, and added school responsibilities and the demands that these made on their time, and the availability of planning resources at school. Primarily addressing students' needs was the focus of the respondents' lesson- planning process.

Addressing or developing students' skills, knowledge, and psychosocial and emotional needs through the teaching of the subject matter, influenced the process for Shawn, Maxwell and Louis. Shawn spoke directly about practical knowledge as integral to the whole process, and the fact that it is quite useful in the lesson planning and implementation process, in that it enabled one to respond efficiently to unforeseen circumstances that may arise during the teaching of a lesson. Because of an administratively decreed collaborative planning policy or practice in schools, all

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respondents engaged in long or short-term lesson planning, that is, per week, or a number of weeks, or long term planning, which included planning for a year to six months. In addition, they carried out detailed individual written lesson plans.

However, differences existed in the factors that influenced their lesson planning. For example, the nature of the subject influenced the form of planning. The subject that Louis taught was an internationally examined subject therefore international guidelines directed the form of lesson planning employed. In other words, the syllabus dictated that the course must last for two years; also, how each section is subdivided enables its successful completion in the two years allotted.

Another factor was personal learning style. This also influenced lesson planning and in particular, the writing of detailed lessons as indicated by William. A personal belief in a particular way of planning also influenced the lesson planning process, in the case of Maxwell. In addition, Louis expressed the belief that planning must be goal oriented.

All respondents used the national or school curriculum, as a guide to lesson planning and this was mandatory. However, they vary between the use of other aids, such as previous lesson plans, textbooks and teachers' guides to various curriculum subjects.

 All respondents made use of a set-planning model. However, they all used the components differently and used them in different order. All planned activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject they were teaching.

Some, however, personalised the occurrence. Another did this only at the beginning of a lesson, with the hope that the students throughout that lesson and in other lessons would apply the skills and attitudes taught. In addition, others pointed out that teachers' mood influenced the carrying out of this action.

Shawn considered going over lesson plans looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson unnecessary. However, Maxwell did this only at the beginning of a school year or during the summer time when she had the time to do this. Louis did this and used her colleagues to aid in fine-tuning difficulties found, and William did this because it was her practice.

Not all respondents voluntarily discussed their lesson plans with colleagues . While one did, for another, there was no time for this, and for two others, this discussion centred on what worked or what did not.

All respondents used a set pattern of lesson implementation. However, Shawn used students' age and grade level to determine the nature of students' activities to be included. Maxwell displayed an equal number of students' activities versus teacher activities and made herself available to the students by walking around and attending to different students at various times during a lesson. Louis focused on the sharing of ideas and getting feedback from her students. William had more activities directed at the students.

All respondents made use of either post-lesson evaluation or ongoing lesson evaluation. These took the form of mental or written notes. Evaluating how much the student learnt or remembered was the goal of all the respondents in their evaluation of lessons implemented. Shawn focused specifically on the students' activities and the degree to which certain skills were developed.

Differences in how the respondents evaluated lessons exist in what and how they evaluated. For William, post–lesson evaluation involved correcting students' workbooks or papers, while Louis, Shawn, and Maxwell included students in evaluating their peers.

Maxwell devised her own evaluation tool called a 'rubric' (see appendix 9, pages 237), which she employed in the evaluation process and encouraged her students to employ it when evaluating one another. They all discussed their lesson evaluation with at least one colleague.

Similarities and differences also existed in the use of elements of reflective teaching. To varying degrees, all respondents reflected and were reflective about their teaching. All respondents' carried out reflection-in-action framing students' activities as the cause for making unplanned changes during a single lesson. Periodically changes to a whole lesson occurred. William tried to avoid changes in a single lesson by carrying out pre-testing. However, sometimes-misplaced teaching resources caused her to make changes. For Maxwell, various interruptions caused changes to occur within a single lesson. While for Shawn, if a lesson was not going well, or if it was too difficult for the students, she went over certain steps.

Maxwell, Louis, and William reflected on their assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching, and the degree to which they were displayed in the lesson plans and teaching generally, used established research, carried out research using students and colleagues, and read generally, to improve teaching. In addition, William also employed reflection-on-context and the degree to which this influenced her mood.

 Maxwell, William, and Louis reflected on 'self' and made notes about their role in making the lesson a success or failure. In other words, they employed reflection-on-action during their lesson evaluation.

Differences rested in the elements of reflective teaching that they emphasised or on which they focused. Louis employed reflection in the process she engages in, while planning. Louis and William periodically questioned their role in the success or failure of

lesson and employed 'flashback' during lesson evaluation.

Reflecting on lesson plans in order to identify possible difficulties that students might encounter during actual implementation is a practice of William. This results in creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations. Maxwell's willingness and desire to participate in collaborative exercises in order to improve an aspect of her teaching is characterised by Day (1996) as a reflective act; additionally, she questioned the usefulness of a 'student centered' approach to teaching. She also reflected on her role regarding students' activities and the degree to which they were actively engaged in the lesson she taught.

Shawn did not see the need to question the way she went about lesson planning, for practical knowledge was critical to teaching and enabling effective and efficient teaching to occur.

4. Summary

To summarise, all respondents believed that students were significant to the process of teaching. Difference in perspectives rested in the aspect of the students and students' activities that were the focus for the respondents. Only three respondents employed reflection or 'thinking about' and questioned aspects of their teaching that related to students and student activities. All respondents adhered to policies and practices of their schools. While they all reflected on their schools' context, they did so in relation to student activities and how best to utilise their classroom and various school facilities.

The respondents' lesson planning venues were their schools, home, and any convenient place. Difference existed in the reasons they gave for choosing their lesson-planning venues. They all planned lessons to address students' learning needs. Difference

existed in the factors that influenced their lesson planning. They all used the national or

school curriculum to aid in their planning, as well as a set-planning model. However, they

used the components of the model in different ways. Not all respondents used a set pattern

for lesson implementation. However, all made use of either post- lesson or on going lesson

evaluation. Difference rested in what, and how, they evaluated.

During lesson implementation, all respondents employed reflection-in-action as an

element of reflective teaching. They usually 'frame' students' activities as the main cause of

making unplanned changes during a single lesson. Only three seemed to make use of

other elements of reflective teaching consistently, for example, self-evaluation, reflecting on

teaching context, personal beliefs about teaching, and values.

Overall, the chapter provided 'thick description' of the respondents' perception of the

research area. Their use of elements of reflective teaching permeated the discussion, thus

reiterating the fact that reflective teaching was the main concern of this study. In the next

chapter, I discuss the results presented in this chapter.

Chapter 5

Discussing the facts about Lesson planning, Implementation, Evaluation and Reflective Teaching
(The Analysis of the Findings)

Introduction

In this chapter I discuss the similarities and differences in the responses that emerged from both the within and cross-case analysis I carried out. See appendices 10, 11, 12, and 13, pages 234-239, for examples of the processes of the within-case analysis and chapter four for the result of the cross case analysis. I then compared the findings of both the within and cross-case analysis with the assumptions derived from the literature. By so doing, I constructed an understanding of lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and the use of elements of reflective teaching from both the perspective of the selected teachers and my own; see chapter six.

As I have already indicated in previous chapters, three useful categories emerged from the data analysis process, each of which represents something that the respondents described regarding lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and the use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas.

The categories were Students (S), Teaching Context (TC), and Mechanics (M). As a framework for the discussion in this chapter, I will use these categories coupled with the areas being researched, that is, lesson planning, implementation, evaluation and reflective teaching, as a template.

Discussion

1. Lesson Planning and Reflective Teaching

1.1 Students, Lesson Planning and Reflective Teaching

The views of all four respondents suggested that students and their learning needs were significant to, even central to teaching, and therefore these should be the focus of lesson planning. Among the different needs on which they focused were the:

- Affective needs (safety, social or love, and esteem)

- Cognitive needs

- Psychomotor skills needs

- Special needs of students with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

- Need for a structured and organised presentation of information to aid students' understanding of the curriculum subject matter.

The work most frequently cited in relation to needs is that of Abraham Maslow and his 'hierarchy of needs'. While no one would disagree with me that the main reason for planning lessons is to address students' cognitive needs, Maslow's hierarchy suggests that there is a direct connection between their cognitive and affective needs; if the affective needs are not satisfied they have direct implications for the cognitive, as postulated by (Schultz 1990). However, as Van Manen (1995) states, addressing students' cognitive and affective needs hinges on teachers' willingness to accept and operate in the role of caregiver, as presented. This role suggests there is the need for them to address both the cognitive and affective needs of students. Day (1999), arguing along a similar line, states that teaching must be a moral enterprise.

By this, he means that teaching is similar to, though more complex than, other caring professions such as social work and nursing.

The lesson planning process for a teacher who sees himself or herself as a 'caregiver', or who views his or her role as a 'moral enterprise', should be slightly different from those who do not. Their lesson content should have built in aspects that support and encourage the fulfillment of safety, social or love, and esteem needs. I am not advocating that teachers write these needs into their lesson plans, but how they carry out the lesson, and the manner in which it is delivered, should reflect care and concern for students' full development. Bluestein (2005) is in agreement with this thought.

All respondents in my study were concerned about students' cognitive needs, however, only Louis made direct reference to addressing both the cognitive and affective, specifically, that of their need for love and esteem. She spoke about 'being there for the kids', planning at home so that she could be available to the students, or 'making sure that they were comfortable'. Comfortable for her meant making sure that the work set for the students matched their ability. In other words, while the work should be challenging, it should not be so difficult that they give up and not complete the set task.

From her responses to the interview, I could infer that she was concerned with students' feelings and, therefore, as Schultz (1990) states, sought to develop and encourage the fulfillment of their love and esteem needs through the building of relationships. At times, she reflected and used question, as suggested by Zeichner and Liston (1996), to find out whether or not she gave enough of herself during the

time she was teaching, and how this influenced the success or failure of the lesson. William also reflected on 'self' in relation to lesson success or failure. In a follow up interview via email, Louis qualified the phrase 'giving enough of oneself',

'**Giving enough of one's self here means, allowing - time for each student and meeting them at their level** [allowing] **the students to feel safe about asking even the most ludicrous question as long as it relates to the topic; for corrections and information, in the group setting as well as individually; and sharing with the entire class… (Louis).**

This excerpt reinforces my assumption that Louis's focus was on including and attending to students' affective needs, for she emphasised the idea of allowing time for each student, meeting them at their level, and allowing them to feel safe enough to ask questions that others might think outrageous or insignificant. In addition, this could be a reflection of an understanding of her professional role. For helping students to meet their psychological needs is an element of a teacher's professional role (Whyte 1986). The idea of sharing and collaboration shaped the kind of students' activities Louis included in her lessons, therefore, I will infer that this is a result of being a reflective teacher, given the fact that Day (1996) pointed out that the willingness to engage in collaborative experience is a characteristic of a reflective teacher.

Another respondent, Maxwell, did not speak directly about the affective aspects of students' need for love and esteem. However, her lesson plan and interview responses revealed her concern with students' affective needs. As an element of reflective teaching, Maxwell used questions as a part of her lesson-planning process, especially in determining the kinds of student activities that matched students' learning styles. While focusing on making her lessons 'student centred', she even questioned

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the effectiveness of that kind of approach to teaching, and compared it with other methods that her grandmother used, such as lecturing or 'chalk and talk'.

For Maxwell, the purpose of using questions in her lesson planning included the need either to improve her planning or to try different methods, which could lead to improvement in students' learning. Reflective teaching involves teachers in analysing, discussing, evaluating, changing, and developing their practice, by adopting an analytical approach to their work, as pointed out by (Martin Jr. Wood & Stevens 1988 and Coyle 2002). Therefore, in this sense, Maxwell was displaying qualities of a reflective teacher by adopting an analytical approach to her practice.

I can identify with the seeming lack of focus on students' affective needs demonstrated by the other respondents. My initial teacher education and training had simply sensitised me to the existence of this aspect of teaching. It was, however, solely my personal choice and responsibility how I addressed, or even if I cared to address them. In retrospect, the demands of the school's curricula and its focus on students' cognitive needs left me with little space, time or energy to consciously address their affective needs; when I did engage with this aspect of teaching, it was purely incidental. In other words, I knew that I should do this and I was conscious of the need to, but the pressure of teaching the curricula made greater demands, as Day (1999) pointed out.

From my own experience of engaging only incidentally with addressing students' affective needs, I question a reliance on teaching experience and practical knowledge as sufficient to get teachers to engage more fully with this aspect of teaching, even though an overview of Shawn's responses, coupled with Gage (1977)

and Clark and Peterson (1986), seemed to be highlighting the power of teachers' practical knowledge to influence the process of lesson planning and other areas of teaching. However, even if seasoned teachers' engagement with students' affective needs are incidental, and if Van Manen (1995) and Day (1999) are right, then teachers who are 'caregivers' and 'moral enterprisers' might be experiencing tensions when motivated by a caring interest in the growth and welfare of students, and being ill equipped to address students' varied and demanding affective needs.

Despite the seeming difficulties, that Day (1999) identifies, and my own shortcomings as a teacher, in not being deliberate in addressing students' affective needs, I believe that teaching and teachers should address the affective, as well as other needs of students. In other words, I believe that teaching is a moral and care giving enterprise. I also believe that I would not have treated this aspect of my teaching as an addendum, if I had been prepared via pre-service and in-service education and training.

This then leads me to question if the local in-service education and training programme in the Cayman Islands can or has equipped seasoned teachers to effectively address the love and esteem needs of students, as posited by Maslow, as they plan and implement lessons.

Having said this, I am also aware of the fact that to get seasoned teachers to apply information acquired from training seminars could be a challenge. Given the fact that some see their main tasks as transmitting agreed curricula and addressing students' affective needs would make additional demands on their time and energy which they might not be willing to give. Johnstone (1993) made a similar observation

in her study. This lack of time coupled with other factors, such as less than ideal salaries, less than adequate working conditions, personal convenience, or personal choice, may cause teachers to restrict themselves to teaching the curricula, or focus solely on meeting cognitive needs, and exclude the affective needs of the students, even if education and training are provided.

The work of Becker and Riel (2000) brings into sharper focus the complexity of my proposal when they introduce the idea of teachers' personal definition of their role. The writers suggest that how teachers define their role will determine how they spend the limited time they have, both in and beyond the classroom. I will extend this thought to include the fact that how teachers define their professional role is also likely to influence the degree to which they embrace and engage with the idea of attending to students' affective needs, in addition to the transmission of an agreed curricula.

It seems the degree to which the respondents embraced their role as 'caregivers' or 'moral enterprisers' was also a personal matter, for the results of my study indicated that personal convenience, choice, and beliefs about teaching, influence lesson planning and, by extension, how the respondents thought about and carried out their roles as teachers.

In addition Biesta and Miedema (2002) remind me that this narrow issue of teachers addressing the affective needs of students is really an aspect of, and is hinged on a greater and an age old issue, whether schools, and, by inference, teachers should engage in educating or training students. Should a teacher be simply an instructor, or is he or she a 'cultivator of the person?' My present and personal position is that school and, by extension, teachers, should be involved in and

concerned with developing the whole person of the student, as postulated by Panton (1956). At least two respondents display the fact that they were concerned with developing the whole person of the student.

However, to get a fuller understanding of teachers and their role in addressing the affective needs of students, there needs to be further investigation into the broader issue of the purpose of education and how teachers position themselves in this debate. Biesta and Miedema (2002) suggest two reasons for doing this, but only one is of interest to me, that of the fact that there is a shift in a number of countries towards greater governmental control over the curriculum, and an emphasis on measurable output and accountability, and tight system of school inspection. I am particularly interested in this reason, as it raises other issues, such as teacher autonomy and the professionalisation of teaching. It is likely that if teachers' autonomy and the professionalisation of teaching are negatively affected, these could have an impact on their attending to students' affective needs.

The discussion in this section suggests that addressing both the cognitive and affective needs of students is important, however there exists personal and contextual constraints, which militate against this occurring. Solutions to these areas of concern are not easily found, and therefore warrant further investigation see chapter six.

1.2 Teaching Contexts, Lesson Planning and Reflective Teaching

Venn and McCollum (2002) point out that the majority of teachers in their study report that while administrators are supportive of them, administrative requirements are barriers to lesson planning, because they often result in a loss of weekly or daily planning time. The findings in my study supported the fact that teaching context, that

is, additional responsibilities in schools and the bustle of school life, influenced lesson planning. All respondents spoke about being heavily involved with either additional school responsibilities or having to give certain prescribed number of hours to teaching students and the negative impact that these had on where and how lessons were planned.

The result of having additional responsibilities was that the respondents seemed not to have sufficient time for planning. Chapter 2 provided some solutions to this issue, so there is no need for me to repeat them here.

Another aspect of schools' context that affected lesson planning was schools' policies, for these made additional demands on how the respondents plan lessons. Moreover, in Venn and McCollum's (2002) study, administrative requirements and policies did not only make demands on teachers' time, but also dictated some functions. All respondents seemed to adhere to an administratively decreed policy of schools to have them engaged in a process of 'scheme of work' planning, following the national curriculum, as well as writing individual lesson plans. The educational authorities and the law encourage these actions according to the Education and Training Bill (2005).

Interestingly, I found that there might be subtle and covert resistance to this administratively decreed policy of planning according to the national curriculum, a behaviour influenced by respondents' belief about teaching, students' needs, and subject matter.

'Sometimes I may not agree with the subject matter so I would put in what I know about teaching and what they are to be taught, that I manage to sneak it in there' (William)

Lasky, Moore, and Sutherland (2001) in their study found that—in response to mandated government educational reform in Ontario—ten percent (10%) of teachers in the schools they researched took early retirement or decided to leave teaching altogether. Maxwell-Jolly (2000) in her study on factors influencing the implementation of mandated policy, states that teachers adapted to the situations they faced in a number of ways. Essentially, then, instead of open rebuttal and defiance of mandated policies, teachers performed subtle forms of resistance.

Maxwell-Jolly's work brings to my attention the fact that both school mandated policy and the subsequent covert and adaptive behaviour of teachers to such policy could be either detrimental or beneficial to students' learning. In light of this thought, coupled with William's response, I think there is the need for an investigation locally; see chapter six. I consider such an investigation important, because, primarily, it would rule out the fact that students might be disadvantaged because of these behaviours.

On the positive side, schools' mandated policy of 'scheme of work planning' seemed to encourage a degree of sharing between respondents and their colleagues. However, outside of this mandatory collaborative exercise, they only discussed lesson plans with select colleagues. The issue for me, like Reiman (1999), then becomes the degree to which respondents—in both the mandatory collaborative meetings and those initiated by them—identified personal meaning or significance of classroom or school situations, disclosed, and examined their personal feelings. While these actions are characteristics of reflective teaching, they seemed not to have occurred for at least one of the respondents.

In the case of Shawn, when sharing did occur in a group, it usually surrounded technical matters such as awarding students' numerical grades and their promotion and demotion. Overall, corporate discussions and analysis with others about problems the respondents encountered in their classrooms seemed to be limited, even though these could eventuate into improved future classroom encounters, as stated by Cunningham (2001). If this is the case, then according to Becker and Riel (2000), all respondents were teachers with degrees of 'professional orientation' because they shared ideas with colleagues. Only Maxwell, according to Becker and Riel, would be a teacher with a 'full professional orientation', for, in addition to sharing with colleagues within her school, she interacted and shared with others, and was involved with other areas of education outside her immediate school.

All respondents 'thought about' or reflected on their school's layout and the extent to which it influenced their choice of student activities. Maxwell and William extended this to include the availability of specific school resources and space. Louis reflected on this only when teaching a particular subject. Maxwell reflected on this only in relation to class size and special occasions when more than one class was to congregate in a given area. Shawn reflected on this only in relation to her self-contained classroom and how best to accommodate a variety of teaching/learning activities there.

The literature suggests that adequate classroom space and access to other areas in a school's building, for example, the gym, kitchen, computer, or multimedia facility are supports to lesson planning. This is so because, as Venn and McCollum (2002) state, they help teachers to include in their plans, large-group activities

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requiring a large space, or the use of specialised instruments, such as computers. The findings in my study supported this thought, for included in the responses and the lesson plans that I examined, were activities that required large space, students being out of the classroom, or the using of specialised instruments such as computers or washing machines, in the case of Louis and her class.

However, the results of my study added to the areas outlined in the foregoing discussion the fact that some respondents—in reflecting on school layout and its relationship with lesson planning—also considered their own self-contained classrooms and how to accommodate student activities by various arrangements of the furnishings. As I examined the lesson implementation examples they gave, they made no mention of, or referred to schools' layout, although they claimed to think about this, and stated that it influenced their lesson planning. This is not to make the case that they had not really thought about it, but that it seemed—as Louis and Shawn indicated in the next excerpt—schools' layout were thought about only on special occasion and when they planned certain types of student activities that required them to leave their self-contained classroom.

[I consider the school layout] ***only when doing certain activities such as doing scenery or drawings from life, such as plant life, building perspective that is when I think about the outside of my room. My room is taken into consideration for all other assignments. I have a self-contained room (Louis).***

*'**I have a self-contained classroom; it can be adjusted to accommodate a variety of teaching and learning activities' (Shawn)***

1.3 Mechanics, Lesson Planning and Reflective Teaching

The literature both directly and indirectly suggests that, ideally, the place for lesson planning should be in schools. It also draws attention to the negative factors

there that forced teachers to carry out planning elsewhere, including their homes. While there are many factors contributing to this occurrence, the main one identified was that of teachers' workload, more specifically, the lack of time for planning caused by their numerous work-related activities and responsibilities. See chapter two. The findings in my study supported the position presented by the literature, for all respondents' planning venues were their homes, schools or any place convenient and, they all mentioned a lack of time—caused by additional school responsibilities—as the main hindrance to lesson planning. In chapter two and in the foregoing discussion, I presented potential solutions.

However, in addition to the factors of time and workload identified in the literature, my study also suggested that personal choice, personal convenience and personal planning style were potent factors, and should be considered when identifying and assessing influences on teachers' choice of planning venue. For Louis, lesson planning occurred in and out of school. However, a personal planning style or preference, which made use of a process of careful reflection on her ideas and concepts and on different ways to present them, influenced her choice of planning venue. The act of self-directed critical thinking about teaching or aspects of one's teaching are characteristics of a reflective teacher as pointed out by Cole, (1997), Coyle (2002), Hyrkas, Tarkka and llmonen (2001) and Calderhead (1992).

All respondents engaged in long or short-term lesson planning, that is, per week, or a couple of weeks, or long term planning, which included planning for six months to a year. In addition, they all used the national or school curriculum as a guide to lesson planning. This was mandatory, as was already highlighted in the

foregoing discussion. However, they vary in how they employed other aids, such as previous lesson plans, textbooks, and teachers' guides that accompany the various curriculum subjects.

The literature examined in chapter two highlights a number of other factors influencing lesson planning. These include teachers' beliefs and practical knowledge about teaching Richards (1996), Barry (1982), and John (1991); school contextual factors and curricula resources Hastie (1991), Barry (1982), John (1991), Richards (1996), Reed & Peyton (1987), Venn & McCollum (2002), Phillips & Solomon (1998), Department for Education and Skills (2002); students' learning needs O Grady (2003), Modern Foreign Languages (2004), Hastie (1991), Fischer (1984), Reed & Peyton (1987), Venn & McCollum(2002), Department for Education and Skills (2002); and curriculum subject matter content Becher and Trowler (2001), Gardner and Boix-Mansilla (1999).

Three respondents in the study directly identified the fact that the nature of the subject they taught influenced how they implemented lessons and the form of their lesson planning. This idea is supported by Becher and Trowler (2001), and Gardner and Boix-Mansilla (1999). Louis indicated that an international examining board examined her subject, and the students followed one syllabus for two years. According to her, this regional examination body and the guidelines they established influenced her lesson planning.

*'**Because it is CXC** [Caribbean Examination Council] **we are working with, there is an internationally prepared syllabus; this syllabus dictates what we do where CXC is concern... so it really dictates what you can teach. If you go too wide you can't cover enough' (Louis).***

Shawn stated that the curriculum displayed skills that students needed to master therefore she planned with a view to get these skills covered. William echoed a similar sentiment to that of Shawn. Maxwell, however, spoke about achieving set objectives. I would suggest that, indirectly, subject matter also influenced her lesson planning. A closer look at her plan (see appendix 7, page 232) revealed that all the objectives focused on students' achieving some aspect of the subject matter.

All respondents spoke of personal learning style, a belief in a particular way of planning, and that planning must be goal oriented, as pointed out by Richards (1996), Barry (1982), and John (1991). The point of lessons being goal orientated was observed in the lesson plans I examined, for they revealed clear goals or objectives to be achieved.

However, contrary to my expectation that the respondents as seasoned teachers would focus heavily on their practical knowledge or experience, as Gage (1977), Clark and Peterson (1986), and Venn and McCollum (2002) suggest, only one made specific reference to this aspect of her teaching and gave it a high rating in the interviews.

'After a couple of years you know what works and what definitely does not work. And there are times when certain things won't work but this is when you have unforeseen circumstances, which you don't plan for and experience comes in very handy, where you can quickly switch, by now you should know what wouldn't work and what will work' (Shawn)

All others rated the influence of their practical knowledge on lesson planning as somewhat or least influential. In other words, according to their responses, it did influence lesson planning, but not as much as students' learning needs, which they all agreed was very influential or influential. (See appendix 1, page 216 section B1)

However, on a number of occasions, the other respondents used the phrase, 'what works' as they spoke about various aspects of lesson planning. From their responses, it seemed the use of this phrase referred to techniques, methods, and activities, which were able to adequately facilitate student learning.

This is not to suggest they all rely solely on their knowledge of 'what works' but, as will be shown later in this chapter, while they made use of this knowledge, three were more reflective about it and employed other aspects of reflective teaching.

Having said this, while three respondents did not think that practical knowledge exerted a great deal of influence on their lesson planning they, however, made use of it. For as Marland (1998) states, knowing what techniques, methods, or activities to use and how to use these, required some knowledge that they had built up about teaching—on the job—as they grappled with its daily challenges, and as they sought to refine their professional practice. Moreover, practical knowledge also includes an understanding of students and their characteristics, as stated by Shulman (1987). The following excerpt from Maxwell reflects this idea.

'If you know that after lunch the students are unusually hyper, then the use of clay [as a teaching tool] **might not be a good choice for they might be tempted to throw this** [clay] **across the class at each other**

This excerpt displays Maxwell's knowledge of the characteristics of the students under her care. Hence, according to Shulman, she is employing her practical knowledge. I will suggest that while Maxwell, William, and Louis did not rate practical knowledge very high in their interviews, it did exert influence on their lessons.

In addition to teachers' practical knowledge, respondents' beliefs also influenced their lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and their use of elements

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of reflective teaching. I can infer from Richards (1996) and Virta (2002) that, essentially, teachers' beliefs caused them to lean to a particular way of acting and thinking about lesson planning. The fact that some respondents in my study strongly articulated the view of a personal belief in a particular way of planning and that planning must be goal oriented, supports the literature, which states that 'beliefs' are a potent influence on lesson planning and implementation. In addition, as indicated in the foregoing discussion, the fact that subtle and covert changes to various administrative dictates, based on their beliefs, occurred, also supports the fact that beliefs influence lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation.

However, to separate the two concepts—belief and practical knowledge —is artificial and solely to facilitate discussion. I believe, like Joram and Gabriele (1998), that they can coexist and that the transformation of beliefs into practical knowledge via the process of reflection is possible. Diagram 5.1 helps to explain my position.
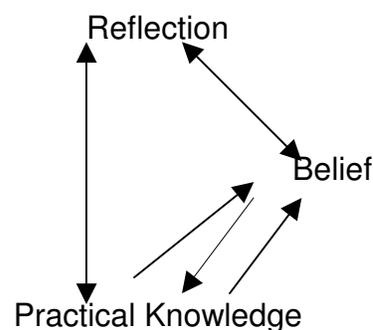

Diagram 5.1 Relationship between reflection, beliefs, and practical knowledge

Diagram 5.1 suggests that it is via the critical examination of beliefs (reflecting on belief) that the transformation of what teachers' believe about teaching will occur. The act of examining one's beliefs about teaching and testing these beliefs in the

rigour of classroom realities should result, not only in the development of new knowledge, but could also reinforce beliefs held about teaching. In other words, reflecting on one's beliefs result in the development of new practical knowledge. In addition, reflecting on practical knowledge could result in the development of new beliefs. However, reflection is not an independent variable, which only exerts influence, but beliefs and practical knowledge and changes in these also influence the reflective process, hence the need for the bi-directional arrows between reflection, beliefs and practical knowledge, as Fisher (2005) suggests. If this is the case, then what I see emerging is a cyclical, complex, and ongoing process involving reflection, belief and practical knowledge.

The idea that I am promoting is similar to that which Joram and Gabriele (1998) posit. I believe that both teachers' beliefs and practical knowledge or pedagogical-, content knowledge must be considered and reflected upon by them, to create changes in their beliefs that will promote effective lesson planning, implementation, evaluation, and use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. The local in-service teacher education and training programme could encourage this, as I suggest in chapter six.

All respondents planned activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject they are teaching. They even personalised the occurrence by stating that it was their practice to do so, or they believed that that was the only way to teach. Some also did this only at the beginning of a lesson, with the hope that students, throughout that lesson and others, would employ the skills and attitudes learnt. Still another pointed out that that teachers' mood influenced the

carrying out of this action. The discussion of teachers' mood occurs later in this chapter.

In addition, introducing students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject matter is a requirement in some syllabi, for example, Walker (1985) in her syllabus states that methods used by historians to gather and interpret information should be taught. As a teacher of history, I cannot successfully teach students how to interpret information without teaching methods of enquiry, acquiring, and verifying findings, and vocabulary. Essentially, it is my role to teach students to think like historians.

William and Louis expressed similar thoughts in their response to the question of introducing students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject matter they taught.

'Yes: well I am trying to, science is not one of my favorite subjects, so I am reading up on it a lot that is one of my professional developments for this year. This is done in science you teach skills so therefore you have to teach them to think like scientists. I do this regularly maybe 90%, of the time, some time your mood dictates how you teach… (William)

'Yes- not for every part of a lesson being, an assignment is a six-week block, so we might do this at the start of the assignment but not all other points. This is done at the beginning of each new assignment and I do a critique at the end of each assignment. Researcher: so you are teaching the students to think like artists. *I hope so,* (laughter;) this colours your approach to teaching? **Yes.** *(Louis)*

Another aspect of the mechanics of lesson planning involves going over lesson plans looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual implementation. One respondent considered this unnecessary, for she believed in solving problems on the spot, instead of going over lesson plans to identify them in advance.

'Dig into it' whatever difficulty will happen, it will come up you either solve it there and then, or if it does not work you revamp or re-teach' (Shawn).

However, three did, but only at the beginning of a school year or during the summer time, for there was no time available for doing so during the actual school year. One considered it her practice to do so, and another did and used her colleagues to help her 'fine-tune' difficulties found.

I have already mentioned in the foregoing discussion the issue of teachers' experience or practical knowledge and their reliance on it during teaching practice. However, I can infer from Shawn's statements immediately above, including other sections of her responses to the interview, that she relied heavily on her experience and knowledge gained from grappling with everyday life in school and teaching (Marland 1998). In addition, she engaged in private practice as positioned by Becker and Reil (2000), in that, she was a teacher with a private orientation, for she employed the textbooks and other teaching resources which she was given, or which she gathered, and put them together for her own individual practice, without significant input from others. In addition, she focused on direct instruction, and saw the role of the students as involving listening, learning, and repeating. She was more concerned with helping her students to learn the right answers from the textbook. Shawn's response to how she implements lessons also reflects these ideas.

'Introduce your topic then carry out repeat drill or you might want to start with the Role-play. Introduce the tape; do some comprehension based on the tape, then they have conversation from the books, this is done in groups, then they probably have the workbook, at the end of that you probably have conversation, you can move it around anyway you want (Shawn)

The findings of my study in the area of the mechanics of lesson planning stand in contrast with Panton (1956). He made the point that teachers did not necessarily

have to carry out a written lesson plan, and Maroney and Searcy (1996), observed that

teachers in their study used no expert lesson format and did not write detailed lesson plans.

All respondents used a set-planning model (see appendix 4, page 227). However, they

used them differently, in different order and wrote detailed lesson plans.

Maxwell, Louis and William reflected on their assumptions, values and beliefs about

teaching, and the degree to which they were displayed in their lesson plans and teaching

generally, and how they used established research, carried out research using students

and colleagues, and read generally, to improve teaching. In addition, William also

employed reflection-on-context and the degree to which this influenced her mood.

All respondents thought about their school curriculum. Three considered the degree

to which the way they taught displayed their values, assumptions, and beliefs about

teaching. They all made use of questions in their teaching. However, differences exist in

what they questioned and the purpose for questioning.

The purpose of the questions distinguishes reflective teaching from non-reflective

teaching or technical teaching. According to Zeichner and Liston (1996) questions of a

reflective teacher are not confined to student activities—although this is included—but goes

beyond, to include the individual teacher as a person with emotions, values, and

assumptions, teaching context, and how to refine his or her work. Maxwell, Louis and

William displayed the use of questions, as defined by Zeichner and Liston (1996), along

with other elements of reflective teaching in their practice. Louis, however, did not question

the process of lesson planning she

employed, but the content of the lesson; William made use of questions in her lesson planning process, even though she had not consciously questioned the way she planned her lessons. Nevertheless, she read research and used what she learnt to influence her lesson planning.

> *'With all the reading that I am doing, the things I learnt in college is a bit, outdated now, I do my reading and I try to make sense of all the new things that are happening now and I might plan it that way in steady' (William)*

I will conclude that—given their overall responses both here and in chapter four—William and Louis also displayed qualities of reflective teaching, for while they did not consciously question the process they engage in while teaching, their purpose for questioning other aspects of their work or employing what was learnt from reading research, was to improve or 'make better' their lesson planning. This thought is supported by Cunningham (2001).

This was borne out in the fact that William read research and used what she learnt to influence how she taught, and the act of thinking about and employing research to improve practice was an element of reflective teaching. The act of 'trying out' and researching ideas with smaller groups before applying them to a larger group was a practice of Louis, and is a reflective action.   As Elder and Paul (1994) and Halpern (1996) suggest, the willingness to question, take risks in learning, try out new strategies and ideas, and seek alternatives, are characteristics of a reflective teacher.

Shawn on the other hand, did not question the way she went about planning her lessons, but relied on her teaching experience/practical knowledge and 'what works', as I indicated in the foregoing discussion. When she did use questions—generally—it was not to improve her practice, but to see if the students 'got it' or had

learnt what was taught, to award a numerical grade and to aid in students' promotion and demotion, as I also indicated in the foregoing discussion.

Posner (1989) states that 'less reflective teachers' rely on routine behaviours and impulse, tradition and authority, rather then reflection, to guide their practice. They simplify their professional life by uncritically accepting everyday realities in schools. They concentrate their efforts on finding the most effective and efficient means to achieve ends and to solve problems largely defined for them by others. The following excerpt from Shawn's interview in response to the question why she did not question the way she carried out certain aspects of her teaching echoes Posner's pronouncement.

'That is the way the school said you should do it, if you are going to question it, then you will have to come up with something that is universally accepted' (Shawn)

2. Lesson Implementation and Reflective Teaching

2.1 Students, Teaching Context, Mechanics, Lesson Implementation and Reflective Teaching

The literature outlines a number of models of lesson implementation. For example, Cole (1964) references Johann Friedrich Herbart, an eighteenth-century teacher and scholar, and his instructional strategy. Hunter's (1982) guide for group discussion or individual study was eventually applied to lesson implementation and the National Academy for Curriculum Leadership (2002) that devised the Five (E) instructional Model for lesson implementation, Engage, Explore, Explain, Elaborate and Evaluate.

All respondents used a set pattern of lesson implementation. An overview of their responses to the questions addressing this area suggested this might be the case. The overview showed a number of similarities in the way they implemented lessons. There were preliminary activities in which they were central. These included drawing students' attention to the lesson's objectives, using an attention grabber such as a question, or starting with a short dramatic skit--sometimes carried out by the respondent, and checking students' attendance register. The respondents gave information and instructions. However, usually influencing the volume and type of information and instructions were a number of factors, such as, the objectives of the lesson, topic, grade level, and the nature of the students' activities. Student activities, directed by the respondents, or student directed, and sometimes both, influenced lesson implementation. The respondents' role in students' activities also depended on factors such as objectives, topic, students' grade level, needs, and the nature of the student activities. At the end of a lesson or period of study, there was some kind of evaluation both student and teacher directed. These similarities in the respondents' lesson implementation that I outlined in the foregoing discussion closely resemble Hunter's Model. See chapter two.

The differences in respondents' lesson implementation were in the nature of the planned students' activities. Some activities included the use of the computer, with the students finding out about a selected topic and then applying the information to given tasks. Other activities included the use of set texts and workbooks, role-play and audio and videotapes (see appendixes 7 and 8, pages 232-236). Still other activities included students' 'brainstorming' in small or large groups, and then sharing and

discussing their ideas. Age and grade or intellectual level also determined the nature of these students' activities. The motivation behind these occurrences was respondents' training and a combination of attending to students' needs and the syllabus and or curriculum. This assertion emerged from a second round of interviews.

I have already presented in the foregoing discussion the potency of teachers' beliefs. However, their potency is reflected in the fact that differences in students' activities included in the respondents' lessons were influenced by their beliefs about teaching. For example, Maxwell believed that students needed to gain knowledge in a practical way, and this influenced her lesson plans and implementation. Louis believed in 'being there for the kids' and letting them own whatever she taught, and this belief was reflected in how she implemented her lessons. Prominent in Louis's view on lesson implementation was the sharing of ideas and getting feedback from her students, which was a reflection of her belief about teaching and her professional role. A second round of interviews also confirmed this assertion.

An examination of the respondents' accounts of their lesson implementation revealed both a linear and non-linear approach, as posited by Brophy (1989). Maxwell made use of a combination of both a linear and non-linear approach to her lesson presentation, for she presented content information, but she moved around the classroom, making sure that she was available to students, interacting with them, and also assessing their progress in this process. The analysis of her lesson plan reflected the steps in lesson implementation that she highlighted in the interview (See appendix 7, page 232).

William's approach to lesson presentation was mainly linear. She told the students what they needed to know by the end of the lesson, explained aspects of the lesson to them, engaged them in teacher directed discussion, and called students up to the board to demonstrate their knowledge or grasp of the subject. Shawn, like Maxwell, displayed a combination of both a linear and non-linear approach to her lesson presentation. She presented content and included activities that fostered interaction between her and the students. Louis took a non-linear approach to lesson presentation and included interaction in her teaching.

Brophy (1989) defines effective instruction as having organised subject matter presentation, matching content to students' cognitive development, and stimulating students to actively gain information, by teaching them how to use relevant cognitive strategies, meta cognitive awareness and self-regulating learning.

According to this definition, the respondents in my study, to varying degrees, carried out effective instruction. For example, Maxwell believed in the idea of matching lesson content to students' cognitive development and to stimulate them to process information actively. Maxwell, however, included and addressed students' with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) in her lesson presentation. Shawn also reflected elements of effective instruction according to Brophy's definition. Like Maxwell, she matched lesson content with students' cognitive development and stimulated them to process information actively. However, she did not include the affective dimension, as did Maxwell.

The idea of teachers' mood and its influence on the respondents' lesson implementation is a finding that this study brought to the surface.

'There are times as teachers our mood impact the teaching. For depends on your mood you may decide to write on the black board and let the student copy the notes 'and we will discuss it another day kind of thing' we all have days like that … any teacher who is without days like these she needs to teach me a thing or two. Sometimes you start a lesson and you know that nobody is into it, not you, not them, so you say 'lets try this, another way and another day' (William).

I will infer from this excerpt that mood influences how teachers implement lessons.

Mood is a state of mind reflecting one's feelings at any particular moment. Everyone has experienced their good and bad days. Days when spirits are high and days when spirits are low, days when relatively little disturbs one and days when even minor aggravations set one off. Days when everything seems to be going well and days when nothing seems to go right, days when one is invigorated and feeling fine and days when one is out of sorts physically, tired, or ill. These represent dimensions of mood and can influence our judgment of ourselves and those around us. They can influence how we react to situations (Comer 1980).

This quotation illustrates interconnectedness between one's feeling, state of mind, and action/non-action, and the subsequent impact that action/non-action has on others. It seems that a particular feeling helps to create a mood (state of mind reflecting one's feelings) which, in turn, influences action or non-action which, in turn, can influence others. Illustration 5.1 represents this.

Feeling → Mood → action/non-action → impact on others

Illustration 5.1

I will infer from the foregoing quotation that the process appears to be linear. By this I mean that mood appears to commence with one's feeling, which acts as a trigger that sets off other actions and reactions. However, illustration 5.1 acts as a starting point for understanding the process of mood and its impact on actions, and it reflects

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the initial thinking of Comer (1980). In Comer's study on mood and its impact on evaluating teaching, he speculates that mood is a dependent variable. In other words, given the nature of mood, that is, a state of mind reflecting one's feeling at any particular moment, it is likely that a teaching situation might trigger the mood and that mood does not influence the situation.

The findings from my study support this proposition in part, for it introduces the fact that for at least one respondent, her mood did influence the teaching situation. See William's comments on mood in the foregoing discussion. Certainly, for William, difficult circumstances at school, for example, difficulty with the school system and colleagues, act as a trigger for questioning of values, beliefs, and assumptions about teaching generally. In addition, certain situations and circumstances trigger feelings/emotions, and her mood influenced how she implemented the lesson. If this is the case, then this will add another facet to illustration 5.1 as outlined in the foregoing discussion.

Actions/situations ➝ Feeling ➝ Mood➝ action/non-action➝ impact others &
                                                              Lesson implementation
Illustration 5.2

In illustration 5.2, actions or situations impacts feelings, which, in turn, create a particular state of mind that causes action or non-action which, in turn, influences others and lesson implementation. While I cannot identify William's exact mood from the excerpt outlined in the foregoing discussion or by listening to the tape of her interview, I did sense frustration, concern, agitation and even a degree of anger. In other words, there was a plethora of emotions at play as she expressed herself.

However, the phrase *'This happens when things are not really going too great at school'* supports my proposition that situation and circumstances do trigger mood. Hence, I would suggest that while Comer (1980), got negative findings in his study regarding mood and the evaluation of teaching, my study might be supporting his speculative conclusion drawn regarding the fact that mood is a dependent variable and, I will add, with the capacity to affect lesson implementation.

The development of this argument forces me to be less rigid about my earlier observation of a linear sequence to the relationship between mood and lesson implementation, and to suggest that it might be somewhat circulatory, in a general sense. I can infer from the argument I have developed, that action, or existing circumstances or situations in schools seem to influence action. In other words, action influences action or, put another way, circumstances or teaching situation or action triggers feeling, which triggers mood, which causes, an action /non-action which, in turn, influences action in the form of lesson implementation. Therefore, in a general sense it is both cyclic and linear. See illustration 5.3

Actions/situations ➝ Feeling ➝ Mood➝ action/non-action➝ impact others
                                                                              Lesson implementation
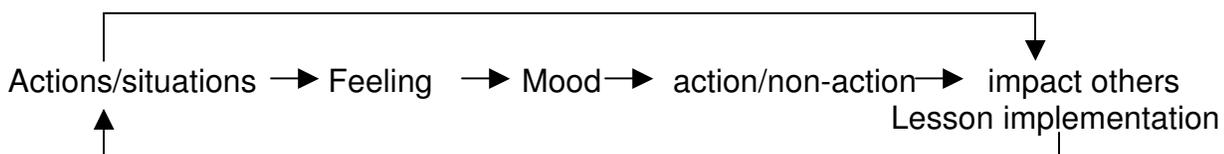
Illustration 5.3

Here, too, as in the foregoing discussion, I question whether the local in-service education and training programme in the Cayman Islands can or has equipped seasoned teachers to effectively combat days of which William spoke. The whole

question of teachers' mood and the role of in-service education and training in helping them to address this issue, its impact on lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, are of interest and warrant further investigation. I will address these in the next chapter.

Reflection-in-action occurs during actual implementation of a planned lesson. There, the teacher thinks critically—on the spot, in 'the thick of things', as stated by Schon (1983) — about what is being taught and the intended outcome, sometimes having to assess, revise, and implement new approaches and activities immediately. The ability to recognise problematic issues, to frame the context in which one will attend to it, is critical to reflection-in-action, as outlined by Adler (1994). According to Schon (1987), framing means teachers select what will be treated as the problem, set the boundaries of their attention to it, impose on it a coherence, which allows them to say what is wrong and in what direction the situation needs to be changed.

All respondents carried out reflection-in-action, framing students' activities as the cause for making such changes during a single lesson. They all agreed that this demands flexibility on the part of the teacher. Periodically the respondents treated a whole lesson as the problem. Because of this framing and subsequent setting of the boundaries of their attention to the perceived problem, and imposing on it a coherence or reason for its occurrence, the respondents then decided what was wrong and in what direction the situation needed to be changed. For some respondents, this process revealed the need to repeat either a section or a step in a lesson to enable students to 'get it' or understand what was taught. Samples of the views expressed by the four respondents concerning this area are as follows:

'I make unplanned changes, so for example if the conversation or pronunciation isn't working very well what you do is change up the group, for they do the same thing but it is with a different group, but they get to reinforce' (Shawn).

In this excerpt, Shawn framed the make up of the group as the problem and decided to relocate students to other groups as a solution to the problem.

'That's where the flexible part comes in, if I have activities planned and they are not working, say I have ten kids and only one is functioning at say average level, meaning that every body else is below average then I'd change the activity. I might not change the subject but the activity; I'd find another way of presenting it' (Louis)

In this excerpt, Louis framed the nature of the activity and its presentation as the problem, and decided to change how it was presented.

'Yes: this demand you to be flexible, in the case of math you do pre testing and you realize that they did not know this already even though the pre test showed that they understood this, I have to go back, because they really don't. Change normally is made to the activities' (William)

In this excerpt, William framed a lack of previous knowledge on the part of the student as the problem and decided to re-teach to give students the knowledge needed.

'Sometimes you assume previous background of the kids and you realize that they don't have it and you have to, you have to start, to supply this previous knowledge that might not have been built in. For example if its based on previous knowledge that should have been taught in grade seven and you assume that they have it, and when you find that they do not, it mean that you will have to supply that previous knowledge which might not have been built into your present plans' (Maxwell)

In this excerpt, Maxwell framed a lack of previous knowledge on the part of the students as the problem. However, her circumstance did not call for re-teaching, as with William, but to supply missing knowledge links.

One respondent identified misplaced teaching resources as a cause for change in a single lesson and another identified various interruptions, such as the ringing of

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the school bell, or students being called to the school's office, or a fire drill. One respondent tried to avoid the act of making unplanned changes in a single lesson by carrying out pre-testing of students before lesson implementation, but found this an ineffective method.

The foregoing discussion and samples point to the fact that according to Schulman (1987), the respondents engaged in 'expert practice'. That is, practice that is grounded in their experience and knowledge of 'what works'. They have professional knowledge of subject matter, of the principles of classroom management, of learners and their characteristics, and of educational purposes and values hence, as Fisher (2005) states,

*'[*They are able to] ***Respond to complex and sometimes unforeseen circumstances in their lessons, sometimes completely without an apparent plan as such. In reflection-in-action, they are drawing on accumulated experience in ways that are rapid, subtle and complex.***

From the findings in this section, it would appear that while all respondents engaged in reflection-in-action, the occurrence strengthens the point that they were 'more or less reflective teachers' as posited by Posner (1989). Maxwell, Louis and William seemed to be 'more reflective teachers'. This is a safe assertion to make, given the evidence of their use of questions, intuition, and their engagement in other reflective actions, as indicated in the foregoing discussion and as revealed in the next section of this chapter. Posner (1989) argues that 'more-reflective-teachers' are those who make use of questions and other reflective tools, such as a journal log, along with a balance between intuitive and reflective thought, and adapting resources or material to suit their own purpose, method or context. From the evidence presented so far,

Maxwell, William, and Louis exhibited these elements proposed by Posner, more frequently and consistently than Shawn did.

For while Shawn displayed the use of intuition and reflection-in-action, there was the absence of the use of questions as defined by Zeichner and Liston (1996). In addition, there was also the absence of the use of research and applying research to teaching. There was also the absence of self-evaluation or reflection-on-action, and there was the absence of critically examining her beliefs, values, and school context. Essentially, a 'more reflective teacher' engages with all the elements highlighted by Posner (1989) and the use of questions, as posited by Zeichner and Liston (1996).

3. Lesson Evaluation and Reflective Teaching

3.1 Students, Teaching Context, Mechanics, Lesson Evaluation and Reflective Teaching

From the findings, it is evident that evaluating what students remembered from a lesson and their overall learning was the goal of all the respondents in their lesson evaluation. Writers and websites such as Panton (1956), Rowe (1983), RMC Research Corporation (2004), Foxworth (2004), Olga James-Reid (1983), Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), P.S.U (2004), WC Schools (2004) and UCC Lesson Evaluation (2004) all agree that students' learning and their response to learning activities need to be evaluated.

These writers and others, such as Bryant (1992), also agree that written or mental records should be made of skills students have acquired and those on which they are working. Through regular evaluation, James-Reid (1983) states that the teacher is better able to prepare work with students' learning needs in mind and will be

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able to address individual problems when they arise. However, more importantly, the process, if carried out effectively, will eventuate into students' progress and improved teaching.

All respondents used either post-lesson evaluation or ongoing lesson evaluation that took the form of mental or written notes and similar to Steinberg (1991), James-Reid (1983), and Ferris and Hedgcock (1998) who all believed that post-lesson evaluation was an integral part of lesson development, not an addendum, and that evaluation should be an on-going process. The lesson plans I examined also supported this proposition, for Louis's lesson plans included sections entitled 'expectation', which outlined what students were to accomplish by the end of the unit (see appendix 8, page 233-236). Maxwell's lesson plan displayed the fact that an assigned task, which was a worksheet and students' response to this task, was the means of their evaluation (see appendix 7, page 232).

For three respondents, reflection centred on their role in the lesson implemented and the degree to which they personally influenced the success or failure of the lesson. In other words, they employed reflection-on-action during their lesson evaluation. Written evaluation centred on the students and the level to which they achieved lesson objectives. For example, the primary purpose of evaluation for Maxwell was to see if the students achieved the stated objectives, and to aid future planning and curriculum change.

However, self-evaluation or reflection-on-action was also important for Maxwell, as well as William and Louis. Maxwell and William did this to see if they accomplished what they set out to teach and how effective they were in aiding students in achieving

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the stated aim. The act of self-evaluation is a characteristic of a 'more-reflective teacher', as pointed out by (Coyle 2002, Posner 1989, Zeichner 1992 in Valli Linda, Eby and Kujawa 1994, Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen 2001, and Hatton & Smith 1995). Cunningham (2001) points out that one characteristic of reflective teaching involves teachers asking and confronting 'self' and the uncertainty about their teaching, in relation to classroom experiences and situations.

Shawn, in her evaluation, focused specifically on students' activities and the degree to which certain skills were developed.

A common feature of the respondents' lesson evaluation was the use of students in the process. Maxwell stated that she was impressed with the students' ability to evaluate their own work, as well as that of their peers, and how this had improved with the use of a rubric. She explained that a rubric was a tool for evaluating students. It contained the areas for evaluation, the score students would receive, and criteria for evaluation. See appendix 9, page 237. Louis also used students to assess the work of their peers and found this to be very helpful.

Peer and self-evaluation carried out by students is not new, but the findings in my study underscore that it is a viable way to get students to take more responsibility for their own learning and empower them, by getting them involved in the teaching/learning process. Pickett and Dodge (2001) suggest that this is achieved by providing clear ideas of what is expected of them in terms of specific performance.

I am in agreement with Pickett and Dodge that involving students in lesson evaluation will aid them in taking greater responsibility for their own learning. I think this is important because as a teacher, I teach to make myself redundant; in other

words, my aim is to enable students to grow into independent learners with the capacity to take the responsibility for their own learning.

Arguing along this same line Brophy (1989) refers to the need to develop students capable of carrying out 'self-regulation of learning efforts'. This means that students should—over time—be able to take charge of their own learning. This is achievable and should be the result of what he refers to as effective lessons, which I have already defined in the foregoing discussions. Therefore, my belief is that one criterion of an effective lesson is that it involves students in the process of lesson evaluation.

Other aspects of lesson evaluation involve knowing what to evaluate and setting the criteria for evaluation. James-Reid (1983) states that teachers should be deliberate in planning for evaluation. Deliberate means that during the process of planning for evaluation they should determine the purpose, decide on the means of measuring the processes and outcome, and collect information via observation and careful monitoring of activities.

All the respondents in my study established a purpose for their evaluation, for they use phrases, such as evaluating for skills, looking at students' work to see whether they got it right or wrong, seeing if objectives were achieved, and looking at the students' level of achievement. In other words, they evaluated to get feedback. Difference rests in the means of measuring, for they used a variety of evaluation instruments, such as correcting student books or papers or the use of quizzes, and students competing for points, or the use of a rubric. See appendix 9, page 237.

Although all respondents used questions in their evaluation of lessons they, however, did not question the process they used to evaluate lessons. Nor did they question and consider the degree to which their assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching, influenced how they evaluated lessons. Two respondents mentioned 'flashback' in their evaluation. Louis explained this further via a second round of interviews.

'Flashback is generally my time to assess the effectiveness of the module, deciding on what worked, what didn't and why. As usual, you cannot write everything down, so I use visual imagery and to a certain extent, I replay the class and sometimes when I am not too stressed, I can even remember the exact situation and what was said or done. The flashback helps in my decision making process. It helps to determine if that particular project can be re-used in its present format and if not, gives me a reference point for change. Sometimes When I cannot find any reason for the project / module not working, I revisit the critique process and try to learn again the information from the student' (Louis)

From this excerpt, she used the phrase 'flash back' to mean thinking about or replaying the lesson in her mind remembering the aspect of the lesson with which she was concerned. Flashback or replaying was also for a specific purpose, which was to refine or, in her case, to improve practice, as evidenced in the statement,

'It helps to determine if that particular project can be reused in its present format and if not, gives me a reference point for change (Louis)

Coyle (2002) describes proactive reflection as putting back together what happened in the classroom to learn from the experience, and using the information to facilitate future lesson plans. Based on the definition of a reflective teacher that Zeichner and Liston (1996) outlined in the foregoing discussion and that which guides this study, I must conclude that both William and Louis were engaging in an act of reflective teaching. This was so because, as also indicated in the foregoing discussion,

their purpose of replaying a scenario or situation was a means to an end that of improving practice, as stated by Cunningham (2001).

In addition, as Martin Jr. Wood & Stevens (1988), and Coyle (2002) suggest, thinking about or carrying out 'flashback or 'replaying' is a component of reflective teaching. Also, an examination of their responses overall suggests that they were interested in refining and improving practice generally, and used questions to refine and improve practice.

Therefore, while Louis and William did not question the process they used to evaluate, I will suggest that the lack of questions in this regard does not constitute an overall lack of reflectivity. Moreover, while they did not question and consider the degree to which their assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching influenced how they evaluated lessons, I have shown in the foregoing discussion that this non-reflective action does not indicate a general lack of reflectivity in their teaching. What this occurrence does prove is the fact that they and others had not questioned this area of their teaching.

All respondents discussed their lesson evaluation with colleagues, some freely and others by an administratively decreed policy or practice. Maxwell's reason for not sharing freely her lesson evaluation with all her colleagues included the fact there were colleagues that used only traditional methods. For example, they did not put their students in groups, the chairs were always in a straight row facing the teacher at the centre, and they would justify their way of teaching based on the challenges that she had highlighted in using a 'student-centred approach'.

Maxwell's explanation suggests that there might be the need to address the development of interpersonal relational skills and ethics under the broader covering of teachers' professional development. From my personal experience as a seasoned teacher, when I shared with colleagues information or ideas on what I found when evaluating a class, I did so because I was either frustrated with a situation or happy about some achievement. In doing so, I am expecting that the colleague I am sharing the information with would either celebrate with me or show some level of concern. Gladding (2000), Belkin (1988), Jacobs (1998), Switzer (1986), propose empathy as a relational skill needed by teachers. Empathy refers to perceiving what another person might be feeling, or experiencing another's emotions from the point of view of that person. This is what Feldman (1997: 279) refers to as the **'understanding of what another individual feels'.** McCann and Baker (2001), in defining the term, took it further by suggesting that empathy is to understand your client. This means giving them time, listening to them, to be able to hear their perspective. This also involves an attempt to understand their emotions. Essentially, I am expecting empathy from the colleague with whom I am sharing the information.

Another relational skill I might be expecting from my colleague is the ability to 'tune in' to what I am saying. McCann and Baker (2001), Hutchins & Vaught (1997) suggest that 'tuning in' includes the ability to listen effectively, which means carefully listening to expressed thoughts. The degree to which the local teacher education and training in-service programme can or has equipped teachers to address and develop interpersonal relational skills I question. For after all, as Markham (1999: 59) states,

>*'Teaching is a complex interpersonal relationship, one in which human beings are not as separate as we often assume'*

4. Summary

To summarise, while the respondents recognised the significance of students and their learning needs to lesson planning, implementation and evaluation, they focused mainly on developing students' cognitive needs. I argued that despite the difficulties in doing so, there was the need for teachers to aid in developing both the cognitive and the affective needs. In other words, teachers should aim to be both caregivers and moral enterprisers, as postulated by Van Manen (1995), and Day (1996), respectively. However, addressing both these needs required first addressing the existing personal and contextual constraints, which militated against this occurring. Only two respondents seemed to be concerned with both aspect of students' development.

Teaching contexts, for example, administrative dictates do influence lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. The chapter, however, revealed possible subtle and covert resistance displayed by the respondents as a response to administrative dictates. The respondents displayed various levels of professional orientation, as well as varying degrees of reflectivity regarding schools' context.

Personal choice, convenience, and planning style were potent factors influencing lesson planning along with curriculum subject matter, practical knowledge, and beliefs. I argued that both teachers' beliefs and practical knowledge must be considered and reflected on to create changes in beliefs that will promote effective lesson planning. The chapter also revealed that, for one respondent, her mood influenced how she implemented her lessons. Three respondents seemed to

consistently display the use of elements of reflective teaching, therefore, I classified them as 'more reflective teachers' as postulated by Posner (1989).

I also classified them as effective instructors according to Brophy's (1989) definition of effective teaching and concluded that they all engaged in 'expert practice', as postulated by Schulman (1987). The respondents seemed to adhere to a lesson implementation model developed by Hunter (1982). Their use of reflection-in-action during lesson implementation was evident from the data. While all respondents evaluated their lesson, only two seemed to employ 'flashbacks', which indicated their engagement with elements of reflective teaching during lesson evaluation. The chapter also highlighted the fact that students were integral to the process of lesson evaluation. I argued that including students in this process was critical to their development of 'self-regulation' of learning, as positioned by Brophy (1989). Finally, I argued that there might be the need—based on the observation and comments made by one respondent—to address the development of teachers' interpersonal and relational skills, as an aspect of teachers' professional development.

In the next chapter, I carry out a summary discussion to make clear the major lesson learnt from this study. Renner and Powell (2003) suggest the need to do this. However, while the study has a grounded feel, the desired end is not only to develop theories, thus contributing to the body of knowledge relevant to the research areas, but also to be pragmatic. Hence, I also discuss the implications of the results for teacher education globally and locally.

Chapter 6

The Lessons I Learnt about Lesson planning, Implementation, Evaluation and Reflective Teaching
(Summary, conclusions, discussion, implications and recommendations)

Introduction

Parnell (1995) states that having collected and analysed the data, the researcher interprets the findings by considering the relationship of the findings to the established knowledge, the implication of the information gathered to answer research questions, then the identification of areas where further research would be appropriate. As I indicated in chapters one and three and based on a critical realist philosophical stance, the aim of this study was to provide a practically adequate understanding of lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation—from the perspective of selected seasoned teachers in the Cayman Islands—and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas.

According to Sayer (1992), practically adequate means the overall account that I give of the selected teachers' perspective and involvement—mediated through my own thoughts and experience—with the research areas, must be believable, intelligible, and realised. In addition, when measured against the practice of teaching and reflective teaching—as posited by literature—the account should also be logical, believable, and understandable to its readers.

Also, given the study's focus and grounded feel, mainly theories regarding the role of reflection in the teaching learning process are developed, based on the results. However, while the study has a grounded feel, the desired end is not only to

develop theories, but also to be pragmatic. Hence, also discussed in this chapter are implications of the results for teacher education and training both globally and locally.

I commence this chapter with a summary, which captures the research I did.

1. Summary

1.1 Students, Lesson Planning, Implementation and Evaluation

The literature discussed in chapter two, for example, Modern Foreign Languages (2004) and the Department for Education and Skills (2002), pointed to the importance of students to the teaching learning process and, in particular, to the importance of addressing their learning needs.

The respondents generally perceived lesson planning, implementation and evaluation as teaching functions aimed at addressing students' learning needs and influenced by the subject matter. The lesson plans I analysed further supported this view. An analysis of Maxwell's lesson objectives revealed that they included students' needs and focused on the subject taught. For example, the lesson focused on developing and encouraging students' ability to identify, list, categorise, utilise the computer, work in pairs, critically examine a video, and participate in discussion (See appendix 7, page 232).

Louis's lesson plans revealed a focus on developing and encouraging students' ability to manipulate watercolour paints and to display their understanding of space and perspective in art. Stated clearly, both behaviourally and cognitively, and from the perspective of the students, were written objectives. For example, the students were to develop awareness of… and at the end of the

unit; most pupils will have completed the following… (See appendix 8, pages 233-236).

The idea of aiding students to develop holistically, that is, attending to their affective and cognitive needs equally, and the role of schools and by extension, teachers in this process, is a debatable matter. This debate according to Biesta and Miedema (2002) was an age-old one, as indicated in chapter five. My present and personal position is that schools and, by inference, teachers, should be involved and concerned with developing the whole person of the student, which includes addressing their affective needs. However, there were many issues in need of clarification before this can be a reality in the lives and work of teachers generally. See discussion in chapter five.

Three respondents seemed to take a holistic approach to lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. This was evident by the fact that, as indicated in the foregoing discussion, they used students' affective, cognitive, psychomotor needs and students' need for a structured and organised presentation of information to aid their lesson planning and determine the nature of students' activities included in their plans. However, one respondent focused exclusively on students' need for a structured and well-organised presentation of information, paying less attention to their affective—or as I said about myself in chapter five—it was likely that she addressed this aspect of her teaching incidentally. However, this was only speculative, for there was no evidence in her responses showing that she considered this aspect of students' learning. It would seem that this respondent saw her main tasks as transmitting an agreed curriculum, as suggested by Day (1995). My conclusion here was, however, also tentative, as it

was possible that I might have failed in the interview to elicit from her information that had to do with her attending to students' affective needs during lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Holistic in this sense means considering students' emotional, physiological, intellectual and psychological needs, as well as the fact that the respondents saw these aspects as connected to the teaching/learning relationship.

While students' needs directed respondents' lesson planning, they did not always focus on fulfilling students' 'love and esteem needs' during lesson planning and implementation. For some, the transmission of the curricula took precedence, as Day (1995) suggests. Because of this, I argued that getting teachers to address students' affective needs during lesson planning, implementation and evaluation was a complex matter and required a fuller understanding of the attendant issues highlighted in the discussion in chapter five. These issues concerned whether schools and, by extension, teachers should engage in educating or training students. Should a teacher be simply an instructor, or was he or she a 'cultivator of the person? Was teaching a moral enterprise, as proposed by Day (1995)? Also connected to this, as pointed out by Biesta and Miedema (2002), was the issue of governmental control over the curricula and its impact on teachers' professionalism and autonomy.

The respondents used students in the overall process of lesson implementation and evaluation and this they expressed in their views. However, while students' involvement in lesson implementation and peer and self-evaluation carried out by them was not new, I argued in agreement with Pickett and Dodge (2001) that this was a viable way to get students to take more responsibility for

their own learning and to empower them by getting them involved with the teaching/

learning process. This process should aid them in carrying out 'self-regulation of learning

efforts'. This meant that they should—over time—be able to take charge of their own

learning, as outlined by Brophy (1989).

1.2 Teaching Context, Lesson Planning, Implementation and Evaluation

The evidence in my study supported the work of Venn and McCollum (2002) by

suggesting that administrative requirements, additional school responsibilities, busyness of

school life, and having to give certain prescribed number of hours to teaching students,

were barriers to lesson planning. These resulted in respondents not having sufficient time

for planning. The literature reviewed in chapter two, along with discussions in chapter five,

provides solutions that are worthy of consideration.

As discussed in chapter five, administratively decreed policies or requirements did

not only make demands on teachers' time, but also seemed to dictate some functions, as

highlighted by Cole (1997) in her article. However, sometimes subtle and covert resistance

and adaptive behaviours, such as making changes to subject matter proposed by the

national curriculum occurred as a response to these demands. In light of this, I argued that

there was the need—locally—to determine if mandated policies, and the subsequent covert

and adaptive behaviours of teachers in response to these policies, were detrimental or

beneficial to students' learning.

One positive aspect of administratively decreed policy, such as the need for the

respondents to participate in 'scheme of work planning', was that it encouraged a degree of

sharing between colleagues. However, outside of this mandatory

collaborative exercise, they only discussed lesson plans with selected colleagues. Furthermore, even with this mandated exercise, the identification of personal meaning or significance of classroom or school situations, and the disclosure and examination of respondents' personal feelings as outlined by Reiman (1999), seemed not to have occurred for at least one of the respondents.

For that respondent, mandated group discussion regarding lesson evaluation usually surrounds technical matters, such as promoting or demoting students or awarding them a numerical grade. Corporate discussions and analysis with colleagues about problems they encountered in their classroom seemed to be limited. In other words, there seemed to be a lack of frequent voluntary collaborative activities. There was, however, some degree of sharing. Therefore, according to Becker and Riel (2000), the respondents were teachers with varying degrees of 'professional work orientation'.

All respondents reflected on their school's layout and the extent to which it influenced their choice of student activities. However, reflection on this aspect of schools occurred only if they planned activities that required them to leave their self-contained classrooms, use large space, or specialised instruments, such as computers or a washing machine, in the case of Louis and her class. Maxwell and Louis's lesson plans that I analysed revealed the fact that they considered resources, school facilities, and supplies in relation to their lessons. In Maxwell's lesson plan, she outlined this in a specific section labeled 'resources', and Louis's plans singled out the use of the library as a resource (see appendixes 7 and 8, pages 232-236).

1.3 Mechanics of Lesson Planning, Implementation and Evaluation

For the respondents, lesson planning was an integral part of their teaching practice. While the literature examined in chapter two and in other chapters, suggested a number of factors such as heavy workload and the resulting lack of time for planning at school, as determining teachers' lesson planning venue. My study suggests that personal choice, personal convenience, and personal planning style were potent factors and should be considered when identifying and assessing influences on teachers' choice of planning venue.

All respondents engaged in long or short-term lesson planning, that is, per week, or a couple of weeks, or long term planning, which included planning for six months to a year. In addition, all respondents used the national or school curriculum as a guide to lesson planning, and this was mandatory, as already highlighted in the foregoing discussion. However, they differed in their use of other aids, such as previous lesson plans, textbooks, and teachers' guides that accompany the curriculum.

Respondents in my study pointed out that the nature of the subject they taught influenced their lesson planning and implementation. Other factors identified as influencing their lesson planning and implementation were personal learning style, a belief in a particular way of planning, and that planning must be goal oriented. I observed the point of lessons being goal orientated in the lesson plans I examined, for they outlined clear and achievable goals or objectives.

Respondents' practical knowledge influenced their lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. While only one respondent specifically articulated the fact that she relied solely on her teaching experience during lesson planning

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and implementation, I argued that the others indirectly made use of their practical knowledge and that it heavily influenced their lesson planning and implementation.

Three respondents strongly articulated the fact that they had a personal belief in a particular way of planning. This supported the literature, which suggested that belief was indeed a potent influence on lesson planning and implementation. From the discussion in chapter five, I argued that belief and practical knowledge were intertwined and not mutually exclusive and therefore as a means of improving practice, both were in need of examination.

All respondents made use of a set-planning model (see appendix 4, page 227) and they all used the components differently and in different order. In addition, they also engaged in writing detailed lesson plans. These occurrences stood in contrast to both Panton's (1956) view and the findings of Maroney and Searcy (1996). Even though respondents adhered to a set structure and pattern in lesson planning and implementation, flexibility existed in these areas. This is evidenced by the fact that they engaged in reflection-in-action, thus making unplanned changes during implementation, and having to—at times—discard a whole lesson and make up a new one during an actual teaching session.

All respondents planned activities that introduced students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject they were teaching. Some, however, personalised the occurrence, by saying that it was their practice to do so, or that they believed that that was the only way to teach. Another did this only at the beginning of a lesson, with the hope that the students, throughout that lesson and in future ones would employ those skills and attitude. Still another pointed out the fact that teachers' mood affected the carrying out of this action.

One respondent stated that going over or reflecting on her lesson plans looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson, is unnecessary. She believed in solving problems on the spot, instead of applying reflection as a means of identifying potential difficulties in advance. However, three did, but only at the beginning of a school year, or during the summer time, for there was no time available for doing so during the actual school year. One respondent stated that it was her practice to do so, and another did, and used her colleagues to aid in fine-tuning and addressing difficulties she found.

The respondents seemed to adhere to a lesson implementation pattern that closely resembled Hunter's (1982) guide for group discussion or individual study. They also engaged in what Brophy (1989) referred to as linear and non- linear approaches to lesson implementation. Brophy (1989) defines effective instruction as having organised subject matter presentation, matching content to students' cognitive development, and stimulating students to actively acquire information. To achieve these, students learnt how to use relevant cognitive strategies, meta cognitive awareness, and self-regulating learning. According to this definition, teachers in my study, to varying degrees carried out effective instruction. Differences rested with the degree to which they addressed students' affective needs.

One respondent's mood influenced by school situations, such as a newly introduced policy and disagreement with colleagues, affected how she planned and, especially, how she implemented a particular lesson. The impact of mood on lesson implementation is supported by the findings of Comer (1980) in his study of mood. I, however, concluded that while Comer (1980) got a negative finding in his

study regarding mood and the evaluation of teaching, my study might be supporting his speculative conclusion drawn, regarding the fact, that mood was a dependent variable and I would add, with the capacity to influence lesson implementation.

From the findings, it was evident that the respondents' goal in evaluating lessons implemented was to assess what students learnt or remembered. Writers and websites such as Panton (1956), Rowe (1983), RMC Research Corporation (2004), Foxworth (2004), Olga James-Reid (1983), Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), P.S.U (2004), WC Schools (2004), and UCC Lesson Evaluation (2004) all agreed that students' learning and their response to learning activities needed to be evaluated.

All respondents made use of either post-lesson evaluation or ongoing lesson evaluation that involves reflection and written notes. Louis's lesson plans had a section entitled expectation. This outlined what students were supposed to have accomplished by the end of the unit (see appendix 8, pages 233-236). Maxwell's plan displayed the fact that students' evaluation took the form of their response to an assigned task, which was a worksheet (see appendix 7, page 232).

For three respondents, reflection-on-action during lesson evaluation normally centres on their role in the lesson implemented and the degree to which they personally influenced the success or failure of the lesson. This they referred to as self-reflection. Written evaluation centred on the students and the degree to which they achieved the lesson objectives.

One respondent, however, focused exclusively on students' activities and the degree to which they developed certain skills.

1.4 Lesson Planning, Implementation, Evaluation and Reflective Teaching

Three respondents consistently demonstrated the use of elements of reflective teaching in their practice. Hence, I referred to them as 'more reflective teachers' as outlined by (Poser 1989). One seemed to be a 'less-reflective teacher' who was guided more by impulse, tradition, and authority, and relied on routine behaviours rather then reflection. According to Posner (1989), she seemed to have simplified her professional life by uncritically accepting everyday reality in schools. The following excerpt exemplifies her thinking and supports Posner's statement.

'That is the way the school said you should do it, if you are going to question it, then you will have to come up with something that is universally accepted' (Shawn)

All respondents reflected on their schools' curricula and the degree to which the curricula were meeting students' developmental needs. Maxwell, Louis, and William reflected on the degree to which their lesson plans displayed their values, assumptions, and beliefs about teaching. Shawn made it clear that the questioning of her beliefs, values, and assumptions about teaching was a philosophic exercise that she avoided. She said,

'No, 'uh uh uh! I don't get into the philosophy of it for that will stress you out' (Shawn)

All respondents used questions in their lesson planning, implementation and evaluation. However, differences rested in what they questioned and their purpose for questioning. The purpose of the questions distinguished 'more-reflective teaching' from 'less-reflective teaching' for, according to Zeichner and Liston (1996), while reflective teachers question students' activities, this was not their only area of focus. They also included their own emotions, values, assumptions, and

their teaching context, as suggested by Cunningham (2001). As indicated in the foregoing discussion, only three respondents displayed the use of questions as defined by Zeichner and Liston (1996), along with other elements of reflective teaching in their practice. For example, Maxwell used questions as a part of her lesson planning process, especially in determining the kinds of student activities that matched students' learning styles. In addition, she also questioned the way she went about planning lessons and by so doing, had over the years used a number of ways of planning, which she shared with her colleagues. While focusing on making her lessons 'student centred', she even questioned the effectiveness of that kind of approach to teaching and compared it with other methods that her grandmother used, such as lecturing or 'chalk and talk'.

For Maxwell, the purpose of using questions in her lesson planning was either to improve her planning or to try different methods, which could lead to improvement. Reflective teaching involves teachers in analysing, discussing, evaluating, changing, and developing their practice by adopting an analytical approach to their work as inferred from Martin Jr. Wood, & Stevens (1988) and Coyle (2002). Therefore, in this sense, Maxwell displayed qualities of a 'more reflective teacher' by adopting an analytical approach to her practice.

I will conclude that—given their overall responses to the question—William and Louis also displayed qualities of 'more reflective teachers'. While they did not consciously question the process of lesson planning they employed, their purpose for questioning other aspects of their work was to improve or 'make better' their lesson planning. This is borne out in the fact that William reads research and uses what she learns to influence her lesson planning and the act of thinking about or

reflecting on research and employing research to improve practice was an element of reflective teaching. In addition, 'trying out' and researching ideas and teaching tools with smaller groups, before applying them to a larger one was a practice of Louis and could be interpreted as a reflective action.   As Elder and Paul (1994) and Halpern (1996) suggest, the willingness to question, take risks in learning, try out new strategies, and ideas, and seek alternatives are characteristics of being a reflective teacher.

All respondents carried out reflection-in-action that resulted in making unplanned changes during a single lesson. They all agreed that this demands flexibility on the part of the teacher. What they framed or treated as the problem included mainly students' activities but, periodically, they framed whole lessons. One respondent identified misplaced teaching resources as a cause for change in a single lesson and another identified various interruptions. Another tried to avoid changes in a single lesson by carrying out pre-testing of students before embarking on a lesson, but found this an ineffective method.

Although all respondents used questions in their evaluation of lessons they, however, did not question the way they went about evaluating. Nor did they question and consider the degree to which their assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching influenced how they evaluated lessons. Zeichner and Liston (1996) argue for the use of questions as indicators of reflective teaching. Two employed what they referred to as 'flashbacks' in their evaluation. By 'flashback', Louis meant to think about or replay the lesson in her mind, remembering the aspect of the lesson with which she was concerned. Flashback or replaying was also for a specific purpose, which was to refine or, in her case, to improve practice.

However, as I argued in chapter five, the fact that these respondents did not question the way they went about evaluating, nor did they question and consider the degree to which their assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching influenced how they evaluated lessons, was insufficient evidence to conclude that they had not employed elements of reflective teaching. Hence, they were not 'more reflective teachers', as promoted by Posner (1989). What this omission did prove was that they had not really questioned this area of their teaching.

2. **Major Lessons Learnt** (Conclusions and Discussion)

From the results of this study along with the literature reviewed, it would appear that one or more respondents perceived lesson planning, implementation and evaluation in a number of ways. Tables 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3 summarise these.

Lesson planning and Implementation
Lesson planning and implementation: ♦ Are teaching functions that address students' learning needs for example, students' affective, cognitive, psychomotor skills needs and their need for a structured and organised presentation of information and are influenced by the subject matter. These needs are used in determining the nature of student activities to be included in a lesson.   ♦ Involve either a holistic approach or an exclusive focus on structure and well-organised presentation of information.   ♦ Are influenced by administrative requirements or administratively decreed policies and these are sometimes met with subtle and covert resistance such as making change to subject matter—during lesson planning—proposed by the national curriculum.   ♦ Involve a degree of sharing among colleagues.   ♦ Involve an examination of school layout and classrooms and their influence on student activities.

- ◆ Are influenced by personal choice, convenience, and planning style, which are also considered when identifying lesson-planning venue.

- ◆ Include activities that introduce students to the skills and attitudes unique to the curriculum subject matter.

- ◆ Involve long or short term planning and the use of various aids to planning for example, the national curriculum.

- ◆ Are influenced by the nature of the subject being taught, personal learning style, belief, practical knowledge and knowing 'what works'.

- ◆ Involve employing a set-planning model with flexible components.

- ◆ Involve (especially lesson implementation) a set presentation pattern, and is carried out in both a linear and non-linear fashion.

- ◆ Are directly impacted by teachers' mood.

Table 6.1 Respondents' Understanding of Lesson Planning and Implementation

An overview of table 6.1 coupled with the results of the study suggests that one or more respondent viewed lesson planning and implementation as complex tasks, guided by a holistic approach or an exclusive focus on structure and well-organised presentation of information. Their primary aim was to address students' cognitive and affective needs. Factors such as teachers' personal belief, knowledge, mood, choices, curriculum subject matter, and school context, that is, physical as well as administrative, influenced these areas. Lesson planning and implementation also involved using set models and patterns with flexible components and could be either long or short and collaborative in nature.

Lesson Evaluation
Lesson evaluation involves:
♦ Students in peer and self-evaluation.
♦ Assessing a planned lesson to ascertain possible difficulty that students might encounter during the actual implementation of the lesson.
♦ Assessing students' learning.
♦ Employing post-lesson evaluation or ongoing evaluation taking the form of mental or written notes.

Table 6.2 Respondents' Understanding of Lesson Evaluation

An overview of table 6.2 suggests that one or more respondent viewed lesson evaluation as a corporate exercise between teacher and students. Its primary aim was to evaluate students' learning via both written and mental note taking exercises carried out by the teacher. However, the teacher and the teaching processes should also be evaluated. While there was ongoing evaluation during a lesson and the assessment of lesson plans before implementation, post lesson evaluation was the form mostly employed.

| Reflective teaching and activities |
|---|
| Reflective teaching and activities involve: |
| ♦ Questioning students' activities, one's values, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching context |
| ♦ Making unplanned changes during a single lesson |
| ♦ Framing students' activities or periodically, whole lessons |
| ♦ Employing 'flash back' or the recalling of aspects of a lesson so as to improve future ones |
| ♦ 'Trying out' teaching and learning activities with a small group of students before implementing those same activities with a larger group |
| ♦ Using reading and research to influence teaching |

Table 6.3   Respondents' Understanding of, and their use of elements of reflective Teaching

An overview of table 6.3 suggests that one or more respondents viewed reflective teaching and activities as involving questioning of self, values, beliefs and assumptions, and other aspects of their teaching. The aim was to improve practice via the use of flashbacks or recalls, reading, applying research, and the framing of lessons or aspects of lessons.

An overview of the results of the study, coupled with an examination of tables 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3, suggested that there existed a dynamic relationship between the respondents' beliefs, emotions or mood, practical knowledge, teaching context, lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. However, the results of the study also strongly suggested that reflection was pertinent to the relationship. It helped respondents in coping with, understanding the characteristics of the relationship, and using their understanding to make appropriate decisions and adjustments to teaching and learning. Adjustments were usually conducive to learning and sensitive to context and situation. Reflection also aided in developing self-awareness and an understanding of context and situation.

2.1 Reflection: a tool for understanding and utilising the relationship between teaching context, teachers' personal and professional disposition, lesson planning, implementation and evaluation

This dynamic relationship and the factors involved, is outlined in diagram 6.1
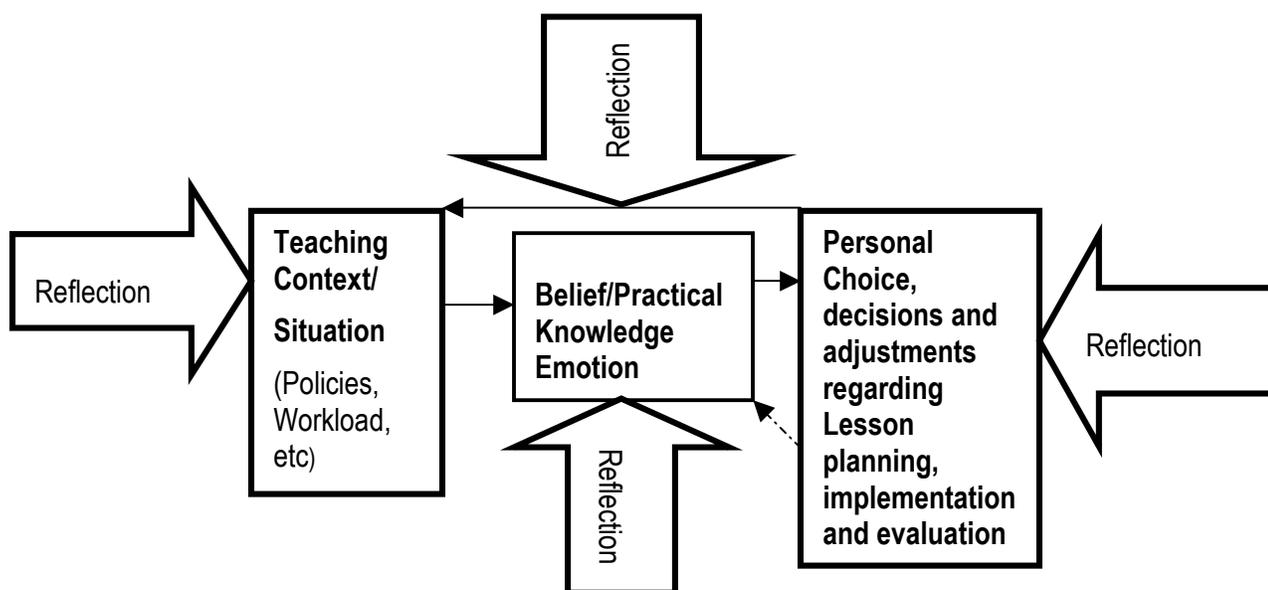
Diargam6.1 Using Reflection to affect the relationship between Contexts, Practical Knowledge, Belief, Lesson Planning, Implementation and Evaluation

In diagram 6.1 contextual factors, such as administratively decreed policies, heavy workload and difficulty with the school system or colleagues, challenged the respondents' belief and practical knowledge about teaching and, at times affected mood. By reflecting on the challenging factors, as well as their beliefs, practical knowledge and mood, they made decisions about and adjustments to lesson-planning implementation and evaluation. These decisions and adjustments in turn influenced the teaching context or situation. However, it was likely that further reflection on choices, decisions, action and non-action about lesson planning, implementation and evaluation in turn influenced respondents' beliefs, practical knowledge, and mood. Because my study did not provide evidence to fully support this claim, I must be tentative about this aspect of the relationship. To indicate this, I use a broken arrow in the figure to display this aspect of the relationship. Moreover, I might have failed in the interview to gather information on this issue.

Having said all this, the following examples taken from the study display the fact that decisions and adjustments to lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation resulting from reflection did influence the teaching context or situation, as I have indicated in the foregoing description of diagram 6.1.

In the case of William, there was a disagreement between what she believed the students should know and what the curriculum suggested they should learn. Therefore, after reflecting on the issue, she adapted the content of the lesson to match her belief. No doubt, some degree of learning did occur and the decision and subsequent actions she took 'worked' in that context, that is, her classroom.

Again, in the case of William, after reflecting on certain happenings in her school, for example, her dissatisfaction with a certain school policy or behaviour of her colleagues, and how these affected her mood, she then adjusted how she implemented the lesson she taught.

Maxwell's decision—after reflection—to share her lesson evaluation with a select colleague because of less than appropriate interpersonal relationship skills others exhibit, was another instance of an issue in the context of the school influencing lesson planning, implementation and, especially, the process of lesson evaluation she employed.

Away from displaying the fact that adjustments facilitated by reflection affected the teaching context or situation, these examples also provide some insight into the nature of the relationship between the respondents' beliefs, emotions or mood, practical knowledge, teaching context, lesson planning, implementation and evaluation, as well as the role of reflection in the process.

The relationship seemed to be characterised as first having physiological, psychosocial, and emotional facets. For example, the school curriculum, lesson plans, implementation, and evaluation were physical facets of the relationship; negative feedback and respondents' response to the feedback from colleagues was psychosocial; and mood was emotional.

Secondly, it could also be characterised as primarily a teacher centred experience, for teachers were primarily engaged in the relationship. In other words, it was the individual teacher who interpreted and 'made sense' of the relationship. The individual teacher could also use it to improve 'self' and practice.

Thirdly, it seemed to be pervasive, for teachers were always engaged in the relationship or facets of the relationship, though they might not be aware of it or might choose to ignore its influence.

The role of reflection in the relationship is two-fold. First, by employing reflection to the relationship, it seemed the respondents were able to isolate these characteristics of the relationship. While they did not categorise the characteristics as I have done here, the fact that I was able to, via a process of synthesis based on their responses, could be interpreted that informally, and possibly even unconsciously, they had accomplished this task.

Second and more importantly, applying reflection to the relationship aided respondents in understanding or gaining knowledge of their school context or situation, or what Cole (1997), Coyle (2002), Hyrkas, Tarkka & Ilmonen (2001) Calderhead (1992) in Valli Linda refer to as the development of contextualised knowledge. Reflection also aided the respondents in developing self-awareness.

Cunningham (2001) and Bengtsson (1993) arguing for the use of reflection in developing self-awareness, point out that for seasoned teachers engaging in reflective teaching could develop further self-awareness and knowledge through personal experience. Coyle (2002) extends this argument and suggests that, more importantly, reflection could aid in encouraging teachers in their role as autonomous professionals, by encouraging them to take greater responsibility for their own professional growth and deepening an awareness of their practice, set within their unique particular socio-political contexts.

From the overall results of my study and the three examples cited in the foregoing discussion, I will also conclude that the respondents, by applying reflection, had developed both an understanding of their context as well as self-awareness. For example, Maxwell's refusal to openly share with colleagues could be an indication of an understanding of her context or situation and might be an indicator of an awareness of self. A similar observation could be made of William and her response to school policy and the behaviour of her colleagues. The fact that she was able to isolate her mood and that it was affected by a school policy and behaviour of her colleagues could be an indicator of an awareness of self and an indication of an understanding of her context or situation.

The three examples given in the foregoing discussion along with the results of the study also demonstrate that Louis, William and Maxwell, via reflection, were able to adjust how they worked or functioned when their beliefs, practical knowledge and mood were challenged by contextual situations and circumstances.

Therefore, given the fact that in chapter five and in the foregoing discussion I asserted that they were 'more-reflective teachers' I will extend this conclusion to

suggest that it was their professional disposition or attitude, that is, being 'more reflective teachers', as promoted by Posner (1989), that determined their response to the challenges.

For 'more reflective teachers', the contextual challenge to their beliefs, practical knowledge, and influences to their mood, is an opportunity for personal and professional growth in understanding context and improving practice. This is so because—as seen in the results of my study—such occurrences provided opportunities to question and, by so doing, led to decisions and adjustments to lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation that were conducive to learning and sensitive to context or situation. Decisions and adjustments—being conducive to learning—were likely to strengthen beliefs and practical knowledge, affect mood positively and, ultimately improve the teaching context.

Calderhead (1992) supports this proposition when the writer suggests that reflection enables teachers to analyse and evaluate their own practice, school, classroom relationships, context, and make use of what they learnt to inform decision-making, planning, and future action, and this can eventuate into school improvement. To this list of areas that should be analysed and evaluated via the act of reflection, I would add teachers' beliefs, mood, assumptions, and values.

Less reflective teachers, on the other hand, might not see any connection between contextual challenges, their beliefs, practical knowledge, and mood. They might view the challenges exclusively as problems needing solutions and would not question self or the impinging factors, but find solutions in a programme or technique, as purported by Zeichner and Liston (1996). An overview of Shawn's responses to the interview questions reflected the idea of Zeichner and Liston

positioned here. Her responses were never introspective, for no mention was made of considering self, feeling, mood, values, beliefs, or personal assumptions. In addition, she applied mainly 'what works', void of reflection, to address contextual challenges.

…After a couple of years you know what works and what definitely does not work, and there are time when certain things won't work but this is when you have unforeseen circumstances, which you don't plan for, and experience comes in very handy…(Shawn)

Shawn also suggested that instead of thinking about the degree to which the school's curriculum—an aspect of school context—was meeting students' developmental needs, she would check to see if it was. If it was not, she would check for and apply new teaching texts and techniques.

From the results of my study and the examples discussed, reflection also seemed to be a tool to safeguard feelings or emotions, preserve self, and job. Above all, it helped respondents to cope with perceived contextual challenges. Birrell, Bullough, Campbell, Clark, Earle, Egan, Erickson, Hansen, Young (1999) make the point that when the teaching context presents a serious challenge to self, 'strategic defensive adaptations', or coping strategies, emerged. Coping strategies may be indirect, for example, changing the way one thought about or physically responded to the situation to reduce its impact and/or active, for example, taking some action to change oneself or the situation.

I will conclude—based on the study of Cooley and Yovanoff (1996)—that reflection can facilitate these coping strategies. In Cooley and Yovanoff's study of how to cope with perceived contextual challenges, the writers proposed a modified version of the Peer Collaboration Program described by Johnson and Pugach (1991).

Its strength was the use of reflective problem-solving interactions between two teachers about student-related problems. An overview of the process closely resembled the activities commonly employed by a reflective teacher, for example, framing the problem as promoted by (Schon 1987) and asking questions, as suggested by (Zeichner and Liston 1996).

The respondents in my study seemed to employ these kinds of coping strategies based on their use of reflection. For example, Maxwell decided not to share her lesson evaluation with all colleagues because of seemingly negative responses she had received and these seemed to have impacted her emotionally, according to Cahill (2003) and Mcgaugh (2003), given the fact that she was able to vividly recount this in the interview. According to Birrell et.al (1999), Maxwell was employing an indirect coping strategy, by changing the way she thought about or physically responded to the situation, and she was being active in her coping, in that she took a particular action to reduce the impact of the situation.

William decided to teach the lesson even though the contextual situation affected her mood negatively, but the way she taught the lesson—after reflecting on the issue—had also to do with coping. At that time, she felt it necessary to write notes on the chalkboard for the students to copy, instead of employing activities that were interactive and demanded verbal communication between the students and herself.

I will interpret the decision she took as one that protected the students from possible negative reaction that could result from her negative mood. In addition, I could also interpret her action as an act of safeguarding her job, hence herself. Here again, according to Birrell et.al (1999), William was employing an indirect

coping strategy by changing the way she physically carried out the lesson and she was being active in her coping, in that she took a particular action to reduce the impact of the situation.

As indicated in the foregoing discussion, the results of the study emphatically point to the fact that schools' contexts exerted influence. Therefore, I am of the opinion that they should be monitored to reduce the negative effect they may have on teachers and, by extension, on lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. I will also suggest that teachers should be thoroughly engaged in the monitoring process via reflection as Cole (1997) suggests, for as indicated in chapter two and in this chapter see, Calderhead (1992)-- reflection enables teachers to analyse and evaluate their own practice, school, classroom, context… and this can eventuate into school improvement.

What is required in the ever changing, demanding, and sometimes-difficult schools' contexts are teachers who employ a model of teaching which incorporates an understanding of their particular contexts, personal beliefs, practical knowledge and particular content knowledge. This model should enable them to survive the many contextual constraints and irritations and allow them to draw on knowledge to solve problems that are unique to their particular teaching situation. This model should also enable creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations and problems, which should eventuate into improved learning opportunities for students. Reflective teaching provides an excellent opportunity to achieve these.

My study also revealed the fact that respondents were able to implement ideas that emerged from the contextual challenges and influences to their beliefs,

practical knowledge, and mood, based on reflection, because of the constancy of the conceptual frameworks which governed lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation. Primarily, carrying out lesson planning is for achieving desired educational goals and for the benefit of students. The transmission of information is the reason for lesson implementation and the use of questions to get feedback on lessons is the purpose of evaluation, as suggested by Panton (1956), Court (1982), James-Reid, (1983) and Kizlik (2004).

These broad understandings offered a set template or a mental guide for the respondents. This guide allowed them to be able to use reflection to adjust the content and patterns of lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, which suit the nature of the contextual influence. Implementing adjustments to lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, based on reflection, and according to contextual influences, did not disturb the broad overall conceptual frameworks. So, if after I reflected on a challenge to my beliefs about an aspect of teaching, given the constancy of the conceptual frameworks of the areas being considered, I could decide to end a lesson with a video instead of the written work, as I had previously planned. Alternatively, I may decide to use one method or activity over another quite successfully, as long as my decisions and subsequent actions were for a purpose, would benefit students, would aid in transmitting information and could be evaluated to ascertain what and how much the students learnt. This idea is supported by Panton (1956), Court (1982), James-Reid (1983), and Kizlik (2004).

The results of my study, regarding the use of elements of reflective teaching in lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation also revealed the fact that—as I

discussed in chapter five and in the foregoing discussion—respondents exhibited degrees of reflectivity, being either 'more or less reflective' in their teaching (which was a professional disposition or attitude).

2.2 'Being more or less reflective' (a professional disposition)

I use the term 'being or become reflective' for I believe that while teachers can be trained in the use of the instruments of reflective teaching, that is, using journal logs and asking appropriate questions during lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation, it might take a long time for novice reflective teachers to develop the intuitive aspects of the practice. In other words, it might take a while for them to develop and embrace the professional intuitive attitudes associated with reflective teaching and as outlined by Haigh (2004). For example, sensitivity to factors that make particular ways of teaching more or less appropriate; willingness and the capacity to 'research' their own teaching; awareness that the choices they make concerning teaching and learning objectives and approaches are shaped by their belief about the primary purpose of education. Therefore, being or becoming a reflective teacher involves both employing the instruments of reflective teaching and developing and employing the intuitive and affective aspects of the teaching approach. See Chapter two for a list of the affective skills necessary for reflective teaching.

In addition, based on the results of the study, I will also conclude that all respondents, through a plethora of events and circumstances, such as training or a lack of training in reflective teaching, personal disposition towards reflective teaching, among others factors, emerged as being 'more or less reflective'.

The idea of viewing and discussing teachers as 'more or less reflective' is based on the premise that, firstly, all teachers can reflect as stated by Haigh (2004), for the ability to reflect is one of the defining features of being human and is essential to living a useful and successful life. Secondly, teachers have the capacity--via education and training--to develop the art of reflection and 'being more reflective' about their work and practice. However, my study pointed out that personal choice and ways of operating were potent factors in influencing what teachers' would and would not do. Based on this, I would conclude that the main barriers to becoming 'more reflective' are teachers' personal disposition as suggested by Van Manen (1995), and lack of sympathy for reflective teaching. So to refer to the results of the study, it is possible that Shawn could 'become more reflective', if she became sympathetic to learning, embracing and applying the various elements of the practice.

Also, this view of seeing teachers as being able to 'become more reflective' offers the possibility that, through education and training, seasoned teachers who have a positive disposition towards and are sympathetic to reflective teaching could improve their practice overall by examining, framing, and attempting to solve dilemmas of classroom and schools, by questioning the assumption and values they bring to teaching, attending to the institutional and cultural context in which they teach, taking part in curriculum development, being involved in school change, and taking responsibility for their own professional development, as proposed by Zeichner and Liston (1996).

My overall argument in this section is that being able and willing to apply reflection to teaching is a learnt professional disposition or attitude. Therefore,

growth, improvement and development in reflectivity, that is, the intuitive as well as the

instrumental aspects, are possible for a 'less reflective teacher'. I also see the act of

reflection and employing reflective activities as dynamic, in that they facilitate not just

improvement in practice, but also growth in understanding 'self' as teacher and 'self' in

relation to practice, as suggested by Markham (1999), Reiman (1999), and Cunningham

(2001).

2.3 Implications of the results for Teacher Education and Training

From the argument so far, I would suggest that a requirement of both pre and in-

service teacher education programmes is to prepare and enable teachers to develop their

ability to adjust lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation according to school

contextual factors. This could be achieved via the application of reflective teaching/thinking.

For Posner (1989) suggests that reflective teaching would allow them to first interpret

experiences from a fresh perspective and to act in deliberate and intentional ways to devise

new ways of teaching.

In other words, one fundamental principle of a teacher education and training

programme should be to enable teachers to address school contextual issues via reflection.

Day (1999) (p.216) seems to support this idea when he states:

> ***A necessary condition of effectiveness as a teacher is regular reflection upon the three elements that make up teaching practice; the emotional … and the conditions that affect classrooms, schools and students' learning and achievements…***

Another way to state this is that, among other things, a necessary condition of being

an effective teacher is to be able to reflect on your context. There is the need for both

student and seasoned teachers to be encouraged to reflect on the

various contexts in which teaching occurs. An understanding of the variety and nuances of teaching contexts and how they influence teaching generally, and including reflective teaching, would help to prepare teachers to adjust and function effectively. A number of writers such as Cole (1997), Van Manen (1995), and Day (1999) discuss the impact of context on reflective teaching.

Calderhead (1992) quoting Goodlad (1983), however, makes the point that frequently schools did not present an environment supportive of experimentation, innovation, and reflection. However, the consensus regarding reflecting on contexts is that doing so is necessary to being an effective teacher, a point already cited by Day (1999) in the aforementioned discussion, and one with which I am in total agreement. Van Manen (2002), addressing student teachers, aids us in understanding why this is so. He is of the opinion that student teachers typically encounter problems in the reality of the classroom, for while they are quite knowledgeable and versed in various components of teaching and learning, when they enter the classroom they sometimes become disillusioned, for what they have learnt has not prepared them well for the realties of the classroom.

I will add that given the ever-changing nature of today's classroom, it is likely that seasoned teachers also face new challenges that they might not have encountered before. As a result, they might become disillusioned because what they have learnt from experience might not be able to get them through new encounters. Hence, teachers developing the art of reflecting both 'reactively' and 'proactively' should be seen—at least— as a partial solution to this dilemma. Learning the art of reactive reflection should aid in the deconstruction of what had happened in the class by asking questions, which would reveal what had caused

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them to feel unprepared and disillusioned and then carry out proactive reflection to learn from the past situation to make adjustments for future classes, as suggested by Coyle (2002).

For what reasons should we include a study of the contexts in which teaching occurs in a programme of teacher education and training? Including this area should sensitise teachers to the functioning of schools. This includes the idea of teacher accountability, workload, understanding schools' culture, policymaking and implementation, authority and organisational relationships, bureaucratic educational systems existing outside the school, yet still influencing the school, the functioning of the school as an organisation, and how to balance these against the demands of being an effective and reflective teacher.

A study of the contexts of teaching could also encourage empathy on the part of student teachers for those who are involved with the task of administrating a school. For both seasoned and student teachers, studying this area could allow them to develop the ability to see the school's organisation as a whole, and to recognise how the various functions of the organisation depend on each other, and how changes in any part affect the others. This becomes even more relevant in the event they were required to act in an administrative role, given the nature of schooling.

2.4 Implications of the results for the local In-service Education and Training Programme

While there are in-service activities—as indicated in chapter one—and there is the draft education bill, part XIV letter H (2005), which states that every teacher has the right to reasonable access to professional training and development,

whether basic or otherwise, there is no formal written document per se that guides the in-service training programme locally. Even if there were, the recent hurricane destroyed all known ones. In addition, from comments made via informal conversation I had with officials from the Ministry of Education, there was a sense of an ad hoc approach to this aspect of teacher education and training.

Debate surrounding the draft education bill was presently being entertained, however, when it is passed into law, it would establish a place for in-service training in the education system in the Cayman Islands and concretise the fact that it must occur. However, it would not articulate the 'how' of professional training. This provides an opportunity for me to articulate a potentially useful conceptual framework as a starting point (catalyst) for further discussion in this area, based on the findings of this study.

From my study, I found the following to be pertinent elements of the teaching and learning process: students' cognitive and affective needs, administratively mandated policy, teachers' belief, practical knowledge (knowing what works), mood, and the use of questions. These were pertinent because the respondents frequently engaged with these elements. Based on these, a useful conceptual framework for the local teacher education and training programme should aim to develop teachers who are sensitive not only to the cognitive, but also to the affective needs of students, and be able to adapt administratively mandated policy to their unique context. It should also develop teachers who are able to critically examine their beliefs and practical knowledge, as a means of improving their practice. They should effectively address school contextual and other issues that trigger moods that are counter productive to the application of appropriate

lesson implementation and able to use and focus questions as a means of improving
practice

Specifically, the results of my research suggested that the local in-service teacher
education and training programme on the Islands should aid teachers in:

- Identifying and, where possible, addressing teaching situations and contextual
  obstacles (administratively decreed policies/practice) to lesson planning
  implementation, evaluation, and practice generally.

- Addressing negative moods brought on by various school contextual factors.

- Not only identifying and addressing students' cognitive or intellectual needs, but also
  their affective needs.

- Identifying and refining their personal lesson planning style, as a means of improving
  overall lesson planning.

- Engaging in voluntary collaborative teaching and learning exercises between
  colleagues.

- Accessing and examining their beliefs about teaching and how these influence the
  way they think about, plan for, implement and evaluate lessons and by so doing,
  improve practice by aiding the development of self-awareness.

- Developing the ability to question, this would include what and where to focus
  questions, that is, values, assumptions, context, and practice.

- Employing reflection-on-action as they evaluate lessons and students, to be
  deliberate about evaluation, that is, being clear about the purpose and the

means of measurement applied to evaluation. Also, to effectively engage students at all levels and grades in the evaluation process.

♦ Accessing pre-prepared lesson plans on the World Wide Web and how to assess and modify these for their context and use

3. General recommendation (A planning day)

While the literature reviewed in previous chapters provided some worthwhile solutions to the issue of teachers' workload and its impact on lesson planning, the respondents, quite strongly and with great emotion, spoke about the need for a lesson-planning day. The literature also supports the introduction of such a day—see, for example, Boatwright (2004) and Golden Plain School Division (2004). The respondents also recommended that it could occur once per month or per term. In light of this, I would encourage the establishment of such a day locally. There are, however, some questions regarding its institution, such as, what would be required to get a planning day instituted locally? When would be an appropriate time for this occasion? What form would this take? What activities would be included, who chooses the activities, how and who would organise the day and activities? What would be the role of the various stakeholders for example, teachers, parents, students and government? What policies and framework need to be in place to guide its implementation?

4. Limitations of the study

When considering my study and its contributions, the following limitations must be borne in mind. Primarily, the study's aim was to understand and not to explain, for without the controlled conditions of the laboratory, conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships would not be valid and, hence were not drawn. In

addition, it was not my intention to do so, as I indicated in chapter three. Therefore, I gave

descriptions of behaviours, events, and situations, and not explanations.

The study focused on Lesson Planning, Implementation, Evaluation, and elements

of reflective teaching that were complex and could, individually, form the basis of the entire

study. In this study, these complex areas have been examined from a narrow empirical

perspective, that is, four respondents and my own. However, given the set period I had to

work within and my limited financial resources, this narrow focus made the study both

manageable and achievable.

Readers might want to consider that the study of more than one case could cause a

lack of depth in any single case and might dilute the overall analysis, as purported by

Creswell (1998).

Since the study relied on self-reports and descriptive information, respondents had

to rely on memory recollections of past events or situations. This provided room for

important details to be left out, withheld, and subjected to the problems inherent to memory

such as memory loss and distortion. Because of these factors, the data presented were a

reflection of what the respondents remembered, chose to disclose, and what information

was available from the documents used in the research. The results, therefore, were also

not necessarily full and complete accounts of each event or situation the respondent

recounted. In addition, it was not within the scope of the study to corroborate accounts of

events or situations described by the respondents.

Clegg (1990) states that an aim underlying almost all-scientific investigation was that

the findings be applicable from the specific to the general. By looking for similarities and

differences between the respondents, I was able to make relatively

general statements regarding the four respondents' understanding of the areas being researched. However, given the nature of the research I engaged in, large-scale generalisation was neither appropriate nor was it the outcome I sought. However, while this study provided findings that might be similarly obtained from like groups and situations elsewhere, and sufficient details of the research context, data collection, and analysis provided, I would leave my readers to make their own judgments about transferability to other settings.

5.   Final Reflexive and Reflective Commentary

In this reflexive and reflective commentary, I clarify words and phrases used in the study, reflect on 'self' as researcher, and summarize what was actually achieved. The need for clarification at this stage of the report, suggests that my thinking has continued after the writing of the actual report.

The contextual origin of this study must be borne in mind when one reads and interprets the work, for the use of certain words and phrases have specific connotation in the context of the Cayman Islands. For example, in the study I claim that the data was not of a 'sensitive nature' that would cause the respondents to be untruthful in answering questions. Within the local context, this phrase would normally be used for more personal, indeed intimate contexts, including sexual or socially unacceptable behaviours such as incest or promiscuity or alcoholism. Such a term would not be used with reference to teachers' personalisation of their teaching.

This is not to make the point that the respondents did not take their teaching personally, but to highlight my thinking which under girded this study and the fact that the study is about teaching in the Cayman Islands and the impact of local and

national factors on teaching and teachers. It is now clear to me that there is a 'social reality' called the Cayman Islands where people act and do things in similar as well as different ways. As a critical realist I have accepted the fact that my thinking about, and interpretation of this 'social reality' is just my own. It is therefore fallible and represents only one possible explanation (Balihar 2004). However, the way I have defined the phrase 'sensitive issues', speaks to the fact that this reality has indeed influenced my thinking.

This explanation also suggests that I occupied an insider's position as I engaged with the research, for I was able to define these terms using examples that are locally relevant. This insider's position did not negatively impact the data collected but enriched it, for respondents were willing to provide information that facilitated 'thick description'.

The use of the phrase 'practically adequate' in the study can be problematic, for earlier in the research, one of the teachers thought it had to do with the practical nature of teaching. However, the term carries with it philosophic overtones and is not intended to mean that the account I produced of the respondents' engagement with reflection and reflective teaching is substandard or marginal or has anything to do with the practicalities of teaching. As explained in earlier chapters, the account should be logical, believable and understandable. This means that when my account is thought of, in light of the practice of teaching and reflective teaching, as posited by literature, readers of my research must be able to believe the account. The account should also be logical and understandable to them, as promoted by Sayer (1992). In other words, the account must be 'true'. Sayer coined the phrase, 'practically adequate' as a substitute for the word 'truth' for he identified the present

difficulties at arriving at a consensus regarding 'what is truth' as well as acknowledging that

is not easy to fine good substitutes for the term.

Other concepts and words that I also introduced in the study are: understanding,

'more or less' reflective teaching, and descriptive account versus explanatory account. In

the study, the word 'understanding' was used to denote my need to gain insight or to see

clearly how the respondents used reflection and elements of reflective teaching in their

lesson planning, implementation and evaluation. As a critical realist this is very important

because gaining insight about a reality involves both engaging in the reality as well as

asking those who are involved with the reality. An understanding of any reality is connected

to human cognition but not dependent on human cognition (Johnson and Duberley 2002).

This seeking for understanding through qualitative research is often associated with the

production of an account that emphasizes description. However, description and

explanation are not mutually exclusive categories, and so my account is also to some

extent explanatory, without resorting to assertions of 'causality'. This is consistent with my

adoption of a critical realist stance. Given the fact that there are numerous mechanisms

operating that could cause teachers to respond in different ways to different aspects of

teaching reflectively, and without the benefit of a controlled environment, for example a

laboratory, explaining what caused certain situations becomes a problematic and difficult

task. However, as I indicated in Chapter 3, while it was not my focus to explain but to

describe, elements of 'cause and effect' were evident in the data collected and this would

seem to suggest the existence of certain relationships.

The phrase 'more or less reflective' is a matter of frequency and consistency and not to be associated with effective teaching or the idea that that 'more reflective' is better than 'less reflective'. What it really means is, 'more reflective' respondents employed consistently and frequently, elements of reflective teaching and 'less reflective' respondents may only employ one element of reflective teaching as indicated in previous chapters.

Having reflected and given some clarification of words and phrases used there is the need to further position myself in the study. While this has been attempted throughout the report carrying out this task here will help to further give some account of myself as a reflective practitioner.

I heard the following quotations on a number of occasions, **'the only thing constant— apart from God—is change',** and another is**, 'the mark of an intelligent man or woman is one who has the ability to change'.**

My career path involves many changes. I started out as a Secondary Music teacher and then added history teaching by completing a post graduate diploma in education and religious studies by enrolling in a local theological seminary in the Island of Jamaica where I lived for a number of years. I later relocated to the Cayman Islands. After a number of years teaching Music and History at the both the primary and secondary levels in Jamaica and the Cayman Islands, I accepted a post with a local church. This involved teaching, administrative activities and Pastoral care. Recently, I took on the role of Acting Dean of a local theological seminary in the Cayman Islands.

A monumental personal change occurred when I was introduced to the concept of reflection and reflective teaching while studying with the University of

Nottingham and my subsequent study of these areas leading to my doctoral thesis. As a result of this encounter, I am personally more reflective about my work and encourage students under my supervision to engage in reflective activities. As a higher education administrator in the Caribbean I am an advocate for reflection and the fact that it is a useful tool in enabling students to function effectively in rapidly changing work contexts. I also believe that   becoming reflective practitioners will enable them to cope with changes, as well as adopting the stance of a reflective agent of change.

I quickly realised as I engaged with the research process that I was once again experiencing change as my understanding of the research process developed. Hurricane Ivan that devastated the Cayman Islands during the time of my research study taught me that I needed to be more reflective, flexible and willing to make changes that would facilitate the successful completion of my research. For example, I had to find alternative sources of data, that is respondents, for those on whom I was depending to provide data had left the Island, and schools were badly damaged. This experience also contributed to my sense of being an 'insider' as I indicated in the foregoing discussion. The insider's experience was also displayed in the fact that one respondent and I shared meals, water and other necessary amenities in the aftermath of the hurricane. During this period I was in close contact with the other respondents enquiring about their well being. In addition, as a critical realist researcher, whilst accepting the objective reality of the hurricane as a real world event, I recognise that such an 'event' has multiple meanings among those affected, including myself as a researcher, and the teachers with whom I was hoping to work at that time.

Another aspect of change I experienced involved grappling with the area of the study's methodology. I had to 'put off' my positivistic tendencies and learn what it meant to be a critical realist researcher and the implication of this for the study I had embarked on. I also brought pre-understandings to the research process based on my positivistic past. For example, when I began the research it became apparent that I believed in a formulaic approach, where my own interest was the focus and that research should be carried out in a set and predictable way.

When I asked another research student how he was getting on with his dissertation, his comment was, 'my content page changes constantly', I too found that my content page was in a constant state of change. This, too, I attributed to the development in my understanding of the research process.

Looking specifically at the study, the aim was to understand lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation—from the perspective of four seasoned teachers working in the Cayman Islands—and their use of elements of reflective teaching in these areas. This aim was achieved. See the section entitled 'major lessons learnt' in this chapter. In addition, the account given was also believable, logical, and understandable, hence, practically adequate, as promoted by Sayer (1992). The study highlighted the fact that teachers' mood is a dependent variable with the power to influence lesson implementation, and that they do engage in covert behaviours regarding administratively decreed policies.

The study also confirmed some pre-existing theories regarding reflective teaching. This included the fact that reflection was a useful tool for understanding and utilising the relationship between teaching context, teachers' personal and professional disposition, and their lesson planning, implementation, and evaluation.

It also confirmed and displayed the role of reflection in the relationship between teachers' practical knowledge and belief. In addition, it confirmed the fact that teachers were 'more or less reflective' in their teaching, and I argued that with training and an amicable disposition toward reflective teaching, 'less reflective teachers' can become 'more reflective'.

6.   Avenue for further work

Further research is possible in a number of areas. These issues could form the basis of a number of case studies. First, there is the need to examine 'Teacher and the affective needs of students'. The aim would be to identify and define the affective needs of students from the perspective of both teachers and students, and identify similarities and differences in perspective, consider what method/s has/have been developed for identifying and addressing student-specific affective needs. Further research should also consider the role of colleagues, school culture, and education system in addressing students' affective needs, and possible weaknesses and strengths in seasoned teachers in addressing 'the affective' in lesson planning implementation and evaluation. In addition, it should also consider the nature and kinds of training that are available to teachers in carrying out this task.

Second, there is also the need for an examination of administratively decreed policy or practice of schools and or the education system under the heading of Government control and how teachers respond to mandated policies and practice. Questions could include the following: what level of compliance does government demand? What level of covert resistance exists? The impact of these covert resistances on student' learning (if any), and what subtle changes result

from seemingly subversive actions taken by teachers in response to these decrees?

Another avenue for further study could involve looking specifically at the local contextual and personal/professional factors such as the role of colleagues and how they influence teachers' employment of elements of reflective teaching and teachers' mood. This idea comes into focus when I consider that when asked about employing a collaborative element in their teaching, respondents raised the issue of colleagues and their impact on teaching reflectively. As Maxwell indicated--that in her quest to get students actively involved with learning--colleagues would comment *'oh you try to do too much (Maxwell)'.* The works of Cole (1997) and Markham (1999) are of particular interest in this regard. The aim would be to isolate the contextual and or personal and professional factors existing in a single school, or a number of schools, that were influencing negatively the use of reflective teaching and teachers' mood.

Appendices

Appendix 1
(Copy of Interview schedule)

Understanding Seasoned Teachers' Lesson Planning Implementation and Evaluation and the place of reflection in and on action in there areas

(Interview schedule)

Time of the interview_____

Place_____

Date_____

School name_____

Position of the interviewee_____

Thank you for taking time to participate in this interview. My name is Mark Minott I am a student with the University of Nottingham, School of Education in the U.K. As part of my final project I am investigating the lesson planning, implementation and evaluation practices of seasoned teachers in the Cayman Islands. I want you to know that you can stop this interview at any time or even now, refuse to participate without any ill feeling. If you choose to proceed, the interview should last for 30--45 minutes. Once again thanks for your cooperation.

A. Where teachers plan

(Questions: A1 & A2   should reveal: where teachers plan and factors aiding in determining the choice of planning venue)

> **A1.**   Where do you carry out your lesson planning?

_____

_____

> **A2.**   Why do you plan at…? **Ask this if it was not highlighted or inferred in A1- check for teachers' workload as a factor determining place for planning**

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

B. What influences teachers lesson planning

(Questions: B1 & B2   should reveal: factors influencing actual lesson planning and how they act in influencing)

B1.   Which factors influence you in your lesson planning? **(Give interviewees sheet with Items 1-9 to look at and priotrise these and others they might suggest. #1 being very Influential # 2 influential #3 somewhat influential #4 least influential**

1. Students' learning needs **[   ]**
2. Subject matter **[   ]**
3. Available space in the classroom **[   ]**
4. Administrative support **[   ]**
5. Available computers **[   ]**
6. Your belief about teaching **[   ]**
7. Your practical knowledge i.e. what you know about teaching, the school, and the students to be taught **[   ]**
8. The availability of certain school facilities such as the auditorium **[   ]**
9. Other**[   ]** Please Specify_____
    _____

B2.   Please tell me how the ones your graded **# 1---4** influence you in lesson planning?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

C. How teachers plan

Planning period

C1. What kind of planning is encouraged in your school?

1. **Long-term:**   Yearly **[   ]**   six months **[   ]**   three months **[   ]**   Other **[   ]**_____
2. **Short-term:**   A lesson **[   ]**   A week   **[   ]**   A month **[   ]**   Other **[   ]**_____

Forms of Planning

C2. What form does your planning take?

1. Make a mental outline **[   ]**
2. Write an outline **[   ]**
3. Write a detail outline **[   ]**
4. Other **[   ]** Please specify _____

C3. Can you say why you plan this way?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Basis for planning

C4. What do you use to aid your planning? **(Give interviewees sheet with Items 1-8 to look at and prioritise these and others they might suggest. #1 very frequent, #2 Frequent #3 some what frequent #4 least used**

1. National curriculum **[   ]**
2. School curriculum **[   ]**
3. Text books **[   ]**
4. Teacher's guide for the textbook **[   ]**
5. Colleagues **[   ]**
6. Background material **[   ]**
7. Previous lesson plans
8. Others [   ] Please
   specify_____

_____
_____

C5. Why do you use (1,2,3,4) to aid your planning?

_____

_____
_____
_____
_____

<u>Steps in Planning (Planning Model)</u>

> **C6.** Look at the following lesson planning outline, **(give interviewee separate sheet with this)**
>   tell me if this is the <u>main way</u> you approach your lesson planning ?

Yes **[   ]**   No **[   ]**

If yes Why?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

If No Please explain how your planning differ

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

<u>Content of the Plan</u>

> C7.   Do you plan activities that <u>introduce</u> students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject you are teaching, For example, if you are teaching history, do you teach students how to question primary and secondary sources, or distinguish between fact and opinion? **If interviewee answers (Yes) to this question probe for frequency, and whether or not it is their practice to engage in the process and why? If (No) then ask why not.**

_____
_____
_____
_____

_____
_____
_____
_____

(Questions: C8-13 should reveal: How and if, teachers use reflection-on-action during planning and the extent of this use) **If interviewee answer (Yes) to these questions, probe for frequency, and whether or not it is their practice to engage in the processes and why? If (No) then ask why not.**

C8. Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons?

_____
_____
_____
_____

C9. Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? **(Maslow's hierarchy of needs)**

_____
_____
_____
_____

C10. Do you go over your lesson plans looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson?

_____
_____
_____
_____

C11.   Have you considered the degree to which lessons you plan display your assumptions, values and beliefs about teaching?

_____
_____
_____
_____

C12.   During your planning do you think about your school layout and the extent to which it influences your choice of student activities?

_____
_____
_____
_____

C13. Do you discuss your lesson plans with your colleagues?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

C14. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you plan?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

D. Lesson implementation practice

Question: D1- 2 should reveal: How teachers implement lessons + ask teachers if they were willing to give you a copy of the lesson to which they reference for this section so as to see what was planned and what actually happened)

D1. Think about a class you recently taught, please <u>outline the steps</u> you took as you taught that class? For example you started by helping the students to recall information from a previous lesson then you carried out a short activity that focused their attention…etc

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

_____
_____
_____

D2. Do you carry out all your lessons this way?

Yes **[   ]** No **[   ]**

If **No**, how would other lessons differ

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

(Question: D3- 4 should reveal: how and if, teachers use reflection-in-action and the extent of its use)
If interviewee answers (Yes) to this question probe for frequency, and whether or not it is their practice to engage in this process why. If (No) then ask why not.

D3. During a single lesson, do you make <u>unplanned</u> changes, for example, changes to the <u>subject matter being taught or learning activities</u> according to situations you encounter?

_____
_____
_____
_____

D4. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you implement lessons?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

E. How teachers evaluate lessons

E1. _When do you evaluate your lessons? (Ask this if it was not inferred or referred to earlier)_

_____

E2. What form does your lesson evaluation take? **(Mental notes, written notes…)**

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_____

> **E3.** Why do you evaluate your lesson? **(Ask this if it was not inferred or referred to earlier)**

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

> **E4. List for me the areas of lessons that you evaluate, for example, students' learning, teachers**

_____
_____
_____
_____

> **E5. Outline for me the actual steps you go through when evaluating lessons? For example you look to see if your objective were achieved and the degree to which they where, then you look at students responses to various activities, then your actions during the lesson… etc**

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

(Question: E 6-8 should reveal: how and if, teachers use reflection-on-action and the extent of its use)
If interviewee answers (Yes) to this question probe for frequency, and whether or not it is their practice to engage in this process and why. If (No) then ask why not.

> **E6. Do you question the way you go about evaluating your lessons?**

_____
_____
_____
_____

> ***E7.*** *Have you considered the degree to which your assumptions, values and beliefs about teaching* Influence how you evaluate your lessons?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

E8. Do you discuss your evaluations of lessons with your colleagues?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

E9. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you evaluate your lessons?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank the individual for participating in the interview assuring him or her of confidentiality of responses and potential future interviews

Appendix 2

1. Students' learning needs [   ]
2. Subject matter [   ]
3. Available space in the classroom [   ]
4. Administrative support [   ]
5. Available computers [   ]
6. Your belief about teaching [   ]
7. Your practical knowledge i.e. what you know about teaching, the school, and the students to be taught [   ]
8. The availability of certain school facilities such as the auditorium [   ]
9. Others [   ] please specify

Appendix 3

1. National curriculum **[ ]**
2. School curriculum
3. Text books **[   ]**
4. Teacher's guide for the textbook **[   ]**
5. Colleagues **[ ]**
6. Background material **[ ]**
7. Previous lesson plans
8. Other [ ] Please specify

Appendix 4

1. Formulate objectives

2. Choose appropriate learning activities

3. Sequence these activities

4. Select an appropriate evaluation procedure.

Understanding Seasoned Teachers' Lesson PlanningImplementation and Evaluation Practices and the place of reflection in and on action in their practices

(Interview Summary sheet)

Name
Position and School
Date

A. Where teachers' plan

A1.   Where do you carry out your lesson planning?

A2.   Why do you plan at...?

B. What influences teachers' lesson planning

B1. Which factors influence you in your lesson planning?

B2.   Please tell me how the ones your graded **# 1---4** influence you in lesson planning?

C. How teachers' plan

Planning period

C1. What kind of planning is encouraged in your school?

Form of Planning

C2. What form does your planning take?

C3. Can you say why you plan this way?

Basis for planning

C4. What do you use to aid your planning?

C5. Why do you use (1,2,3,4) to aid your planning?

Steps in Planning (Planning Model)

C6. Look at the following lesson planning outline…tell me if this is the <u>main way</u> you approach your lesson planning ?

Content of the Plan

C7. **Do you plan activities that <u>introduce</u> students to the skills and attitudes unique to the subject you are teaching, For example, if you are teaching history, do you teach students how to question primary and secondary sources, or distinguish between fact and opinion?**

<u>How and if, teachers use reflection-on-action during planning and the extent of this use</u>

C8. Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons?

C9. Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? **(Maslow's hierarchy of needs)**

C10. Do you go over your lesson plans looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson?

C11. Have you considered the degree to which lessons you plan display your assumptions, values and beliefs about teaching?

C12.   During your planning do you think about your school layout and the extent to which it influences your choice of student activities?

C13. Do you discuss your lesson plans with your colleagues?

C14. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you plan?

D. Lesson implementation practice

<u>How teachers implement lessons</u>

D1. Think about a class you recently taught, please <u>outline the steps</u> you took as you taught that class?

D2. Do you carry out all your lessons this way?

<u>How and if, teachers use reflection-in-action and the extent of its use)</u>

D3. During a single lesson, do you make <u>unplanned</u> changes, for example, changes to the <u>subject matter being taught or learning activities</u> according to situations you encounter?

D4. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you implement lessons?

E. How teachers evaluate lessons

E1. <u>When</u> do you evaluate your lessons?

E2. What form does your lesson evaluation take?

E3. Why do you evaluate your lesson?

E4. List for me the areas of lessons that you evaluate, for example, students' learning, teachers actions etc

E5. Outline for me the actual steps you go through when evaluating lessons?

How and if, teachers use reflection-on-action and the extent of its use)

E6. Do you question the way you go about evaluating your lessons?

E7. Have you considered the degree to which your assumptions, values and beliefs about teaching Influence how you evaluate your lessons?

E8. Do you discuss your evaluations of lessons with your colleagues?

E9. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you evaluate your lessons?

Appendix 6

Participants' profile

Maxwell is a Junior high school teacher of Social studies, History and Religious Education with over twenty-five years teaching experience. She has been teaching in the Cayman Islands for over twelve years. She did her initial teacher education and training in the Island of Jamaica where she previously taught for fourteen years before immigrating to the Cayman Islands. She holds a Bachelors degree in Arts and Social science and a Teachers' college Diploma.

Shawn is a High school teacher of Spanish with over twenty years teaching experience. She has been teaching in the Cayman Islands for over fourteen years. She did most of her initial teacher education and training in the Island of Jamaica and the country of Venezuela. She taught for fourteen years in Jamaica before immigrating to the Cayman Islands. She holds a Bachelors degree in Spanish, Postgraduate Diploma in education and a Diploma in Spanish

William is a primary school teacher with over twenty years of teaching experience She has been teaching in the Cayman Islands for over thirteen years. She did all her initial teacher education and training in the Island of Trinidad where she previously taught for nine years before immigrating to the Cayman Islands. She holds a teacher Diploma and is yet to complete a Bachelor's degree in Reading she had begun.

Louis is a High school teacher of Art and Design with over twenty-five years of teaching experience both in junior and senior high schools in the Cayman Islands. She did her initial teacher education and training in Jamaica and further training in the Cayman Islands and the United States of America. She taught in Jamaica for two year before immigrating to the Cayman Islands. She holds a Master's Degree in Education, Master's Degree in Business Education, Bachelor's Degree in Special Education, Diploma in Art and a Certificate in education.

Appendix 7

Social Studies

Time : 70 minutes
Class: Grade 7
Topic : Tropical rain forest

Objectives: students will
- ➢ learn about some plants and animals that live in the Tropical Rainforest
- ➢ identify features that some animals have developed to adapt to living in different parts of the Tropical rainforest

Skills: listening, categorizing, listing, computer skills
Resources: Wall map, toy bird with sound , television,
Videocassette Amazonia, Work sheet, computers

Lesson Out line
- ➢ Introduce lesson by squeaking toy bird (Toucan) and question students where such a bird can be found.. Use wall map to review location of tropical rainforest then outline to students the objectives of the lesson.
- ➢ Time students to work in pairs and list at least ten plants and animals that live in the Tropical rainforest.
- ➢ Reward those who complete a correct list within the time with a sticker
- ➢ Have students watch video presentation " **Amazonia** " to find out how some plants and animals adapt to living in the Tropical Rainforest. Students will make notes in point form for discussion
- ➢ At the end of video presentation have students share with the class the animals they observed and discuss the special features that each developed to survive,

Evaluation; Students will be given worksheet based on video presentation to complete table categorizing some plants and animals and the special features they have adapted.

Homework: Students will be given a project to imagine they were the purchasing Manger for Cardinal 'D Zoo in Grand Cayman. They need to identify five tropical rainforest animals that they would like to buy for the zoo. Present their findings as a power point presentation to the Zoo committee convincing them to purchase these animals. (Include picture, special features, habitat, diet and any other relevant information)

Appendix 8

ART AND DESIGN DEPARTMENT UNIT PLAN SHEET 1
UNIT TITLE. Illusion of Space
SUBJECT: Explore **SPACE** in art
TIME: This unit is expected to take 30 hours over 6 weeks

UNIT OBJECTIVES:

- To develop awareness of SPACE using examples around us and examples from other artists both historical and contemporary
- To introduce Value and Space and to express Depth
- To introduce Size, overlapping, Vertical Location, Aerial Perspective and Equivocal space
- To introduce examples of paintings
- To produce a final piece containing all of these elements

EXPECTATIONS:

At the end of the unit most pupils will have completed the following:
Explored Space in Art and have a clearer understanding of what it is.
Produced a piece of work showing illusion of space and depth in art
Coloured this, showing some understanding of the illusion of space and the effects of colours.
Choosing colours to emphasize Overlap.
Produced a piece of 2 point perspective based on local architecture
Developed this into a composition showing some understanding of perspective,
Painted this is water colours demonstrating single watercolor technique

At the end of the unit Some pupils will have progressed further and will have also exhibit some understanding of BALANCE
Manipulated techniques and information to produce an original response to the work.
Achieved a higher quality of control over the media, to produce a more developed final piece.

At the end of the unit some pupils will not have made much progress, but will have; created a piece of work showing an understanding of perspective and how objects affect each other in space.

Produced a piece of work (collage) showing depth
Explored negative and positive space and have a clearer understanding of what space is.
Coloured this showing some understanding of distance in relation to light (fading) and shadow
Developed this into a composition showing some understanding of 2 point and 3 point perspective

ART AND DESIGN DEPARTMENT UNIT PLAN SHEET 2

UNIT TITLE. Illusion of Space

ACTIVITIES:

- Produce a simple exercise show overlaps
- Begin to use colour (coloured pencils) to show depth and colour combination
- Produce a drawing of a house in one, two or three point perspective.
- Introduce the basic elements of a picture showing foreground, middle-ground and background
- Make a picture, combining the above elements
- Demonstrate painting techniques.
- Finish a painting/montage for critique at the end of six weeks

SKILLS DEVELOPED:

Observation, imagination, research, selection group work, individual work, problem solving, drawing, painting, collage, printing. Line, shape, form, colour, tone compostion perspecrive

RESOURCES: Library, Slides, handouts, worksheets, students work, Books Video

MATERIALS

Pencils, paper, scissors, glue, colour pencils, erasers, oil pastel, chalk pastel, crayons pen, ink, airbrush, water based paints, acrylics, gouache, brushes

UNIT DEVELOPMENT:

This unit could be developed into some of the following schemes:

- Imaginative compositions
- Observation drawing around school

UNIT TITLE.   Perspective
SUBJECT: Explore perspective in art
TIME: This unit is expected to take 10 hours over 10 weeks

UNIT OBJECTIVES:

- To develop awareness of perspective using examples around us and examples from other artists both historical and contemporary
- To introduce 1 and 2 point perspective
- To introduce atmospheric perspective and composition
- To introduce examples in paintings
- To produce a painting containing all of these elements

EXPECTATIONS:

At the end of the unit most pupils will have completed the following:
Explored perspective in Art and have a clearer understanding of what it is.
Produced a piece of I point perspective work
Coloured this, showing some understanding of fading colour with distance.
Choosing colours to emphasize 3 dimensional shapes. Choosing groups of hot or cold colours
Produced a piece of 2 point perspective based on local architecture
Developed this into a composition, showing some understanding of background, middle ground and foreground. Using good imagination to include overlapping and drawn them into the picture
Painted this is water colours demonstrating single watercolor technique

At the end of the unit Some pupils will have progressed further and will have also:
Manipulated techniques and information to produce an original response to the work.
Achieved a higher quality of control over the media, to produce a more developed final piece creating realism using atmospheric perspective as well as overlapping.

At the end of the unit some pupils will not have made much progress, but will have:
Explored perspective and have a clearer understanding of what it is.
Produce a piece of 1 point perspective work
Coloured this showing some understanding of fading colour with distance..
Produced a 2 point perspective based on local architecture
Developed this into a composition showing some understanding of background, middle ground and foreground.
Painted this in water colour demonstrating water colour technique

ART AND DESIGN DEPARTMENT UNIT PLAN SHEET 2
UNIT TITLE. Perspective

ACTIVITIES:

- Produce a simple exercise in 1 point perspective
- Begin to use colour to show depth using colour pencils
- Produce a drawing of a house in 2- point perspective.
- Introduce the basic elements of a picture showing foreground, middle-ground and background
- Make a painting using all of the above elements
- Demonstrate watercolour technique.
- Finish a painting in watercolour by the end of 10 weeks

SKILLS DEVELOPED:

Line, shape, form, colour, tone composition perspective

RESOURCES:
Library, Slides, handouts, worksheets, students work

MATERIALS
Drawing materials, Watercolour paints, Colour Pencils

UNIT DEVELOPMENT:

This unit could be developed into some of the following schemes:
- Imaginative compositions e.g. 'A view down' ' Fire, fire'
- Perspective compositions based on interiors e.g. Van Gough's' bedroom, Vermeer's interiors (tiled floors, windows)
- Observation drawing around school showing examples of perspective

Appendix 9
(Evaluation Rubric)

Research and present complete information on one of the following explorers after Columbus: Cortes, Pizarro, Cartier, Hudson, Davis, Balboa. Make sure you include country the explorer is from and sailed for, date he sailed, and aim of the voyage, area explored and the results or importance of the voyage

	Poor (1)	Improvement needed (2)	Average (3)	Good (4)	Excellent (5)	Score
1.Profile of explorer 2. Aim/Area explored 3. Outline of voyage 4. Journey 5. results/importance	Fails to gather relevant essential information	Gathers limited relevant, accurate Information and few facts	Gathers sufficient, relevant, accurate information	Includes essential relevant, accurate information	Covers topic completely and in depth, Gathers alot of relevant, accurate information	20
Communication	Has difficulty communicating ideas clearly and effectively	Communicates few ideas clearly and effectively	Communicates sufficient ideas clearly and effectively	Communicates ideas clearly and effectively	Communicates ideas clearly and effectively	/5
Visual aid; use, variety creativity, (maps, pictures, diagrams, drawings)	Very little or no use of visuals	Limited use of visual aid. Lack variety	Some use of visual aid	Adequate uses various visuals aid	Effectively uses various visual aids	/5
Organization (table of contents, introduction, bibliography, page, font)	Fail to include any aspect of organization	Display poor organization. Only one aspect shown	Displays few areas of organization	Display some aspect of organization	Project is excellently organized	/5
Use of Knowledge	Little or no understanding of content, fail to answer questions accurately	Partial understanding answers few question accurately	Adequate understanding. Answer some questions accurately	Good understanding, fail to answer few questions accurately	Thorough understanding of content Answer questions accurately	/5
Total						40

Scale: A= 33-40   B=28-32   C= 20-27   D= 16-19   E=1-15

Appendix 10

A sample of the process of finding the essence of the responses and
Identifying categories from a within-case analysis

William's understanding of lesson planning practices and the use of reflection-on-action in this area

William's views on lesson planning

Ninety percent of William's lesson planning takes places at school with the other ten percent at home. The availability of planning resources in school dictates that she plans at school. As she said, *'All the resources that you need, I have all my books that I need they are on my shelf at school so there is where I do it' (William)*

Essence: where she plans, and available planning resources at school

| Mechanics (M). |
| Teaching Context (TC) |
| (Planning resource) |

The development of students' knowledge via the teaching of subject matter is a focus of William's lesson plans. The process of putting together a lesson is directed by students' need.

*'I look at what they know about, what they interested in as regards to the topic then I might try to differentiate the instruction in term of abilities and so on, sometimes I may not agree with the subject matter so I would put in **what I know about teaching and what they are to be taught**, that I manage to sneak it in there, I have to think about how the students' learn…(William)*

Essence: students and students' knowledge

| Students (S) |

William participates in short term lesson planning normally on a weekly basis. Plans are prepared by individual teachers and if a new topic is to be taught that she carries out a detail written outline.

'If it is a new topic, if it really new, I am going to teach it's detailed down to the questions I am going to ask and everything, I am a visual learner, so when I write becomes extremely clear, I still write anyway even if it is not a new topic, I can't visualize it [a plan] in my head [mental planning]. (William)

| Mechanics (M) |

Essence: How she plans

From the above except, William's lesson planning is influenced by her learning style. In the past this was more pronounced, but by engaging with research she has managed to include activities in her plans that is appropriate to students with diverse learning styles.

*'That's my learning style, I am a visual learner; my learning style use to impact my teaching style a lot, but now that there is more **inter-brain research**, we are still discovering that children are visual and auditory learner, but then we leave out all the others… Now I try to engage all the learning styles, by using activities that will engage as many learning styles as I can (William)* According to William, research on the brain, would suggest the need for her to be more practical and hand-on and do less talking during her classes. Given the fact research in that area suggest that a child attention span is their age.

Essence: students' learning

Students (S)

William's reliance on research and reading and the use of the Internet to aid in lesson planning emerges when she has to teach a subject with which she is unfamiliar.

Thank God for the Internet, I use it for those subjects that I don't have a lot of knowledge about, certain subject like, science and social studies, that I don't have a lot of knowledge about I get on the 'net' to understand basic concepts then I can apply this to my lesson, I try not to 'wing it' for I realize that with children, when you tell them things, if you don't give them the right knowledge, for sometime [after saying something to them] I have to go back and say' that is not what I meant, so you have to be careful that you give them the ideas that you want them to know.

Essence: The Internet as planning resources, concern for students' Knowledge

Mechanics (M)

Students (S)

William's response to the question of what she uses to aid her lesson planning display the fact that those in authority administratively decree the use of the national curriculum as the primary aid to lesson planning.

'This basically guides what I'm going to teach, that's what is mandated to teach at the end of the year they are suppose to know this, this, this, this, so we have to follow the national curriculum we have no choice that is what we have to do, so that definitely I do,' (William)

Essence: National curriculum dictates what is to be taught

Teaching Context (TC)
(Policy/ practice)

Appendix 11
(Focusing the within case analysis)

C. How teachers plan
If and how, teachers use reflection-on-action during planning and the extent of this use

(MAXWELL)

C8. Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons?

Yes- over the years, I have done different ways [of planning], I share with colleagues to say ' this is what I did what do you do 'asking what do they do, for I am always looking for best practices. **(Collaboration/evaluation)**

(SHAWN)

C8. Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons?

No- if it aint broke don't fix it, it works, after a couple of year you know what works and what definitely does not work, and there are time when certain thing wont' work but this is when you have unforeseen circumstances, which you don't plan for, and experience comes in very handy where you can quickly switch**, (Link to D3)**

(WILLIAM)
C8. Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons?
No: with all the reading that I am doing, the things I learn in college is a bit, 'passy' now, I do my reading and   I try to make sense of all the new things that are happening now and I might plan it that way in steady**. (In some sense this is till questioning or thinking about lesson planning)**

(LOUIS)
C8. Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons?
No- I guess because it has worked most of the time, the times when it does not work, what is questions is not how you plan it but what can I do to make it better what do I have to leave out for this to work better, what do I have to put in, researcher**: But you do question**, yes the content but not how the planning is done

(MAXWELL)

C9. Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? (Maslow's hierarchy of needs)
Yes-not only question it but have been a part of the national curriculum team, we [national curriculum team] have come up with a new curriculum base on **questioning**, over the first years I came [to the island or to the team?], the curriculum is now more relevant to our kids, their needs, age appropriate and their experience, this curriculum keeps Cayman at the center [of the curriculum] there is continuous assessment of the curriculum for teachers send their input to the department of Education-- how they thought – after teaching it [curriculum] for a year or so—it could be improved

(SHAWN)
C9. Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? (Maslow's hierarchy of needs)
Yes- you have to keep abreast with teaching technique, what is current, and what is revisiting.

(WILLIAM)

C9. Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? (Maslow's hierarchy of needs)

Yes: Now I think about it a lot, you teach them things and you wander,' why am I teaching them about active and passive voice or [she gave another example] sometime genuine life really is not reflected in the curriculum nor what the student really needs to exist in real life.

(LOUIS)

C9. Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? (Maslow's hierarchy of needs)

Yes- I wonder a lot why to a certain extent we stick to the defined areas, I know why, but I have questioned that a couple of time, (She gave an example) of her questioning by highlight area in her subject that she thought kids should really do well at and would really enjoy but they were not included in the areas for study for examine. Things that might be helpful to students are not looked at in great detail because they are not included in international examination that the student will sit.

Appendix 12
(Similarities and Differences in Responses)

Lesson planning and reflection-on-action **Similarities**	Lesson planning and reflection-on-action **Differences**
C8. Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons? • Yes, the content and how to improve it (L) • Yes, But not consciously, and only in relation to lesson • lanning taught in college (W) • Yes, by so doing use multi ways of planning, collaboration/ sharing of thought with colleagues (M) **C9.Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? (Maslow's hierarchy of needs)** • Yes, to the extent of joining the national curriculum planning team (M) • Yes, the need to follow an internationally arrange and sanctioned syllabus restricts what we can do(L) • Yes, the relevance of the content of the curriculum and equipping the students for 'real life' **C10. Do you go over your lesson plans looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson?** • Yes, it is a practice (W) • Yes, but at the beginning of a term (M) • Yes, using colleagues to help fine-tune this (L) ***C11.Have you considered the degree to which lessons you plan display your assumptions, values And beliefs about teaching?*** • Yes (L) (W) (M) **C12.During your planning do you think about your school layout and the extent to which it influences your choice of student activities.** • **Yes (S) (L) (W) (M)** ***C13.Do you discuss your lesson plans with your colleagues.*** • Yes (M) (S) (L) (W) **C14. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you plan?**	**C8.Do you question the way you go about planning your lessons?** ♦ No, use teaching experience practical knowledge and 'What works' (S) **C9.Do you think about the school's curriculum and whether it is meeting students' developmental needs? (Maslow's hierarchy of needs)** ♦ No, Don't think about it, check to see if it is(S) **C10.Do you go over your lesson plans looking for possible difficulties that students might encounter during the actual lesson?** • No, dig in, solve the problems you encounter 'on the Spot' get it to work (S) ***C11.Have you considered the degree to which lessons you plan display your assumptions, values and beliefs about teaching?*** • Yes, she believes; students should have an input into What they learn and this require flexibility on the part of The teacher (L) • Yes, difficulty with school system triggers her Questioning. She questions also her whole interaction With students and, her attitude toward disciplines (W) • Yes, She believes; students should be actively engaged In the learning process (M) • No, I don't get into the philosophy, it is stressful (S) **C12. During your planning do you think about your school layout and the extent to which it influences your choice of student activities?** • In relation to her self contain classroom and how to Adjust it to accommodate various activities (S) • In relation to her self-contain classroom and selected Activities that require students to be outside the Classroom (L) • In relation to the availability of material resources and Physical space (W) • In relation to class size and special occasion/events(M) ***C13. Do you discuss your lesson plans with your colleagues?*** • With at least one +planning together with this colleague (M) • In relation to what works and technical matters (S) • This is an integral part of her practice (L) • Lack of time and stipulation of set times for students by the authorities (W) **C14. Is there anything else you would like to say regarding the way you plan?**

Appendix 13
Examples of the summary of similarities and differences in responses according to categories

Student and Student Activities	
Similarities	**Differences**
All respondents seem to believe that students are significant to the process of teaching and the views expressed included the students	Differences in focus: ♦ Affective ♦ Cognitive ♦ Cognitive and psycho-motive ♦ Provide structured lessons and implementation to aid students learning
Teaching context	
Similarities	**Differences**
All respondents seem to adhere to school policy which has them engaged in a process of scheme or work planning as well as individual lesson planning and this seems to encourage a degree of collaboration between colleagues.	
The idea of 'sharing' usually surrounds the promotion or demotion of students, or other technical matters such as awarding numerical grades to students	
Away from the administratively decreed policy or practice of the school which foster this 'sharing' of either lesson plans or evaluation with colleagues they do so freely	Only with selected colleagues and time was not available for this.
	School philosophy that requires a certain approach to lesson planning and implementation.
All respondents speak of being heavily involved with either addition school responsibilities or having to give certain prescribe number of hours to teaching students and the negative impact that these have on where and how lessons are planned	
All consider their school layout and the extent to which it influences their choice of student activities.	They do this in relation to: ♦ How their classroom can be arranged to accommodate student activities ♦ When they are planning special events for students ♦ When a large space and special teaching resources are required for the lesson ♦ When a lesson requires the students to be out of the classroom.

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