Chapter 2

Review of Related Literature

2.0 Introduction

The previous chapter laid a foundation for the study with a discussion on the background and context of the study. This chapter explores the theoretical foundation of the study. To begin with, major paradigm shifts in second language teacher education are reviewed. Since the context of the study is using narratives for reflection in pre-service teacher education, research in these areas (Reflection and the use of Narratives in teacher education) are reviewed and reported. The implications of the review for the present study are also explained.

2.1 Pre-service Teacher Education

Professional preparation and development of teachers is a continuous process. It begins with the selection of a potential teacher, followed by initial preparation into the profession and then continuous development throughout the teaching career. Pre-service teacher education is training prospective teachers or teacher trainees attend before they start teaching, whereas, in-service teacher education is meant for practicing teachers.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the National Policy on Education (1986) highlighted “the status of the teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of the society, it is said that no people can rise above the level of its teachers”. The document emphasizes
the important role played by teachers as transmitters and promoters of knowledge. Therefore, teacher education is an indispensable part of the education system.

In the context of second language teacher education, the terms ‘teacher training’ and ‘teacher education’ are often used synonymously. According to Donald Freeman (2009), teacher training involves activities which individuals learn to teach second language, whereas, teacher development involves activities that are undertaken by experienced teachers, primarily on voluntary, individual basis.

Richards and Farrell (2005: 3) reiterated Freeman’s view by stating that the two main goals within the scope of teacher education are training and development. They stated that ‘training’ refers to activities directly focused on teacher responsibilities, which are short term and involves understanding of basic concepts and principles as a prerequisite for applying them to teaching, whereas, ‘development’ refers to general growth not focusing on specific job, which serves a long term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers’ understanding of themselves as teachers.

According to Wallace (1991), teacher education and training are one and the same and they can be presented or managed by others, whereas teacher development is something that can be done only by and for oneself.

According to Crandall (1994), teacher training is solution oriented and teacher education is problem oriented and both view teachers as passive recipients, whereas, teacher development is a lifelong process where the teacher is engaged and actively reflects on practice.
While teacher education programmes have been in existence for a long time, second language teacher education is a relatively new development. The next section presents an overview on origin, development and paradigm shifts in Second Language Teacher Education.

2.1.1 Paradigm Shifts in Second Language Teacher Education

English language teaching began in 1960s, post which the teacher training programmes for teachers of English began. In the beginning, teachers of second language (English) were either native English speakers or had some expertise in the language. To become a second language teacher, being a native speaker was often the only criterion. However, in the past few decades, second language teaching and learning, both in the real teaching and in the education of second language teachers, developed rapidly.

Changes are constant in education; be it general education or teacher education. Ever since its origin, second language teacher education underwent many changes. These changes are connected and these connections can be understood by analyzing the paradigm shifts. The word ‘paradigm’ means ‘pattern’ or ‘focus’. When the focus changes from one approach or method (in terms of education) to another, then, it is said that there is a paradigm shift. Some of the major paradigm shifts in the field of education are positivism to post positivism, behaviourism to cognitivism, decontextualization to contextualization etc., these changes have created ripples in all fields of education, including teacher education, resulting in
paradigm shifts in second language teacher education. Major paradigm shifts in second language teacher education are presented below:

- product to process approach - knowledge transmission to knowledge construction
- Towards professionalism
- Towards reflection
- Towards teacher learning and cognition

Crandall (2000) reviewed research on second language teacher education and identified major paradigm shifts in second language teacher education, they are, shift from transmission product - oriented theories to constructivist - process oriented theories of learning, teaching and teacher learning. Traditional, transmission- oriented teaching involved top-down approaches which presented best practices for teachers to understand and replicate the practices in their own teaching. This shift in approach was on the same lines as general education. Teacher was no more the center of the teaching- learning process, it was more learner centric. The emphasis was more on learning and the process of learning to teach, i.e., there was a shift from product approach to process approach or from knowledge transmission to knowledge construction. The concept of knowledge base of teachers came to existence.
Knowledge transmission to knowledge construction

The field of teacher education was in the early stages of development during the 1970s. A knowledge base was required to establish the emerging field of teaching as a profession, broadly defined as “that body of knowledge that people should possess and ultimately be able to apply in order to begin teaching” (Gardner, 1989: xi). Although, a core foundational teacher knowledge base was common to all teacher education programmes, the knowledge base as expected changed and grew over time. Freeman and Johnson (1998: 405) proposed a reconceptualised knowledge base of second language teacher education that focused on “the activity of teaching itself – who does it, where it is done, and how it is done”.

Richards & Nunan (1990) stated that teacher education typically includes a knowledge base, drawn from linguistics and language learning theory, and a practical component, based on language teaching methodology and opportunity for practice teaching. Richards (1998: 1) defined knowledge base as “constituent domains of knowledge, skill, understanding, and awareness”.

Researchers used the term ‘content’ and ‘knowledge base’ alternatively (Day, 1991; Richards, 1998). Several researchers attempted to outline what content should be included in second language teacher education. Table 2.1 below, summarizes different views of the knowledge base of second language teacher education (Nguyen, 2013:34).
Karen Johnson (2009: 11) stated, “A knowledge base is, in essence, a professional self – definition. It reflects a widely accepted conception of what people need to know and are able to carry out the work of a particular profession. In Second Language teacher education programs, the knowledge base informs three broad areas:

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language proficiency</td>
<td>Content knowledge</td>
<td>Content knowledge</td>
<td>Theories of teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civilization and culture</td>
<td>Pedagogical knowledge</td>
<td>Pedagogical content knowledge</td>
<td>Teaching skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language analysis</td>
<td>Pedagogical content knowledge</td>
<td>General Pedagogical knowledge</td>
<td>Communication skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support knowledge</td>
<td>Curricular knowledge</td>
<td>Subject matter knowledge</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Contextual knowledge</td>
<td>Pedagogical reasoning and decision making</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Process knowledge</td>
<td>Contextual knowledge</td>
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Table 2.1

Views on knowledge base of second language teacher education (Nguyen, 2013:34)
1) The content of second language teacher education programs or what second language teachers need to know;

2) The pedagogies that are taught in second language teacher education programs, or how second language teachers should teach; and

3) The institutional forms of delivery through which both the content and pedagogies are learned or how second language teachers learn to teach.

So the knowledge base of teacher education is, by definition, the basis upon which we make decisions about how to prepare second language teachers to do the work of their profession”.

In the light of the definitions of knowledge base, presented above, by the researchers and discussion so far, it can therefore be deduced that a knowledge base is what a trainee teacher should know to be able to teach effectively. However, metaphorically stating, teacher trainees are not empty vessels that can be filled with the said knowledge base. They come to the training programme with pre-existing knowledge, skills, beliefs, and attitudes. This pre-existing knowledge is called prior knowledge and personal practical knowledge.

According to Clandinin (1986), personal practical knowledge is the knowledge that reflects the individual’s prior knowledge and acknowledges the contextual nature of the teacher’s knowledge. It is a kind of knowledge engraved out of and shaped by situations, knowledge that is constructed and reconstructed as we live out our stories and retell and re-live them through processes of reflection. Crandall
also referred to the same notion and stated that prior knowledge plays a powerful role in shaping the views of effective teaching and learning in prospective teachers.

Personal practical knowledge according to Paula (2009) has become a part of a robust scholarly tradition that has challenged the separation of knower and knowledge, experience and science and subjectivity and objectivity. She also quotes Clandinin and Connelly (1988: 59) in her article, they described personal practical knowledge as “moral, affective and aesthetic way of knowing life’s educational situations”.

Borg (2009) observed that, one theme highlighted in language teacher cognition research is, the impact that prior language learning experience has on teacher trainees. Crandall (2000) asserted that traditional teacher education viewed teachers as “passive recipients of transmitted knowledge than active participants in the construction of meaning (in learning by reconstruction). And it did not take into account the thinking or decision making of teachers” (Crandall: 35); she added by saying that a “shift to a constructivist perspective of teaching and teacher learning makes teachers a primary source of knowledge about teaching, reflected in an increasing focus on teacher cognition”.

According to Freeman (2009: 12), there has been a shift from knowledge transfer to knowledge construction, he stated, “Since 1980s, teacher education has moved from the view of knowledge transmission to one of knowledge construction in which the teacher- learners build their own understandings of language teaching.
through their experience by integrating theory, research and opinion with empirical and reflective study of their own classroom practices”.

The shift was more in terms of formation and transmission of the knowledge base. Richards & Nunan (1990: 270) stated “a substantial degree of professionalization has taken place, thus, the theoretical basis of the field has moved from the study of phonetics and grammatical theory – once considered a necessary (and sometimes sufficient) basis to launch a student into a career as language teacher – to include the study of pedagogical grammar, discourse analysis, second language acquisition, classroom based research, inter language syntax and phonology, curriculum and syllabus design, and language testing. Language teaching has achieved a sense of autonomy, with its own knowledge base, paradigms and research agenda”. By saying so, Richards & Nunan indicated that sustainable degree of professionalism took place in second language teacher education. This introduces the concept of professionalism.

Towards Professionalism

Wallace (1991: 6) stated, “in a profession we have a kind of occupation which can only be practiced after long and rigorous academic study, which should be well rewarded because of the difficulty in attaining it and the public good it brings, but which is not simply engaged in for profit, because it also carries a sense of public service and public dedication”. Further, he says “any occupation that aspires the title of ‘profession’ will claim at least some of the below mentioned qualities:

- A basis of scientific knowledge;
- A period of rigorous study which is formally assessed;
- A sense of public service;
- High standards of professional conduct; and
- The ability to perform some specified demanding and socially useful tasks in a demonstrably competent manner”.

The idea that teaching should be considered a profession is rather new and it’s been a matter of concern. Researchers (Crandall 1993; 1994, Darling Hammond 1994) wanted teaching to be viewed as a profession with respect to the role of teachers in construction of theory and directing self professional development through collaborative observation, teacher research and inquiry, and sustained in-service programs, rather than typical short term workshop or training program.

Richards (1990) stated that theoretical knowledge base and research indicate the degree of professionalization of any field. The members of the profession need to engage in inquiry and reflection in order to develop themselves. He mentioned that language teachers should not simply teach language as a neutral vehicle for expression of meaning and ideas, but should be engaged both in reflecting upon the ideological forces and in empowering their learners with the language knowledge and skills they need to be able to function as moral agents in the society.

Wallace’s (1991) statement reinforces what Richards stated, he says that it is (or should be) normal for professionals to reflect on their performance, particularly when it goes wrong. They will probably ask themselves what went wrong or why
it went so well. They will probably want to think about what to avoid in future, what to repeat and so on. These statements introduce the next shift in paradigm - towards **Reflection or the Reflective Approach**.

**Towards Reflection**

Richards and Farrell (1990) call ‘Reflection’ as the process of critical examination of experiences, a process that can lead to a better understanding of one’s teaching practices and routines. In teacher education, this has led to the notion of reflective teaching, that is, teaching accompanied by collecting information on one’s teaching as the base for critical reflection, through such procedures as self-monitoring, observation and case studies.

Crandall (2000: 36) stated “traditional language teacher education missed to recognize the role that teachers play in generating knowledge through teaching experience and reflection and professes that self observation and reflection on practice can help teachers move from a philosophy of teaching and learning developed during their 16 or so years as a learner to a philosophy of teaching consistent with their emerging understandings of the language learning and teaching processes”.

Gloria (2002) extensively reviewed literature of second language teacher education. Quoting Richards (Richards, 1998) she stated that a reflective approach should engage teacher candidates in developing their personal theories of teaching, systematically examining their own decision process and teaching practices, and develop critical thinking skills that lead to self-awareness and change. She says...
that a reflective approach views teacher candidates as active agents of their learning-to-teach processes and provides the groundwork for continuous self development. According to Gloria, in the process of reflection, the teacher becomes a learner.

**Towards Teacher learning and Cognition**

‘Learning’ is acquiring knowledge and ‘Cognition’ is thinking. Learning is ‘knowing’, whereas, cognition refers to the act of thinking about something, apart from an emotional reaction to it.

Freeman (2009) stated that typically in the context of teacher education, for teachers, learning to teach has meant learning about teaching and then actually doing it in another context. Teacher trainees develop their effective teaching behaviours over time in other classroom contexts during their first year of teaching. But with time, the notion that learning ends on the day of graduation has changed, learning has been an integral part of the teaching profession. He also mentioned that teacher trainees are now seen as actors in two fields of activity; with students in the classroom where they teach, and in formally instructed seminars of professional training, where they learn.

Karen Johnson (2009: 9) added, “second language teacher educators have come to recognize teacher learning as socially negotiated and contingent knowledge of self, students, subject matter, and setting. Second language teacher educators have begun to conceptualize second language teachers as users and creators of legitimate forms of knowledge who make decisions about how best to teach their
second language students within complex socially, culturally and historically situated context”.

The study of teacher cognition is more about understanding what teachers think, know, and believe. Its primary concern lies with the unobservable dimension of teaching – teachers’ mental lives.

An important factor in the development of teacher cognition research has been the understanding that we cannot comprehend teachers and teaching without understanding the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence what teachers do. Learning and cognition give an opportunity to the teacher trainee to rethink about the content and the delivery of the teaching. Teacher learning and cognition opens the door to many other concepts like, situated learning, practitioner knowledge, reflection, classroom practice, identity, critical pedagogy, teaching methods and strategies.

The paradigm shift in second language teacher education and the connections between them can be better understood by analyzing the models of the second language teacher education proposed by Wallace (1991). The changes in teacher education are either the extensions or derivatives of the models. Each model has its own set of approaches and whenever the focus moved from one model to another it caused a paradigm shift in second language teacher education.

As Wallace (1991) suggested, there has been a shift from behavioristic approach to cognitivist to constructivist approach, from knowledge transmission to knowledge construction, from passive learning to cognition to reflection, from
decontextualisation to situated practice to contextualization. Before Wallace’s models of reflection are discussed, it is appropriate to consider Freeman’s (1991) models of teaching first.

Crandall (2000) mentioned that Wallace’s three models broadly correspond to three views of teaching identified by Freeman:

1) Teaching as doing (a behavioral model that emphasizes on what teachers do and encourages a skill or craft model of teacher education)

2) Teaching as thinking and doing (a cognitive model that emphasizes on what teachers know and how they do it, encouraging both theory and skills development and craft and applied science models of teacher education)

and

3) Teaching as knowing what to do (an interpretivist view that emphasizes on why teachers do what they do in different contexts, supporting the addition of reflection and the development of framework of interpretation to theory and skill development in teacher education.

In the next section, Wallace’s models of teacher education are described. Later, the importance of the reflection in teacher education and different tools for reflective practice are discussed in the subsequent sections.

2.1.2 Wallace’s Models of Teacher Education

In 1991, Wallace described three different models of professional education:
The craft model in which the knowledge of profession exists in an experienced professional practitioner: someone who is an expert in the practice of ‘craft’. He calls this model as a conservative model and states that the needs of teaching in a time of very rapid changes will not be met by such an approach/procedure. This model was more behaviouristic, teacher centric, the emphasis was more on the product.

The applied science model – Wallace (1991: 12-13) states “it is the traditional and probably still the most prevalent model underlying most training or education programmes for the professions”. This model derives its authority from the achievements of empirical science. The findings of a scientific knowledge and experimentation are conveyed to the teacher trainee by those who are in the relevant field. Wallace disapproves this model as it is one way and has led to a split between research and professional practice. This is a constructivist model which considered teachers are passive recipients.

The reflective model:

Wallace (1991) uses four terms – Received Knowledge, Experiential knowledge, Knowing-in-action and reflection. Received knowledge is the knowledge which is imparted/ gained during training.

Experiential knowledge is the one which is gained by experience; knowing-in-action and reflection are a part of experiential knowledge. This is an interpretivist model.
All three models are interconnected and are very important for effective teacher education programmes. Amongst the three models discussed, the reflective model is widely accepted in teacher education because it allows the teacher to reflect and become aware of their own teaching. In the past few years, the term ‘reflection’ has increasingly emerged in descriptions of approaches to teacher education.

Wallace (1991) describes the pre-service and professional development stages of the reflective approach. According to him, the person’s social-cultural background, attitudes, beliefs (when he/she comes for the training) play an important role in their professional life and he calls it **Initial or stage 1.**

**Stage 2** is the Professional development stage which includes received knowledge and experiential knowledge linked with a two way arrow which means teachers keep updating their received knowledge with the information received from experience and use the received knowledge to solve the problems they experience in the classroom.

After describing the knowledge component, he described the practice and reflection components. Practice is the practice of both received and experiential knowledge and reflection is the continuous cycle of practicing the received and experiential knowledge and thinking about it, which he called a reflective cycle.

**2.3 Reflection for Continuous Professional Development**

CPD or Continuous Professional Development is “a planned, continuous and lifelong process whereby teachers try to develop their personal and professional
qualities, and to improve their knowledge, skills and practice, leading to their empowerment, the improvement of their agency and the development of their organizations and their pupils.” (Padwad, 2011: 7).

Carrying out some form of continuing professional development (CPD) is now considered integral to the development of the profession. It is considered vital to professional activity for three reasons:

- It is integral to the development of professional status, forming a fundamental part of any ‘profession-building’;
- It is a key means by which individual professionals can develop both their specializations and (in many cases linked to that) their careers; and
- It is seen as an essential means by which quality of professional service can be maintained, thereby reassuring its recipients and (if different) the purchasers of those services (Coats, 2005).

In many professions, reflection is seen as a major component of CPD, either properly recorded or casually supported. Reflection on other components of CPD - for instance, maintaining blogs, attending conferences - is required some times. Within the context of teacher education, Day(1993: 92) makes the connection explicit.

According to Day, the effectiveness of Professional development is dependent on many factors:

- Teachers' psychological, social and career life histories which fashion their attitudes, expectations and behaviors;
- The levels of reflection and confrontation taken;
• The power and degree of external intervention upon the individual or social system;
• The levels and quality of provision of opportunities for professional development of appropriate kind;
• In-house management support and recognition through, for example, provision of time for reflection and learning support;
• Intrinsic (professional) social (peer and management) and academic reward (accreditation); and
• The perceived relevance and practicality of the professional development opportunities. (Day 1993: 92)

The quality of teacher development practices has become a major concern in recent educational discourse. There is a lot of emphasis on reflection and reflective approaches for teacher empowerment. ‘Learning to teach’ and ‘reflecting on teaching practice’ are very important for teacher trainees. Therefore, it is essential to trace the origin of reflection and locate its place in pre-service teacher education.

2.4 Reflection:

The ‘reflective approach’ is largely based on Dewey’s (1933) work. John Dewey described the difference between impulsive action, routine action and reflective action. Dewey stated that impulsive action was based on trial and error and routine action relied on ways of operating, sanctioned by authority. He felt both the methods were used by practitioners without engaging in much thought about how they were in use. He asserted that reflective action arose from the work of
educators who were active; who determinedly and cautiously considered how they practiced and what they were teaching, and was often the result of a need to solve a certain problem. He stated that the reflective thought is a chain which involves, not simply a sequence of ideas, but, a 'con-sequence' (Dewey, 1933: 4).

He first defined reflection as the “active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends”. He stated that reflection is a form of thought, rising from perplexity felt in directly experienced circumstances, and an important phase of learning from experience. The term reflection depicts a way of thinking that accepts ambiguity and acknowledges dilemmas. Dewey stated that the ability to reflect is set off only after recognition of a problem or dilemma and the acceptance of uncertainty.

Much later, in the early 1970s, Kolb and Ron Fry developed the Experiential Learning Model (ELM) which is composed of four elements:

- concrete experience
- observation of or/and reflection on that experience
- formation of abstract concepts based on the reflection
- testing the new concepts

Kolb and Fry (1975) argue that the learning cycle can begin at any one of the four points - and that it should really be approached as a continuous spiral.

Van Manen proposed a hierarchical representation of three levels of reflection, i.e., technical, practical, and critical reflection.
Schon (1983) introduced concepts such as reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action in his book, The Reflective Practitioner. He explained how professionals meet the challenges at work with reflective practice. His theory is that there are two types of reflection, one during and one after an activity or event. An attempt to briefly describe the concepts in made in table 2.2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reflection in action</th>
<th>Reflection on action</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiencing</td>
<td>Thinking about something that has happened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking on your feet</td>
<td>Thinking what differently may happen next time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking about what to do next</td>
<td>Taking time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acting straight away</td>
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Table 2.2 Schon’s concept of reflection in action and reflection on action

Killian and Todnem (1991) added a third stage of reflection, reflection for action to Schon’s concepts. Reflection-for-action links the reflective thinking process to future action, i.e., reflecting in preparation for an event. Figure 2.1 is a representation of the same.
Many research studies (Smyth, 1989; Zeichner and Liston, 1996) were done on reflection in 1980s and 1990s. Valli (1997) has extensively reviewed the literature available on reflection and concluded that there were five types of reflection: technical reflection, reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action, deliberative reflection, personalistic reflection, and critical reflection. To define these types of reflection, Valli (1997: 75) paid attention to the content for reflection and quality of reflection. While ‘content for reflection’ refers to what teachers thought about, ‘quality of reflection’ refers to how they thought about their teaching or the processes of thinking they go through. An attempt to briefly explain the concepts in made in Table 2.3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Content of reflection</th>
<th>Criteria for quality of reflection</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>General teaching behaviours based on research on teaching - 'good practice'</td>
<td>Matching one's own performance to external notions of good 'practice'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In - and on-</td>
<td>One's own personal teaching performance</td>
<td>Decisions based on one's own unique immediate situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>action</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deliberative</td>
<td>Range of teaching concerns including self, syllabus, teachings, strategies, students, evaluation and response, peers, and organisation of the classroom</td>
<td>Consideration of competing viewpoints and research findings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalistic</td>
<td>One's own personal growth and relationships with students</td>
<td>Listening to and trusting one's own inner voice and voices of others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical</td>
<td>Social, moral and political dimensions of Learning Contexts</td>
<td>Judging the goals and purposes of Learning in light of ethical criteria such as social justice and equality of opportunity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3 Models of Reflection – Valli (1997, p.75)
The value of reflection stems from its role in supporting professionals, some key features of reflection are:

- Reflection helps in learning—changing ideas and understanding of the situation
- Reflection is more than thinking. It is an active practice of learning, it leads to a thoughtful action
- Reflection is not a linear process, but a cyclic one where reflection leads to the development of new ideas which are then used to plan the next stages of learning
- Reflection supports looking at issues from different perspectives, which helps in understanding the issue and scrutinizing one’s own values, assumptions and perceptions.

Reflective practice is increasingly advocated in pre-service teacher education, it is important to understand how reflection became a part of teacher education. As a reaction against the top–down approach to pre-service teacher preparation, where teachers are viewed as technicians, a movement under the banner of reflective practice developed in pre-service teacher education. It is essential to understand how reflection has been conceptualised and its development in pre-service teacher education at this stage of the study. Schon introduced the concept of reflective practice in teacher education, and affirmed that is a critical process in refining one’s artistry or craft in a specific discipline. A lot of research has been done on
the concept since then and reflection, therefore, become part of the language of teacher education.

2.4.1 Reflection in Pre-service Teacher Education

The notion of reflection has been widely used in teacher education in order to help both pre-service and in-service teachers in the process of expounding their thoughts about their own teaching practices and evaluating those thoughts in order to develop the ability to improve their teaching practices (Schon, 1983; Gilbert, 1994; Beattie, 1997; Freese, 2006). Therefore, reflection has become an essential component of teacher education programmes. Many schools, colleges and departments of education started designing the teacher education programmes according to Schon’s concept of reflective practice.

Terms like ‘reflective practice’, ‘reflective thinking’, ‘reflective teaching’, and ‘reflective practitioner’ are frequently used in educational contexts and are informed by various theoretical frameworks (Calderhead and Gates, 1993; Bengtsson, 1995; Waks, 1999).

- **Reflective practice** is, in essence, any occurrence where an individual thinks critically about an action, thought, or experience. This thinking develops self awareness and professional competence (Epstein and Hundert 2002; Levine, Kern and Wright, 2008). It is entirely a personal response to situations, events, experiences, or new information. Reflective practice critically examines both ‘what’ and ‘why’. **Reflective teaching** is a practice where teachers think over their teaching practices, analyzing how a
lesson was taught and how it can be improved or changed for better learning outcomes.

- **Reflective practitioner** is someone who, at regular intervals, looks back at the work he/she does, and the work process, and considers how he/she can improve. Someone who ‘reflects’ on his/her work

Richards and Nunan (1990) called reflection as the process of critical examination of experiences, a process that can lead to a better understanding of one’s teaching practices and routines. In teacher education, this has led to the notion of **reflective teaching**, that is, teaching accompanied by collecting information on one’s teaching as the basis for critical reflection, through procedures such as self-monitoring, observation and case studies.

Wallace (1991: 15) stated that it is normal for professionals to reflect on their professional performance, especially when it goes wrong. With regard to practitioners, reflection is begun either when there is a problem that the teacher cannot resolve or when a teacher simply wishes to reconsider an educational situation or a conclusion previously reached.

Day (1999a) emphasized that reflection is essential for all teachers to maintain their effectiveness. He writes “Without routinely engaging in reflective practice, it is unlikely that we will be able to understand the effects of our motivations, prejudices, and aspirations upon the ways in which we create, manage, receive, sift, and evaluate knowledge; and as importantly, the ways in which we are influencing the lives, directions, and achievements of those whom we nurture and teach” (Day, 1999a: 229).
Collier (1999) noted that establishing self-monitoring and self-reflective activities in teacher education can promote self-awareness that allows teacher trainees to hear and listen to their own voices.

Kemmis (1999: 105) presented five propositions about the nature of reflection, that not only clarify what reflective teacher education necessitates but also indicate that reflective teacher education is a complex approach, not easy to put into practice and even less to evaluate:

1. Reflection is not biologically or psychologically determined, nor is it pure thought; reflection expresses an orientation towards action and is about relation between thought and action in real historical situations.

2. Reflection is not the individualistic working of the mind as a kind of mechanism or speculation; it presupposes and shapes social relations.

3. Reflection is not value-free or neutral as regards values; it expresses and serves concrete human, social, cultural and political interests.

4. Reflection is not indifferent or passive towards social order, nor does it extend socially accepted values; it either reproduces actively or transforms the practical ideologies that support social order.

5. Reflection is not a mechanical process or a purely creative exercise to construct new ideas; it is a practice that expresses our power to reconstitute social life through participation in Critical communication, decision making social action.

These propositions highlight the transforming potential and empowering role of reflection, both at individual and social levels. According to Kemmis (1985) the basic assumptions of reflective teacher education are as follows:
1. Promoting critically reflective teachers is a value laden goal, with direct implications for deciding the direction of reflection, its aims and scope.

2. Reflection involves critical reason, critical self reflection and critical action.

3. Critical reflection should facilitate teacher autonomy, especially through the mediation between pedagogical goals and situational constraints, within a research-like approach to teaching, whereby educational contexts are questioned and scrutinized in order to be understood and changed.

4. Critical reflection must entail an understanding of the nature and goals of school education and of its role in social transformation.

According to Crandall (2000) traditional language teacher education is not familiar with the role that teachers play in generating knowledge through teaching experience and reflection and states that self observation and reflection on practice can help teachers move from a philosophy of teaching and learning developed to a philosophy of teaching consistently with their emerging understandings of the language learning and teaching processes. Reflection can help teachers to become lifelong learners as they can continuously generate and store personal knowledge through engaging in the reflective process (Butler, 1996).

Simon Borg (2009) mentioned that traditional teacher education viewed teachers as passive recipients of transmitted knowledge rather than active participants in the construction of meaning (in learning by reconstruction) and it did not take into
account the thinking or decision making of teachers. Many view the development of reflective practice as the foundation for the highest professional competence (Cole & Knowles, 2000; Jay, 2003; Larrivee, 2000; Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004; Valli, 1997; Zeichner & Liston, 1996). Reflection is a process that facilitates the development of future action from the consideration of past and current behavior. Teachers need to be reflective in order to deal with the uncertainties involved in everyday decisions that affect the lives of students. Reflective teaching helps teachers and learners in problem solving and decision-making procedure and it promotes critical-thinking abilities. Practitioners usually engage in reflection as a means of understanding the nature of teaching, personal values, and beliefs using common processes.

The literature usually refers to the following as being the qualities, skills and attitudes required for reflective practice (Atkins & Murphy, 1993; Atkins & Murphy, 1994):

- self awareness
- the ability to describe
- the ability to critically analyse events or experiences using logical thinking
- the ability to synthesize and evaluate learning, events or experiences
- honesty and trust; insight; time; motivation; and practice
Reflection is essential for professional growth and more effective teaching; there is no doubt about it. However, there is lack of certainty whether teachers can be trained to become reflective practitioners. Zeichner & Liston (1996) stated that “reflection is not a procedure that can be taught but rather a holistic orientation to teaching that can be helped to acquire” (cited in Odeh, Kurt, and Atamtürk, 2010: 12).

Since the present research attempts to use narratives to develop reflective practice in teacher education, it is important to know what reflective practice means, and to look at relevant literature available in the area.

2.4.2 Reflective Practice

Professionalization of teaching has become a very important issue in the field of education. Reflection on one's own work is a key component of being a professional and is essential to teacher education. Teachers must examine their beliefs, assumptions and prejudices regarding teaching and learning, and determine how those beliefs influence classroom practice. Reflective practice aims at teacher professionalism and professional development which came to the front position in education practices in the world.

According to Zeichner (1994) many “factors influenced the idea of incorporating reflection in teaching:

- the popularity of cognitive as opposed to behavioral psychologies,
- the birth of research on teacher thinking,
• views of educational research that have given greater access to teachers’ voices and perspectives on their work
• the growing democratization of the research process in which teachers have become less willing to submit to participation in research which seeks only to portray their behaviors
• the recognition that top-down educational reforms that used teachers as passive implementers of ideas conceived elsewhere were doomed to failure” (Zeichner, 1994:11).

According to Schon (1983), reflective practitioners continually learn from their experience, reconstructing experience through reflection. Terms like reflective thinking, reflective teaching, reflective inquiry, reflection and reflective practice are frequently used interchangeably; though there are minor distinctions. The term reflective practice is viewed here as the zenith of all other forms of reflection and it is undertaken to revisit the past and to guide future action.

Larrivee & Cooper (2006: 4) presented some ways in which reflective practice has been described in the literature over the last two decades.

“Reflective practice is:

• A dialogue of thinking and doing through which one becomes more skilled (Schön, 1987).
• A process that helps teachers think about what happened, why it happened, and what else could have been done to reach their goals (Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981).
• An inquiry approach that involves a personal commitment to continuous learning and improvement (York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere, & Montie, 2001).

• The practice of analyzing one’s actions, decisions, or products by focusing on one’s process for achieving them (Killion & Todnem, 1991).

• A critical, questioning orientation and a deep commitment to the discovery and analysis of information concerning the quality of a professional’s designed action (Bright, 1996).

• A willingness to accept responsibility for one’s professional practice (Ross, 1990).

• A systematic and comprehensive data-gathering process enriched by dialogue and collaborative effort (Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004).

• The use of higher-level thinking, such as critical inquiry and metacognition, which allow one to move beyond a focus on isolated facts or data to perceive a broader context for understanding behavior and events (Hatton & Smith, 1995).

• The capacity to think creatively, imaginatively and, eventually, self-critically about classroom practice (Lasley, 1992).

• An ongoing process of examining and refining practice, variously focused on the personal, pedagogical, curricular, intellectual, societal, and/or ethical contexts associated with professional work (Cole & Knowles, 2000)” (Larrive & Copper, 2006:4).
Since teaching is often an uncertain and multifaceted practice, teachers must make regular conclusions about appropriate goals, teaching methods and student learning.

Reflective practice allows language teachers to think about what, how and why they do it, it permits them to step out of habitual action and make adjustments to match the needs of the learners.

Another reason for developing as reflective practitioners is that it frees teachers from routine and impulsive acts (described earlier), enabling them to act in a more deliberative and intentional manner.

Reflective practice is important in pre-service teacher education. Apart from the above discussed there is lot of literature available which explored the use of various tools of reflection to develop reflective practice in teacher education.

2.4.3 Review of Literature on Tools for developing Reflective Practices in Teacher Education

The purpose of this section is to observe how the theorists, practitioners and researchers associated reflective practice with teacher education. Table 2.4 chronologically demonstrates the key concepts and themes associated with reflective practice. The proponent, focus and terminology grounded within each theme have been identified. Each theme represents a particular ideological viewpoint, which fits in a specific set of practices relevant to its position.
Paula Zwozdiak-Myers (2009: 11) in her unpublished doctoral thesis comprehensive provided summary on reflective practice in teacher education which is presented below (Table 2.4):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proponent</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dewey (1910, 1933)</td>
<td>Reflective thinking, Orientations to enquiry</td>
<td>Problem, suggestions, reasoning, hypothesis, testing. Open mindedness, responsibility, wholeheartedness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habermas (1971)</td>
<td>Knowledge constitutive interests</td>
<td>Instrumental, interpretive, emancipator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolb (1984)</td>
<td>Experiential learning</td>
<td>4-stage cycle: concrete experience, reflective, observation, abstract conceptualisation, active, experimentation. 4 learning styles: diverging, assimilating, converging, accommodating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985)</td>
<td>Reflective practice</td>
<td>Cycle of association, integration, validation, appropriation. Dimension of feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valli (1990)</td>
<td>Images of teaching</td>
<td>Technical rationality: non-reflective, Practical decision-making: technical within a reflective context, Inculcation, indoctrination: moral, ethical &amp; social in a non-reflective mode, Moral reflection: deliberative, relational, critical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sparks-Langer and Colton (1991)</td>
<td>Orientations to reflective thinking</td>
<td>Cognitive, narrative, critical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LaBoskey (1993)</td>
<td>Orientation toward growth and enquiry, Cognitive abilities</td>
<td>Common sense thinkers - Alert novices, Analysis, synthesis, evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King and Kitchener (1994)</td>
<td>Model of reflective judgement</td>
<td>Pre-reflective reasoning (stages 1-3), Quasi-reflective reasoning (stages 4 &amp; 5), Reflective reasoning (stages 6 &amp; 7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghaye and Ghaye (1998)</td>
<td>Reflective conversations</td>
<td>Descriptive, perceptive, receptive, interpretive, critical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moon (1999)</td>
<td>Critical thinking</td>
<td>Reflexivity, metacognition</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.4, Concepts related to Reflective Practice in Teacher Education**

In the next section an attempt is made to present a discussion on the literature reviewed for the present study under four broad themes:

- Teaching reflection
- Developing Reflective Practice in Teacher trainees
- Traditional reflective tools used in teacher education

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Technology assisted reflection in teacher education

Most relevant and recent research work is reviewed in the section in order to place the present study in a proper perspective and highlight the significance of the study.

On Teaching Reflection

Painter, D. D., Ritchie, G. V., & Fox, R. K. (2007) explored how participants in an ‘Advanced Studies Teaching and Learning program’ learn about reflective practice. The authors conducted a qualitative research that examined the beliefs, dispositions, future actions and attitudes that practitioners had about reflective practice. The findings indicated that through reflective practice participants were able to analyze their experiences.

Russell (2005) presents his reflection-in-action that resulted in a clear strategy for helping new professionals experience the probable benefits of reflective practice through their program of professional preparation. He noted that the results of clear instruction seem far more fruitful than merely advocating reflective practice and assuming that individuals will comprehend how reflective practice differs profoundly from our everyday sense of reflection. He said, “Fostering reflective practice requires far more than telling people to reflect and then simply hoping for the best. I now believe that reflective practice can and should be taught—explicitly, directly, thoughtfully and patiently—using personal reflection-in-action to interpret and improve one’s teaching of reflective practice to others” (p: 5). Russell concludes that reflective practice can and should be taught.
Stein’s (2000) work mentioned that critical reflection does not improve outcomes; and critically reflective learners may not become change agents. Stein’s study investigates the extent to which critical reflection can be taught to adult learners. It explored the validity of critical reflection, observes limitations of tools e.g. diary writing.

The purpose of Collin’s et al. (2013) article was to draw a critical draft of reflective practice in terms of theory, practice and methodology. Collin et al. began by presenting their conception of reflective practice, based on the definitive aspects identified by Beauchamp (2006), to which we added two constitutive properties (grounded and generic). They then mapped the operationalization of reflective practice in pre-service teacher training and proceeded to review the literature in order to identify the various critiques.

They have extensively discussed critiques of effective practice in pre-service teacher education in the article and propose a few recommendations. First, they noted that the lack of a clear terminology or definition for reflective practice has both practical and methodological effects insofar as it gives rise to a number of disparities and divergences. They said in terms of theory, it would appear significant to begin by clarifying the concept of reflective practice, using a adequately inclusive definition that is nevertheless not too general, in order to gather works on reflective practice under the same roof. As per their work, though theoretical studies, such as Beauchamp’s (2006), may not establish a final definition for reflective practice, they however, create a promising starting point
for obtaining some degree of consensus on the concept among the scientific community. They have noted that reflective practice causes a number of methodological challenges related to observation and evaluation. They stated that “Being essential for validating empirical research, these two methodological aspects merit intensified and concerted attention by the scientific community. In one sense, it would seem futile to conduct empirical studies on reflective practice using unproven observation and assessment methods”. Finally, they have highlighted the wide diversity of support systems for reflective practice in pre-service teacher training programmes. This appears to be the result of the lack of a comprehensible and definitive terminology in the various theoretical frameworks. In this viewpoint, they said they can only promote educators to base their pre-service teacher training programmes on clear theoretical concepts combined with the results of experimental studies that use sound, validated methodologies. In addition, they highlighted that support systems for reflective practice could make better use of the advances made in the scientific knowledge, as well as budding consensus on support for and the development of reflective practice in pre-service teachers.

**Developing Reflective Practice in Teacher Trainees**

Research carried out by Hatton and Smith (1995: 10) at the University of Sydney examined the nature of reflection in teaching so as to identify specific forms of reflection and evaluate strategies in relation to the degree to which they aided
particular types of reflection in student teachers. For their study, they defined reflection as “deliberate thinking about action with a view to its improvement”.

Research data gathered from sixty teacher trainees included written essays; self-evaluations from following a school-based teaching experience; interviews and videotape excerpts of teaching from a sample of 13 teacher trainees were collected. They found student teachers written essays generated the most evidence of reflection and subsequently used this source for their analysis. Based on the relationship between theory and practice they identified four types of writing, which they categorized (Hatton and Smith, 1995: 11) as:

*descriptive writing* – not reflective, merely reports events or literature;

*descriptive reflection* – attempts to provide reasons based often on personal judgment or on students” reading of literature;

*dialogic reflection* – a form of discourse with one’s self, an exploration of possible reasons;

*critical reflection* – involves giving reasons for decisions or events that take account of the broader historical, social and/or political contexts.

When categorized, the largest proportion of coded units (60-70%) were descriptive reflection and the smallest (8%), critical reflection. The utmost proportion of dialogic reflection (more than 30%) was found, those based directly on the critical friend interviews. The researchers observed a reasonably high incidence (nearly 50%) of many forms of reflection obvious within essays and a developing pattern
that descriptive reflection often led to dialogic reflection as the descriptive phase frequently served to set up the background where further issues and alternate reasons were explored, usually in a more tentative way.

From their findings, Hatton and Smith proposed there were at least five unique forms of reflection, which could be used in pre-service teacher education to conceptualize reflection and its development. The technical form was considered a helpful starting point to tackle the concerns of teacher trainees who could then be encouraged to move from that foundation to understanding and using other forms of reflection on action.

Research undertaken by Lee (2005) examined and evaluated changes in the content and depth of teacher trainees’ reflective thinking during and after field experience. The content of reflective thinking was captured through monitoring the main concerns of teacher trainees and the depth was measured according to the following criteria:

*Recall* level (R1): describes what they experienced, interprets the situation based on recalling their experiences without looking for alternate explanations, and attempts to imitate ways that they have observed or were taught.

*Rationalization* (R2): looks for relationships between their experiences, interprets the situation with rationale, and generalizes their experiences or surface with guiding principles.
Reflectivity (R3): approaches their experiences with the intention of changing or improving in the future, analyzes their experiences from various perspectives, and be able to perceive the influence of their cooperating teachers on their students’ values, behaviour and achievement.

Research data was collected from three teacher trainees throughout field experiences. The expression field experience was used to emphasize that teacher trainees were not teaching full time, rather teaching opportunities for the intention of their study ranged from 8 to 26 hours. Research instruments included interviews, observations, questionnaires and reflective journals. Data was analyzed inductively to find evolving patterns and themes.

All three teacher trainees’ reflections inclined to decrease at Level R1 while the frequency of Levels R2 and R3 rose as they gained field experience: the rate of raise at R3 was lower than that at R2. On the whole, reflectivity during the teaching period was deeper than reflections during the observation period. Lee (2005) concluded that findings indicated variations in the content, and that the pace at which reflective thinking gets deeper depends on personal background, field experience contexts, and the mode of communication.

Even though the varied nature of these research studies limit the potential to generalize findings about the development of reflective practice in teacher trainees, a number of themes surface which are worth noting. In particular:

- Qualitative allotments can be drawn between teacher trainees in regards to the types of reflective conversation they engage in;
• The context in which teacher trainees are asked to practice reflection can give rise to different forms of reflection;

• The ability to engage in descriptive reflective practice overshadows that of critical reflective practice;

• When teacher trainees engage in reflective practice patterns of thinking, they tend to move from descriptive toward critical reflection.

To promote reflection among teachers, diverse methods such as reflective journals (Smyth, 1991; Dobbins, 1996; Larrivee & Cooper, 2006; Larrivee, 2008), autobiographical writing (Ross, 1990), Diaries (Jarvis, 1992), reflective interviews (Trumball & Slack, 1991) have been incorporated in teacher education, apart from these, advanced technologies such as digital audio and video recordings (Coffey, 2014), blogs (Beatson & Larkin, 2010), and electronic portfolios (Levin & Camp, 2002) were also explored. By these means, teachers can refer to their own lives and experiences as valuable sources of knowledge they can apply in their own classrooms (Connelly & Clandinin, 1995). The next sub-section presents the reflective tools supported by researchers, with the focus on narrative forms.

**Traditional reflective tools used in teacher education**

In this sub-section, discussion on reviewed literature supporting traditional tools for reflective practice like journals, dairies, autobiographic writings, peer teaching, case studies and reflective interviews is presented.
On Journal Writing

Keeping a reflective journal is one method for ensuring time is set aside for daily reflection. (Larrivee & Cooper, 2006).

Journal writing can serve as a tool for:

- Looking more objectively at classroom behaviors
- Naming issues and posing questions
- Recording critical incidents
- Identifying cause and effect relationships
- Discovering habits of thought and behavior
- Working through internal conflicts
- Seeing patterns of unsuccessful strategies over time
- Tracing life themes

Larrivee (2008) extensively reviewed the literature on reflection in this paper. Global research of practitioners to describe levels of critically reflective practice is used to develop assessment methodology and an assessment tool. The paper presents research that utilized three levels of critically reflective practice: technical, practical and critical (Van Manen, 1997) and reflection in practice and reflection on practice (Schon, 1983).

Larrivee emphasizes that the four levels of reflection assessed in the paper, namely; pre-reflection, surface reflection, pedagogical reflection, and critical reflection, can be simultaneous.
Boud (2001) explored application of journal writing at different stages of experience. He explores the “occasions of reflection” in which journal writing may be useful. These occasions are grouped as: reflection in anticipation of events, reflection in the midst of action and reflection after events.

Inhibitors to reflection are cited as:

- Who is the reader?
- Formal assessment.

Boud distinguishes between preparation for professional practice in which the use of case notes and commentaries on them is part of regular work and all other occasions in which reflective writing may occur. The need to clearly state the purpose of the journal (e.g. public, semi-public, to prompt reflection) at the outset is emphasized. Boud contends that it is misleading to treat all forms of journal writing as equivalent to each other as their purpose constrains their form (p.3).

Smyth (1991) established that posing a series of four questions, moving from description to meaning to confrontation to reconstruction, to be a powerful tool for prompting higher-order reflection. The questions and the purpose they serve are listed below.

(1) What do I do? Description

(2) What does it mean? Meaning

(3) How did I come to be like this? Confrontation

(4) How might I do things differently? Reconstruction
On Autobiographical Writing & Diaries

According to Ross (1990), autobiographical journal writing coupled with conscious questioning prompts can stimulate greater awareness of personal values and implicit theories of teaching.

Jarvis (1992: 180) stated that “Reflective practice is something more than thoughtful practice. It is that form of practice which seeks to problematize many situations of professional performance so that they can become potential learning situations and so the practitioners can continue to learn, grow and develop in and through their practice”. He explores the use of learner diaries, or learning records, with in-service teachers on a short methodology course. It seeks to reach some understanding of how the teachers perceive the role of the diaries, especially in relation to the possibly conflicting demands of reflecting on learning and presenting themselves in what they write. Related issues of the course like the tutor's role, creating meaning for 'reflection' and responding to diary entries. Some illustration of the types of reflection the teachers created is given; and the paper concludes by discussing the value to the teachers and the tutor of using the diary as part teacher training course.

The findings of the unpublished doctoral study by Meenalochana (2005) proved that diary writing was useful tool for teachers to reflect on their teaching experiences - both positive and negative. It is also observed that diary writing motivated teachers to reflect on their teaching experience and grow professionally by being open to discussion.
On Reflective Interviews

Trumbull and Slack (1991) investigated the use of structured interviewing assignments in a pre-service teacher education program in order to increase students’ abilities for reflection. These interviews were intended to extract the interviewee’s ways of thinking about and making sense of teacher trainees’ pedagogical understanding. In this approach, teacher trainees developed the interview protocol and conducted interviews with their fellows and students older and younger than them. Then the teacher trainees presented their findings as reports, in their journals, and discussed the findings with their peers. This was an on-going learning process and Trumbull and Slack reported that pre-service teachers started to reflect on some aspects of their work in this process.

On Peer Teaching

Sharma (2008) in his unpublished doctoral work explored the reflective practices of teachers in Nepal. Sharma interviewed teacher trainees and teacher educators to study the awareness reflection and reflective practices considered necessary for professional growth. The study mainly focused on the effective role of peer teaching and feedback for promoting reflection in participants.

Technology assisted reflection in teacher education

As computer technology developed, it brought about changes in many aspects of human life related to how people conduct themselves in their lives and professions. Teaching tools have also advanced from chalk, blackboards, TVs,
VCRs, and overhead projectors to computers, similarly the tools or methods to reflect also advanced.

**On Using Videos**

Coffey (2014: 86) stated that “teacher education students confront the challenging task of acquiring a unique and complex set of skills during their courses. These skills are acquired through the study of education theory together with practical experience in the classroom. Perhaps one of the most important skills that students quickly need to develop is that of reflective practice. It is only through a critical and detailed analysis of their performance that strengths and weaknesses can be ascertained and addressed. Video has been used as a tool in teacher education for many years and provides a means by which a teaching episode can be captured more permanently to be used as a point of reference for reflection”. Her paper talks about the concept of reflection and examines the use of video to enhance the development of these reflective practice skills in a cohort of Graduate Diploma of Education students. Students pointed out that that the use of video, in conjunction with written feedback from teachers, had improved their capacity to reflect on their teaching skills.

**On Using Blogs**

Beatson & Larkin (2010) examined the adoption, implementation and modification of the use of reflective blogs in a work incorporated learning unit for business students majoring in advertising, marketing and public relations disciplines. The reflective blog is discussed as a learning and assessment tool,
including the approaches taken to combine and scaffold the blog as part of the work integrated learning experience.

**On e-Portfolios**

Levin & Camp (2002) described a process used to guide written reflections used for entries in technology portfolios that are mandatory for teacher licensure in North Carolina. They believed the focus of electronic technology portfolios should be on Pre-service teachers’ capability to reflect about their personal and professional uses of technology for teaching and learning. The paper includes an instance of an entry from a model electronic portfolio that clearly outlines all the steps of the Reflection Cycle: selection, description, analysis, appraisal, and transformation.

Another important method used in teacher education for reflection is ‘narratives’. Many research studies have been conducted on reflection and teacher narratives to understand teacher development (Dewey, 1933; Schon 1983; Connelly and Clandinin, 1990; Doyle and Carter, 2003; Hay, White, Moss, Ferguson and Dixon, 2004; White and Hay, 2005) and have acknowledged that use of narratives in teacher education focuses on reflection. Therefore, it is essential to trace the origin of narratives, scope and their place in teacher education.
2.5 Narratives

To trace the origin of ‘narrative’, it is necessary to consider the beginning of humankind. Barthes (1997: 72) comments that narratives started with the history of mankind and that “there nowhere is nor have been people without narrative ... it is simply there, like life itself”.

Bruner (1985) called narrative as a mode of thinking, fundamental for articulating lived human experience. Rogers (2007: 100) acknowledged Bruner’s contribution to the field of narrative psychology. He stated “[Bruner] provided a crucial framework for the psychological study of autobiographies, stories and life narratives. Narrative modes of knowing, Bruner argued, function as a central form of human thinking. What’s more, they play a key role in the construction of self and identity. Bruner gave us permission to explore human lives through narratives, particularly interviews, and to make such studies part of the discipline of psychology”.

Narratives and stories have always been considered as a scholarly resource in the field of arts. From centuries, narratives and stories have been used to describe and understand the experiences of human beings.

Before exploring of the use of ‘narratives’ in teacher education, it is important to understand what narratives are. Narratives, are more than telling and reading stories and, “seemed especially useful to capture the situated complexities of teachers’ work and classroom practice, often messy, uncertain, and unpredictable” (Lyons, 2007: 614).
According to Polkinghorne (1995: 5), narrative metaphors reveal human activity as focused engagement in the world: “Narrative is the type of discourse that draws together diverse events, happenings and actions of human lives”.

The narrative way of knowing has been strongly advocated by Jerome Bruner. For Bruner, constructivism is "world-making", whereas narratives are "life-making" (Bruner 1985, 11-13); this viewpoint presents an interesting clarification of the parallel between constructivism and the narrative turn in social sciences.

Bruner (1985) explained that human begins construct themselves through narratives and make sense of lives by telling stories of lives. By saying so, Bruner connected the knower to the known, and knowledge-making is acknowledged as an active, innovative and interpretive process, in which the telling and retelling of one’s story provides a framework for the creation of professional knowledge in teaching (Beattie, 1997; Connelly and Clandinin, 1990).

2.5.1 Scope of Narratives

The challenging task when it comes to Narratives is to address the scope to which it can be applied to. From entertainment to shaping our memories, knowledge, and beliefs, narratives permeate our everyday lives. For instance, the daily news on the radio or the television is transmitted in the form of narratives. The impact of narratives on daily lives is time and again overlooked.

A narrative and holistic orientation to professional learning is based on the education and development of the whole person who is becoming a teacher, hence
narratives became a part of teacher education. An attempt to sketch the role of narrative in teacher education based on the literature reviewed is made in the next section.

2.5.2 Narratives in Teacher Education

From the discussion between Plato and Socrates to modern day classrooms, narratives have had a well-established tradition of aiding the learning process. The use of narratives for academic study is believed to have begun in psychology by Sigmund Freud (1910). His usage of life narratives, though, was primarily in applying his psychoanalytic theory to individual lives.

Although the idea that human beings are storytelling creatures is quite ancient, narratives were not seen as relevant to research until recently (Carter, 1993). In the 20th century the understanding and use of life stories and other narrative approaches has grown rapidly. The interest in narratives in fields like psychology, sociology, education and in other regions in linguistics, like language teaching, first and second language acquisition and sociolinguistics has grown. Many educators employed life stories and personal narratives as ways of knowing in teaching and learning (e.g., Clandinin & Connelly, 1999; Witherell & Noddings, 1991; Miller, 2005; Craig, 2006).

Narratives and, in particular, stories people narrate about their lives have become the focus of the developing field of narrative research (Craig, 2001; Pavlenko, 2002; Riessman, 2008). As Pavlenko (2002) argued that narratives have become both the object and the form of narrative inquiry and an authentic means of
research for all areas of human science. According to Connelly and Clandinin’s (1994: 415), stories or narratives are “the closest we can come to experience”.

The narrative orientation to teacher education is based on Dewey’s philosophy of education. He stated that “we learn from experience and reflect on experience”. As Dewey (1966: 50) explained, “educational process is one of continual reorganizing, reconstructing, and transforming experience”. Hence a teacher’s narrative accounts to more than just telling stories; it has implication for how they pursue the image of education as professionals. Indeed, a recent strand of thinking and practice in teacher education places narrative in a center position both as an approach and as the object of teachers’ personal inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). A narrative approach to teacher education is based on the idea that we make meaning through reflection. Reflection shows the way to understanding, which can lead to action; in the case of teachers and understanding can be transformed into renewed and revitalized practice.

Polkinghorne (1988) argues that personal identities and self-concept are achieved through the use of the narrative. Teachers’ personal narrative therefore becomes significant and relevant to establish their pedagogical approach and professional identity.

Carter (1993: 6) stated that stories or narratives became a way of capturing the complexity of the phenomenon with which educational researchers argue. She says narratives “redressed the deficiencies of the traditional atomistic and
positivistic approaches in which teaching was decomposed into discrete variables and indicators of effectiveness”.

Carter (1993) viewed teacher knowledge as being storied in nature and thus storytelling became a natural approach to understand what teachers knew. “Knowledge is rooted in experience and requires a form for its representation” (Eisner, 1988: 15). Teachers’ stories are therefore one of the most enveloping forms we can use to characterize their experiences.

Schwab (1971, 1983) stated that the construction of professional knowledge is comprehended as a relational and interactive process where teacher, student and subject matter are interrelated. This view, in the context of a curriculum for teacher education, challenges the simplistic notions of a curriculum based on a set of theoretical and practical requirements, a course of study, or a list of competencies.

Teacher knowledge is both personal and professional (Cole & Knowles, 2000; Connelly & Clandinin, 1988). Teachers store their knowledge in narratives (Doyle, 1992) and appear to feel comfortable sharing those stories (Jenlink & Kinnucan-Welsch, 2001). In a narrative, holistic conception of a curriculum for teacher education, narratives and stories become the frameworks within which practice is reflected upon, shared and reconstructed in the light of new insights, perspectives, experiences and understandings.
Polkinghorne’s (1988) work provides a comprehensive look at the meaning of narrative, the history of narrative, and narrative in practice. According to Polkinghorne, narratives are cognitive tools used to create meaning. Human beings, therefore use narratives to organize thoughts and convey them to others using a universal plot. This constant schema aids in the communication of events and experiences. Human ability to capture, organize, and restate data from past events dates back to the study of history in Egypt and Babylon. He stated that from narratives are used in many fields to examine and explain human action.

Schultz & Ravitch (2013) examined the writing of new teachers in two different pathways into teaching—a university-based teacher education programme and an alternate certification programme. The teachers were members of a Narrative Writing Group created by the authors to study how teachers build a professional identity, to further comprehend the role of narrative and inquiry in teacher learning, and further to conversations about the design of teacher preparation programmes. An analysis of the teachers’ narratives revealed that their professional identities were formed by their membership in a range of knowledge communities, including the Narrative Writing Group and also their schools, network of friends, and preparation programmes. The narratives of professional identity development were formed in relationship to other people, together with mentor teachers and students. Knowledge and perspectives from this writing
provide significant understandings about the value of addressing teaching as professional practice that have the potential to outline the current conversation about teacher preparation.

Burton, M. & Johnson, A. S. (2010) use narrative portraiture to describe the lived experiences of two teachers and their teacher education programs. In their article they use portraiture, a narrative approach as a tool to teach pre-service teacher educators how to better prepare in-service teachers for work in rural communities. The authors defined portraiture as “...an ethnographically oriented method of inquiry that seeks to capture and explain the ever changing complexities of life and experience” (Burton & Johnson, 2010: 378). In this qualitative study two participants related their experiences with both teaching and learning in rural areas. The research findings from this article concluded that “to help recruit and retain teachers who desire to teach in rural communities, pre-service teachers needed to encounter a teacher education context that valued the synergy between identities and relationships” (Burton & Johnson, 2010: 384).

Clandinin, D. J. & Connelly, F. M. (2000) in their seminal work, provide a foundation for narrative inquiry in qualitative research. They capture the importance of narrative as a research tool and method. Narrative inquirers negotiate relationships between participants, data, and the field. This negotiation requires the telling and retelling of stories by each participant. This work also outlines the key elements such as voice, signature, and audience when composing
a research text. Researchers when writing research text must move past their interim text to encompass the complete inquiry.

Clandinin(1986) in her book *Classroom practice: Teacher images in action* intends to illustrate the experiences of two teachers as it relates to teacher thinking and experiential knowledge. The author mentioned that little research has been done to understand the complexities of teachers’ experiential knowledge. According to Clandinin, research has focused on the execution of theoretical knowledge by teachers in classrooms, which is very different from their experiential knowledge. The importance given to theoretical knowledge as opposed to experiential knowledge highlights the position of teachers in the educational hierarchy. This emphasizes the significance of understanding how experiential knowledge affects teacher practice and more importantly teacher decision making.

S. Preskill (1998) highlighted the value of narratives in teacher education as transformative tools. The author stated that “…narratives of teaching make an invaluable contribution to understanding what it takes to teach well” (Preskill, 1998: 344). As teachers uncover the storied lives of educators they become proficient to create a second self. The second self emerges according to the work of R. Inchausti through one’s search for meaning, discovering, and purposeful reconstruction as a moral leader. Educators can read and write narratives to assist their creation of a second self.
Cooper (1991) described the process of reflection as a way of “witnessing” and “remembering” lived experiences. He presents an explanation on learning process by giving details on how the students used written work for reflection and sharing. He stated that “…The development of voice was particularly important in the establishment of epistemological perspectives that locate one’s self within the context of one’s culture” (p.97). Cooper did not quote Van Manen’s (1991) notions of reflection, but did stress the importance of journaling or keeping a diary.

Doyle & Carter (2003) examined the assumptions and interpretations that lie behind the contents, activities, and arrangements of pre-service teacher preparation, i.e. to explore the curriculum of teacher education. They have set the stage by clarifying briefly what the terms 'narrative' and 'curriculum' mean, examined the underlying assumptions and expectations of the curriculum of pre-service teacher education. They provided a discussion on how teacher education might be redesigned if the narrative perspective were taken seriously.

Seifert (2009), discusses how to choose rich, balanced narratives and how such narratives may be used in teaching educational psychology with examples of how his own students developed and used more traditional expository knowledge through the analysis and re-visioning of stories from Tracy Kidder’s Among Schoolchildren

First, he identified eight candidate narratives, later designed a range of assignments for students that centered on the narrative but also purposely required
access to and amalgamation of theory and research about educational psychology, such as contained in a comprehensive textbook.

He affirmed that the course emphasized narrative much more than textbook knowledge, and since narrative was emphasized both during class sessions and in out-of-class assignments, the results indicated that the teacher trainees learned about educational psychology very well.

The results suggest that it is important to consider how one can best combine the use of both narratives and exposition in teacher education. He stated that students needed to engage not only in narrative thinking, but also in explanation: clarifying terms, analyzing and comparing concepts and ideas, and generalizing while avoiding overgeneralizing to better understand the learning.

He concluded by saying, “What is surprising is the extent to which narrative can replace exposition without significant sacrifice of content coverage. The replacement is made possible, however, only by using narratives that are balanced and rich in detail—not necessarily an easy task”.

Elliot – Johns (2014) puts emphasis on developing explicit awareness of the important “shift” from thinking like a student to thinking like a teacher among teacher trainees.

She said she consciously embedded learning to reflect throughout her work with teacher trainees and systematically models reflective practice. She argues that there is a pressing need to prioritize opportunities for teacher trainees to think
critically, and to experience reflection much more deeply than is possible when reflection is interpreted as, “jotting a note on what I observed”.

She stated that combining Loughran’s influential work with a reflective teaching model grounded in John Dewey’s fundamental equation of, Experience +Reflection = Growth, motivates and enables teacher trainees in language arts classes to progress in the area of reflection, and this also moves them and she calls this movement as the ‘teacher education continuum’.

A narrative is a story that is created in a constructive design as a work of speech, writing, song, film, television, video games, photography or theatre that describes a sequence of fictional or non-fictional events. Narratives and stories provide the framework and context for individuals to better understand others by providing the key to their own vast index of experiences. Connelly and Clandinin (1990: 2) say “Humans are storytelling organisms who, individually and collectively, lead storied lives. Thus, the study of narrative is the study of the ways humans experience the world. In other words, people's lives are made of stories”.

2.6 Implication for the present study

A good amount of literature exists on the relationship between narrative and teacher education. Bruner’s (1986) distinction between narrative and paradigmatic modes of knowledge forms the basis for most of the literature which argues that teacher knowledge is narrative in form. Doyle and Carter (2003: 134) state “the knowledge base for teaching resides in the stories of experience as a teacher”.
There are opportunities for making sense of experience through collaboratively constructed narratives in pre-service teacher education. Many conversations take place between trainee teachers, supervisors and school based mentors after the practice teaching. During this process, narratives are constructed and reconstructed to make sense of and, therefore, learn from events. That is how the trainee teachers form their narratives. Like Doyle and Carter (2003: 9) say ‘they learn to story the act of teaching.’

As implied above, narrative is used beyond biographical/autobiographical aspects, into critical reflection. Implied in these approaches is a view that narrative is a means for shaping experience and not merely for recording it. Narrative is more than reading and telling stories, and “seemed especially useful to capture the situated complexities of teachers’ work and classroom practice, often messy, uncertain, and unpredictable” (Lyons, 2007: 614). It is regarded as an approach to teacher education that helps student teachers to construct knowledge for professional practices. As already sated, the idea of using narrative in teacher education is advocated by Michael Connelly and Jean Clandinin. For them, narrative is not only the texts we read, but also the medium for reflection on personal practical knowledge and the objects of educational research (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000/2007).

As Phillion (2005) notes, a narrative approach to teacher education is based on the idea that we make meaning through reflection. Reflection leads to understanding, which can lead to action; in the case of teachers, reflection can be transformed into
renewed and revitalized practice. A Narrative approach can be used with Pre-service teachers for encouraging proactive learning.

Against this backdrop, where it is established that narratives and reflection are said to be very important for teacher’s professional development, the research aims to identify the opportunities to use narratives to develop reflective practice in pre-service teacher education. Research done on narratives and narrative inquiry focused on using it as a discipline from within the broader field of qualitative research, to understand teacher development (Clandinin and Conelley, 1990; Polkinghorne, 1991; Phillion, 2005). This study aims to better understand how reflective practice could be conceptualised and its development nurtured in pre-service teacher education. It made an attempt to examine the opportunities available to maximize reflection in pre-service teacher education in Indian context.

Doyle and Carter’s (2003: 130) said “a narrative perspective holds that human beings have a universal predisposition to 'story' their experience, that is, to impose a narrative interpretation on information and experience”. Narratives or different forms of narratives like journals, autobiographical writings, diaries etc., have been used as tools for reflection, there isn’t much literature available that explored the use of narratives to develop reflective practice, except for the few discussed in the previous section.

In the context of reflective framework, the study examines the awareness of teachers and teacher trainees about reflection, considered essential for their professional growth, then; a modest attempt is made to explore the opportunities
available to use narratives in pre-service teacher education to develop reflective practice in the Indian context.

2.7 Overview of the Chapter

To present the theoretical background of the study, this chapter began with a discussion on the paradigm shifts in second language teacher education tracing significant developments in the area. The focus of the study is on developing reflective practice; hence the importance of reflection and reflective practices in teacher education was highlighted. Since the study examines the possibilities of using narratives to develop reflective practice, literature on ‘narratives’ in second language teacher education was reviewed. The next chapter presents the research design of the study.