

**Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers'
Instructional Planning**

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Abstract

The main aim of the study was to explore the instructional planning of Teaching English as Second Language (TESL) pre-service teachers (PSTs) in Malaysia. The three research questions used for this research were: (1) How do TESL PSTs plan for their lessons? (2) How do TESL PSTs make their interactive decisions (IDs)? (3) How can TESL pre-service teachers' post-lesson reflections be described?

Five TESL PSTs were involved in the data collection process. The PSTs were observed three times, over the course of their 12-week teaching practicum around Malaysian public secondary schools in the city of Shah Alam, Malaysia. For each lesson observation, an open-ended questionnaire was distributed, the lesson plan was collected, classroom observation was done, followed by a post-lesson interview.

Planning was mostly influenced by their previous experience, knowledge of students, level of self-efficacy, teaching beliefs, and the role of their mentor. Five practices that were common among the PSTs when they make their IDs are referring to their previous experience, using punitive actions, managing their expectations as well as being flexible and immediate when responding to classroom issues. Their reflections on the lessons appear to be done on different levels, depending on how they perceive the criticality of any incidents that occurred in the lesson. The findings also suggest that the PSTs were able to reflect on their experience and use these reflections in planning their subsequent lessons. However, the inconsistencies shown warrant further research on how these PSTs could be further supported in planning their lessons.

The main conclusion that could be drawn from the study was that despite some criticisms on the PSTs' ability to reflect on their lessons, there is potential among these PSTs to reflect and to utilize these reflections further in planning their subsequent lessons, provided they are given appropriate and pragmatic support by the teacher training community in order for them to plan more effective lessons.

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Explanation
TESL	Teaching English as Second Language
ELT	English language teaching
PST	Pre-service teacher
OEQ	Open-ended questionnaire
LP	Lesson plan
PLI	Post-lesson interview
CI	Critical incident

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Author's declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

In the field of teacher education, teaching effectiveness has always remained a central focus. In exploring teaching effectiveness, examining teachers' instructional practice may provide us with an alternative lens to better understand teaching practice. Part of understanding teachers' instructional practice includes an examination of their instructional planning, a long-standing area of interest in the field of teacher education (Ball, Knobloch, & Hoop, 2007; Clark & Dunn, 1991; Clark & Yinger, 1987; Koni & Krull, 2015; Morton & Gray, 2010; Ruys, Van Keer, & Aelterman, 2012). Although these authors highlight the advantages of instructional planning in assisting to heightening teaching effectiveness, Hall and Smith (2006) posit that analysing planning, instruction and reflection as a holistic process is vital in understanding teachers' teaching practice. In the effort to position instructional planning in this research, instructional planning refers to both teacher thoughts and actions on the construction of their lessons. These thoughts and actions may include considerations on not just the content of the lesson, but also classroom management issues, student dynamics as well as logistical issues on classroom equipment. The term instructional planning positioned in this manner allows for a broader examination into how teachers take on instructional planning in their practices, rather than constricting it to their actions in planning for a lesson. An examination into this holistic process may help us understand the instructional planning process that teachers, specifically pre-service teachers (PSTs), go through in conceptualizing teaching. This could further be used in efforts to improve effectiveness in teaching.

The present research intends to explore Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) PSTs' experience in planning their lessons. The dimension the research intends to investigate is the act of one's instructional planning, IDs and post lesson reflections to understand how these stages develop over the course of a full lesson cycle and how this cycle affects PSTs' subsequent instructional planning. This chapter will present the research aims, and research questions, as well as an organizational outline of the thesis.

1.2 Identifying the problem

Malaysia aspires to become a developed country by the year 2020. In efforts to achieve this vision, a 'Malaysia Plan' is drafted to chart the growth of the nation's development every five years, the most recent being the 11th Malaysia Plan (2016-2020). One cannot deny the fact that in the effort to develop a country, education plays a vital role. Malaysia recognizes this, where in every Malaysia Plan drafted, the education sector is given substantial emphasis. The 10th Malaysia Plan addressed the need to boost the quality of teaching in order to ensure students bloom to their full potential (Economic Planning Unit, 2010), while the 11th Malaysian Plan charted a continued effort to improve teacher training at Institutes of Teacher Education.

The Ministry of Education, Malaysia mirrored the aspiration outlined specifically on the education sector in their most recent document-the Malaysia Education Blueprint. The blueprint reviewed the current education system and outlined strategies that could be undertaken to match the increasing international education standards (Ministry of Education, 2012). One of the chapters in the blueprint focused on teachers and school leaders where aspects of quality in teaching were investigated, among other things. In Section 5-2 of the blueprint, three important measures were identified to improve teachers and teaching practice, specifically raising the entry standards for teaching courses, revamping the career path for in-service teachers as well as improving the effectiveness of both pre-service and in-service teachers' professional development (Ministry of Education, 2012). Annual reviews of the education blueprint in 2013, 2014 and 2015 indicated that the Institutes of Teacher Education have begun to implement more stringent entry requirements by only offering places to the top 30% of high achievers in the Malaysian Certificate of Education, a national-level exam taken by high-school seniors (Ministry of Education, 2014, 2015, 2016). However, in terms of improving the effectiveness of PSTs' professional development, the efforts thus far are limited to enhancing the practicum experience, which is yet to be outlined in the annual review.

With regards to improving the effectiveness of PSTs' professional development, it is pivotal for stakeholders to first understand the teaching experiences of these young teachers. For the past five years, research on PSTs' practicum experiences in the Malaysian context has included perception, concerns and attitudes on various issues (Berg & Smith, 2014; Low, Lee, & Che Ahmad, 2017; Senom, Zakaria, & Shah, 2013), the development of their beliefs (Berg & Smith, 2016; Juliana Othman & Kiely, 2016), and reflective practice (Nambiar & Thang, 2016; Yaacob, Walters, Ali, Abdullah, &

Walters, 2014; Yee, Abdullah, & Nawi, 2017), as well as the development of their pedagogical content knowledge (Hosseini & Kamal, 2013; Leong, Meng, Rahim, & Syrene, 2015), among other things. Although there has been a lot of research looking at the practicum experience of PSTs in Malaysia, there seems to be a lack of studies that provide empirical evidence on understanding the instructional planning experience of TESL PSTs, where most research on teacher planning has been located as pedagogical content knowledge research.

The present study attempts to fill this knowledge gap by investigating the PSTs practices in planning, interaction as well as their post-lesson reflections in full-lesson cycles, where the teachers' practice is positioned as the central focus. It is hoped that this research will contribute empirical data in the field of TESL teacher training by identifying the TESL PSTs' current practice in teaching during their practicum. These empirical data could then serve as a starting point to enhance TESL PSTs' practicum experience, as envisioned by the Malaysia Education Blueprint.

1.3 Rationale for the research

In Malaysia, there is enormous pressure for improvement in teachers and teaching practice. One of the chapters in the Malaysia Educational Blueprint focused on teachers and school leaders where aspects of quality in teaching were investigated among other things. The team found that only 12% of lessons observed in 41 schools were delivered to a high-standard, 38% managed to meet satisfactory standards and most worrying, 50% of the lessons observed were at unsatisfactory level (Ministry of Education, 2012). Although the Malaysian Educational Blueprint's (2012) findings are based on research done with in-service teachers, it gives an indication of how the situation will be when pre-service teachers enter the profession.

Numerous studies have been conducted to trace pre-service teachers' development during teacher-training programs (Kagan, 1992). These indicated that pre-service teachers carry with them distinct characteristics that segregate them from the rest of the teaching profession. Feiman-Nemser (2001) put forth that teacher training programs are crucial for pre-service teachers as this is the time they begin their skill and habit formation, as well as to realise that talking about teaching will significantly help them improve their practice. Therefore, echoing Feiman-Nemser's (2001) views, the present research calls for the investigation of the instructional experiences of TESL PSTs during their practicum. This will in turn lead to a better understanding of what TESL PSTs think and do during their

teaching practice, informing the teacher training community on how best could they aid these young, aspiring teachers to teach more effectively.

In most teacher education contexts in Malaysia, pre-service teachers (PSTs) are usually trained for at least three years before they are placed in schools for practicum. Practicum is carried out for the purpose of allowing the PSTs to experience real-life teaching practice, typically in government secondary schools. The PSTs would have received training in numerous subject areas before they are able to experience teaching practice. It is customary for practicum supervisors to expect a certain level of ability in conducting lessons as well as in other areas that teaching entails, given the fact that they have studied various courses on education. Supervisors are expected to provide feedback as well as to evaluate the lessons they observe and to offer help and support when needed. These roles validate the need for research to be conducted on understanding how the PSTs perceive and conduct their teaching practice, namely during the instructional planning process, actions that they take while conducting a lesson, as well as in examining their reflections on their lessons.

1.4 Main aim and research questions

The main aim of this study is to explore the instructional planning of TESL PSTs. In the attempt to achieve this aim, this research intends to answer the following research questions:

1. How do TESL pre-service teachers plan for their lessons?
2. How do the TESL pre-service teachers make their interactive decisions?
3. How can TESL pre-service teachers' post-lesson reflections be described?

1.5 Contribution of the study

The present study contributes to a better understanding of how TESL PSTs plan their lessons. The examination of a full lesson cycle that encompasses planning, interactive decisions (IDs) and post-lesson reflections provides a more comprehensive perspective on making sense of how TESL PSTs plan for their lessons. Through the better understanding of how this process, it is hoped that the teacher training community, especially in Malaysia, will be able to provide better support for helping TESL PSTs to teach more effectively during their practicum. Thus, in the attempt to achieve what the Malaysia Educational Blueprint had outlined for the improvement of teacher training, the current research suggests that the first step in enhancing PSTs' teaching practicum and

training them to teach more effectively is to understand their experiences, behaviour and thoughts during teaching practice, by examining their instructional planning experience in delivering their lessons.

1.6 Overview of the constituent chapters

This section will provide an overview of the chapters in this thesis, following chapter 1:

Chapter 2: This chapter discusses in detail the research context in which the research is situated. The chapter is presented by providing an overview of the Malaysian educational system, teacher education in Malaysia, as well as a dedicated section to provide some background information on the research site.

Chapter 3: The literature review discusses relevant theoretical perspectives underpinning this research. The literature review mainly covers four broad areas; which are teacher cognition, teachers' planning, interactive decisions, and reflective practice.

Chapter 4: This chapter provides a detailed description of the methodology utilised to collect data. The chapter addresses the research paradigm, sampling procedures, instrumentation as well as the procedures taken by the researcher during the data collection process. Detailed justification for the research method selected is also provided.

Chapter 5 and 6: These chapters provide answers to the research questions by presenting the findings of the research. chapter 5 presents a thick description of the findings from the individual cases, which leads to the presentation of chapter 6, which provides a cross-case analysis, identifying common themes and highlighting differences found across the individual case studies.

Chapter 7: This chapter provides a critical analysis and discussion of how the findings answer research questions 1, 2 and 3.

Chapter 8: In this chapter, implications and directions for future research is discussed. A final conclusion for this research is also provided.

CHAPTER 2: CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide context for the present study. Aligning itself with the research aim, which is to explore TESL PSTs' instructional planning experience during their practicum, this chapter will provide a comprehensive overview of three key elements in which the research is positioned. This chapter will provide the background of the Malaysian education system, teacher education in Malaysia and the background information on the research site.

2.2 Overview of the Malaysian Education System

Malaysia is a relatively young country. Malaysia gained its independence from Britain on the 31st of August 1957. It is only after independence that official policies were documented in the efforts to have a standard education system. Among the important documents that contributed to the development of the Malaysian education system in the early days are the 1956 Razak Report, the 1957 Education Ordinance, the 1961 Rahman Talib Report and Education Act, the 1979 Cabinet Report and the 1995 Education Bill (Ministry of Education, n. d). The development of these reports signalled the immediate needs of education at the time the reports were drafted. For instance, after independence, the 1956 Razak Report addressed the need for the country to have a national education system and for the education system to be Malaysian-oriented. The requirements of the education system; as stipulated in the reports, moved on from addressing the 3Rs, namely Reading, Writing and Arithmetic, to enhancing the education system to become of a world-class standard.

At present, Malaysia's management of their education system is based on a top-down approach. The World Data on Education as reported by UNESCO and IBE (2011) described federal, state, district and school as the jurisdictional hierarchy of the system. Educational plans, programmes and policies are decided at the federal level. The State Education Department is mostly in charge of monitoring the organization, management and implementation of programmes for the schools in its state. The District Education Offices provide help to the State Education Department in managing schools located within its' jurisdiction (UNESCO & IBE, 2011). The District Education Office is also described as the link between schools and the State Education Department. A headmaster

or a principal in charge of the running and administration heads each school. The description provided below encompasses the public education system in Malaysia.

In Malaysia, a typical school year begins in January. Formal education begins as early as four years old, depending on the year the child turns four, regardless of their birth month. At this age, parents have the option to send their children to kindergarten until they reach six years old. At that point, parents could send their children to government pre-schools, which are located in government primary schools; or they can opt to continue at private kindergartens of their choice.

Primary school begins at the age of seven and lasts for six years. The 2002 Education Act made it compulsory for parents to register their children for primary education in January of the year their children turn seven. Failure to do so would result in parents being fined up to Malaysian Ringgit (MYR) 5000 or jailed for six months (Ministry of Education, 2002). For primary education, parents have the choice to either to send their children to a national school or a national-type school. The national school uses the Malay language as its medium of instruction and the national-type school uses either Tamil or Mandarin as the medium of instruction, both languages using the same curriculum as the national school. Another differentiating factor besides the medium of instruction, is that the Tamil and Mandarin languages are also taught as additional subjects at the national-type schools. At the end of Year 6, students sit for a national examination called Ujian Penilaian Sekolah Rendah (UPSR). Students at national schools sit for six subjects; namely Bahasa Malaysia (Malay language)-Paper 1 (Comprehension) and Paper 2 (Essay), English)-Paper 1 (Comprehension) and Paper 2 (Essay), Mathematics and Science. Students at national-type schools have two additional papers, either Tamil 1 and Tamil 2, or Mandarin 1 and Mandarin 2. Their results in the UPSR examination typically determines whether they qualify to enter prestigious secondary schools in Malaysia; and if not to determine which competency group they belong to in the secondary school they do enter.

Secondary education typically begins at the age of thirteen and continues until the age of seventeen. It is divided into lower secondary, from thirteen to fifteen years old (Form 1-Form 3), and upper secondary, from sixteen to seventeen years old (Form 4-Form 5). Upon entering upper secondary education, students may choose different streams of study based on their preferences. Among the options that they have are science, vocational and technical, Islamic studies and the arts stream. At the end of upper secondary, they will sit for another summative assessment called Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia, which is equivalent to

O Levels. The grades they obtain at this point generally determine their pathway for higher education; thus, making the assessment the most important step in their secondary education. Students then enrol in either Form Six, matriculation colleges, or courses that are equivalent to an A Level qualification. Besides enrolling into these courses, some also opt to begin their diploma studies. Only after they obtain these qualifications are they eligible to enrol in any degree programmes, depending on their A Level or equivalent results.

2.3 Teacher Education in Malaysia

Hussin (1993), in his book *Education in Malaysia: History, System and Philosophy*, elaborated upon the history of teacher education in Malaysia by analysing it from the colonial era. In short, he indicated that serious attention to teacher education only began in 1955, two years prior to its independence from Britain. The 1956 Razak Report played a very important role in the restructuring of the teacher education system in Malaysia (Hussin, 1993). This report aimed to foster unity through a unified education system for all levels of schooling. By the end of 1985, 29 teacher training colleges had been founded across Malaysia, at an average of two per state. Hussin (1993) reiterated that due to the demands of rapid development in secondary education, several universities began to assume training of school teachers.

This precedent explains the teachers' demographic profiles in Malaysian schools today. The teachers in Malaysia are those who are either trained in Institut Perguruan Malaysia (Malaysia teacher training institutes) or at Institut Pengajian Tinggi Awam (public universities) that have faculties or schools of education. To date, the Institut Perguruan Malaysia (IPGM) has 27 campuses across the country, while there are 13 Institut Pengajian Tinggi Awam (IPTA) that offer Bachelor of Education degrees. Currently, IPGM trains teachers for primary education while IPTA trains teachers for secondary schools.

Teacher training institutions and programmes have received a lot of attention in the national development plans (Economic Planning Unit, 2010; Ministry of Education, 2012). In the latest 10th Malaysian Plan, as drafted by the Economic Planning Unit (2010), and the Malaysian Educational Blueprint, published by Ministry of Education (2012), significant emphasis was given to teacher training issues as part of the effort to raise the education standard in Malaysia. Among the strategies outlined to improve the education standard are “turning teaching into a profession of choice” (Ministry of

Education, 2012, p. 5-2). In this specific strategy to improve the education standard in Malaysia, teacher training was given emphasis in which the bar for entry into the teaching profession will be raised, as well as strengthening the teacher training programmes by improving the curriculum and teacher trainers.

2.4 Research Site

The site chosen for this research is a Malaysian public university that offers over 500 academic programmes. Its Faculty of Education offers Bachelor of Education degrees; with the options of majoring in Teaching English as Second Language (TESL), Mathematics, Physical and Health Education, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, as well as Visual Arts. The present study involved students from the Bachelor of Education in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL).

2.4.1 The Pre-Service Teachers

The demographic profiles of the PSTs are similar to that of any other Malaysian public university that offers full-time Bachelor of Education programmes. The PSTs' ages range between 19 to 23 years old. The pre-requisite upon entering a Bachelor of Education programme is an A-Level or equivalent, which means that the students would have either sat for Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia (STPM), which also means Malaysian High School Certificate, undergone two years of Ministry of Education matriculation programmes or completed their preparatory programmes at various Centre of Foundation studies at different public universities. It is also vital to note that upon entering any Bachelor of Education programmes, these PSTs go through a strict selection process, which will be described further below.

Having good teacher training facilities and programmes does not carry much impact to change in the education field if teacher selection is not given any attention, thus indicating a need for a sound selection process (Joharry Othman et al., 2008). Ramli et al. (2013) summarized the selection process of potential PSTs upon entering the teacher training programmes in three stages, namely; screening through academic achievements, sitting for an aptitude test called the Malaysian Education Selection Inventory (MedSI) and going through an interview process. Joharry Othman et al. (2008) indicated the need for administering an aptitude test prior to conducting interviews with potential applicants; this need became stronger as conducting interviews as the sole selection method is not feasible due to limited manpower. Besides serving as a filtering system prior to an interview, the screening instrument developed by Joharry Othman et al. (2008) was aimed

at measuring the candidates' personality and aptitude, which will enable the teacher training institutions and the public universities to form a better-fitting group of teacher candidates to select from to be trained at their respective institutions.

2.4.2 The Programme

The Bachelor of Education in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) programme is designed to be completed in four years, which is equivalent to 8 semesters. The programme covers four major subject areas, which are TESL methodologies, literature, educational studies and linguistics. The PSTs have to complete 131 credit hours in order to be awarded the degree of Bachelor of Education (TESL). These credit hours are distributed over a total of 49 courses, of which the credit hours range from one to three.

In the first year, the PSTs go through a total of 31 credit hours, which are done in a total of 13 courses. These courses are mostly aimed at introducing the PSTs to basic concepts in education. Among the courses undertaken at this stage are History and Development of Education, Introduction to Guidance and Counselling, Literature in Malaysian Schools and Structure of English.

Upon completing the first year, the PSTs now progress to undertake another 41 credit hours in 16 courses. The first half of their second-year courses still prepares them with general content subjects such as Educational Psychology, Applied Phonetics and Phonology, as well as Literature in Media. In this first half of their second year, PSTs also are given the opportunity to experience an actual school environment in their Field Experience course. In this course, they do not teach, but instead observe the school surroundings and capture their observation in a report.

The second part of the year is crucial as they now begin practical content courses that will be vital for them once they start their practicum. The first two methodology courses that the PSTs undertake during their second year are Methodology in Teaching Listening and Speaking and Methodology in Teaching Literature.

In the third year of the programme, TESL PSTs are required to complete 14 courses worth 38 credit hours. There are three more methodology courses to be undertaken during this year, namely Methodology in Teaching Reading, Methodology in Teaching Drama and Methodology in Teaching Writing. These methodology courses include an evaluation of the PSTs who had to perform a microteaching session using the a current secondary school syllabus. In total, the PSTs would have had conducted five microteaching sessions

before they go for their practicum. Apart from the practical and general content courses, the PSTs are also introduced to basic concepts of research in the third year. The courses that prepare them to embark on research are Introduction to Research Methodology and Basic Data Analysis.

At this juncture, it is important to note that the PSTs are not eligible to go for their practicum if they do not pass the methodology courses prior to their practicum semester, which is in their final year. The final year begins with the placement of the TESL PSTs in identified schools within the district. Further information on the practicum is provided in the next section.

The PSTs return to the faculty after their practicum for their final semester, undertaking 16 credit hours in 6 courses. This final semester is mostly dedicated to recapitulating their experience during their practicum in courses such as Professional Development, Current Issues in Education and Academic Exercise. An Academic Exercise is a mini research conducted by the PSTs on issues that they find interesting during their practicum or during their course of study. They will be assigned another supervisor to advise and coach them on completing the research. By the end of semester 8, they are required to submit a research report of the study that they have conducted.

2.4.3 The Practicum

In the 7th semester, PSTs undergo a teaching practice exercise, i.e the practicum. The PSTs are placed in secondary schools across the district for the duration of twelve weeks, where they experience the reality of being a school teacher. The PSTs were placed in schools that have accepted the offer to host the PSTs at random, without any specific preferences given to any groups of students.

In preparing the students for the practicum experience, the faculty-appointed committee, comprised of faculty lecturers, organizes a pre-practicum seminar for five days. During the seminar, the PSTs are exposed to issues that are relevant to them such as discipline levels in schools, expectations of the PSTs and other topics that are decided to be relevant by the practicum committee. The talks are delivered by faculty lecturers, experienced in-service teachers who usually hold administrative posts in schools, and officers from the Ministry of Education. The PSTs are also briefed on formal documentation and procedures required by the faculty during their practicum. Besides that, PSTs also carry out presentations during the pre-practicum seminars on given topics.

PSTs begin their week in practicum by embarking on to the School Orientation Programme for a week in their respective schools. During this week, they collect information on how the school functions, observe classroom practice and compile all the information in a School Orientation Programme Report. This report contributes 10% to their practicum grade, as determined by their supervisor.

The PSTs begin to teach in the second week of practicum, where they will be assigned to classes accordingly. The in-service teachers who teach these classes will automatically be appointed as their mentor. The mentor functions as a point of reference for the PSTs for any school-related issues that they might face during their practicum. The mentor is also responsible to observe and grade the PSTs' teaching performance, through the observation of six lessons; ideally to be equally distributed at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the practicum session. The mentors' grades carry a weightage of 60% towards the PSTs' practicum grade.

Besides the mentor, the PSTs will also be assigned to a faculty lecturer who acts as their supervisor. The supervisor observes three lessons throughout the practicum session and the marks given by this supervisor account for 30% of the teacher trainee's overall grade. The assessment done by the supervisor includes the PSTs' lesson plans, teaching, attitude as well as their reflective journals.

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the context of the study in terms of providing an overview of the Malaysian educational system, teacher education in the Malaysian context as well as highlighting important key elements of the research site. It is hoped that a better understanding of the research context has been achieved with the information provided. The next chapter is set out to position the research in a more global research community by providing an in-depth discussion of the existing literature.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will present and discuss theoretical orientations that underpin the present research. The chapter is divided to address four major tenets that form the focus of the current study, which are effective teaching, instructional planning, IDs and post-lesson reflections.

Effective teaching sets the background to the current research. This makes it important to highlight how scholars view effectiveness in teaching, and how effectiveness in teaching is viewed in the field of teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) A final section on teaching effectiveness also addresses a review of how teaching experiences of a novice differ from those of an experienced teacher.

In discussing instructional planning, this chapter will present a review of the ‘why’ and ‘how’ of the instructional planning process. Planning concerns among novice teachers as well as factors influencing teachers’ planning decisions are also included.

A review of interactive decision-making is also conducted to revisit the concept of doing so while teaching. This involved a discussion on understanding the demands of making IDs, characteristics that are associated with successful interactive decisions and how reflective practice could be useful during the decision-making process.

Finally, a review of post-lesson reflection is also conducted to understand what beginning teachers think about post-lesson, as well as to explore the notion of retrospective reflection further in the field of teacher education.

3.2 Effective teaching

The Malaysian government is striving to raise their efforts toward improving the education system to match the raising international education standards. This was reflected in the Malaysia Educational Blueprint by the Ministry of Education (2012), where strategies were outlined in effort to improve the education system. One of the focuses in the blueprint was on improving the effectiveness of the teacher education programmes at the Teacher Training Institutes. However, up until 2016, annual reports on the progress of the strategies outlined in the blueprint, specifically in the effort to improve the effectiveness of teacher education are limited to enhancing the practicum

experience, which is yet to be outlined in the annual review, as presented in the previous chapter. In addressing the aims outlined by the Malaysia Educational Blueprint on improving the effectiveness of teacher education, it is unclear on how the term ‘effectiveness’ is defined.

Muijs and Reynolds (2011, pp. 1-2) listed the characteristics of ‘effective teachers’ found to be common through the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s as:

- clarity in teaching and in administrative routines
- high opportunity to learn through curriculum coverage
- lesson structure that is well-organized
- class management that maximizes pupil attention
- active teaching that ‘takes’ curriculum content to children
- high levels, and quality, of questioning
- good time management
- frequent feedback.

A similar list of characteristics was also suggested by Kyriacou (2009, p. 12) in his review of process-product studies, which are:

- clarity of the teacher’s explanations and directions
- establishing a task-oriented classroom climate
- making use of a variety of learning activities
- establishing and maintaining momentum and pace for the lesson
- encouraging pupils’ progress and attending quickly to pupils’ needs
- delivering a well-structured and well-organised lesson
- providing pupils with positive and constructive feedback
- ensuring coverage of the educational objectives
- making use of good questioning techniques

Both these lists describe how the field of teaching effectiveness has a set of skills ‘expected’ from effective teachers. A closer look into the list provided would inform us that there is a general consensus among scholars that effective teachers possess a set of skills that differentiates them from other teachers during different phases of teaching.

Apart from the skills above, Klassen & Tze (2014) suggest that teaching effectiveness may also be influenced by teachers’ psychological factors such as level of motivation, personality and self-efficacy. More often than not, these three traits relate to each other in many ways. Self-efficacy and motivation could be argued as related to one another as

Bandura (1977) describes self-efficacy as the amount of effort one is willing to put in, in order to persist under pressure. However, the difference between motivation and self-efficacy is also determined by defining self-efficacy as peoples' beliefs in their capabilities (Bandura, 2012). Bandura (2012) included four sources of self-efficacy which are from mastery experience, social modelling, social persuasion and resolve. Believing in one's capability may stem from experiencing hardships and persevering through the hardships. If success comes easy in one's way, he or she may expect an easy solution to every obstacle that comes. Secondly, social modelling occurs when seeing other people that are similar to oneself being able to succeed. This may impact how people belief in their capabilities, positively or negatively. A person that is persuaded that they will succeed in performing certain tasks could also have better self-efficacy. Finally, Bandura (2012) encourages people to examine their self-improvement, rather than comparing their achievements with others in efforts to have better self-efficacy.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) added on by equating the level of self-efficacy with the amount of effort teachers are willing to put into their lessons. In their meta-analysis of 43 studies that focused on teachers' psychological characteristics and teaching effectiveness, Klassen and Tze (2014) found a small but significant relationship between teachers' psychological characteristics and teaching effectiveness. Further to this, they suggest that teacher-training programmes should provide opportunities for learning, provide supportive feedback and most importantly help PSTs manage emotions that may hamper their teaching effectiveness. A similar meta-analysis review done by Zee and Koomen (2016) on studies of self-efficacy and quality of classroom practices also indicated positive links between these two variables. However, it is important to note that in their meta-analysis review, quality of classroom practices was measured using the constructs of instructional support, classroom organization and emotional support. It may be premature to assume that these constructs are what define teaching effectiveness. Nevertheless, the findings yielded from the review provide the research community a better understanding of how teacher self-efficacy may affect classroom practices.

Apart from describing teaching effectiveness from the skills and psychological perspectives, scholars have also examined teaching effectiveness from the context-process-product framework as suggested by Kyriacou (2009) in Figure 1. He further asserted that each variable in the framework is 'problematic' to be researched on its own as a single variable. For example, focusing on the context variable may be challenging for researchers, as they are limited to focus on one context at a time. The dependability

between the sub-variables that exists in the context variable also poses a challenge as one may influence the other. Researching just teacher characteristics without taking into account the community characteristic may have a different effect on the research result as opposed to examining both sub-variables together. Furthermore, no two contexts are the same, even if we examine two teachers working at the same school (Rich & Hannafin, 2008). These two teachers would operate in different contexts from one another because they may have different groups of students, different home communities, among other things. Thus, examining just context in researching teacher effectiveness may not provide a holistic view of how teaching is constructed.

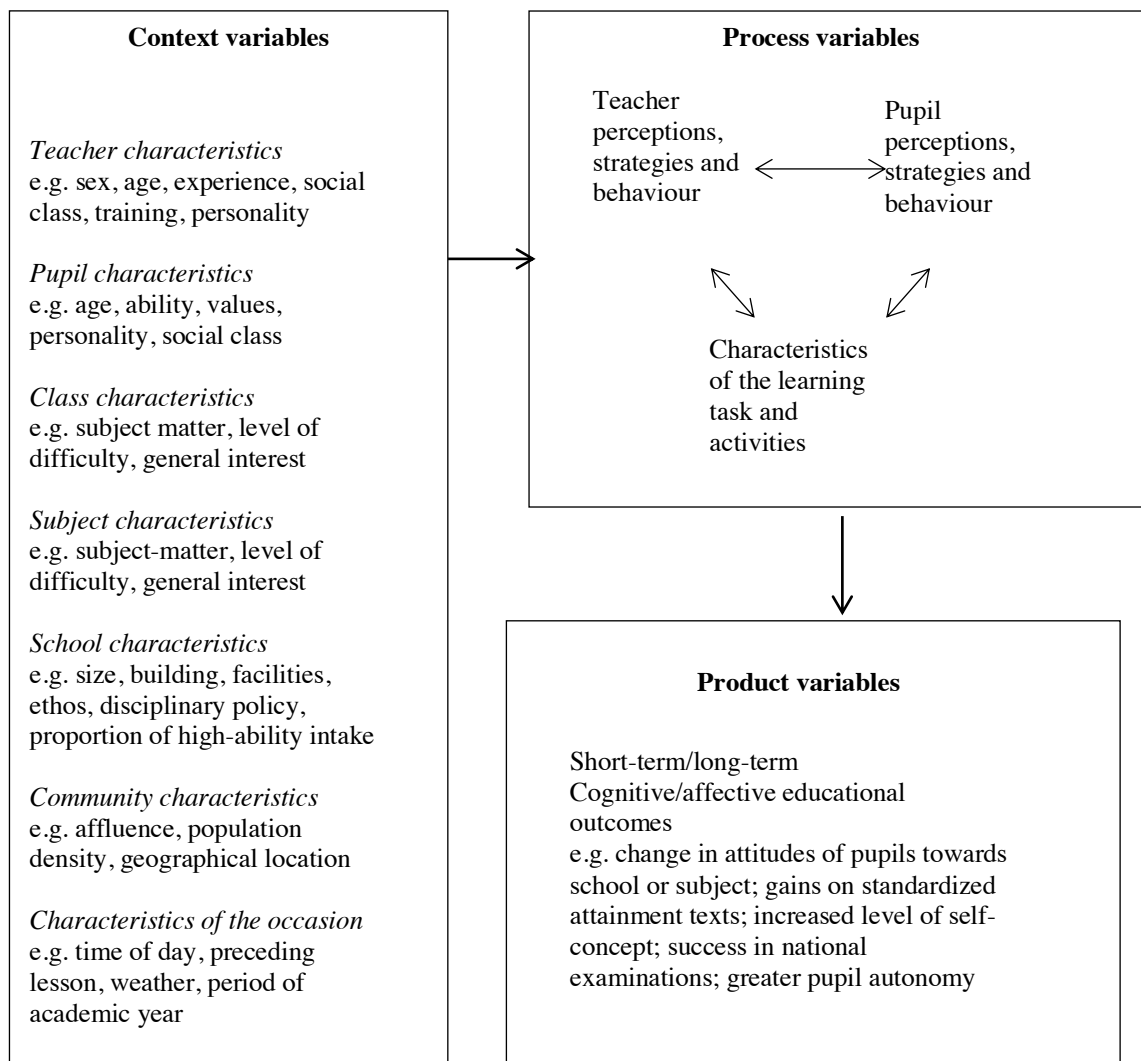


Figure 1: A basic framework for thinking about effective teaching

(Adapted from Kyriacou, 2009)

Focusing on the process variable requires researchers to be cautious in the data interpretation that might not yield a straightforward answer. Nonetheless, the richness that this kind of data “clarified the basic nature of [the] process variable involved in

teaching” (Kyriacou, 2009, p. 10) that included objective as well as subjectively assessed qualities. The process variable as seen in Figure 1 included the examination of teacher and student perceptions, strategies and behaviour. Cooper and McIntyre (1996) made a salient point by cautioning practitioners that it would be too quick of a judgment to assume that certain behaviours are what constitute effective teaching, but what teachers and students try to achieve in a classroom may offer good starting points to understand and generate hypotheses on effective classroom teaching.

Research that focuses on product variables faces the critical question of how do we know that effective teaching has taken place, where Kyriacou (2009) stated that effective teaching lies essentially in “how a teacher can successfully bring about the desired pupil learning by some educational activity” (p. 10). Further examples of using product to measure effectiveness are the usage of standard attainment tests and national examinations (Ballou & Springer, 2015; Clotfelter, Ladd, & Vigdor, 2007; Deming, 2014; Kyriacou, 2009; Muijs, 2006). But, associating teacher behaviour with student performance may not depict the actual teacher competence of the teacher as some teachers are adept at preparing the students for tests but not necessarily teaching more widely (Deming, 2014; Kyriacou, 2009). Contextually, preparing students for examinations was common in Malaysia because the education system was product-oriented for many years. It is only recently that the direction has changed to focus on the learning process by introducing school-based assessment, with the hope of lifting the burden of performing in national examinations off the teachers and students. Therefore, Deming (2014) and Kyriacou (2009) made a valid point where student performance does not necessarily point to teachers’ teaching effectiveness, as teaching effectiveness meant more than just producing students with great examination results.

Based on the three different variables available for research on teaching effectiveness, Kyriacou (2009) described two research strategies that were adopted from the framework depicted in Figure 2. Firstly, he asserts that a majority of research on teaching effectiveness uses the process-product approach. Research done in this way examines the relationship between teacher behaviour and students’ desired attainment. In other words, this assumes that teacher behaviour “led-or did not lead-to student learning” (Freeman, 2002, p. 2) Although some studies showed positive correlation between these two variables (Muijs & Reynolds, 2011), this strategy was criticized by Cooper and McIntyre (1996) who claimed that in the European context, it did not work because of the complexity of the classroom processes and the desired outcomes. The second strategy

described by Kyriacou (2009) is the process strategy, where such strategy is deemed powerful in providing rich sets of data that could be used to describe teaching effectiveness. Hence, the current research is positioned at the ‘process’ strategy by arguing that unless we understand what PSTs’ experiences are like when they plan for their lessons, we will not be able to provide the right support in the pursuit of raising the effectiveness of teaching for PSTs.

Positioning effective teaching in the field of language teaching is challenging as to date, there are no specific benchmarks for second language teachers’ effectiveness in teaching, nor are there any strategies for language teachers to utilize to become more effective (Farrell, 2015). In search of past work on effective teaching for the ESL classroom, most authors refer to effectiveness in teaching in a more generalized context versus specific ideas that refer to the field of ESL teaching. The works of Farrell (2001, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016), Farrell and Bennis (2013), Johnson (2005) and Tsui (2003) are some of the limited studies that have addressed the issue of teaching effectiveness in the field of ESL. Nonetheless, the term ‘effective teaching’ was not unanimously used to describe teaching practice, where it is sometimes replaced by the word ‘expert teaching’ by Farrell (2015) in the field of ESL teaching.

3.2.1 Pre-service, Novice and Expert Teachers

The interest in studying these groups of teachers stemmed from the fact that each group carry with them different dynamics that are shaped by the varying amounts of teaching experience, exposure, resources and so on (Wildman, Niles, Magliaro, & McLaughlin, 1989).

PSTs are also called as student teachers, or trainee teachers in some educational contexts. Essentially, PSTs are considered those who are in training to become teachers and have yet to complete their teacher-training course. Wildman et al.’s (1989) definition of novice or beginning teachers is those who need to be teaching effectively but are still learning to teach. This definition is going to be revisited in the following paragraph. The definition of beginning teachers provided by Wildman et al. (1989), if it may be extended to PSTs suggests that PSTs are those who are still learning on how to teach. They are in a less pressured environment in terms of teaching effectively because of their ‘student’ teacher status.

Although Akbari (2007) argues that PSTs are not fully aware of their teaching environment, Cohen-Sayag and Fischl (2012) in their study on PSTs’ reflections found

that they are able to voice reasonable concerns about teaching. Weinstein (1989) described that pre-service teachers usually enter the education program with “overly idealistic, optimistic and affective attitudes of teaching” (in Lotter, 2004, p. 29), which is shaped by their experiences of being students themselves. He added on by suggesting that these experiences serve as a filtering system for the student teachers to navigate through their teacher training courses. On the other hand, Doyle (1997) found in her study that these beliefs are changed by their field experiences, provided they are able to reflect on their experiences and build their knowledge base from these experiences during their practicum or field experience. This is to put forth that PSTs do go into the teacher-training programmes with pre-conceived ideas about teaching, and it is vital for teacher trainers to focus on building their professional knowledge base by providing support for them to realize the value of these experiences in their teaching. This also highlights research on teacher training as a critical area, as belief formation before they enter the profession is crucial in producing teachers who are effective, as desired by the Malaysia Educational Blueprint (Ministry of Education, 2012).

Beginning teachers or novice teachers are defined as those who have just entered the teaching profession. At this juncture, it is important to note that the terms novice and expert are hardly defined by the number of years in teaching (Farrell, 2013). Based on this, the term novice teachers in this research context is kept to those who had completed their teacher-training course and have begun their formal teaching profession. Although they have just begun their profession, which is typically not too far from them holding a student teacher status, the expectations that are placed upon them are quite daunting, as they are expected to teach effectively, and yet are still not sufficiently equipped with teaching experience (Wildman et al., 1989). Berliner (1987) concurred with this finding in his study, where he found that novice teachers possess facts, concepts, and propositional knowledge, but have insufficient personal experience. The lack of experience causes the novice teachers to spend more time and thought on the development of a lesson (Calderhead, 1984). He further added that the beginning teachers also would have to put some thought into possible outcomes of the activities, as this is not built into their schemata yet.

The description provided for beginning or novice teachers differs slightly as the expectation to perform is imposed, but the scaffold to help them perform is removed. The circumstances shape the dynamics of the situation for beginning and novice teachers, as they grapple with the challenges by themselves as compared with PSTs who have

supervisors and assigned mentors to 'hold their hands'. However, a conclusion that can be drawn from Doyle (1997) that the beliefs of these beginning and novice teachers are slightly more sophisticated than PSTs as they already had experience teaching to some extent, modifying how they conceptualize teaching. This could mean the modification to the beliefs are made from experiencing teaching itself, where their knowledge about teaching is built from these teaching experiences.

The field of ESL characterizes teacher expertise differently, but there does appear to be a fundamental agreement. For example, Berliner (1987) summarized his findings on what constitutes expert teachers concisely in his writing. He suggests that because of the vast amount of experience that an expert teacher has, it changes the way they perceive things in the classroom, including perception, memory and thought. The distinct characteristic that differentiates an expert teacher from another teacher who has the same amount of experience is that the experience of the expert teacher is used to shape a more sophisticated and useful perception of the classroom. Similarly, Goodwyn (2017) described the skilfulness of an expert teacher in solving problems in the classroom, attributing it to their ability of automaticity that has come through practice. Although this indicates that expert teachers are experienced teachers, it is argued that not all experienced teachers are expert teachers (Tsui, 2009b). Tsui (2009b) further suggests that experienced teachers progress to become expert teachers only if they are engaged in the process of reflection and conscious deliberation of their practice, again putting the emphasis on reflecting on practices to progress in teaching.

In terms of decision making skills, Tsui (2009a) found in her study that expert teachers are more likely to exercise autonomy in their decision-making skills. This autonomy is perhaps explained by Goodwyn (2017) who posits "experts have remarkably organized minds that allow them to demonstrate qualitatively different representation and organization of knowledge" (p. 12). In addition to this, Calderhead (1984) postulates that expert teachers mark a vast difference from beginning teachers in terms of how they structure their knowledge of their students, situation and classroom contexts, that is incorporated into their repertoire of teaching strategies that will produce a more effective learning environment. Because they are able to organize their minds so well, expert teachers are able to select which schema they should retrieve in dealing with classroom issues in a much more sophisticated way than novice or non-expert teachers.

The distinct characteristics of each group of teachers discussed above influences the way decisions are made during different phases of teaching, namely the pre-and post-teaching

phases as well as during the interactive phase (Tsui, 2009). The pre-and post-active phases refer mostly to lesson planning decisions, where expert teachers are described as being more flexible in responding to contextual variations, indicating that they are more adaptable to the differences that may appear with different groups of learners. In contrast to expert teachers, Calderhead (1984) found that beginning teachers' planning requires more thinking as compared to the expert teachers. This could be attributed to the 'expert' level of a teacher where the thinking process has become more automatized as compared with the beginning teachers (Farrell, 2013). Ball et al. (2007) conducted a study on the instructional experiences of both intern and novice teachers and found that both groups had instructional planning experiences influenced by similar themes, which were knowledge and experience, schedules, school administrators, facilities, technology, resources, students, personality, and impracticality of planning methods. The differences that these groups offer to the findings was the different contexts that they were in, thus contributing to unique, individual examples to the themes found for the study.

Although the current study focuses on the planning experiences of PSTs, references will also be made to the experiences of expert teachers as well to achieve a more comprehensive picture of an 'ideal' position that the PSTs are expected to be in. Thus, the following sections will make references to expert teacher, novice as well as PSTs' experiences as these will allow the study to examine the data in a more informed way. Another salient point that needs to be made is in reviewing studies on teaching expertise, where there appears to be a void as most studies tend to focus on the teaching stages individually (Hall & Smith, 2006). This means that a holistic picture of the teaching practice is broken up into segments, disallowing the teacher training community to view teachers' construction of knowledge as a holistic process. Therefore, although the main aim of the study is to examine PSTs' instructional planning experience, it will also attempt to examine how a whole lesson may inform the subsequent instructional planning process.

So far, the chapter has discussed what constitutes effective teaching, teaching expertise and how teaching experiences may vary between PSTs, novice teachers and expert teachers. The chapter has also attempted to position effective teaching in the field of ESL by substituting effective teaching with teaching expertise as suggested by Farrell (2015). The value of examining teachers' instructional planning processes has also been discussed. In the following sections, the focus will shift to the theoretical framework that

is used to explore teaching practice, namely instructional planning, IDs and post-lesson reflections.

3.3 Instructional planning

When discussing teacher expertise or teacher competence, gaining insight into what teachers are able to do in a classroom will provide us with rich sets of data to draw upon to inform about their practices. It is also equally important to explore the first stage that a teacher is typically involved in, which is the planning stage of a lesson. Being a teacher trainer for over five years has led me to observe that the instructional planning process is often underestimated as many PSTs under my supervision appeared not to take planning seriously, which raised some issues to explore about what their experiences are like in planning for their lessons during their practicum. Often, as teacher trainers, we would only be able to see the product, which is the lesson plan. It is the product that has led to the hypothesis that PSTs do not take the planning process seriously, which is further handicapped by the fact that no explorations have been done on the process that they go through in producing such lesson plans. This observation is verified by Calderhead (1984) who also found this underestimation of the planning phase. He further added on that in order for lessons to become successful, the planning process must begin with efforts and preparation by the teacher. Metaphorically, in order to get to a destination, one has to be able to know the direction that she or he is going to take. Hall and Smith (2006), supported by Calderhead (1984), reiterated that it is important to not separate the examination of planning, while researchers are examining classroom practice. Thus, planning should be included to provide a holistic picture of classroom practice, instead of just observing what happens during lesson observations. Tsui (2003) also cautioned that phases of teaching, particularly the planning and interactive phase are intertwined and are not always easy to disentangle.

The importance of planning as an indicator of teaching expertise and competence has been stressed on by Farrell (2013) and Ruys et al. (2012). Farrell (2013) found that one aspect in which expert teachers perform well is the ability to design informed lesson plans. Informed lesson planning refers to planning with efficiency and ease, anticipating problems before they occur, being able to move away from the lesson plan depending on the lesson's progress, in addition to accommodating to the students' needs and interests. Meanwhile, Ruys et al. (2012) summarised the work of several authors on the significance of lesson plan analysis with regard to teacher competence, where all the work that was

reviewed focused on the strength in the data gained from lesson plan analysis for informing the field about teacher competence. At this juncture, it is important to note that even though both works refer to teaching effectiveness and teaching competence using different terminologies, they essentially aim to describe the ability of teachers to perform during teaching practice. In other words, if one were to evaluate the level of expertise or competency of a teacher, examining their lesson plans would be a good starting point.

There are many educational benefits that effective instructional plans have. Besides being an indication of teacher expertise (Farrell, 2013) and teacher competence (Ruys et al., 2012), Ruys et al. (2012) also found that several studies suggested that there is a relationship between instructional planning and teaching quality in the aspects of student achievement and teaching behaviour. Although the term ‘teaching quality’ may vary contextually, what Ruys et al. (2012) included is what Adams (1993) regarded as quality in the sense of the ‘process’ of education that included the interaction between teachers and students. These studies indicate that having good lesson plans may put the teachers in a good place to start a lesson. In addition to teaching quality, Hoover and Hollingsworth (1974) proposed that an effective instructional plan also provides educational benefits; such as serving as a guideline for teachers, providing the teacher some time and space to motivate his or her students, as well as allowing the teacher to evaluate what they have achieved in class and to improve their teaching. This will allow teachers to have empirical evidence as their source of reference when they are certain of where they would like to improve in their teaching. For example, when an activity does not go well, a teacher may turn to their instructional plan, and check what activities were done, and in what manner. In other words, it allows the teacher to travel back to a lesson that has ended by examining his or her lesson plan.

3.3.1 How teachers plan

In the education context, typically there is a need for teachers to conform to a national curriculum outlined by the government that reflects the aspiration of said government in their pursuit to produce human capital that has the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes for them to contribute to the economic generation (Helsby & McCulloch, 1997). Although these national curriculums in countries such as Australia and the USA are not without implementation issues (Savage & O’Connor, 2015), the existence of these national curriculums does provide a blueprint to translate the aspirations of governments to stay relevant in the competitive world. Teachers are, in many ways, expected to plan lessons that reflect the national curriculum and the national syllabus as suggested by

Kyriacou (2014) and Williams (1999) when they describe the stages that are involved in planning for a lesson. Although both authors offered the perspective of planning from the United Kingdom context, similar expectations are held for teachers in Malaysia, where they are expected to teach within the outlined national syllabus and national curriculum. Following the consideration to conform to what is expected by the national curriculum, Stephens and Crawley (1994) stated that the ultimate aim in planning lessons should be to achieve lesson coherence, which meant that consideration needs to be placed on what the teacher wants to achieve over a longer term, meaning the whole academic year. In the attempt to achieve lesson coherence, planning could be approached by first examining the long-term plan that may include an examination of the yearly syllabus. This action allows the teacher to have a big picture of what is to be achieved by the end of the academic term. This is followed by having a scheme of work that breaks up the syllabus into smaller units. Then, planning for the term and lesson-by-lesson planning follows (Stephens & Crawley, 1994). Williams (1999) proposed a similar path to lesson planning, where he too proposed that planning be approached from the long-term, medium-term and short-term perspectives that could be translated into syllabus, scheme of work and daily lesson plan as depicted in Figure 2.

Williams' (1999) prescribed stages in planning and delivering successful lessons involved preparing, designing, presenting and evaluating. From the description given to each, it was made clear that preparing and designing are the two stages that were used to describe teachers' actions in planning successful lessons. He further suggested that in planning for lessons, it is vital for teachers to consider their purpose of the lessons, which will subsequently determine the learning objectives and outcomes. These purposes of lessons may be drawn from schemes of work that are results of a standardized syllabus. Figure 2 also depicts the position of individual lesson plans in the national curriculum, as suggested by Williams (1999).

However, in selecting these educational objectives, Kyriacou (2014) places equal importance on researchers being aware that some teachers may have an 'overlay' of other objectives during a lesson besides the stated educational objectives, such as using the topic to encourage participation from certain pupils, and this awareness will help researchers to make better sense of the teachers' behaviour in the classroom. Following the selection of educational objectives, Kyriacou (2014) elaborated on three subsequent actions in planning a lesson, which involved selecting and scripting a lesson, preparing the materials and resources to be used, and deciding how to monitor and assess pupils'

progress. Although what both authors have prescribed in lesson planning appears to be linear, a closer examination on Williams' (1999) work found an emphasis on using evaluation of lessons for future lesson planning process, an aspect that will be discussed further later in this chapter.

Besides the technical requirement as discussed in the previous paragraphs, an aspect that could influence how a teacher plan is the teacher's beliefs in teaching as scholars have examined that there is relationship between what teachers believe in and what they do (Berg & Smith, 2014; Berg and Smith, 2016; Borg, 2003 and Borg, 2011). Borg (2003) defined teacher beliefs as part of teacher cognition which could suggest that teacher beliefs are mental representation of what teachers understand and think about teaching. Consequently, several research have found that these beliefs would influence teacher's teaching practice (Borg, 2003 and Berg & Smith, 2014). In summary, this essentially means that although teachers may plan their lessons by trying to fulfill the technical requirements of the curriculum and syllabus, the planning process may also be impacted by their beliefs about teaching.

3.3.1.1 Models and approaches to instructional planning

Over the years, there are a few instructional planning models that are widely discussed in the teacher training community. Brown (1988) described three instructional planning models, which are the Tylerian objectives-based model, Yinger's process model, and Leinhardt's mental script model. In essence, all three models can be described on a continuum from one being the most linear (Tylerian's) to another being the most flexible (Leinhardt's).

Peterson, Marx, and Clark (1978) suggest that essentially, these models of teacher planning describe planning as a process of selecting educational objectives, diagnosing learner characteristics, and choosing from alternative instructional strategies in order to achieve certain learner outcomes. However, the direction to which these actions take place differentiates them from one another.

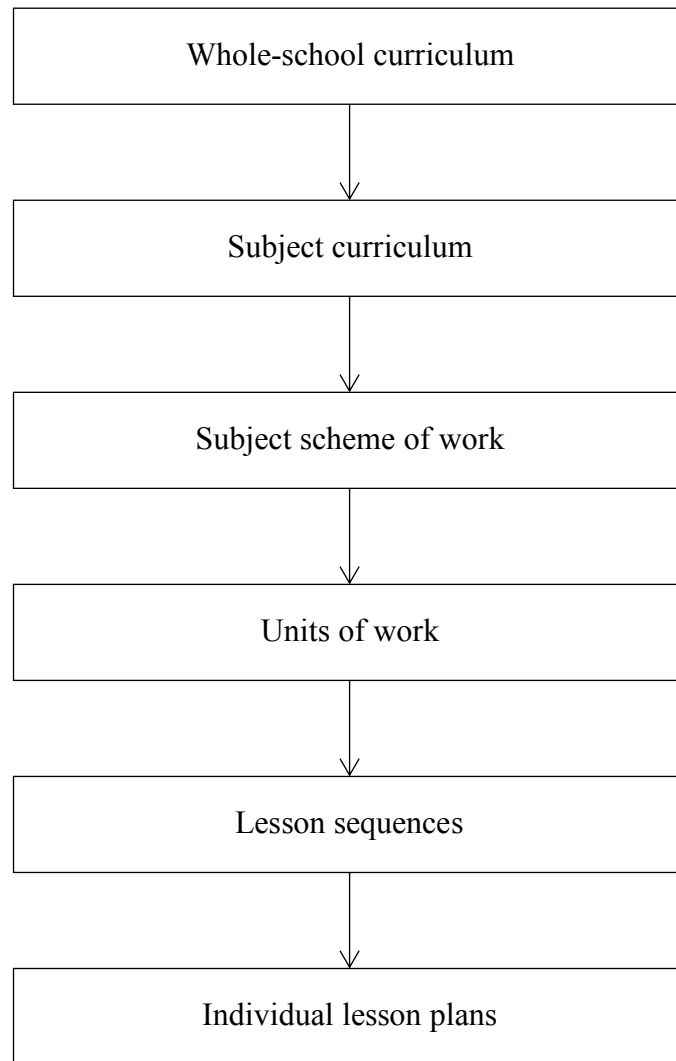


Figure 2: The place of lesson plans in the whole-school curriculum

(Adapted from Williams, 1999)

The Tylerian objectives-based model could be considered to be the most linear among these three models of instructional planning, as the model indicated that instructional planning is centred at the formation of listing learner objectives (Ball et al., 2007). On top of that, Yildirim (2003) also suggests that the subsequent steps that a teacher takes, such as the designing of the content, activities and assessment is done based on the listed objectives. However, this appears to contradict the findings of Peterson et al. (1978), where the expert teachers in their study were found not as focused on the instructional objectives as much as they were focused on the content to be taught to the students. This again is perhaps attributed to the extensive schemata that they have.

This provides an argument that a salient advantage for the Tylerian model could be seen beneficial to pre-service or beginning teachers, where it provides them with a starting point in designing a lesson. Even though scholars such as Zahorik (1975) and Williams (1999) argue that lesson planning is not as linear as what is depicted in the Tylerian model, this could be a solution to the notion of instructional planning being an “archetypal ill-structured problem” as suggested by Baylor and Kitsantas (2005, p. 434).

Yinger (1980) proposed a process model as an alternative to the instructional planning models. He elaborated upon this extensively in his work on how instructional planning is centred on problem identification and solution, which shapes the lesson plan. Brown (1988) explained that the problem solving-based model requires practitioners to take three steps: specifically deciding and specifying the types of activities based on the understanding formed in terms of the content, goals and experience, an elaboration upon how the activities will be executed, and finally the implementation of the activities. The final step revolves around the idea of “evaluation and implementation” of the teachers’ collection of knowledge and experience, which will influence their future planning process (Yildirim, 2003). Although Clark and Yinger (1979) as cited in Clark and Yinger (1987) concluded their study with the findings that instructional planning was indeed a recursive process, Kagan and Tippin (1992) contradicted this in their findings, where they did not find any evidence to support the recursive cycle of instructional planning. However, it is worth noting that their work involved pre-service and beginning teachers. This could suggest that the level of experience that the teachers bring could have affected the outcome of the models used.

Leinhardt (1983) proposed the most ‘flexible’ model of instructional planning for teachers when he described the instructional planning process as an implicit thinking process that when it becomes routinized and well-rehearsed, teachers no longer change any aspects in their instructional planning. This explanation, however, suggest that teachers would need time to develop an automated thinking process. This might provide some explanation for expert teachers’ thinking process, but is insufficient to explore pre-service and beginning teachers’ experiences in instructional planning. Brown (1988) conducted a study on instructional planning with twelve teachers with an average of fifteen years of teaching experience found that these teachers indeed exemplified similar processes to what Leinhardt (1983) suggests. They focused on developing a routine during their instructional planning process. Again, the number of years in teaching could have made a difference in the results.

Approaches to lesson planning is also an area worth discussing in the field of instructional planning. Farrell (2014) developed the notion of forward planning, central planning and backward planning. He proposed that forward planners identify the content of a lesson prior to deciding on the methodology that is going to be used in that particular lesson. On the contrary, in central planning, Farrell (2014) indicated that teachers select the methodology before selecting the content to be delivered to the students. Backward planning begins with the decisions made on the lesson outcomes before deciding on the lesson activities. Farrell (2014) reiterated that these different approaches determine the direction of the lesson in terms of the lesson development, material selection and the role of the teachers and the students.

Besides the approaches suggested by Farrell (2014), Baylor and Kitsantas (2005) emphasized the instructivist and constructivist approaches to lesson planning. The instructivist approach to planning highlights the importance of input from the teachers; essentially placing the lesson on the teacher-centred approach as suggested by Baylor and Kitsantas (2005). It was implied that such an approach would help PSTs to plan lessons more effectively as the approach employs a more sequential manner by beginning the process with clearly identifying the goals that one would like to achieve. Subsequent actions are then planned in the effort to achieve those goals. Critiques of the instructivist approach to teaching include the underestimation of how knowledge can be constructed by learners. For example, Scholnik, Kol, and Abarbanel (2016) in the review of their teacher training programme described how by having an instructivist approach meant they did not put emphasis on what their learners need and how the training was controlled by the teacher. This was the opposite of what the constructivist approach intended where learner-centred instruction is seen as the driving core of the constructivist approach to planning (Baylor & Kitsantas, 2005). Scholnik et al. (2016) described how the constructivist approach allows learners to put the pieces of information together, versus the perspective of transferring information from an expert as viewed by the instructivist approach. If a lesson plan is approached in an instructivist manner, the teacher would begin with identifying what she wanted the students to achieve. However, if lesson planning is done from a constructivist point of view, the activities planned would focus on the process of learning instead of the outcome of the lessons. In review of these two concepts, the constructivist approach could be challenging, though not impossible for PSTs to use in planning their lessons. A strike of balance between both approaches would be ideal, as it is also arguably important for teachers to fulfil lesson objectives in the pursuit of fulfilling the prescribed syllabus.

Peterson et al. (1978) concluded that most of the limited research on teacher planning appears to suggest they mostly focus on the content that they would like to teach and the process rarely involves all the features discussed in the models all at once. In approaching lesson planning, it is important is to allow PSTs to realise that the context, content and the student characteristics are the best knowledge to draw from in planning a successful lesson. The subsequent section will discuss this issue further.

3.3.1.2 Instructional planning attributes

Although a significant number of hours are spent training PSTs to plan their lessons, the success of this depends on many factors. Baylor and Kitsantas (2005) suggested that designing a lesson requires more than just knowing what elements are needed in the lesson plan. Among the determining factors of success, they identified by are the pre-service teachers' beliefs about instructional planning, available cognitive and metacognitive strategies and ability to integrate theoretical approaches to planning the instruction. They further explained that self-efficacy plays an important role in influencing the pre-service teachers to engage themselves in the task. This requires the pre-service teachers to believe that they can bring change to the task at hand. Due to the poorly structured nature of instructional planning, the pre-service teachers are also required to possess some level of metacognitive strategies to organise, self-monitor, and have the ability to think flexibly (Baylor & Kitsantas, 2005). Finally, they also suggested that in order to become effective instructional planners, pre-service teachers must be able to employ various strategies to suit different instructional approaches.

Significant research has been conducted on the instructional planning experiences of both expert and novice teachers. From these studies, some attributes necessary to ensure successful lesson planning have been identified. Farrell (2013) in his research on three experienced ESL teachers found that one of the attributes of an expert teacher was the ability to make informed lesson plans. He further elaborated by describing that this includes the teachers' ability to plan with efficiency, comfort and ease; anticipate events but not be dependent on the lesson plan; and include students' responses as part of their planning considerations. Farrell (2013) provided empirical evidence supporting Tsui's (2003) assertion that planning and interactive phases of teaching are intertwined, as he found that the teachers in his study were also characterised by their ability to make changes to their lesson plan based on how the lesson unfolds, without losing focus on the lesson objectives. In characterising novice teacher planning, Tsui (2003) included being autonomous, efficient, flexible and displaying a rich and integrated knowledge base.

Being autonomous in their lesson planning decisions is described as being more ready to take up the responsibility of their actions, as compared to novices who are more grounded by rules and models that are used to guide their decision-making process. Expert teachers on the other hand, know what would work in their classroom context, empowering them with more confidence to make decisions. Being efficient in planning is described as spending less time planning yet produces more effective lesson plans, where expert teachers are able to draw on the routines that they have established. The term flexible is used similar to how Farrell (2013) describes the ability of expert teachers to depart from the original plan as the lesson unfolds. The final characteristic cited by Tsui (2003) is using an integrated knowledge base in making planning decisions. Often, expert teachers are able to put pieces of knowledge in the student, context and content together in making a more informed decision to their teaching practice. In conclusion, thus far, it has been established that expert teacher planning is characterised differently from those of novice teachers.

On a more micro-level of planning, Tsui (2003) suggests that novice teachers are more detailed in their lesson plans as compared to expert teachers. She further cited the expert teachers' accessibility of a richer schema that has been built over the years. Because the novice teachers do not possess such schemata yet, they rely on the lesson plans more heavily, where some even go to the extent of reading out their notes (Borko & Livingston, 1989; Calderhead, 1984). The availability of a richly developed schema also provides expert teachers with a set of skills that they are able to retrieve when they are teaching in the classroom. For example, if the teacher realises that a student is struggling to read a particular text, an expert teacher would be able to predict why they are having difficulty and alter their teaching methods accordingly. Realising that lessons flow with such fluidity, expert teachers do not see the need to plan their lessons to such a great extent (Tsui, 2003). However, Calderhead (1984) found several studies which findings were different from Tsui (2003). He cited that these studies had found experienced teachers' planning was more elaborate than that produced by novice teachers. Calderhead (1984) attributed this to the fact that the novice teachers' limited knowledge of the student, content and context causes their lesson plans to be superficial as opposed to those more complete lesson plans produced by the experienced teachers. Two observations could be made from the studies discussed above. First, although there appears to be a contradiction in the details of planning protocol produced by experts, experienced and novice teachers, there is a fundamental agreement that the schema available to expert or experienced teachers is larger in volume as compared with that the novice teachers may access, which

is also supported by Borko and Livingston (1989). In addition to having these schemas, expert teachers also possess the ability to retrieve the appropriate schema in making their planning decisions. Second, it is important to also take into consideration that the studies cited by Calderhead (1984) focused on experienced and not expert teachers. As argued by Tsui (2009a), experienced teachers may not be experts though to be an expert teacher, one must have experience. Thus, being aware that experienced teachers and expert teachers may not possess the same cognitive abilities could provide a more holistic interpretation of the contradiction of the study results.

Another aspect of lesson planning that is worth discussing is the concerns of teachers-experts and novices when they are planning for their lessons. Calderhead (1984) posits that teacher thinking during planning revolves around the subject matter to be covered, the information to be given to pupils, procedures to be demonstrated, books and materials to be used, exercises to be adopted, student abilities and how students would respond to the subject matter. He further suggested that all these considerations depend on contextual factors such as resources available, the syllabus, school policy and timetabling restrictions. Essentially, Calderhead (1984) suggests is that teacher planning mostly revolves around deciding what to teach and how to teach, which also requires teachers to evaluate the feasibility of their plans. In evaluating the feasibility of their plans, expert teachers draw upon their knowledge of the students, the curriculum, classroom organisation, student learning and the subject matter (Tsui, 2003). Tsui (2003) suggested that the availability of knowledge provides expert teachers with a sense of logic in guiding their instructional actions versus the novice teachers, who did not demonstrate such logic in their lessons.

Finally, Williams (1999) attributed effective lesson planning to the recursive nature of teaching, where one should evaluate their teaching and use that information for their subsequent lesson planning. This is supported by Koni and Krull (2015) and Sardo (1982) where it is common among teachers to use their past experience in planning for their instruction. These past experiences and interactions are processed and contributes to the formation of teacher *gestalts* (Korthagen, 2010). Teacher *gestalts* is described as schematized knowledge and pedagogical knowledge that goes on very rapidly, which prompt automatic actions by the teacher in the classroom. Because of the rapidness of the automatized actions, Gün (2014) and Morton and Gray (2010) suggested that this tacit knowledge has to be brought to the teachers' attention through consciously reflecting on their experiences. Learning from experience is viewed as a powerful tool for teachers to

use to construct their lessons. However, as pointed out earlier in the paragraph, some teachers may have problems in realising what has occurred in the classroom, though this is considered as 'normal' for PSTs according to Calderhead (1984). Because of the wealth that such an experience has on planning, these PSTs could be supported in making tacit knowledge explicit, in turn help them in their instructional planning process.

3.4 Interactive decisions

In Section 3.3 it was established that effective lessons spring from effective lesson planning (Calderhead, 1984; Farrell, 2013; Ruys et al., 2012). However, Allwright and Bailey (1991) said that the lesson is basically co-produced by both learners and the teachers, which suggests that the learners also play a role in determining how the lesson turns out. Bailey (1996) added to this by stating:

It is likely that every teacher has had the experience of having something unexpected occur during a lesson. Whether it leads to derailment of the lesson or a contribution to learning, is often largely a matter of how the teacher reacts to the unexpected, and the extent to which the co-production is encouraged or stifled (p.19).

This indicates that the lesson is determined largely by how the students respond to the plans, and how teachers could effectively accommodate these responses in ensuring that the lesson stays intact: a notion that was questioned by Clark and Peterson (1976). They further on called upon researchers to examine the process that investigates the causes of IDs and how teachers react to these antecedents.

This section attempts to position the interactive stage of teaching in the research by examining the stage and how it has been characterised over the years. Subsequently, the ways teachers have found to make decisions in accommodating the demands and the nature of the teaching stage will also be addressed. At the end of the chapter, it is hoped that the review of the interactive teaching stage will provide sufficient detail as a theoretical framework for how teachers make their IDs.

3.4.1 The interactive stage

Tsui (2005) described that the interactive stage is characterised by classroom events that are multidimensional, simultaneous, immediate and unpredictable. These characteristics indicate the rapidness of how the interactive stage could develop in a lesson. This pace

requires teachers not just to make typical decisions, but also to make quick and effective IDs when needed. This is supported by Calderhead (1984) who found that during this stage teachers had little opportunity to think about what they will do, rarely consider the alternatives to their decisions and do not spend time to evaluate their decisions. The description provided by Calderhead (1984) is fitting to the demands of the interactive stage as described by Tsui (2005).

On top of the nature of the interactive stage of teaching, books on effective teaching also prescribed several things that effective teachers must do when delivering their instruction. For example, Kyriacou (2009) emphasises that two key tasks in effective classroom teaching are presentation and monitoring. A number of characteristics were then outlined:

1. The teacher appears to be self-confident, is normally patient and good humoured, displays a genuine interest in the topic, and appears to be genuinely concerned with each pupil's progress.
2. The teacher's explanations and instructions are clear, and pitched at the right level for pupil comprehension.
3. The teacher's voice and actions facilitate pupil's maintaining attention and interest.
4. The teacher makes good and varied use of questioning to monitor pupils' understanding and to raise the level of pupil's thinking.
5. The teacher monitors the progress of the lesson and pupil's behaviour, and makes any adjustments necessary to ensure the lesson flows well and that pupils are engaged appropriately.
6. The teacher encourages pupils' efforts.
7. The teacher minimizes pupil misbehaviour by keeping their attention maintained on the lesson, and by use of eye contact, movement and questions to curtail any misbehaviour, which is developing.
8. Potential interruptions to the lesson caused by organizational problems (e.g. a pupil who has not got a red pen) or pupil misbehaviour are dealt with in such a way that the interruptions are minimized or prevented.
9. Criticism by the teacher of a pupil is given privately and in a way likely to encourage and foster progress.
10. Pupil misbehaviour, when it does occur is dealt with in a relaxed, self-assured and firm manner.

(Kyriacou, 2009, p. 91)

Kyriacou (2009) pointed that these characteristics could be too demanding for beginning teachers. However, he posits that teachers will become adept and more efficient in their teaching over time. Similarly, Stronge (2007) suggests that effective teaching includes the teachers' use of strategies, clarity in the explanation of materials, and asking questions that are high in quality. In addition, effective teachers are also recommended to use methods that keep the students focused and engaged (Stronge, 2007). By examining the characteristics put forward by these two researchers, it is clear that the on top of dealing with the rapid nature of interactive teaching, teachers are also expected to have certain characteristics or to play certain roles in ensuring that the lessons are successful.

In explaining teachers' IDs during the interactive teaching stage, Peterson and Clark (1978) adapted a model to exemplify the process that teachers go through during teaching in modifying their behaviour. The model is presented in Figure 3. The model's focus is positioned at cues that may come from the classroom context, which could include the classroom environment, the content of the lesson, the materials, teacher factors and student factors. Once this cue is identified, the teacher must decide whether the cue can be tolerated. If the cue cannot be tolerated, the teacher has to weigh whether he or she has alternatives to the situation. He or she then selects whether they would like to change their decisions or continue with the lesson. A change will invoke new teacher behaviour, which will then be observed for cues as a result of the change. An example given by Calderhead (1984) to visualize the concept is when students appear to become disinterested in the lesson. Following Peterson and Clark's (1978) model, the teacher must decide whether this was serious or acceptable. If the context of the lesson were towards the end of the day, then perhaps the teacher would consider this acceptable. If they cannot accept it, the teacher would consider alternatives to be implemented or whether to take no action at all. Calderhead (1984) pointed out that although the model has attempted to capture the many immediate classroom decisions, in reality teachers' responses are less structured and more automatized. Teachers are described as more likely to act rather than deliberate on alternatives that are available (Calderhead, 1984). He further argued that in the example above, a teacher would typically automatically encourage the students to participate and emphasize the importance of the activity. Even though Calderhead (1984) appears to disagree, what Peterson and Clark (1978) did could also be argued to be similar to how Calderhead (1984) described interactive teaching, but with less rapidness in a more 'slow-motioned' process, which indeed provided some insight into what some teachers may encounter when they make IDs.

3.4.2 Making interactive decisions

Peterson & Clark (1978), in their examination of teachers' cognitive processes while teaching found four paths that teachers take through a lesson. This begins with Path 1, where things go according to plan, and no changes needed to be made. The second path occurs when the teacher was able to see a problem, however, no alternative solutions could be provided, prompting them to keep to their original plans despite the plan not working out. The least common path, the third taken by the teachers in their study was seeing a problem, having an alternative solution, but sticking with their original plan. Path 4, which came with increased years of experience, was when the teacher notices a problem, has an alternative solution and chooses to change their behaviour.

In understanding teachers' decision-making processes during the IDs, it is also important to address the three types of decisions that we make in our everyday life as suggested by Calderhead (1984). They are termed as reflective decisions, immediate decisions and routine decisions respectively. Reflective decisions require deeper thoughts by gathering information and deliberating on the options. The rigor put into thinking requires more time be put into the thinking process. Immediate decisions are based on intuition and reflect the kinds of decisions that would be made in a split-second. Usually, these kinds of decisions do not allow for consideration to be put into the alternatives that are available. Routine decisions on the other hand could be considered the ideal type of decision that teachers should aim for in the interactive teaching phase. Routine decisions are described as the kind of decision that would occur in recurring circumstances. However, it is vital to note that although IDs are ideally routine, it is equally important for them to be done effectively, as opposed to just a making a decision to address the immediacy of the issues.

A study by Gün (2014) in his attempt to make sense of PSTs' IDs in language teaching found that most of the IDs made were based on the pedagogical and affective aspects of teaching. Pedagogical aspects listed consolidation, addressing emerging needs, knowledge of students and lesson materials, exploiting all opportunities to teach, supporting student production, and resorting to students' L1. Consolidating was described as the teachers' actions trying to integrate previous lessons to the current lessons. This was consistent with the notion put forth by Tsui (2003) on expert teachers having richer schema on previous lessons as compared with novice teachers. Gün (2014) also found that the expert teachers in his study were able to address emerging needs of the students once they have been identified, with the help of their knowledge of the students and the lesson materials. The teachers were also found motivated to use any opportunities that

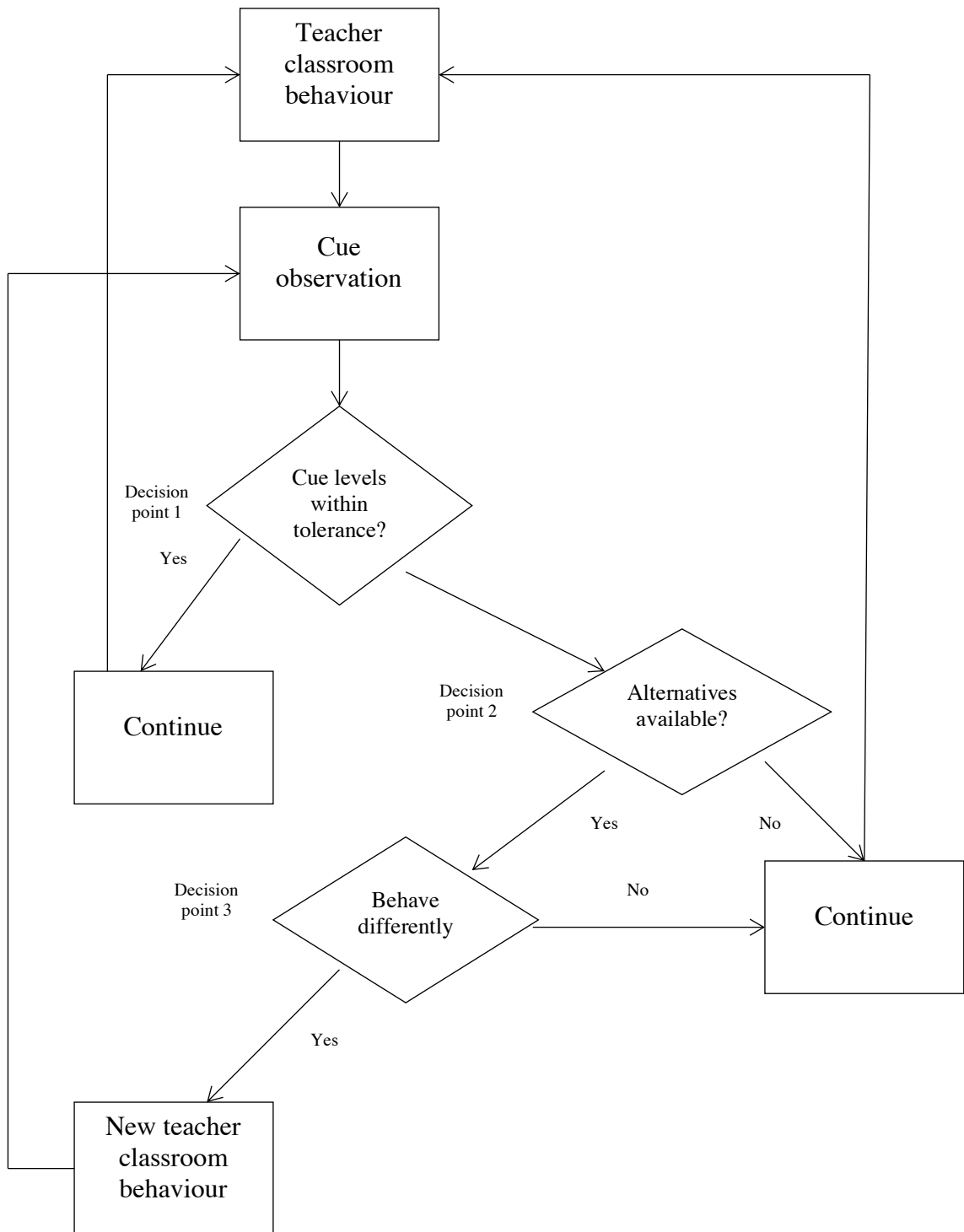


Figure 3: Peterson and Clark's (1978) model of interactive decision-making

unfolded with the lesson to be integrated into the content of the lessons. The intention to support the students' productive skills also contributed to their IDs as staying with the original plan would hamper this.

The usage of L1 to induce humour and to facilitate learning was also part of the teachers' IDs and could be related to the affective aspect of their IDs. The affective aspects in the study involved the teachers' emotions, attitudes and interpersonal skills that are projected

as teachers taking up responsibility for the students' learning, and building confidence, persistence and rapport with the students. These four characteristics impacted how teachers in the study make their IDs. Gün (2014) also discovered that the expert teachers in his study displayed tacit knowledge where there were some actions that they were not able to explain, which could be seen as a resemblance to Korthagen's (2010) notion of 'teacher gestalt' as explained in Section 3.3.1.2. Although Korthagen (2010) posits that teachers may be engaged with actions that cannot be warranted by time as they moved very rapidly, Tsui (2009a) did propose that expert teachers should be able to explain and make conscious deliberations on their actions. 'Business as usual', which resembled Bailey's (1996) path 1 description was also found in Gün's (2014) data, although he called for further research on the notion due to the limited data that he had on the issue. Finally, the teachers' mental plans as found by Gün (2014) are arguably similar to Calderhead's (1984) description of immediate decisions, where the decisions are 'automatized' at some point. Although Gün (2014) has shed some light on understanding teachers' IDs in language teaching, it is worth noting that the data provided by Gün (2014) characterised the expert teachers by their number of years of teaching, a characteristic that is questioned by Tsui (2009b) as discussed earlier in the chapter.

Bailey (1996) conducted a study on teachers' IDs found that ESL teachers in her research made their IDs to serve the common good, teach to the moment, further the lesson, accommodate students' learning styles, promote students' involvements and to 'distribute the wealth'. Teaching to the moment, accommodating students' learning styles and promoting students' involvements are arguably similar to the findings of Gün (2014). In serving the common good, Bailey (1996) said the teachers were described to make IDs when they thought that addressing the need of an individual student would benefit the whole class. The example drawn from the study was the teacher's decision to focus on a grammatical issue raised by a particular student, as she felt that many of the students would benefit from the unplanned explanation. Tsui (2005) characterised this skill as the expert teacher's ability to use spontaneity in the classroom as a springboard to maximise the opportunity to teach. What Bailey (1996) meant by furthering the lesson is when the teacher makes executive decisions to ensure that the lesson can progress, and not be stuck at particular activities. In doing so, it is implied that the teacher must possess certain affective abilities: those suggested by Gün (2014) are to be confident and feeling responsible for the students' learning. The example was drawn from the study occurred when one of the participant overrode her own decision to get the students to write their answers on the board as the students involved were taking too much time to copy down

the sentences. It appeared that the teacher was also able to prioritise the activities that needed more attention, which was a salient expert teacher characteristic as described by Tsui (2009a). The final interesting finding from Bailey (1996) was in using their authority to ensure that the lesson did not lean towards a certain group of students, which explained the term 'distribute the wealth'. Specifically, in the study, some IDs were taken to manage turns, to ensure that everybody has a chance to talk. Overall, in addition to Gün (2014), Bailey (1996) has provided the field of teacher education with empirical evidence on what guides teachers' IDs. Although the study has provided the research community specifically the teacher education research field with such evidence, it should not be treated as the sole determiner of teachers' IDs as working in different contexts may generate different results (Bailey, 1996). The study could be treated as a piece of the puzzle in understanding teachers' decision-making processes.

In dealing with the challenging interactive stage as discussed earlier, Tsui (2005) identified four characteristics that distinguish expert teachers from novices namely the ability to recognise patterns and assign meaning to them, selectivity, automaticity and ability to interpret classroom events in a principled manner. Tsui (2005) felt that the expert teachers' ability to make meaning of classroom events came from their many years of teaching in the classroom, which helped them to make connections between events. The ability to select resonated is an aspect that Kyriacou (2009) viewed as a 'key factor' in effective teaching presentations. In dealing with the spontaneity and unpredictability of classroom events, Tsui (2005) asserted that expert teachers are better at being 'automated' yet effective in their response. She further attributed this to the rich repertoire that expert teachers have accumulated over their years of teaching experience. The accumulation of the experience was then consciously deliberated upon, which allowed the teacher to become automated and effective in their interactive decision-making skills. Finally, as a result of having a sophisticated knowledge base, expert teachers were also regarded to have the ability to interpret classroom events in a principled manner, and to provide justifications to their practice. Basically, expert teachers are felt to handle interactive decision-making in a more sophisticated manner as they have developed a good sense of what works in their classroom, as they are able to make conscious deliberations and reflections on their classroom issues, which in turn affected their interactive decision-making skills tremendously.

3.5 Post-lesson reflections

Most books on effective teaching suggest that it should, at some point, include the ability to reflect on lessons (Cooper & McIntyre, 1996; Kyriacou, 2009; Stronge, 2007). Ultimately, it has been suggested that being engaged in reflection may develop teachers' pedagogical thoughtfulness, which involved close examinations of experience (La Boskey, 1994). In evaluating one's teaching, Kyriacou (2014) encouraged teachers to ask themselves questions about aspects of their teaching that they would like to improve on, and how best can they achieve that goal. This could serve as a useful starting point for PSTs to start engaging with reflective practice. In this section, the notions of reflective practice, levels of reflections and the role of post-lesson reflections will be discussed.

3.5.1 Reflective practice: Definition, attributes and strategies

The earliest work on reflective practice came from Dewey (1933), who suggested that reflective practitioners are active, persistent, and carefully consider any form of knowledge and the consequences of that knowledge. He furthered this by saying that reflective practitioners will have hesitations in their thinking and will continuously search for an answer that could diminish their doubt in constructing knowledge. This indicates that reflective practice goes beyond just thinking. It requires the person to thoughtfully experiment with different solutions in trying to overcome any problems encountered in his or her profession (Schön, 1983). Being experimental and knowledgeable will then lead the practitioner towards better understanding of what they know and do by reconsidering all of their actions (Loughran, 2002). This clearly indicates that reflective practice will lead to a better understanding of one's own practice, when it is crafted well against many different structures of thinking.

Schön (1983), who followed up on Dewey's (1933) work, proposed that reflective practice is part and parcel of the embodiment of knowledge, meaning actions done in a profession are a translation of a person's knowledge. Loughran (2002) made the connection between reflective practice and the profession by stating that in many profession such as science, nursing, medicine, law and teaching, the need to increase a person's knowledge constantly exists for him or her to be an effective and informed practitioner, and reflection emerges as an option for these professionals to better understand what they know. Due to the benefits reflective practice brings, it is becoming a dominant paradigm on the international teacher education scene (Odeh, Kurt, & Atamtürk, 2010). Tillema (2000) pointed out that reflection-oriented learning is essential

to ensure professional growth among student teachers, while Lee (2005) and Pultorak (2014) claimed that reflection is a must if a teacher has any intention to suit their teaching to their students' needs. Both statements indicate the position of reflective practice in teachers' professional development. Although many teacher training institutions have included reflective practice as part of their teacher preparation programs, Rodgers (2002) as cited in Lee (2005) describes that the definition and assessment of what constitutes a good reflection has been vague and ambiguous posing problems in its implementation. Before discussion about what a post-lesson reflection entails, it is apt to first address the definition of 'reflective practice'.

Scholars have provided various definitions that vary from more philosophical aspects of epistemological development among teachers to more pragmatic conceptions of reflective practice. This section intends to address this continuum by providing a critical overview of the different definitions of reflection as regarded by different scholars. Dewey (1933) is among the earliest scholars to coin the term reflective thinking. He perceives the term reflective practice by putting forward philosophical advances on what constitutes thinking in his book *How We Think*. In this book, he suggests that reflective thoughts are not only those that happen in sequence, but in consequence; a consecutive order of ideas that determines the outcome. Interestingly, he also suggests that these outcomes largely depend on the preceding events or ideas. This strongly provided grounds to suggest that reflection involves a recursive cycle, and not a linear one. Lee (2005) reiterated this process by suggesting that reflection is not simply a process towards finding an absolute solution, but raising the practitioners' awareness in doing so. Fifty years after Dewey (1933) proposed the term reflective thoughts, Schön (1983) extended Dewey's (1933) theory of reflection by exploring in detail what entails reflective practice among professionals, including teachers. He further focused on developing the notion *reflection-on-action* and *reflection-in-action*, which gained popularity among academic researchers. These two notions which carry recognised weight and importance in the reflective practice community, will be elaborated upon further in the next section. On a more pragmatic stand, Loughran (2002) defined reflective practice as "a well-defined and crafted practice that carries very specific meaning and associated action" (p. 33). He further added that being able to reflect on one's own teaching requires the teacher to make meaning from the teaching situation so that he could better understand the art of teaching practice. Richards (1990) further corroborated this by mentioning the steps needed to be taken by teachers in which they would collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions and teaching practices and these are utilised for critical reflection to

occur. Richards (1990) and Loughran's (2002) echoed Schön's (1983) sentiments, which posit reflection is central to a teachers' professional growth. Reflective practice is more than just thinking about what to do in teaching and learning; it requires the teacher to take a step back and re-examine their decisions, be it their pedagogy or classroom management, to be implemented in their next lesson.

Besides understanding what makes or defines the term reflective practice, another salient area in reflective teaching that is addressed in the literature are the attributes that one must have to become a reflective practitioner (Van Manen, 1995). Colton and Sparks-Langer (1993) addressed this in their framework for teacher reflection, which posits that in order to become a reflective practitioner, one must be flexible, socially responsible, and conscious as well as have self-efficacy. Bandura (1993) proposed self-efficacy as the idea that in order to develop holistically as a person, he or she must possess a sense of self-belief that supports that he or she may be able to do make a difference in the community. In the education context, efficacy occurs when a teacher truly believes that he or she could have an impact on the children, on the school and on the community (Poom-Valickis, 2014). Without feeling that they could make a difference, it is difficult for one to be reflective of their practice (Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993). Flexibility is also another trait that was identified by Colton and Sparks-Langer (1993). In order for reflection to occur, a teacher must be flexible enough to change his or her perspectives to understand the phenomenon that he or she is trying to reflect on. This would require the practitioner to be able to shift his perspective to various points of view and be open-minded about the various perspectives that he will be engaged in (Dewey, 1933). Being conscious is considered being aware of one's surrounding and is a crucial aspect of whether reflection was to occur in the first place. In lieu of the attributes discussed, this could have contributed to the argument that being reflective cannot simply be taught (La Boskey, 1994).

Over the years, many ways have been suggested for teachers to engage in reflective practice such as the use of portfolios, journals, and even videos (McMullan, 2006; Pavlovich, 2007; Powell, 2005). In addition, Stronge (2007) included meetings with colleagues or mentors as well as stimulated dialogues using videotaped recordings as a means to engage in reflective practice. Typically, the decision on which option is used to engage in reflective practice is largely determined by the institutions. However, Stronge (2007) asserted that regardless of how they engage in reflective practice the key is on the action which is 'reflection'. La Boskey (1994) suggests that in teacher education settings,

one way to engage in reflective practice is one-on-one conferencing with a supervisor, colleague or peer. She further suggests that in order for reflection to occur, the partner has to be skilful and not imposing. The context of when these conferences occur also is said to have an important influence on the process as it has to be in a safe environment. Reilley Freese (1999) proposed that supervisors need to move away from being in 'supervising' mode, but instead take a co-reflecting stand to allow the PSTs to take a more analytical position on their own practice. This could indicate that the PSTs must be allowed to express what they think, without being judged. Arguably, this may put the supervisor in a difficult position, as part of their role is to evaluate the PSTs in their ability to teach. Thus, striking a balance between fostering reflective practice in a safe environment and evaluating could be challenging for supervisors.

Now that the definition, attributes and ways to engage in reflective practice has been established, this section will detail the temporally distributed perspective, or the stages in teaching of which reflective practice can take place (Conway, 2001). Temporality in the field of reflective practice is used to indicate the space of time. Proponents of reflective practice from the temporally distributed perspective have examined and proposed different types of reflection that occur at different points of the teaching stages; namely before teaching begins, during the teaching action and after teaching has ended. Van Manen (1995) attributed the reflection that occurs during these sequential events as anticipatory reflection, contemporaneous reflection and retrospective reflection, which are the terms that will be used as a point of reference in this discussion. The stages may also be termed differently by other authors and this will be addressed appropriately.

Conway (2001) described anticipatory reflection as "future-oriented reflection before action" (p. 90). Etscheidt, Curran, and Sawyer (2011) simplified anticipatory reflection as "examining one's teaching actions through an organized and deliberate selection of a teaching action" (p. 10). The phrase "deliberate selection" indicates a conscious, thought-out decision made by a teacher before a teaching action takes place. This type of reflection fits well with Ball, Knobloch and Hoop's (2007) description of the first step of teachers thought processes, which is thinking before the actual teaching takes place. In other words, anticipatory reflection are thoughts that are concerned with the teachers' instructional plans before she begins her lessons or more specifically, the thoughts that occur during the design process of a lesson plan. A salient aspect of anticipatory reflection was described fittingly for the current research by Ruys et al. (2012) when they described anticipatory reflection as looking forward to a future lesson, equipped with the knowledge

of past experience. Farrell (2014) indicated a similar type of reflection in his *Framework for Reflecting on Practice*, referred to as *reflection-for-action*. He made a similar point when he indicated that this type of reflection requires the teachers to anticipate what will occur during the lesson, as well as reflect on their past experiences before a lesson occurs. This suggests that a teacher should approach a lesson with anticipation formed by their past experience.

Retrospective reflection, or recollective reflection (Etscheidt et al., 2011) is in contrast to anticipatory reflection; where it deals with “past-oriented reflection after action” (Conway, 2001, p. 90). While anticipatory reflection deals with reflection on future plans, the retrospective reflection looks back at teaching events that have ended, in order to gain perspective into that teaching (Etscheidt et al., 2011). Akbari (2007) elaborated upon Schön’s (1983) concept of *reflection-on-action* as the type of reflection that occurs after an event has ended, which indicates similarity to Van Manen’s (1995) idea of retrospective reflection. Farrell (2014) agrees with this description of *reflection-on-action* by describing it as reflections that looked at what transpired in a lesson, after the lesson. He further added that this type of reflection is more delayed in nature, where teachers could actually spend a considerable amount of time to think of the lessons being reflected on.

In between future-oriented reflection and past-oriented reflection, Van Manen (1991) in Etscheidt et al. (2011) also identified active or interactive reflection, which allows practitioners to think and support on-the-spot decisions, a common phenomenon in teaching. Schön (1983) labelled this kind of reflection as *reflection-in-action*. Akbari (2007) and Ball et al. (2007) called that this kind of reflection as ‘online reflection’ and stated that practitioners or teachers will encounter it during their teaching actions: this may be difficult for execution by some practitioners due to the demanding nature of thinking-on-your-feet. In Farrell (2014), reflection-in-action is described as a more immediate type of reflection, where teachers will have to make decisions on in-class incidents, for example, on students’ responses to activities and time management.

3.5.2 Retrospective reflection in teacher education

The previous section has established the important attributes of reflective practice by addressing the definitions of reflective practice, the characteristics of reflective practitioners, ways to engage in reflective practice and the types of reflection that may occur over different stages of teaching. The current study places retrospective reflection as part of the research focus, where the perspective of using reflective practice in the

study leans more towards using reflection for teachers to assess the impact of their teaching, reflect and make changes to their practice and to set priorities in terms of their professional development as suggested by Kyriacou (2014).

Although the notion of reflective practice is viewed as ill-structured (Lee, 2005), Farrell (2014) came up with the ‘Framework for Reflecting on Practice for TESOL Professionals’ in the attempt to provide more structure for reflective practice specifically targeted to language teachers. The framework is represented in Figure 4 below. Basically, Farrell (2014) suggests that teachers, regardless of whether novice, expert or pre-service, should be encouraged to reflect on these five levels. The levels begin with an examination of one’s philosophy, which focuses more on the teacher as a person. The philosophy of the teacher is made up of her background, ethnicity and life experiences. The next reflection happens on the teachers’ principles, made up of her beliefs and assumptions on teaching and learning, which could be formulated through their experiences of being a student. The next three levels deal directly with the process of teaching which could arguably be seen as similar to planning, teaching and post-lesson reflection, which is called as theory, practice and beyond practice by Farrell (2014)

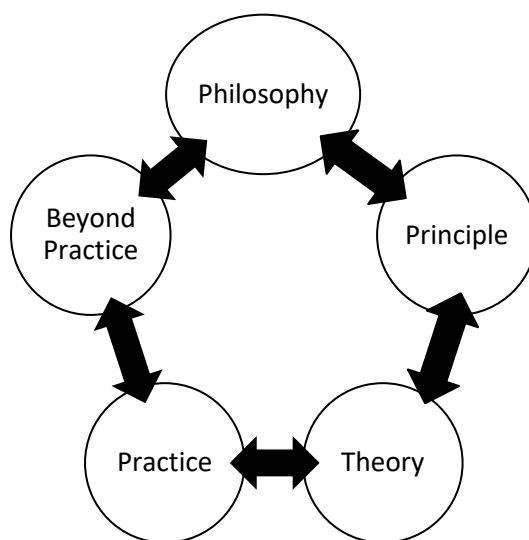


Figure 4: Framework for reflecting on practice

(Adapted from Farrell, 2014)

In describing the stage ‘theory’, Farrell (2015) described how teachers carry with them their philosophy and principles in deciding the types of lessons that they want to deliver. This could be done while deciding their yearly, weekly or daily plans. In doing so, considerations will be placed on selection of methods and activities, which could be done

through the descriptions of activities that they can use for their lessons. The practice level is described as teachers' reflections on the different stages of teaching, where these evaluations are suggested as useful for future planning. Finally, beyond practice could be interpreted as modifying values and beliefs with regard to their experiences, which supports La Boskey's (1994) view of how she viewed reflective teacher education in that it should aim to train novice teachers in modifying their judgments about teaching. She moved on to characterise how good teaching involved making thoughtful decisions. These decisions were also said to never be conclusive, but instead should always be reformulated in the light of information drawn from current practice (La Boskey, 1994). Therefore, both Farrell (2015) and La Boskey's (1994) stands emphasize on how retrospective reflection should be utilised to modify beliefs and assist teachers in making informed decisions in planning, in hopes of producing better lessons.

Odeh et al. (2010) elaborated upon how reflective practice can help shape the professionalism and professional growth of teachers, which will result teachers in becoming more alert in their practice. However, their study found that training does not seem to have an impact in terms of learning new things in the classroom while teaching. In fact, this study found that teachers without reflective practice training seem to learn more about their students while teaching. The findings of this research contradict the findings of Hinett and Weeden (2000) who found that PSTs perceived that the critical and challenging comments they received positively influenced them to become better teachers as a result of a reflection, implying that there is a need for training in reflective practice among PSTs, but the approaches have to be appropriate to the PSTs' needs.

Besides providing teacher trainers with frameworks, the literature has also presented that reflection and reflective practice for teachers can be manifested in many ways such as in portfolios, journals, and even videos (McMullan, 2006; Pavlovich, 2007; Powell, 2005). The different ways to manifest reflection depend largely on the institutional decisions. Qing (2009) elaborated on several procedures for reflective teaching, namely peer observation, written accounts of experiences, self-reports, teacher diaries, recording lessons, reflective inquiry groups and collaborative action research. Although Akbari (2007) is sceptical on pre-service teachers' ability to reflect as he indicated that 'problem identification' needs trained eyes, La Boskey (1994), Chitpin, Simon, and Galipeau (2008) and Lee (2005) all conducted studies on reflection among pre-service teachers and the findings suggest that they are able to reflect to a certain extent.

3.5.3 Levels of reflection

Besides examining reflective practice from a temporally distributed perspective, there are also different arguments on how stages or levels of reflection develop. Akbari (2007) in review of Jay and Johnson's (2002) work on the steps that one needs to take to be reflective indicated that the higher level a practitioner achieves a more comprehensive understanding will be gained and the highest level will be the determining factor for the change that takes place in teaching. On the other hand, Lee (2005) differed in this by stating that reflection is used as a mean to understand a problem or an educational situation at hand, and the thinking process that takes place can be done reflectively, or unreflectively. He further on proposed that instead of viewing the reflective process as a progress to find the solution to a problem, it is suggested that reflection examines the degree of awareness of the situation where the importance of looking at the progress and process as a unit, and not be viewed as different entities. These differences in view are perhaps contributed the nature of work presented by the different scholars. Some feel that the higher level of reflection you are engaged in, the more difference you can make (Jay & Johnson, 2002) while for some, the stages of reflection can be examined as domains that can overlap one another (Zeichner & Liston, 2013). Table 2 provides a summary of some levels of reflection that have been proposed over the years.

The work of Jay and Johnson (2002) on their model of reflection indicated a hierarchical development in terms of levels of reflection. The model begins with descriptive reflection, followed by comparative reflection and ends with critical reflection. Akbari (2007) captured the essence of Jay and Johnson's (2002) work by positing that descriptive reflection begins with the identification of a critical incident or problem. Jay and Johnson (2002) proposed typical questions such as 'What is happening?' and 'Is this working?' to exemplify the types of reflection that occur at this stage. The problem identification is similar to what Schön (1983) described, setting the problem or dilemma that will be investigated.

Table 1 Levels of Reflection

Proponent	Level of reflection
Jay and Johnson (2002)	Critical reflection Comparative reflection Descriptive reflection
Lee (2005)	Reflectivity Rationalization Recall
Van Manen (1977)	Critical rationality Deliberative rationality Technical rationality
Zwosdiak-Myers (2010)	Critical reflective conversations Comparative reflective conversations Descriptive reflective conversations

After the problem has been identified, comparative reflection follows where the practitioner tries to look at the problem from various perspectives; which enables the practitioner to cover all bases in approaching the identified problem (Jay & Johnson, 2002). Akbari (2007) described the final stage of reflection in this model as the most critical largely because it is at this stage, the practitioner will evaluate the alternatives that he or she has and combined these with the various perspectives, with the intent to formulate the best way to approach the problem.

Lee (2005) proposed a similar model in describing the depth of reflection, although there are some notable differences in the levels proposed. He begins with a stage of reflection called 'recall'. At this point, the practitioner will examine and describe their experience as objectively as they can, without attempting to look for explanations for why certain events transpired. This stage is similar with the stage proposed by Jay and Johnson (2002) in which both are positioned at a descriptive level. Lee's (2005) second level was

described as rationalisation. It is at the second stage that the practitioner begins their enquiry in trying to rationalise the events they are reflecting on. This stage is slightly different from Jay and Johnson's (2002) where the notion of open-mindedness is made more apparent than Lee's (2005), although arguably some level of open-mindedness is needed in rationalising a situation. Finally, this model ends with the reflectivity level is similar to Jay and Johnson's (2002) highest level of reflection. The intention of the practitioner at this stage is to improve or change things in the future, with consideration of various perspectives and insight on the reflected event.

Another author, Zwozdiak-Myers (2010), described the different levels of reflection that can be achieved, ranging from descriptive reflective conversations, comparative reflective conversations and critical reflective conversations, which can be achieved using different sets of cognitive skills. Descriptive reflective conversations are rich with descriptions of personal accounts of an event, which may be led by descriptive type of questions. As Zwozdiak-Myers (2010) expanded further, comparative reflective conversations require the teachers to make comparisons between theory and practice while critical reflective thinking is defined as the capacity

to work with complex ideas whereby a person can make effective provision of evidence to justify a reasonable judgment. The evidence, and therefore the judgment, will pay appropriate attention to the context of the judgment.

(Moon, 2005 in Zwozdiak-Myers, 2010)

Clearly, achieving critical reflective conversations requires the practitioner to be more reflective as compared with achieving descriptive reflective conversations which is similar to the levels of reflection proposed by Jay and Johnson (2002) and Lee (2005). It requires a teacher to be able to ask her or himself the right question to ensure that they arrive at a higher level of reflection.

3.6 Conclusion

A number of key points have been made in this chapter. First, over the years, an extensive amount of research has been conducted on effective teaching (Cooper & McIntyre, 1996; Deming, 2014; Doyle, 1977; Farrell, 2015; Giovannelli, 2003; Kyriacou, 2009; Loughran, 2002; Medley, 1977; Muijs & Reynolds, 2011; Perrot, 1982; Qing, 2009) and expert teachers (Farrell, 2013; Gün, 2014; Johnson, 2005; Leinhardt, 1983; Tsui, 2003, 2005, 2009a, 2009b). In reviewing the literature, there appears to be a lack of empirical research in understanding the experiences of PSTs in their teaching practice as opposed

to the vast amount of research that characterises expert and effective teaching. The research that could potentially be relevant to the PSTs' instructional experiences was done using a comparison paradigm between novice and expert teachers (Ho & Liu, 2015; Hogan, Rabinowitz, & Craven III, 2003; Livingston & Borko, 1989; Lloyd, 2017; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Westerman, 1991; Wolff, van den Bogert, Jarodzka, & Boshuizen, 2015). However, assuming that novice and expert teachers carry similar characteristics may impede any efforts in helping PSTs to progress as it has been argued that they actually carry different characteristics. One such example is drawn from Farrell (2012) where he described how the teacher attrition rate is contributed to by the fact that novice teachers are often at a loss when they begin teaching, as they no longer have access to their teacher educators but are still expected to perform effectively. Therefore, more empirical research on the instructional practices of PSTs is needed to address the knowledge gap in characterising PSTs instructional practices in order for the teacher training community to be able to provide support in developing them.

Secondly, the researches reviewed in the chapter verified Hall and Smith's (2006) assertion for the need to investigate planning, instruction and reflection as a holistic process to some extent. Most research discussed in this chapter investigated these stages separately. For example, Koni and Krull (2015), Ruys et al. (2012) and Yinger (1980a) investigated planning, Bailey (1996), Clark and Peterson (1976), Gün (2014) and Tsang (2004) produced research that looked into IDs while Hinett and Weeden (2000), LaBoskey (2000) and Odeh et al. (2010) examined the reflection experiences of teachers. Although some studies have addressed the relationship between these stages, some were limited to theoretical frameworks (Farrell, 2014), which could be put into better perspective with the support of empirical data, while others examined the relationship between planning and IDs, though most do not include in their investigation reflection or how this affects subsequent lesson planning, as theorized by Farrell (2014). Therefore, this chapter concurs with Hall and Smith (2006) that more empirical research needs to be conducted to provide the teacher training community with a more holistic view to depict the instructional planning process of teachers.

Although the notion of expert and effective teacher is argued to be highly contextualised, teacher education should aim to foster these characteristics to the best of its capabilities. In doing so, it is apt that the effort begins to explore how PSTs approach their teaching by examining their current practices in the three teaching stages namely planning, IDs and post-lesson reflections, which is what the current research aims to do.

In conclusion, focusing on instructional planning might enhance a PSTs' experience and development in their progress to become more experienced in their teaching.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design and methodology adopted for this research. The chapter outlines a discussion on the scope of the research by revisiting the research question and a detailed description of the data collection methods, namely the open-ended questionnaire, lesson plans, classroom observations and post-lesson interviews. The chapter also includes a section on the pilot study and concludes with a discussion on ethical considerations.

4.2 Scope of the Research

As discussed in Chapter 1, for the last five years, there has been a limited amount of research conducted on TESL PSTs' instructional planning experiences during their practicum. Most research on PSTs' practicum experiences has focused on perception, concerns and attitudes toward various issues (Berg & Smith, 2014; Low et al., 2017; Senom et al., 2013), the development of their beliefs (Berg & Smith, 2016; Othman & Kiely, 2016), reflective practice (Nambiar & Thang, 2016; Yaacob et al., 2014; Yee et al., 2017) and the development of their pedagogical content knowledge (Hosseini & Kamal, 2013; Leong et al., 2015). Research on understanding the instructional planning experience of PSTs, which includes examination of their IDs and post-lesson reflection, seems limited. Thus, this study aims to fill the scarcity in this knowledge gap by investigating their instructional planning experience, IDs and their evaluation of their lessons in addition to how these processes of teaching influence subsequent instructional planning processes. This study hopes to shed some light on how TESL PSTs plan their lessons so that teacher educators may utilise this knowledge to the PSTs' advantage in terms of aiding their professional development.

At this juncture, it is important to restate the research questions, as mentioned in Chapter 1, to better position the methodology chapter in this research. The research aims to explore the instructional planning of TESL PSTs. In doing so, the research attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. How do TESL pre-service teachers plan for their lessons?
2. How do the TESL pre-sevice teachers make their interactive decisions?

3. How can TESL pre-service teachers' post-lesson reflections be described?

In answering the research questions a qualitative method was chosen, as the research intends to explore the central phenomenon from the perspectives of selected individuals that fit into the selection criteria. Choosing a qualitative method provided the research an in-depth view of the research field being explored; and allowed an examination of how the participants' views of the experience were constructed, which is aligned with the research purpose (Creswell, 2012). Table 2 summarises the research methodology undertaken for this study.

Table 2 Summary of Research Questions and Methodology

Research Questions	Methodology
How do TESL pre-service teachers plan their lessons?	Open-ended questionnaire, lesson plan analysis
How do TESL pre-service teachers make their interactive decisions?	Lesson plan analysis and post-lesson interview
How can TESL pre-service teachers' post-lesson reflections be described?	Classroom observation and post-lesson interview

An open-ended questionnaire and the lesson plan that correspond with the lesson being observed were the prime instruments used to tap into the first research question. The lesson plans were also collected to triangulate the data from the open-ended questionnaire. The second research question was addressed by using lesson plan analysis and by conducting post-lesson interviews. Finally, classroom observations and post-lesson interviews were utilised in answering the third research question. A triangulation of the data and methodology was achieved from the multiple instruments used to address the respective research questions.

4.3 Rationale for Adopting the Qualitative Method

Babbie (2008), Creswell (2012), and Merriam (1988) agree that the decision on whether a study takes on a quantitative, qualitative or the mixed-method research approach largely depends on the purpose and the aims of the research study. The selection of the research approach will subsequently determine the research design of a study by helping to

determine the appropriate data collection methods. Babbie (2008) asserts that researchers should not choose their approach before determining the research purposes and aims, as both are vital in examining different research situations. Thus, it is critical for researchers to frame their research problems, research aims and research questions before deciding the approach that will best provide a platform for answering their research questions.

The present research investigates the TESL PSTs' instructional experience by posing questions about investigate their instructional planning process, IDs and post-lesson reflections. In order to answer the research questions, a qualitative research design is adopted, where the researcher aims to “develop an in-depth exploration of a central phenomenon”, where the central phenomenon can be referred to as the key concept, idea or process (Creswell, 2012, p. 16). With regard to the current research, the ‘central phenomenon’ is the instructional practices of the TESL PSTs. Fraenkel, Wallen and Hyun (2012) affirm the selection of a qualitative research approach by stating that it allows a detailed description of the breadth and depth of a phenomenon, as compared to survey and experimental designs.

Creswell (2012) examined several research methodology books and discovered several common characteristics of qualitative research. Table 3 explains what these characteristics are and how the current research is positioned in each of the characteristics. The first two columns in the table explain the eight characteristics of qualitative research that he found to be common and the third highlights how the characteristics apply to the present study.

4.4 Research Design

Having a sound research design is crucial in conducting any research as it will determine the viability of said research. Yin (2014) visualised a research design as a plan to get from here to there; *here* being the research question and *there* being the answers to the research question. Merriam (1988) implied that the selection of a particular research design is guided by the shape of the research problem, the questions asked and the predicted outcome of the research. Included among the research designs offered by Bryman (2008) were experimental design, cross-sectional design, longitudinal design and case study design. Alternatively, Creswell (2012) suggested grounded theory design, ethnographic design which includes the case study approach, and narrative research design for qualitative research.

A number of considerations must be taken before the research design is selected. Babbie (2008) recapitulated the research design process by suggesting that decisions on research designs involve the topic that will be studied among a particular population; with purposeful research methods. In other words, a sound research design will take into consideration the fit between a research purpose and the research methods. Yin (2014) offered similar suggestions in deciding whether a project fits into the case study research design. According to Yin (2014), a consideration of the form of the research question, the control of behavioural events and whether the study focuses on contemporary events were some conditions that need to be taken into consideration by researchers on when they decide on the research design. For the present study, the research questions, the amount of control over behavioural events and the focus on contemporary events for the present study are fairly similar to Yin's (2014) suggestion of a case study design. The research intends to explore the TESL PSTs' instructional experiences where the research does not impose any form of control over the PSTs' behavioural events and to focus on contemporary events that take place during the practicum session.

This study also, to some extent, adopted a case study approach in guiding the research design and methodology. Babbie (2008) reiterated how there is a lack of common agreement on what constitutes a "case" and how the term is loosely defined. For the purpose of this research, the definition provided by Bryman (2008) is used, where he positioned the term 'case' as being associated with a location or an association. The present research is located in a context where the participants share a similar learning environment or setting, which is constituted as a case. The present research is a single case design, where there is a holistic, single unit of analysis. Yin (2014) suggested five sets of rationale to help researchers determine whether their study is a single or multiple case study design. The five rationales are critical, unusual, common, revelatory or longitudinal. The present research is rationalised by a common case where it intends to capture the circumstances and conditions of a situation to provide an explanation about the social processes related to some theoretical interest (Yin, 2014). An example of such a study is one by Tsui (2003, p. 2), where she asserted that

the relationship between the knowledge that [teachers] develop and the context in which they work is dialectical. That is to say, teachers' knowledge must be understood in terms of the way they respond to their contexts of work, and this in turn shapes the context in which their knowledge is developed.

(2003, p. 2)

Thus, the present study was approached qualitatively, with some resemblance to a case study research design.

4.5 Research Sample

The population of the research sample is final year, TESL PSTs enrolled at a public university in Malaysia. The demographic profile of the TESL PST in this research is similar to any other Malaysian public university that offer full-time Bachelor of Education programmes. The PSTs' age range between 19 to 23 years old. The pre-requisite upon entering a Bachelor of Education programme is an A-Level or equivalent, which means that the students would have either sat for Sijil Tinggi Pelajaran Malaysia (STPM), that is the Malaysian High School Certificate, undergone two years of Ministry of Education matriculation programmes, or completed their preparatory programmes at various Centre of Foundation studies at a public university. It is also vital to note that prior to entering any Bachelor of Education programmes, these PSTs go through a strict selection process, as described in Section 2.4.1.

In the sampling process, convenience sampling was adopted, as the research participants consisted of those who are willing to participate and were available to the researcher to be studied (Creswell, 2012). Neuman (1997) described convenience sampling as being 'haphazardous' as he stated that samples drawn from a convenience sampling could seriously misrepresent the population. However, this research does not aim to generalise its findings to the population, as the aim is to investigate the phenomenon with breadth and depth. Furthermore, Creswell (2012) put forth that although convenience sampling may not allow generalisation, it could provide useful information to address the research questions. The recruitment procedure is described below.

Initial contact was made with the Bachelor of Education (Teaching English as Second Language) programme coordinator. A meeting with all the TESL PSTs was set for the researcher to explain and begin the recruitment process. Neuman (1997) asserted that social researchers should always follow the ethical principle of voluntary consent, which requires the participants to explicitly agree to participation. At the meeting, upon

Table 3 Position of the Present Study in Characteristics of Qualitative Research

Characteristic	Explanation	Position of Current Research
Natural setting	Participants are researched in the field at the site where the participants are experiencing the issue under study.	The research was conducted at the secondary schools where the TESL PSTs were placed during their practicum. The setting of the data collection was never done outside the school context, neither was the research examined anything beyond the context of that upon which the research was decided.
Researcher as key instrument	The data are collected through the examination of documents, behavioural observation and participant interviews. Instruments may be used but in an open-ended manner. In other words, the researcher is more hands-on with the field.	The current research involved the examination of lesson plans, observation of lessons as well as conducting post-lesson interviews with the participants. Open-ended questionnaire was also developed and administered.
Multiple methods	Data are collected using various methods, rather than relying on a single-data source.	The current research collected data through various methods, which included the administration of an open-ended questionnaire, collection of lesson plans, lesson observations and post-lesson interviews.
Complex reasoning through inductive and deductive logic	Data analysis is done rigorously, by going back and forth until a set of themes is developed. Themes are also always checked against the data.	The data analysis was done rigorously following the steps suggested by Creswell (2013) as will be discussed further in Section 4.11.

Participants' meaning	The theme developed in a qualitative research should provide evidence from multiple perspectives to represent their diverse views.	Each of the research questions is investigated through two methodologies, in order to represent the participants' diverse views.
Emergent design	The research is flexible in nature, as the initial plan may change after the researchers enter the field and begin to collect data. The most important aspect of conducting a qualitative research is to understand the problem and issue from the participants and to decide the best practice to approach the research situation.	This was found to be true from the findings of the pilot study, where the initial exploration of the research has informed the research on how best to approach the issue being investigated by adapting the research questions and the angle of which the research is viewed for the main study.
Reflexivity	Researcher brings to the research their background and how this informs their interpretation of the data. This has to be explicitly stated in any part of the study.	The first chapter of this thesis has provided the reader with some background of my experience in training TESL teachers, which has an impact on how the study is being interpreted.
Holistic account	The researcher attempts to build a complex picture about the issue under study. This may involve reporting on multiple perspectives and identify the factors involved in the study.	The intricate relationship in instructional planning is studied by examining the process as a whole, where her data was collected from lesson planning, the delivery of the lesson and post-lesson reflections through conducting interviews.

Source (Column 1 & 2): Creswell (2013)

explaining the research, an ‘information sheet’ containing details about the research and a table requesting for information including the names, telephone numbers, email addresses and the school names of those who were interested was distributed to be completed. At this juncture, it is important to note that the participants were not under any duress to participate, as they have never met me, as a lecturer, nor was the coordinator present.

Out of 85 TESL PSTs, a total of 31 expressed interest participating in the study. In order to fulfil the research purpose, the researcher needed five total participants. The selection of the participants was made based on the location of the schools and the distance between the schools given that the PSTs were placed within a 60-kilometre radius from the university. This was to ensure that logistical issues would not arise, considering that there may have been several observations to be completed in one day and commuting between one school and another should not take too much time. In the end, three students were selected from school A and two were selected from school B.

Then, a briefing session with those who agreed to participate, to elaborate on the research and what is expected from them. It was made clear that they could withdraw anytime, up until the second week of the research. The participants signed an the informed consent form at the end of the meeting.

4.6 Data Collection Methods

In order to fulfil the research purpose, which is to examine the PSTs’ instructional experiences, the data collection methods were carried out in three full lesson cycles. A full lesson cycle in this research refers to lesson planning, carrying out the lesson and having a post-lesson reflection. Carrying out the data collection in full lesson cycles helped to capture the ‘blind spot’, as mentioned by Hall and Smith (2006). In exploring the PSTs’ instructional experience, Hall and Smith (2006) note the importance of examining the relationship between planning, instruction and reflection as a holistic process in understanding teachers’ instructional experiences. They found that many studies focused on the individual stages of teaching, without looking at the combination of them that causes a lack of understanding teaching practice. Hence, this study aims to fill the research gap by exploring these stages through three ‘full-lesson cycles’ for each participant.

Table 4 provides a summary of the research methods carried out for this research and their purposes. Four methods were employed for two lesson cycles, as illustrated in the table.

The methods employed in data collection will be explained in detail, following the sequence of when it was administered. It will begin with the open-ended questionnaire, lesson plan analysis, classroom observation and the interview protocol.

Table 4 Summary of Research Methods Purpose

Lesson Cycle	Method		Purpose
Planning	Open-ended questionnaire Lesson plan analysis		To help identify the issues that pre-service teachers meet when planning for their lesson.
Teaching	Classroom observation	Lesson plan analysis	To complement the note-taking process by providing the researcher with the pre-service teachers' planned course of actions.
		Field-note taking	To identify interactive decisions made as compared to what was initially planned.
Assess/ Reflect	Post-Lesson Interview		To identify PSTs' post-lesson reflections. To triangulate interactive decisions identified during the observation.

4.7 Open-ended Questionnaire

At this juncture, it is important to note that the questionnaire was administered before the lesson was conducted, but after the lesson was planned, to acknowledge temporality, as suggested by Marcos and Tillema (2006). They indicated the importance of evaluating planning before the action takes place, as PSTs' beliefs on planning may interfere with their teaching actions if evaluation on planning is done after the lesson. Thus, after a mutual agreement with the PSTs on an available lesson that could be observed, a copy of the open-ended questionnaire was emailed, for them to be filled in and returned before the lesson began. The purpose of administering the open-ended questionnaire was to investigate aspects that the TESL PSTs reflect on during instructional planning.

4.7.1 The Rationale

The most ideal way to tap into cognitive processes while finding a solution to a problem is using a verbal protocol analysis as suggested by Branch (2013). Initially, careful consideration was given to the possibility of adopting the verbal protocol analysis as the main data collection method for the first research question by taping the pre-service teachers' thinking aloud process while planning their lessons. However, in order for the verbal protocol analysis to work, the participants would need to be trained, as thinking aloud is not a process that they accustomed to (Branch, 2013). This will impose additional pressure on the participants, as it requires a greater time commitment from them. Given the pressure that these participants are already under as practicum students, agreeing to be observed three times, the second-best alternative was chosen, namely using an open-ended questionnaire. The questionnaire was selected as the primary source of data to tap into the pre-service teachers' thoughts and beliefs about their instructional planning practice. The open-ended questionnaire was chosen for to two main reasons.

Firstly, the open-ended questionnaire minimises the time pressure on the participants to respond, as compared with an interview, where the demand to respond as quickly as possible is higher. This was validated during the pilot study, where one of the participants stated that the administration of the open-ended questionnaire allowed more time and space for them to respond as compared with an oral interview. This is a crucial aspect in this study, as the purpose is to tap into their thought processes during instructional planning. By administering the open-ended questionnaire before the lesson begins, the participants were provided with some room for them to think about their actions during instructional planning.

The administration of the questionnaire also minimised interviewer effects, as suggested by Bryman (2008). Considering that the research methods included lesson observations as well as post-lesson interviews with the participants, the administration of the open-ended questionnaire provided a triangulation for the types of responses that might occur during the presence of the interviewer for the other two methods. As mentioned earlier in Section 4.7, the questionnaire was emailed before a lesson began, and was only collected before the classroom observation.

4.7.2 Constructing the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to capture the PSTs' reflections on instructional planning as much as possible, but caution was exercised at the same time to avoid overwhelming

the PSTs. Neuman (1997) reiterated the importance of questionnaires having a “professional appearance with high-quality graphics, space between questions, and good layout” (p. 249), as these aspects will help improve the accuracy and completeness of the questionnaire.

The first page of the questionnaire included the logo of the university and a short introductory paragraph on what the research was about, as well as a reaffirming statement about confidentiality. Following the introductory section were details on the date, time, class and topic of the lesson going to be observed. I also ensured that only a maximum of two questions were asked per page to ensure ample space was provided for the participants’ answers (see Appendix 2).

Open questions have been empirically proven to allow maximum access to teachers’ thinking and beliefs because they allow greater coverage of actual teacher thoughts (Marcos & Tillema, 2006). Questions asked were carefully designed to ensure that the data collection process did not lose its focus in answering the research questions. Simple language was also chosen to ensure complete understanding, as the questionnaire was distributed through a non-face-to-face interaction, specifically via email. In total, the open-ended questionnaire posed five questions to probe for the aspects reflected upon during instructional planning. These five questions included those regarding aspects that helped and interfered in the participants’ planning process, steps that the participants took when they drafted their lesson plan and probing questions on their previous instructional planning experience.

4.8 Lesson Plan Analysis

Lesson plans are important documents that play a significant role in teachers’ professional development. Ball, Knobloch and Hoop (2007) regarded the lesson plans as a representation of what transpires in a lesson, aids teacher-student interactions and provides focus for instructional outcomes. Lesson plans can also be pictured as a roadmap to achieving lesson outcomes. In examining teacher beliefs, lesson plans are known to be a rich source of data to indicate teacher competence (Ruys et al., 2012).

As the research aims to investigate TESL PSTs perceptions of instructional planning, it is only apt that the researcher included an analysis of their lesson plans. The lesson plan was also used to triangulate the data collected from the open-ended questionnaire. Besides using the lesson plan as a triangulation tool, the lesson plan also served as a guideline for the researcher to identify the IDs made during the lesson, by comparing planned actions

versus actual actions, to fulfil the research purpose. The participants were informed before the lesson observation to prepare an extra copy of the lesson plan. The lesson plan that they prepared followed a standardised format given by the faculty before they were sent for practicum. The same format was used with courses that require them to design lesson plans, such as their methodology courses.

The preliminary section of the lesson plan outlined the form (class), date, time, level, theme of the lesson, topic, objectives, learning outcomes, moral values, educational emphasis, instructional aids, students' previous knowledge, and references. The teaching procedure section is divided into three columns, which are stage, the instructional activity and the learning activity. The stage section is divided into three, namely set induction, development and conclusion. The instructional activity column is where the PSTs are expected to elaborate upon the stages of teaching that they intend to carry out. The learning activity column is an expectation of what they would require from the students, corresponding to the teaching steps that they outlined in the instructional activity column. A sample of the lesson plan is provided in Appendix 3.

4.9 Classroom Observation

Observation is a commonly used method in collecting data for qualitative research (Creswell, 2012). Although he suggested that an observation allows the researcher to observe physical setting, participants, activities, interactions, conversations, and researchers' own behaviours, he also cautioned researchers on the importance of basing the observation on the research purpose and questions. The aim of the present research is to explore TESL PSTs' instructional planning. As the study intends to achieve this by also examining the PSTs' IDs, there is a need to carry out classroom observations. This was supported by Bryman (2008), who recommended observation as a form of direct observation of behaviour as compared to a survey research which only allows behaviour to be inferred. Because the present research aims to investigate TESL pre-service teachers' instructional experiences, it is crucial for the researcher to observe the PSTs' practices in the classroom as this fulfilled one of the research objectives.

This research takes on a semi-structured observation method as part of the data collection procedure. The semi-structured observation was selected as the method to answer the third research question in determining how a lesson influences future instructional planning. In determining the focus of the observation, I kept in mind the purpose of the observation, which was to discover the changes or the IDs that the PSTs make during the

lessons. This was guided by the examination of the lesson plans that was handed in before the lessons started. Therefore, the observation is partially guided by the lesson plans, making the observation a semi-structured one. The purpose of the observation also remained two-fold: to provide an answer for the third research question, as well as to serve as a prompt for the post-lesson interview. Upon mutual agreement with the participants, each participant was observed for three lessons. The role as a nonparticipant observer was taken, where I was not involved in the activities, but instead visited the site and record notes on the situation being investigated (Creswell, 2012).

Each participant was observed for three lessons throughout their 12-week practicum. Upon discussion with the participants, the observations were scheduled with a 4-week gap between observations. This gap between the observations for each participant was decided to provide ample time for the PSTs to show progress in their teaching. Among the major challenges that the researcher faced in conducting classroom observations was having to cancel agreed observations due to factors that were beyond the researcher's control. Some of the cancellations happened due to school events that were not planned, mentors or supervisors paying surprise visits to the PSTs' lessons, and PSTs being sent away for courses. Despite these challenges, the researcher managed to complete the observations with a three to four-week gap.

4.9.1 Observational Process

The following recommendations by Creswell (2012) were followed closely in conducting the classroom observations:

1. Select a site that can help you understand the phenomenon.
2. Ease into the site to get a general idea of the site.
3. Identify what to observe and how long to observe.
4. Decide your role as the observer.
5. Conduct multiple observations over time to obtain the best understanding of the site.
6. Design means to record notes.
7. Think of the information that you would like to collect.
8. Record descriptive and reflective field notes.
9. Make yourself known but remain unobtrusive.
10. Slowly withdraw from the site.

Prior to the observations, the researcher and the participants discussed lessons that were available to be observed; the length and aspects of the observation and the observer role were discussed prior to the observation. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) discussed how an observer may carry an effect which may cause the participants to behave differently. However, Merriam and Tisdell (2015) reminded researchers that the most important thing is not whether the observation causes changes in behavior, but how researchers can identify and account for those effects. In this research, besides the observations conducted for the research, the participants were also observed eight times by their mentor and three times by their supervisors throughout the practicum. When I went in for the first observation, the PSTs have already been observed a few times either by their mentor or supervisor. That reduced the observer's paradox to some extent, as they are already familiar with the idea of being observed by the time I conducted my first observation. Scheduling my observation for three lessons was also my effort to minimize the observer's paradox, just in case my observation is the first one for the participants, which was never the case for this research. Following Creswell's (2012) suggestion, three observations per participant were scheduled, to enable a comprehensive understanding of the research site. The first observation served as an icebreaker to the class that was going to be observed and this helped build my schemata on the context of the subsequent lessons to be observed.

An observational field note form was also designed to record notes during the classroom observations as recommended by Creswell (2012)(see Appendix 4). This is to ensure consistency in the notes, as well as to help organise the data better. The form contained detail on the lessons such as the date, time, class and the teacher. Two columns were prepared; one for the description of events and the other was for reflective notes on the events. The research aims and questions were also accessible during the classroom observation to keep the observation in focus. A sample of the field notes taken during the observation could also be seen in Appendix 4.

Finally, after the lessons ended, I withdrew myself from the research site and proceeded with the post-lesson interview with the PSTs.

4.10 Interview

Besides observation, Merriam (1988), Maykut and Morehouse (1994) and Creswell (2012) also regarded interview as a valuable method in obtaining qualitative data in research. Merriam (1988) suggested interviews are best used to investigate actions that

are not observable, such as feelings, behaviour and people's interpretations of the world. Besides being able to obtain data on unobservable actions, Creswell (2012) reiterated another advantage of conducting interviews, which is to allow the researcher to be in control over the type of data received to fulfil the research purpose by having the choice to ask specific questions regarding the phenomena being investigated. The data obtained from interviews are rich, as the act of interviewing goes beyond normal conversations, where the discourse involves deep discussion of thoughts and feelings (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

The direction of the interviews conducted for this research was mainly determined by the observational field notes, as the interview was post-lesson. However, the generic questions were determined in advance, serving as a guideline for aspects that needed exploration. This was reiterated by Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick (2008) who stated that the usage of a semi-structured interview helps to "define the area to be explored but allows the interviewer or interviewee to diverge in order to pursue an idea or response in more detail" (p.291). This allowed an insight into the participants' "emerging worldview", but at the same time kept focus on the issues that were being explored (Merriam, 1988).

For the purpose of this research, a semi-structured interview was employed, mainly due to the nature of immediate face-to-face interaction effects with the participants. The post-lesson interview was carried out to explore the TESL PSTs' post-lesson reflection. As the interview was mainly guided by the incidents that had transpired in the classroom, the interviews were done immediately after the lesson has ended, to ensure that the TESL PSTs were still able to recall their interactive decision-making skills that occurred during the lesson.

4.10.1 Interview Protocol

Before the interview was conducted, an interview protocol was developed (see Appendix 5) and piloted to ensure a clear focus is established through appropriate questions, as well as to provide a means of note recording (Creswell, 2012). The interview protocol was based on Creswell's (2012) suggestions for developing and designing an interview protocol. It contained a section to record important information regarding the interview sessions, where details such as date, time, class as well as interviewee information were recorded. A column on the informed consent form was also provided to ensure that the participant who was being interviewed had signed. The interview questions were divided into four parts, namely the introduction, the icebreaker, the core questions and the closure.

The interview protocol form as seen in Appendix 5 served as a guideline during the interview sessions. The main method to record the data for the interview was a tape recorder. The form was used to take down any notes that could be probed further during the interview and did not serve as the main data recorder. The rationale for doing so was to keep the interview smooth and not be distracted by taking down too many notes during the interview, which is essential in conducting a post-lesson interview.

In conducting interviews, interviewers are reminded to keep the interview session pleasant by creating an atmosphere that would make the participants feel welcomed (Alsheqeti, 2014). This could be achieved through what was recommended by Maykut and Morehouse (1994) where the introductory part of an interview protocol should inform the participants about the purpose of the study, address the confidentiality issues, as well as informing the participants what they can expect from the interview session in terms of length and procedures, which were followed by closely during the interviews.

The icebreaker question is also sometimes called the ‘grand tour’ question. The purpose of asking such a question is to enable the participants to relax and thus allowing the researcher to create a pleasant environment for the participants as suggested by Alshenqeeti (2014). The researcher would have had conducted observations in the participants’ classes before the interview was conducted. Therefore, it is only apt that the icebreaker questions revolve around the incidents that happened during the classes. These questions were also formulated with the consideration that they would be easy to understand and easier for the participants to relate to (Creswell, 2012).

The earlier observational field notes taken mainly guided the formulation of core questions in the interview protocol. The questions were directed by incidents that triggered the PSTs to make IDs, as this was the aim of the interview session. Although the incidents determine the specific questions that were asked, generic questions were formulated to keep the interview in perspective. Examples of the generic questions from the interview protocol are:

- Could you describe what happened during (incident 1/incident 2/incident 3)?
- Why did you make those changes?

These questions were then made specific based on the incidents that were observed during the lessons.

Finally, the interview ended with a closure section that allowed the participants to express any feelings or opinions that might have been overlooked during the interview session.

The closure also allowed me to express my gratitude for the respondents' time and participation.

4.11 Data Analysis

The purpose of the qualitative data analysis process is to make sense of the texts and images to form answers to the research questions (Creswell, 2012). This demonstrates how crucial it is for the data analysis process to be handled well, to ensure that the findings were represented in the best way possible. He described six steps involved in analysing and interpreting the qualitative data, which are to prepare and organise the data for analysis, explore and code the data, use the codes to build description and themes, represent and report the findings, interpret the findings and, finally, validate the accuracy of the findings. Figure 5 visualises the data analysis process as suggested by Creswell (2012) in a bottom up approach to analysis.

In managing the data, a qualitative data analysis (QDA) computer programme named the Atlas.ti was utilised. The usage of this kind of QDA computer programmes helps researchers to store and organise their data, enables them to assign labels or codes to their data, and facilitates searching the data for specific texts or words (Creswell, 2012). The usage of these computer programmes is not to generate an analysis, but rather to reduce the manual workload carried by the researcher (Bryman, 2008). This means that the QDA programmes do not analyse the data, but instead, help researchers with a more organised way of managing their data.

1. Prepare and Organise the Data for Analysis

Creswell (2012) suggests that researchers organise their data into files and folders, as researchers in qualitative research are often overwhelmed with the vast amount of data that they have collected. Good organisational skills will minimise a researcher's workload when data needs to be retrieved for analysis.

For this research, upon data collection, a file with separators was created for each research participant. For each participant, the section was further divided into three to indicate Lesson 1, Lesson 2 and Lesson 3. After the file has been created, all the data was categorised according to the lessons. Each section for each participant represented a lesson that contained one set of open-ended questionnaire, one lesson plan, one observational field note, and one post-lesson interview protocol.

The interviews were then transcribed and placed in the respective section in the data file. The transcribing process was manageable, with 15 interview sessions lasting between 15-20 minutes to be transcribed. InqScribe, software that facilitated the transcribing process, was used. This software allowed audio files to be imported, and the software was designed in a dynamic way so the computer keyboards could be used to control the audio files while transcribing.

Besides having the data in a hardcopy format, all the data was digitised to enable 'import' into the QDA computer programme, Atlas.ti. The softcopy version of the data was also stored in an organized folder, similar to the file that was created for the hardcopy versions of the data.

2. Explore and Code the Data

The next step to data analysis is to explore a general sense of the data (Creswell, 2012). In doing so, the data was explored systematically by participant. It was vital to go through the data in a systematic way to ensure that a holistic view of each lesson is built, as the data was collected in a full lesson cycle. The data exploration began with each PST's lesson one set of data, which comprised of an open-ended questionnaire, a lesson plan, observational field notes and post-lesson interview transcript, before moving on to the data for lesson two and lesson three. The same process was repeated with each participant.

In developing the codes for the research, a system was developed to ensure that the coding was done systematically to ensure that no data was lost, considering the complexity of the research design. Each code begins with either 'PL' for planning, 'ID' for IDs, or 'REF' for reflection. It was then followed by codes that were developed using multiple coding strategies, as suggested by Creswell (2012), which may include in-vivo codes, general educational terms and my own words.

These codes were further developed into sub-codes to categorise them based on how the codes represent the data. For example, two sub-codes were formed for planning, specifically belief formation and problem anticipation. The codes and sub-codes guided the presentation of the data, where these were put into a matrix to represent the overall data for each case, which will be presented alongside the individual case analysis in the next chapter. A sample of the coding system is provided in Appendix 6.

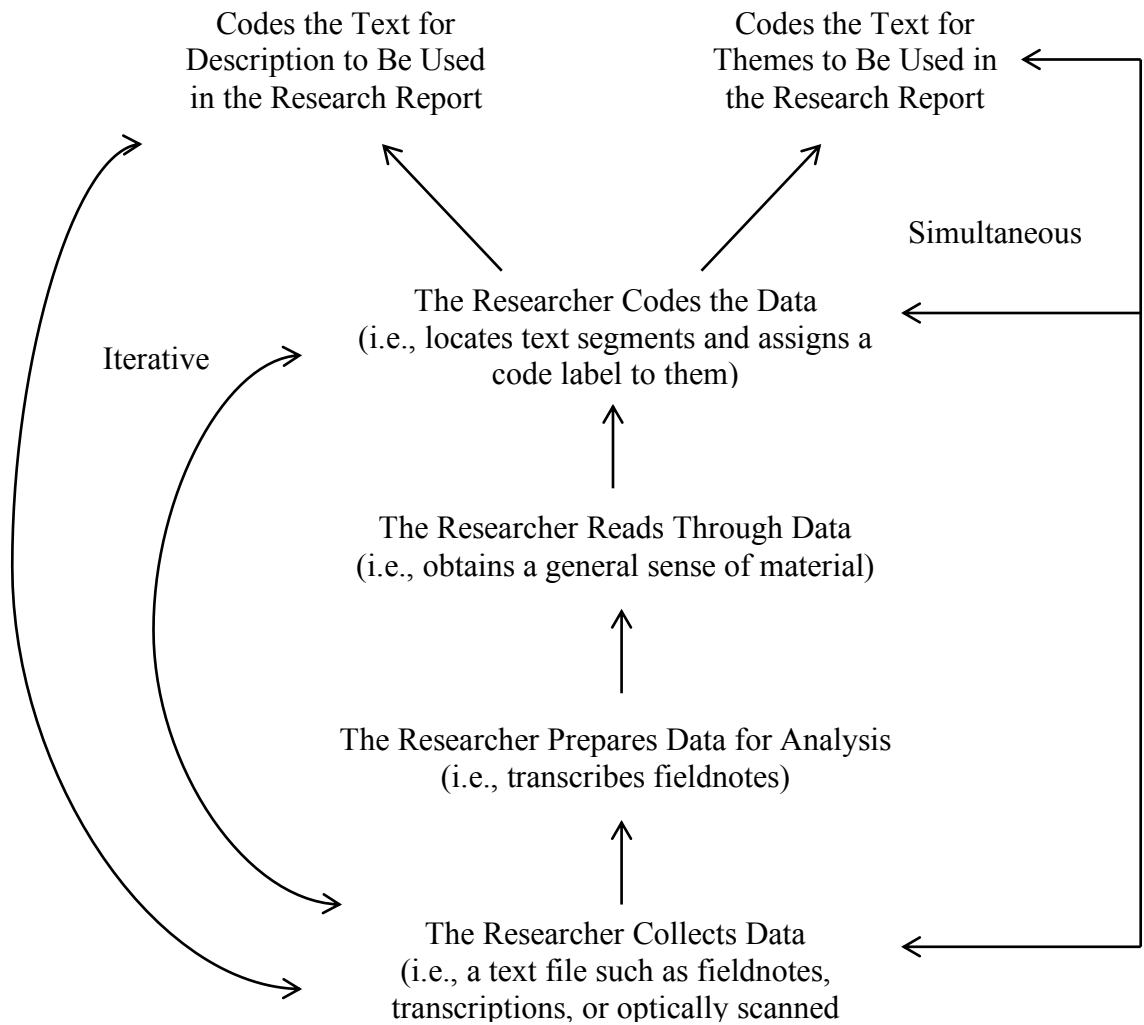


Figure 5: The qualitative process of data analysis

Adapted from Creswell (2012, p. 237)

3. Build Description and Themes

Saldana (2013) described developing a theme as part of the process in the code-to-theory model. He described the process as complicated and not as straightforward as it seemed. Creswell (2012) identified that the process of description and theme building as a way to answer the research questions.

Using the research questions together with the codes and sub-codes, the data was explored to formulate the themes in attempt to answer the research questions. The themes formulated were used as a guide to present the data for the cross-case analysis. It is also apt to mention at this juncture that the description of the coding process was not as linear in practice, as it is described in this chapter. The analysis moved from codes to sub-codes,

to the themes, which sometimes generated new codes, where the whole process began again. This process of coding and recoding helped to generate a more refined list of codes for the present study as asserted by Saldana (2013).

4. Represent and Report Findings

In representing and reporting the findings, the researcher approached her report in a narrative discussion where the data analysis was discussed in detail (Creswell, 2012). The researcher used various strategies to ensure that the findings were well represented and reported. This includes the use of a matrix and the inclusion of excerpts of data where deemed necessary.

Chapter five presents the findings for the individual participants across their lessons. The purpose of the chapter echoed Rich and Hannafin's (2008) method of presenting their decision-making study, where they asserted that instructional decisions vary by person and by context, which rang true for all five PSTs in the current study. Each participant differed individually and taught different classes, among other variables that will be presented in the next chapter. The individual case analysis approach was also used to ensure that the research captured the holistic process of teaching from planning to post-lesson reflections. Furthermore, this chapter is vital in setting the background to each PST before further analysis could be done across the participants.

Chapter six attempts to capture the "similar paths" that the PSTs go through, although the context and solutions for each participant may be different (Rich & Hannafin, 2008, p. 137). The similarities and differences in terms of the patterns of their actions during planning, interactive decision-making and their post-lesson reflections are presented in this chapter.

5. Interpret Findings

After the data was analysed, a crucial part of providing the answer to the research questions was the interpretation of the findings. The findings of the research were interpreted as discussed in step 3 above, in forming the overarching theme, which was further discussed with regard to current literature to draw the answers to the research questions.

6. Validate the Accuracy of Your Findings

Due to the nature of qualitative data, Babbie (2008) cautioned qualitative researchers on the risk of having researcher bias in their data analysis. The term ‘trustworthiness’ and its description as offered by Lincoln and Guba (1986) provided an alternative in assuring the reliability of qualitative data. Trustworthiness, as suggested by Lincoln and Guba (1986), encompasses the process of establishing credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. The following paragraphs will present the efforts of the current research to achieve trustworthiness in the data analysis.

In the attempt to achieve credibility in the current research, triangulation of the methods was used to answer each research question. Due to the variety of data collection methods, the data for each research question was derived from at least two sources. Having more than one method allowed the data interpretation process to be better supported as one finding may be triangulated through another for the same research question. The process of triangulation is also highly regarded to ensure that the researcher was not biased in their interpretation of the data (Creswell, 2013).

Transferability may be achieved through providing the research with thick descriptions of the data to ensure that sufficient detail is provided to an extent where the conclusions are transferable to another context (Lincoln & Guba, 1986). The current research has attempted to provide a thick description in the individual case and the cross-case analysis chapter to ensure that this could be achieved.

The notion of dependability could be achieved through the process of external auditing. This is similar to the notion of having member checking, but with a member that was not involved directly with the research to ensure rigor and the accuracy of the data interpretation. Koch (2006) pointed out that even so, readers and researchers may read and interpret the data differently, as they “bring with them their own pre-conception” (p. 92). He further posits that even though the interpretation might differ, the readers should be directed as to how the author came to the interpretation. This could suggestively be achieved also through the thick description of the qualitative data that was provided in this research.

Finally, trustworthiness could also be achieved by establishing confirmability. One of the suggested ways to establish confirmability is through being reflexive throughout the research process (Lincoln and Guba, 1986). In the effort of being reflective on the

research process, although there was no specific research journal used, reflexive notes were taken, especially during the classroom observation sessions. These ideas were then validated by the PSTs during the post-lesson interviews to confirm the assumptions made during the classroom observations.

4.12 The Pilot Study

Yin (2014) indicated that piloting the case study enables researchers to rectify and finalise the data collection plans for the main case study, with regard to the content of the data and the methodology taken. In other words, the pilot study will enable researchers to identify any pitfalls in their data collection plan, and to refine these issues before the main data collection takes place. The pilot study was conducted from March 2015 to June 2015. The aim of the pilot study was to check the adequacy of the instruments and data collected, as well as to assess the feasibility and logistics of the data collection methods.

Gaining access to the research site was a challenge. There were numerous gatekeepers, as there are overlapping stakeholders for the research site. The first one approached was the Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister's Department of Malaysia. The Economic Planning Unit, also known as EPU, is tasked with the coordination of all research works conducted in Malaysia. Contact was initiated from November 2014 with the Economic Planning Unit to gain access to Malaysia's research context. An approval letter to undertake research work in Malaysia was issued in February 2015 and a research pass was issued and collected at the Economic Planning Unit before data collection commenced. Next, the Dean of the Faculty of Education, where the TESL PSTs were enrolled, was then approached and he gave his consent for the research to proceed. The next gatekeepers were the principals of schools where the TESL PSTs were placed, as identified once the participants signed on to the research project.

The TESL PSTs were placed in school for practicum from the last week of March 2015 until the first week of July 2015-for a total of 12 weeks of teaching practice. Participants were recruited via a lecturer at the department, as I was only able to return to Malaysia after the PSTs had begun their practicum. An intent letter with a detailed explanation of the research as well as a contact form was emailed and distributed among the PSTs during their pre-practicum seminar. Eight volunteers signed up for the research by giving their contact details on the contact form. However, contacting them was not an easy task as initiating first contact over the phone proved to be taxing. Although they had volunteered, some were not keen to continue as they realised they had too much on their hands, with

the practicum just beginning. In the end, four PSTs agreed to commit and an initial meet up was set to provide further details about the research, as well as to have them to sign the informed consent form. In the meeting, the research purpose and their role as research participants were explained. It was made clear that they could remove themselves as participants if they change their mind during the data collection process. The research purpose was also highlighted, especially what would be looked at during the classroom observation, emphasising that it was not to grade them. This was done to avoid any misconceptions that the research participants may form about the classroom observations that would be conducted for the research. Upon listening to the description provided about the research, all four-research participants signed the informed consent form.

Three of the participants were placed in the same secondary school, and one of them was in a different school. The principals of both schools were then approached to gain access into the school sites. Both principals gave their approval for data to be collected on the school grounds. A courtesy phone call to the respective supervisors of the pre-service teachers was also given, informing them of their PSTs' participation in the research. Discussions were also held on possible dates of observations to avoid clashes of observations between the supervisors, the mentors and me. The process of recruiting participants and gaining access to the research site took longer than expected, which caused the researcher to shorten the number of lessons observed.

The researcher was able to conduct two rounds of data collection per participant; as illustrated in Table 2 above. In total, each participant filled in two sets of open-ended questionnaires, submitted two sets of lesson plans, completed two classroom observations, and two post-lesson interviews. Following the pilot study's preliminary findings, the following adjustments were made to the main data collection.

1. Adding another lesson to be observed

For the purpose of the pilot study, due to unforeseen challenges in gaining access, only two rounds of data collection could be done. The preliminary analysis of the pilot data revealed that the number of observations was too small for sound conclusions to be made, with regard to answering the research question. As Creswell (2012) suggested, multiple observations over time will help the researcher to gain a better understanding of the research site. He further added that the first observation usually provides a general landscape, or in other words, a 'warm-up' session for the researcher and the participants. Adding another lesson to be observed in the main data collection will also increase the chances for the research to become more robust in its findings.

2. Selection of lessons to be observed

As for the pilot study, the lessons were selected based on the PSTs' availability for observation, since the priority to observe had to be given to the PSTs' mentors and supervisors. However, the findings for the pilot study suggested that the findings were not reliable due to the different groups being observed. Therefore, to ensure better data reliability in the main study, the observations were limited to the same group of students for each participant.

3. Instruments

For the pilot study, an open-ended questionnaire was distributed to help identify the aspects and processes, that PSTs go through when planning for their lesson. A preliminary analysis of the open-ended questionnaire did not yield much data to draw on. A few changes were made to the open-ended questionnaire to maximise the input that will be received from the participants.

5. Recruitment of research participants

The recruitment of participants for the pilot study was done remotely, through a colleague, as the timing of participants' availability was not ideal. Although in the end, four participants were successfully recruited, the first contact with the volunteers proved to be quite a challenge: this could be due to the fact that the initial contact received for the research was done through another person. For the main study, I ensured that I had a chance to recruit the participants myself, as this ensured the accuracy of the information being conveyed about the research.

4.13 Ethical Considerations

In conducting educational research, it is important to consider a range of ethical issues (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012; Salkind, 2000). The research was conducted at various secondary schools around the city of Shah Alam, Malaysia. The research participants were TESL PSTs. In terms of ethical considerations, the Ethical Approval Procedures in Education provided by the Department of Education, University of York was followed as closely as possible. The essence of gaining ethical approval ensured that the researcher had gained informed consent from the participants, protected the participants from harm, protected the participants' privacy and confidentiality, approached vulnerable groups with caution and selected participants in an equitable manner (National Research Council, 2003; Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012; Salkind, 2000).

In gaining ethical approval for this research, the research topic and proposal were discussed with the supervisor, to identify whether there would be any ethical concerns regarding the research. Upon agreeing to the research topic and proposal, the ethical audit form was completed and submitted to the supervisor. The ethical audit form is a comprehensive document that all researchers have to complete to ensure that the research complies with the ethical procedures outlined by the Department of Education. The completed ethical audit form informed the Education Ethics Committee of whether the research involved children, vulnerable participants, sensitive topics, or any intervention into normal educational practice. In the case of this research, the study did not involve any of the concerns mentioned above, thus making the process of gaining ethical approval slightly less complicated.

The informed consent form that was given to the research participants prior to data collection was included as part of the ethical audit form. The informed consent form included a detailed explanation of what was expected from the research participants during the research to ensure that the participants understand what they were involved with. All the participants were met before data collection began, to reassure them that the data would be confidential and anonymous. The names that are used in this thesis have been changed to pseudonyms to protect the participants' identity. Although I used to be a member of the academic staff where the PSTs were enrolled in, which may result in a power differential, great lengths were reached to ensure that the participants did not feel 'vulnerable', or intimidated into participating (Brooks, Te Riele, & Maguire, 2014). The research participants were constantly reminded that they could decide to withdraw up until two weeks after the first round of data was collected. Data gained from the participants were kept in a secured folder, and names were omitted and replaced with initials instead to ensure the confidentiality of the data.

Another aspect that I had to deal with was regarding my identity both as a researcher and as a teacher trainer. After being a teacher trainer for more than 5 years before embarking on this study, initially I had trouble departing as a teacher trainer from the research site, where in between data collection, I could not help but to make silent judgments about how the teacher trainers had performed during their teaching. I became more conscious of this action, where I kept on reminding myself on the objectives of the classroom observation, with the help of having the research questions in sight during data collection. One aspect that I found was helpful was also the fact that the participants were never my

students as they began their studies after I had left for my study leave. Not knowing them as my students aided my objectivity during the data collection process as well.

CHAPTER 5: INDIVIDUAL CASE ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present the analysis of the data collected from the open-ended questionnaires (OEQs), the lesson plans (LPs), the classroom observations (COs) as well as the post-lesson interviews (PLIs) for the individual case studies. For the purpose of the presentation of the data, a number will follow the abbreviations for the methodologies, to indicate the specific lesson used for the methodology or instrument used for each participant (i.e. OEQ-1 for open-ended questionnaire administered for lesson one, LP-1 for lesson plan used for lesson one and so forth). Given the complexity of the data collection process, a framework analysis with a thematic approach was adopted for the analysis procedure, in order to have a comprehensive view of the data. Excerpts from the data will also be included where deemed appropriate.

It is important to note that this chapter aims to illustrate the pre-service teacher's (PST) lessons as a whole, by narrating each of the lessons. The narratives will exemplify how each lesson answers the three research questions, which will subsequently provide relevant information in characterising each PST's approach to planning and delivering their lessons. This is the first step towards identifying the 'types' of PST in planning and instructional delivery by attempting to capture the depth and complexity that each case brought to the study, as well as an attempt to exhibit the unique attitudes, values and mind sets that they bring with them into the classroom.

5.2 Case Study 1: Aleya

The first case study to be presented is the data analysis of Aleya, a female PST who was assigned to teach at a suburban secondary school in Shah Alam, Malaysia. Aleya was assigned to teach two classes-Form 4E and Form 1B. Form 1B was selected as the class to be observed, as it was the earliest available class.

The findings that were drawn from Aleya's data are illustrated in Table 5 below.

Table 5 Findings Summary: Aleya

	Planning Reflections	Interactive Decisions	Lesson Reflections
Lesson 1	Lesson coherence	Teaching approach Student management	Lesson coherence Students' response Classroom activity
Lesson 2	Lesson coherence	Teaching approach Management of activities	Management of materials Students' response
Lesson 3	Lesson coherence Time management	Management of materials	Management of activities Teaching approach

5.2.1 Lesson 1: Compensating for Lost Time

Aleya had planned to teach the students on how to write an email, where the lesson outcomes included identifying the format for an email reply and use the format to write an email. LP-1 indicated that the tasks would be a combination of individual and group work. Since the lesson was conducted at the beginning of the day, the class was not as warm as how it would be towards the end of the school day. Since this lesson was still considered early during a school day, the students appear to be focused on the tasks given.

When meeting Aleya for her first lesson observation, she immediately informed me that she had made a mistake in planning her lessons for 40 minutes instead of the actual 80 minutes. She admitted that she had overlooked the time allocation, and only realised this when it was time to head to her class. She had planned lesson one to focus on exposing the students to writing email replies. There were a number of changes that she had to make, to compensate for the time that she had 'lost' in her plans. The subsequent section will present the findings for her planning reflections, IDs and lesson reflections.

5.2.1.1 Planning Decisions

The findings from the analysis of Aleya's OEQ-1 and LP-1 revealed that lesson coherence was the focus of Aleya's planning reflections.

In terms of lesson coherence, OEQ-1 demonstrated how Aleya appeared to have formed a belief that her lesson plan should be coherent. In OEQ-1, the first aspect that was

mentioned when she planned her lesson was the organisation of the lesson, which impacted her lesson coherence:

Firstly, I would think about the organisational aspect of the lesson, starting from the set induction to the conclusion to ensure that the flow is smooth and it relates to one stage to another. (Aleya-OEQ-1)

The analysis of her LP-1 corroborates this finding, as she indicated the conclusion points for the different activities and stages of her lesson plan that would help her to ensure that her lesson flows smoothly. Reading through her LP-1 provided a sense of a smooth lesson, with the planned activities supporting the content of her lesson objectives. The aim of the lesson was to ensure that students would be able to write an email reply; she had plans to explain how to do this, and an activity to get the students to write the email. A feedback activity was also planned, where the students would be asked to present their email to their friends. At a glance, her belief of having a coherent lesson was translated well into her LP-1.

5.2.1.2 Interactive Decisions

From the observation, Aleya made changes to her teaching to make up for her oversight in planning, where she had mistakenly planned the lesson into half the time allocated to her. To compensate for this, her IDs were in terms of her teaching approach and management of the students.

The first critical incident (CI) identified was in terms of her teaching approach. Instead of just asking the students verbally what balanced food was, as stated in LP-1, she got the students to come up to the white board and draw their favourite food. From there, she initiated a discussion on healthy eating. Although the approach used could still be categorised as response elicitation, as planned in LP-1, the specific manner of eliciting changed to getting the students to draw out their responses, as opposed to giving verbal answers. Her decisions were verified in PLI-1 where Aleya admitted that she got the students to draw the responses in order to use more time for the lesson. She ended up spending 18 minutes on her induction versus the initial plan of five minutes. This suggests that Aleya's interactive decision in this particular incident was to manage her time in her efforts to ensure that she will not finish the lessons earlier than the time allocated.

Another CI that was noted in Aleya's lesson also included managing her students with regard to the task dynamics of individual, pair or group work. Aleya changed the dynamics of the classroom activity to individual work as compared to what she planned

in LP-1, to get the students to write their email in groups. She later rationalised her decisions during PLI-1 as another time management strategy to prolong the planned lesson. It is interesting to note how she rationalised that an individual work will take up more time than a group work when she mentioned:

Yeah because there is only one brain trying to figure out one assignment but if they have six brains to figure out one assignment, then the work would be faster so I guess it's my mistake because I just have one activity instead of two.

(Aleya-PLI-1)

Thus, it could be suggested that her decision at this point was driven by the pressure to lengthen the lesson into the allocated time.

5.2.1.3 Lesson Reflections

An analysis of PLI-1 revealed Aleya's reflections on her first lesson focused on lesson coherence, student dynamics and classroom activity.

The first aspect that Aleya reflected on during PLI-1 was how she wished that her lesson was more coherent. She explained further by mentioning that she felt that she could do better in terms of moving from one section to the other. She also mentioned that she would have liked if her pacing in moving from one stage to the next were done better. This corroborates the field notes from CO-1 where Aleya was noted to spend about 18 minutes on her set induction to get the students to draw their favourite food on the board. As fun as the activity was to the students, it was taking slightly too long and the students appeared restless towards the end of the activity. It is intriguing to find that Aleya maintained her beliefs on lesson coherence post-lesson, as she had indicated earlier in her planning decisions on how a coherent lesson was important to her. It is important to note that her initial reflections during PLI-1 did not include the CIs that were deemed to be more prominent.

Aleya expressed that she was pleased with the students' responses towards the activities, especially when she included pictures and illustrations. She was also content that the students were eager to draw their favourite foods when asked. However, her discontentment also stemmed from the student dynamics, in terms of the students' behaviour during the classroom activity:

I think the part where they write the letter, they kind of do it themselves. They didn't discuss, even though I gave them chances to discuss (during the individual task) (Aleya-PLI-1)

This seemed to contradict her IDs of wanting the students to work individually. In LP-1, she planned to have the writing activity as a group task, though she later changed it into an individual task. Although she made that change, she appeared to still have an expectation that the students would have discussion amongst themselves while completing it. When this expectation was not met, she felt frustrated.

When asked what changes would she have taken if she could go back to the lesson, she described adding another activity to the lesson, which would require the students to move about more as compared to what she actually executed. She would like the students to conduct a role-play of sending emails, as she felt that this activity would give more impact to the students' understanding of the concepts that she introduced. In addition, she also added that to make the lesson more interesting, she would also like to add in trivial information, such as when e-mails were invented, that could trigger the students' interest. Although the activities could make the lesson more interesting for the students, this reflection appeared to lack in detail in that it did not take into account on how the desired activity would match the lesson's objectives and coherence.

5.2.2 Lesson 2: A Better Control

The second round of data collection for Aleya was conducted approximately 4 weeks after the first lesson. Generally, Aleya appeared to be in better control of her lessons this time around as compared to the first lesson. She also seemed to be more relaxed and confident in managing her lessons and students.

LP-2 was also more detailed compared to LP-1. Lesson two focused on preparing the students to write reports, where the lesson outcomes focused on getting the students to describe the format of a report and coming up with a mind-map on the report that they were going to write. This lesson was conducted after recess, which meant that the students could come in later than expected as they have to rush among the crowd to buy their food and eat their food within the break time, which is typically between 20-30 minutes. Getting the students to refocus on the lesson could also be challenging for this particular class time.

5.2.2.1 Planning Decisions

The analysis of OEQ-2 and LP-2 indicated that Aleya maintained her priority that her priority in planning a lesson to be sure that the lesson was coherent. In OEQ-2, she said:

...I would want to teach the students and follow up with activities relating to teaching... (Aleya-OEQ-2)

Although the perspective that Aleya offered for this lesson's coherence differed slightly from the first lesson, with the elimination of organisational focus, it could be argued that she was still putting an emphasis on ensuring that the lesson had a smooth flow from one stage to the other. This belief was verified in LP-2, where she prepared activities that were relevant to the topic that she was teaching for that day. For the second lesson, she wanted to focus on writing a report. She planned her lesson to begin with explaining what reports entailed as well as the format of report writing. The activities that followed required the students to create a mind map to generate a draft of the report that they were going to write. This evidence reflects findings from LP-2 that corroborate Aleya's stated beliefs in OEQ-2 regarding lesson coherence.

5.2.2.2 Interactive Decisions

In the second lesson, it was found that the changes that Aleya took were on her teaching approach as well as the management of her activities. These two decisions were both accidental in their own ways, but worked to Aleya's advantage.

The first CI that took place in lesson two was in her teaching approach, specifically the teaching steps that she had taken. In lesson two, it was observed that she put up two news report samples as well as notes on the format of the report writing. She had planned to explain the format, before moving on to select two students to read the reports aloud. Instead, she proceeded with getting the students to read the reports first, before explaining the format. The analysis of PLI-2 revealed that she did this was because she forgot the planned order of teaching steps. Interestingly, Aleya felt that although it was accidental, the steps that she took worked because she then saw the rationale of getting the students to see the 'end-product' before explaining how to accomplish the task.

The second CI noted was also in Aleya's activity management, where PLI-2 revealed that her initial plan during the students' presentations was to get them to draw their mind map on flip chart paper as a group. However, she had forgotten to bring the flip chart papers for the lesson. As an alternative, she provided the students with blank A4 papers, which

were much smaller, and got the students to transfer the discussed mind-map to the white board for the purpose of the presentation. Similar to the first CI, although this change stemmed from her oversight in failing to bring the flip chart papers, the compensation strategy of providing the A4 paper and getting them to write on the board worked out well, without jeopardising her time management for her second lesson. Thus, her quick thinking to solve the problem and unexpected change worked out well with the lesson.

5.2.2.3 Lesson Reflections

Aleya's reflections on her second lesson mostly focused on her management of the materials as well as on the students' responses.

As discussed in the previous section, Aleya forgot to bring flip chart paper to class, resulting in the students drawing their mind maps on A4 paper instead. During PLI-2 when asked if she could change one thing about the lesson, she said:

The flip chart paper, it will be easier and nicer. So students don't have to take turns on the whiteboard because it's not that big so it will not fit every group's presentation. I only managed to do two groups or three at most..so I need the flip chart paper.. (Aleya-PLI-2)

She managed to reflect on how different things could have been if she had brought the flip-chart paper with her. She also added that if she had put up all the students' work on the board, it would have given the students some sense of accomplishment, instead of just selecting a few to write on the board. Although her strategy of substituting the flip chart paper with the A4 paper worked, Aleya still appeared to be alert to differences that she could have made if she had followed her initial plan.

Secondly, during the lesson observation, the students appeared to be bored during the reading aloud session due to their friends' poor voice projection. Aleya picked up on the same incident and cause during her lesson reflection. In retrospect, she wished that she had included some props like a table, chair and cue cards to make the activity more interesting, but she was not sure that she would have enough time. Aleya's ability to identify the incident was surprising, as there were no IDs made during the lesson, although she could see that the students were not responding well.

5.2.3 Lesson 3: Unexpected Glitch

The third lesson in this data collection was conducted approximately four weeks after the second lesson. This lesson focused on the literature component of the syllabus,

where Aleya planned to focus on the elements of a short story. This lesson was conducted during a rainy day and Aleya had decided to bring them to the language lab. The language lab is air-conditioned, and it breaks the traditional classroom setting where students sit on the floor around a coffee-table. It is much more comfortable given the fact that the classroom is cooler than the regular classroom. The language lab is also equipped with a laptop and LCD projector, which is not available in the regular classroom.

Unfortunately, the lesson did not have a good start, with a technical glitch that set Aleya back 20 minutes. The incident created a situation similar to her first lesson, where she was forced to make spontaneous adjustments to her lesson due to time limitations. The next section will present the findings on Aleya's planning decisions, IDs as well as her lesson reflections.

5.2.3.1 Planning Decisions

The analysis of Aleya's third OEQ and LP revealed that her planning focus on lesson coherence was maintained. In addition, time management also emerged in the analysis and will be discussed further in this section.

Lesson coherence was maintained in OEQ-3 as the focus of her planning decisions. She related how she put emphasis on the organisational aspect of lesson planning, which included time and content. A further elaboration was given where she could be seen to retain the same beliefs as she had in lesson 2, where she planned to have activities that would support the content of her lesson and her LP-3 also corroborated this belief. Transition between one activity to another also appeared to be well-thought out and organised. In short, the idea of having a coherent lesson seemed to be the central focus for Aleya when she planned for her lessons.

Another aspect that Aleya placed an emphasis on was time management. She was quoted in OEQ-3:

...Lastly, I would think about the time it (the activities) will take and I usually estimate when it comes to time since it can be quite unpredictable at times.

(Aleya-OEQ-3)

This was reflected in Aleya's LP-3, where details of the amount of time she wanted to spend on each stage and activity were outlined. She indicated in LP-3 that she planned to spend 5 minutes for the set induction, an hour for the development, which was further divided into three activities that lasted 10, 20 and 30 minutes respectively, as well as

allocating 5 minutes for the lesson conclusion. These time indications were not present in either her LP-1 or LP-2: this indication of time shows that Aleya had done an estimation of how long each activity would take.

5.2.3.2 Interactive Decisions

Aleya's interactive decision for lesson three was mainly on classroom management, specifically the management of her material. Prior to the lesson, Aleya stated that she was going to use the language lab because she intended to use the laptop and the LCD projector provided there. She was already in the language lab when the observation began. As the students settled down, she switched on the LCD projector to only find out that it was not working. Approximately, 15 minutes were spent trying to get the LCD projector to work, but to no avail. The initial plan was to select a student to read aloud the synopsis from the slide show: to solve this she opted to provide a hard copy of the synopsis to a student to read out, and this was noted as a CI. While the student was reading, she fiddled with the projector and succeeded in fixing it. However, the technical glitch set her back about 15 to 20 minutes. PLI-3 showed why Aleya pushed for the projector to work:

Because I did not have a backup plan, I did come early, at 8, for setup and all because every time I use this room, I would come early at least 10 to 20 minutes early to setup. Everything was fine until they came into the class, sat and were ready to learn and then it suddenly stop. I don't know what happened. This was the first time it happened and I'm not sure why.

(Aleya-PLI-3)

This suggests that it took Aleya about 15 minutes to decide on her plan B, getting the student to read from the hard copy. She rationalised that reading from the slide would have been a better decision as the students would have been able to see the text, instead of having to just listen to their friend reading the synopsis. Thus, it can be concluded that the unexpected technical glitch was the major factor that forced Aleya to make changes to her lesson.

5.2.3.3 Lesson Reflections

The technical glitch that Aleya experienced during the lesson became part of her focus in her post-lesson reflection emphasising the management of the activity.

The first thing that Aleya talked about in PLI-3 was how the lesson could have been improved if she had managed unexpected events better. When prompted for why she did

not immediately move to another plan, and appeared to insist on using the LCD projector even though when it was not working, she admitted that she did not have any back-up plan. She justified this by explaining that her usual practice when using any technology in her class was to test it out prior to the lesson, to ensure that everything works. She did the same for this lesson, where she had already checked and tested out the LCD projector 10 minutes prior to the lesson, when it did work. She appeared disappointed and concluded that she could have managed unexpected events better. She further added that if she could re-do the lesson, she would prepare a 'plan B'.

A second aspect that Aleya reflected on which was relevant to the CI noted during her lesson was how she felt that her teaching was compromised. The lesson relied heavily on the short story selected by her. From her previous experience dealing with the class, she could tell that most of the students had not read the story, even though they were told to do so. Thus, her initial plan was to provide an extensive explanation of the plot of the story, to aid the students in completing the activities that she had planned. However, her time was limited, as she had spent too much time trying to get the LCD to work. She was found to repeat this point twice, which indicated her concern about not being able to provide enough information to the students to ensure a successful lesson.

5.2.4 Summary of Individual Approach

Overall, Aleya appeared focused on lesson coherence in her planning decisions. In her first lesson, it was evident that Aleya was careless in planning her time where she mistakenly planned the lesson for a shorter period. However, LP-1 still displayed coherence, where she ensured the teaching stages indicated transition points between planned activities, demonstrating a smooth plan. In her second lesson, her planning reflections still focused on the belief that a lesson should be coherent. But, her concept of lesson coherence focused more on providing activities that are relevant to the lesson objectives. It is important to note that the absence of focus in transition points for lesson two do not necessarily indicate that she lost the focus on it. Instead, it could suggest that thinking about the activities adds on to her existing concept of lesson coherence, which is having a smooth transition between activities. Her planning reflections in lesson three were still concerned with having a coherent lesson, though there were more complex notions included in her reflections, where she incorporated coherence in terms of both transition between the stages and the activities used to support the content. Hence, Aleya's planning reflections focused on having coherent lessons, where she could be seen to develop the coherent notion from simple to becoming more complex.

Most of Aleya's IDs were not well thought out. For example, to compensate for her planning mistake in her first lesson, she took IDs that were ineffective by prolonging the set induction unnecessarily. This caused the set induction, which should have been between three to five minutes, to become almost 18 minutes long. Another ineffective interactive decision that she took was to change the group task dynamics to individual work, to buy more time. In her second lesson, it was observed that the IDs she took was more accidental than purposeful in nature: the decisions that appeared to be major was accidental in that she had switched her teaching steps around. She also made some changes in terms of the materials used in the lesson, due to the fact that she left the planned materials behind. Her carelessness was the cause of her IDs for this lesson. The ID in her third lesson was the outcome of a technical glitch of the LCD projector not working. She moved on by getting a student to read from a hand out the text that she wanted on the projector. This decision was fitting to the situation, but it was executed at a considerably delayed time. In conclusion, Aleya's IDs were not thought out carefully and mostly with either no impact or negative impact to the lessons.

As for her post-lesson reflections, she displayed an increased awareness on the impact of her IDs in the classroom. PLI-1 revealed that she was unclear as to what she wanted to accomplish with the individual task, because she expected the students to discuss the work amongst themselves, even though she changed it to an individual task. Her post-lesson reflection did not indicate anything with regards to these incidents, signalling that the CIs that occurred were not impactful enough for her. For the second lesson, although the IDs were caused by her carelessness, she was able to reflect on them, a development from lesson one, where no reflection on the IDs that she made occurred. There seemed to be a development in her awareness of the decisions that she had taken during the lesson. A similar finding was also found in her third lesson, where her reflections included her incapability to respond immediately to the technical glitches, where she felt that she could have managed the unexpected events better.

5.3 Case Study 2: Aqma

Aqma was assigned to teach at a suburban school located in the city of Shah Alam, Malaysia. Similar to Aleya, Aqma was assigned to teach two classes-Form 4S and Form 2E. In total, Aqma had to teach for 10 periods, with 5 periods for each class respectively. For the purpose of this study, Form 2E was selected as the earliest available to be observed. Table 6 summarises the findings for Aqma's data.

5.3.1 Lesson 1: Focus on Instruction

Aqma’s lesson began on time and ran from 11.10 a.m. to 12.25 p.m. A general observation was on how playful the students had appeared in this first lesson. Generally, Aqma handled the class very well and appeared to be in control of the lesson planned. Form 2E consisted of 32 students. My initial observation noted how they were quite a playful lot, where Aqma had to spend quite a lot of time managing their behavior during the lesson. Aqma described Form 2E to be at an intermediate level.

Aqma’s LP-1 was created with carefully planned details, down to the individual instruction to be given. This lesson focused on the literature component of the syllabus, where Aqma chose a poem to be studied by the students. The changes or CIs that were made during the lesson were mostly driven by her alertness towards the students’ responses, which formed the main focus of her post-lesson reflection.

Table 6 Findings Summary: Aqma

	Planning Reflections	Interactive Decisions	Lesson Reflections
Lesson 1	Managing instruction	Managing instruction Managing the students’ behaviour Teaching approach	Managing instruction
Lesson 2	Proficiency level Time management	Teaching approach Managing instruction Students’ response	Managing instruction Students’ ability
Lesson 3	Proficiency level	Managing students	Teaching approach

5.3.1.1 Planning Decisions

The analysis of Aqma’s LP-1 and OEQ-1 showed that her instructional planning process was focused on managing her instructions.

As part of her lesson planning steps, Aqma mentioned that she felt the need to ensure her instructions were clear. This was reflected in her LP-2, where her attention for detail was clear, especially in terms of providing instructions for the students. Each step that she planned was described extensively, and instead of writing general instructions, the following detailed instructions were found:

3. Teacher divides the students into 5 groups.
4. Teacher provides mahjong paper and marker pen to the students.
5. Teacher asks students to identify what are the moral values in the poem.
6. Students need to write at least three sentences about moral values.

E.g.: We must value family relationship.

The instructions not only included the description of the teacher's actions, but also what she wanted the students to accomplish, with examples that could be used as part of her instructions. This evidence shows that the focus of Aqma's planning for her first lesson was on managing her instructions.

5.3.1.2 Interactive Decisions

The CIs that occurred during Aqma's first lesson were mostly driven by the students' responses, in terms of her managing her students and her teaching approach.

There were two CIs noted in terms of managing her students' behaviour during lesson 1. At one point in the lesson, the students seemed distracted after Aqma began to elicit the student responses by selecting a few to answer her question. She noticed that the class was getting noisier, and called out 'Hello..hello..' with her hands up in the air. After two attempts, gradually the students replied 'Hi!' in chorus. PLI-1 with Aqma revealed that she had picked up that classroom management technique from her previous experience dealing with school students during one of her co-curricular activities in university. Another classroom management technique noted was when Aqma called out a student who appeared to be disruptive and not paying attention to the lesson. According to Aqma, the act was spontaneous and done when she sees students who are disruptive or distracted from the lesson. This technique was emulated again after observing her mentor, an experienced in-service teacher assigned to help the PSTs do the same. It could be concluded that her classroom management strategies were mainly formed by her previous experiences.

Aqma's concern for giving clear instructions could be observed during the lesson as well. Upon giving verbal instruction to the students for activity 2, she proceeded to write the instructions on the whiteboard. Though LP-1 was written in detail, this action was not included, suggesting that it was not a planned action. This was corroborated in PLI-1, where Aqma explained:

If I give them instructions verbally, I'm afraid that some of the students cannot understand and digest what I ask them to do so during my observation with Dr. Mary, she also encouraged me to write the instruction on the board even though it is a Form 4 class and it's quite a good class and they can understand even though I give instructions verbally but Dr. Mary said it's better for me to write the instructions, so I write the instructions.

(Aqma-PLI-1)

The attempt to give clear instructions was supported by her intentions to make them more permanent, where students could refer to them as they moved along in the activity. She also indicated that her actions were influenced by advice given by her supervisor on the importance of providing clear instructions during her lessons.

In terms of pedagogy, Aqma's CIs occurred when she had a change in her teaching approaches, where she changed the order of her teaching steps. During the observation for lesson one, Aqma changed the order of teaching steps as compared to what she had initially planned. In LP-1, she planned to explain the theme of the poem she was teaching for that day, have the students copy the notes inside their literature book, and move on to the teaching of the poem's moral values. Instead, she decided to complete the teaching of both themes and moral values before she instructed the students to copy the notes in their literature book. In PLI-1, she explained that her decisions were due to a cue from the students that indicated they were puzzled:

Because when I taught them the first part theme then I taught them the first part, which is theme and I noticed that some of them were like "aaaaa" (puzzled) so I think I better finish teaching first, take down notes and then continue with the groupwork.

(Aqma-PLI-1)

On top of the students' response, Aqma also realized that getting the students to copy the notes would take some time, risking her being able to finish the literary elements she had planned for the lesson. She explained:

Because I think if I ask them to copy first it will take time and I know them and if I ask them to copy down something inside the exercise book, they will take a longer time so I better finish theme and moral value and then ask them to copy.

(Aqma-PLI-1)

Her attentiveness as well as her ability to use her previous experience in terms of predicting the students' responses led her to decide to change her teaching approach.

5.3.1.3 Lesson Reflections

Given that the CIs during lesson 1 were mostly relevant to Aqma's ability to provide clear instructions, her PLI-1 analysis showed that to also be the main focus of her reflection.

The first thing that Aqma mentioned when asked how she felt about the lesson during PLI-1 was questioning whether she had provided clear instruction to her students:

I think it went well but I'm concerned with my instruction whether the students understand or not because they kept asking. So that's why I wrote the instructions on the whiteboard so that they can understand...

(Aqma-PLI-1)

This was again repeated towards the end of PLI-1, when asked what would she have changed in the lesson:

During the explanation I think, the first part, the theme, I think I should explain more and give more examples because I noticed that some of them didn't get what I'm trying to say.

(Aqma-PLI-1)

This occurred consistently through her planning reflections, IDs as well as during her lesson reflections. It suggests that for this particular lesson, Aqma's main belief about a successful lesson was the ability to provide clear instructions to the students.

5.3.2 Lesson 2: Lost in Instruction

Aqma's second lesson in the data collection was conducted approximately four weeks after the first. In general, there was noticeably less organisation in this lesson: a major contributor to this was Aqma's oversight in providing clear instruction to the students, which was contradictory to what she accomplished in lesson one. The lesson went on with some disruptions from the next school block, which was really noisy at the time of the lesson.

Lesson two focused on writing messages to friends and the students were expected to write messages towards the end of the lesson. The lesson tasks had a good mix between individual and group work.

5.3.2.1 Planning Decisions

The analysis of Aqma's OEQ-2 and LP-2 suggest that her main concern during the planning of the lesson centred on the students' proficiency levels and time management.

First, OEQ-2 revealed that Aqma was concerned that the class' proficiency levels were divided into two, which required her to be careful in her selection of activities. She wanted to make sure that the activities she prepared would be suitable for the students, regardless of their proficiency. She also indicated that this was a challenge, as finding an activity that could suit a variety of proficiency is tough. Similar to Aleya, Aqma listed down her students' proficiency levels in LP-2 as part of the LP format provided by the university. She decided to categorise her students as 'Advanced'. This section is usually completed following the advice of the PSTs' mentors, who are the in-service teachers responsible for the classes assigned to them. Although the expressed concern did not become apparent in the lesson plan, i.e. providing two activities for two different levels, it could be argued that the outcome of her consideration was the activities she selected. The activities in LP-2 began with a pre-writing activity, a writing activity and a post-writing activity aimed at providing feedback to the students. Thus, even though LP-2 did not appear to clearly show that Aqma is concerned about the students' different proficiency levels, it was insightful to understand that in the process of selecting the activities did note levels.

Time management was another concern that Aqma expressed in OEQ-2, as she was contemplating whether the students would spend longer time on the activities than she anticipated. This was repeated in LP-2, where she made careful consideration in managing her time, as each activity was noted with the amount of time allocated. The time allocation was also noted down for the introduction as well as the conclusion stage of the lesson.

5.3.2.2 Interactive Decisions

For her second lesson, the data analysis revealed that Aqma's CIs were based on time management and managing her instruction.

The first CI noted was in terms of her teaching approach. Aqma had missed some planned teaching steps, causing her to only spend only five minutes on the pre-writing activity versus the planned ten. During PLI-2, Aqma admitted that she had indeed overlooked the plan and the reduction in meant she had five extra minutes. The overlooked steps could have caused the CI in the following paragraph.

Just after she had explained the writing activity and instructed the students to begin, a majority of the students began to call for her attention as they were unsure what they were supposed to do. The missed teaching steps were crucial in providing the students the information of what they were supposed to accomplish. She spent about five to ten minutes of the lesson going to the different groups of students and explaining in detail what was expected of them. This was acknowledged by Aqma in PLI-2 where she said the students were mostly asking her what were they supposed to do when she went around the class. As a result of this uncertainty, the class gradually became noisier, to the point that the teacher had to raise her voice to maintain order in the classroom.

Finally, students' responses to the activity that Aqma had provided were also part of this last CI noted. The students surprised her again when they completed the writing task five minutes ahead of the time allocated, even with the confusion that they had before beginning the writing activity, discounting Aqma's earlier expectation during her instructional planning process. Due to this, she had five to ten minutes of extra time, with one last activity in LP-2. She compensated for the extra time by allowing more students to present their work during the last activity. The lesson was concluded exactly a minute before the bell rang, with Aqma being able to achieve the lesson's objectives.

5.3.2.3 Lesson Reflections

In terms of her post-lesson reflection, Aqma was mainly focused on the issue of managing her instructions in terms of the students' ability.

PLI-2 demonstrated how Aqma felt that the instruction that she gave was poor and unclear. This was the first thing mentioned during PLI-2 when asked how did felt about the lesson. She further mentioned how she should have written the instructions on the board to aid the students. The issue of managing her instruction better came up again, towards the end of PLI-2, indicating that she was concerned with improving on how she delivers the instructions to her students. It is worth noting at this point that during lesson 1, Aqma handled her instruction very well, with the action of writing the instruction on the board. In comparison, it seemed as though she had a regression in terms of her instruction management.

Secondly, there was also a change in her view on the students' abilities after the lesson ended. PLI-2 included Aqma's retrospection on the possibility that the task could have been too easy for the students, as they finished the task ahead of the planned time. This was in contrast of her fear during her instructional planning process that the students

would not be able to finish the tasks on time. It is interesting to note the changed perception that Aqma had formed of the students' proficiency levels upon the completion of lesson 2.

5.3.3 Lesson 3: Spot on!

About four weeks after the second lesson, a final lesson was observed for data collection. It is important to note that this final lesson took place during the fasting month of Ramadhan, observed by a majority of the students. The fasting month meant that Muslim students, whom made the majority of the class, had to refrain from eating and drinking from sunrise till sunset. However, the students did not seem to be affected by their fast as the lesson was conducted at about 10 am, where it was still early in the day. The fact that Aqma conducted her lesson in a language lab could have also helped the students to have a better focus on the lesson because the language lab is conducive and air-conditioned. Aqma's third lesson went mostly according to her plan, with some very minor changes occurring during the lesson, which will be discussed in the following sections.

5.3.3.1 Planning Decisions

Here, similar finding to the second lesson in Aqma's OEQ-3, she maintained her concern about the students having different proficiency levels when she was planning her lessons. She also expressed how challenging it was to find suitable material to accommodate these different proficiency levels. Another challenge she added in OEQ-3 was that she wanted to provide the students with activities that not only catered to their proficiency levels, but were also interesting for them. The challenge of providing interesting activities seemed to come through in LP-3, where there were no observable attempts to make the lesson interesting. The closest attempt that could be seen was the use of two pictures in attempts to initiate discussion. The other activities were mostly worksheet-based, where the students were required to underline logical connectors in sentences and fill in the blanks with identified causes and effects from a reading text. This finding was further strengthened by the students' who were observed to be bored and talking to each other, rather than focusing on the task. Therefore, it could be suggested that Aqma did struggle to make activities interesting for her students.

5.3.3.2 Interactive Decisions

Overall, there were not many changes made to the lesson from what was initially planned with just a few minor CIs done in terms of checking the students' understanding and responding to students' behaviours.

Upon introducing the lesson to the students, Aqma began her teaching by showing some pictures and eliciting responses from the students. She then moved on to explain the content of the lesson, which was to identify and use causes and effects in a reading text. This stage went exactly as she had planned it, however, in the midst of teaching, an interesting CI occurred when she paused and called out a student named Amal, and asked whether he understood her explanation. Amal answered 'yes' and she instructed him to give her some examples. After she was satisfied with the answer, she proceeded to nominate a few other boys to provide her with more examples. She also called upon a few other students to check whether they had understood their explanation. The analysis of PLI-3 revealed that Aqma felt the need to check the students' understanding as she noticed that Amal and the other boys appeared to look 'confused' with her explanation. In response to the students' facial expressions and body language, she felt compelled to check on their comprehension of the lesson. Noticing and reacting to the students' responses was the main factor of the noted CI.

The students' behaviour determined the next CI during activity 1 which required them to identify and underline the logical connectors from the reading text provided to them, as an individual task. Right after Aqma distributed worksheets for the activity, the students became too noisy, to the point that the teacher had to use the 'Hello Hello' technique, as she used in lesson 1. She regained the students' attention and was able to explain what she wanted them to do for activity 1. Aqma added in PLI-3 that this technique was used before this as part of her classroom management technique. Being able to address that the students had lost their focus during the lesson made Aqma act spontaneously to manage the situation, as the nature of such incident is usually unplanned and unpredictable.

5.3.3.3 Lesson Reflections

Aqma's lesson reflections mainly involved her thoughts on her teaching approach.

PLI-3 showed how Aqma expressed her satisfaction with how she taught the students on the planned topic. In fact, it was the part that she had enjoyed most during the lesson:

The explanation part, the first part when I explained to them, I showed them pictures about cause and effect and then I asked them to give some examples and then the sequence connectors, I explained that we actually have learnt about sequence connectors before so I recapped that so that they can understand better.

(Aqma-PLI-3)

Her reflections suggest that she felt that her attempts to recap a previous lesson had helped the students to understand the lesson better. She also reiterated that the students were most focused during the explanation, as compared to when they were completing the activities given to them. Being able to reflect on what she did right in the classroom is the first aspect that she talked about in PLI-3.

5.3.4 Summary of Individual Approach

Aqma's focus for her planning reflections could be described as constantly changing. For example, her planning reflections for her first lesson demonstrated her belief in having clear instruction in her lesson, which was reflected in the detailed lesson plan that she prepared for her first lesson. Her second lesson took a slight turn, when her planning reflections shifted its' focus on the mixed proficiency level that she had in her class and anticipating whether the students would have enough time to complete the task. Even though a lack of focus on managing her instructions did not necessarily mean that she did not think about it, the events unfolded during the lesson proved otherwise, where she had indeed missed giving out several instructions. Aqma's lesson three showed that she was in better control of her lesson. Although planning reflections were still focused on having a mixed-ability class, her lesson went mostly as planned. Overall, Aqma demonstrated better control over her lesson plans over time.

Aqma's IDs were effective, where they were impacting her lessons in positive ways, either by helping her regain classroom control or achieve lesson outcomes. As she progressed in her first lesson, the belief on having clear instruction that was articulated in her planning reflections seemed to have triggered her ID to provide additional instruction on the white board in the attempt of making her instructions clearer. Her second lesson saw Aqma missing a crucial step in her lesson plan, which compromised the clarity of her instructions to the students. Although this could be considered an ineffective decision, her next decision turned out well. As in lesson one, she was able to pick up that the students did not understand what to do, thus, she went around the class to provide her assistance to the individual groups. Her alertness in picking up the students' responses during the lesson, led her to regain control over her lessons. Similar traits also prompted her IDs in her third lesson, where IDs were made to cater to the students' responses and managing their behaviour. Her alertness to the student responses and ability to think on her feet contributed to the effectiveness of her IDs.

Overall, Aqma's post-lesson reflections demonstrated her ability to reflect on her IDs and how she could make the lessons better. In PLI-1, her reflections on the lesson seemed to

focus more on her instructions and whether they were clear enough for the students. This strengthened the finding that Aqma was focused on providing clear instruction for her first lesson. The earlier paragraph described how she lost the students' focus due to incomplete instructions. In PLI-2, a heavy emphasis was placed on the fact that she did not have a clear instruction, which caused chaos in the classroom. Her belief in having clear instructions seemed to have slightly regressed but was then rebuilt in her post-lesson reflection. She also reflected on her IDs for her third lesson and why she felt that lesson three was a success. Her post-lesson reflections indicated that Aqma was able to look back on her actions and evaluate how they impacted her lessons.

5.4 Case Study 3: Nelly

Similar to Aleya and Aqma, Nelly was assigned by the school to teach 2 classes-Form 2B and Form 1A, which were both lower secondary. She taught both classes for a total of 10 periods, with each period lasting approximately about 40 minutes. The findings for Nelly's data analysis are presented in Table 7.

5.4.1 Lesson 1: They Can't Do It!

Lesson 1 began on time, with Nelly getting the students to clean up the messy classroom as the class had been used by another group of students for the morning session though Nelly's class was the first of the day for these students. It is important to note at this juncture that her class began at 1.10 p.m. and ended at 2.10 p.m., when the classroom was very warm and humid.

In general, Nelly spent quite some time on managing the students' responses towards the activities that she planned. Although she appeared to be occupied with managing the students' behaviour and responses, the objectives of the lesson were still achieved, namely to discuss environmental issues and ways to resolve them.

Table 7 Findings Summary: Nelly

	Planning	Interactive	Reflection
Lesson 1	Time management Managing student	Time management Management of activity Managing students	Student responses
Lesson 2	Teaching approach	Time management Teaching approach Management of activity	Students' motivation Teaching approach
Lesson 3	Classroom activities	Time management	Students' understanding Students' motivation Students' behaviour

5.4.1.1 Planning Decisions

In her OEQ-1, Nelly reflected mostly on managing her time and the students, in order to have a good class control.

Towards the second part of OEQ-1, it became clear that the time management issue the students' time management, not the teacher's. Specifically this was when dealing with tasks assigned by the teacher, as explained by Nelly:

I believe that some of the students have problems with their time management and they like to talk a lot instead of focusing. (Nelly-OEQ-1)

In other words, Nelly appeared adamant that the students would take too much time in accomplishing the tasks assigned because they would have problems focusing on the work. Her concern about the students' time management is reflected in LP-1, where she specified the amount of time the teacher would spend on the activities:

Teacher gives students 2 minutes to figure out the environmental issue for each set. (Nelly-LP-1)

Another instance was:

Teacher gives 10 minutes to complete the activity. (Nelly-LP-1)

The most interesting finding discovered during the analysis was how her expectation for the students in LP-1 contradicted the data from OEQ-1. Despite mentioning that the students will have problems with their time management, the corresponding learning activity column in LP-1 for both the teaching steps above were:

Students take 2 minutes to figure out the environmental issue for each set.

Students complete the activity within 10 minutes.

This formed an interesting observation, as this is an example of how Nelly was not acting on her expectation. Even though she thought that the activity would run over, she did not plan for it, demonstrating her lack of responsibility in her teaching practice. Thus, as for her planning reflection, her main concern could be indicated as expecting the students to lose focus during the lesson, which would impact her time management in the lesson.

5.4.1.2 Interactive Decisions

The CIs that occurred during this lesson were mostly based on classroom management issues, specifically time, activity and student management. These aspects matched her planning expectations of the students-getting distracted and running out of time to accomplish the task.

During the lesson observation, the first CI occurred when Nelly spent 20 minutes on her first activity versus the 10 minutes planned. This confirmed Nelly's prediction during the instructional planning process that the students would have difficulties finishing the task on time. After the tenth minute passed, Nelly went around to assess whether the students were done with the activity. When she found out that most of the students had not finished, she reminded them of a worksheet that she gave them during a previous lesson, that they could use to complete activity one. With the help of the worksheet, the students managed to finish the task as instructed, though it took them an extra 10 minutes. In PLI-1, Nelly rationalised the reasons why she had to prolong activity one:

...Okay actually, I expected that they would take a lot of time to write so I thought when I asked them for just two solutions...because previously I give them worksheet so I thought they could just go through the worksheet and use certain suitable sentence for solution but again they didn't realise that they have the worksheets so I have to keep on reminding them. I think that is why they took a lot of time to think about the solution. (Nelly-PLI-1)

Therefore, she prolonged activity one to give the students a chance to complete it. It was interesting to note that although she had predicted that the students would have problems completing the task, no observable actions on her part that showed she thought about how the teacher could have helped with the situation. There were no reminders given at the beginning of activity one on the worksheet, and Nelly's explanation indicated that she had hoped that the students would make the connection between the previous worksheets and the current lesson by themselves.

The same incident brought change in Nelly's management of activity one as well, where she reminded them about the handout given in an earlier lesson. The focus of the answer given above was directed by Nelly's expectations of the students, which from observation, was not conveyed clearly to them, as the students appeared clueless when the worksheet was mentioned. It was as though they were not aware of the connection between the worksheet and the current activity. When asked during PLI-1 what triggered her to remind them of the worksheet, she replied:

As for the 1st solution, they can do well but once they started to think...the way they consume so much time to think about how to construct the sentences. That's why I kept reminding them to start with the verb, you don't have to, we should...because that's the reason why they take a lot of time to write one sentence. That's why I asked them to refer back... (Nelly-PLI-1)

In other words, she reminded the students about the worksheets when she felt that the students were taking too long to complete the task.

Finally, the changes that Nelly made during lesson one revolved around the management of the students. From the analysis of Nelly's planning reflections, it became clear that she believed that the students would have problems focusing on the given task. This was translated into Nelly's actions after she gave the instructions for activity 1. She immediately went around to monitor the students and reprimanded a few when they seemed to be distracted. "Are you doing it or not?" was overheard several times when she was monitoring the students. When asked about this CI, and what triggered her to ask the students this question, she said:

As for the boys in front, two of the boys are quite quiet and the other boy is quite active. The active boy talks a lot instead of doing the work so the other boys keep quiet but still don't work. So that's the reason why I have to walk and ask them individually. (Nelly-PLI-1)

Therefore, it can be concluded that Nelly's management of the students for this particular CI was formed by how the students behaved during the activity.

5.4.1.3 Lesson Reflections

Nelly's post-lesson reflections were mostly on the students' responses during the lesson. The first instance was when she talked about how quiet the students were during the first activity:

So basically I think the flow of the lesson is okay but the first activity was quite quiet in terms of the discussion because they don't engage much in the topic...perhaps because they have learnt it previously. As a teacher, I find the topic, environmental problems is quite factual and less fun activities could be done... (Nelly-PLI-1)

She attributed the students' responses to the topic, which she found was boring and had limited her ability to come up with fun and interesting activities. She further explained:

Normally games are not something that I personally think my mentor would like to see. That's why I have to go back and forth, sometimes discussion, sometimes writing and the only games I've tried previously were crosswords and bingo. I think these activities somehow engage them in the lesson like spelling, vocabulary. But for just now I feel the lesson was a bit draggy for the first activity but it turned out to be okay when they are involved in games (second activity). (Nelly-PLI-1)

Although she felt limited to a certain extent by the expectations of her mentor, it appeared that Nelly was still able to acknowledge that the students benefited a lot from integrating games into their lessons. The students' responses while playing the 'Bingo' game during the second activity were the part that she enjoyed most during the lesson. Interestingly, the part that she disliked most was also the students' responses, but this was mentioned in a more general sense:

It's when they keep quiet, they show me expression of thinking but in the same time they are not doing anything. And so at the same time I'll individually ask, "Are you doing your work?" and with that blank face I have to start picking up the pace or something... (Nelly-PLI-1)

It was also worth noting that Nelly was to some extent, aware of the students' responses in making adjustments to her teaching accordingly.

5.4.2 Lesson 2: To Spoon feed or Not to Spoon feed?

Nelly's second lesson was observed approximately four weeks after the first lesson. This lesson focused on a short story from the literature component of the English language syllabus. The aim of the lesson was to discuss the elements that are present in the short story, specifically settings, characters, characteristics and the plot. Two activities were planned, the first focused on getting the students to present the elements found in the short story, followed by a worksheet completion.

Most students were able to focus on the tasks that were given to them by Nelly. However, there were many instances where Nelly had to reprimand her students to keep their focus with the task at hand.

5.4.2.1 Planning Decisions

Nelly's planning decisions were found to be focusing on her teaching approach. She began by mentioning that the students do not have any basic knowledge of the elements involved in a short story. She further moved on by describing what she intended to do for the lesson, which was to provide them with some explanation on the elements, as captured in the data below:

The students did not have any background on the elements of a short story. So basically, I decided to start off with brief explanation, they will continue with presentation because I do not want to 'spoon feed' them much. (Nelly-OEQ-2)

It is interesting to point out the rationale behind her choice of teaching approach, as to not wanting to 'spoon feed' the students. 'Spoon feed' is contextually known as a method to provide knowledge excessively to students in Malaysia, and carries a negative connotation. Thus, Nelly's apprehension for using the 'spoon feeding' method is a common perspective held by most teachers in Malaysia. This was also reflected in her LP-2, where she allocated only a maximum of 10 minutes to explain the elements to the students. Activity 1, which was the students' presentation, was planned with a longer duration of time, a total of 60 minutes, including activity 2, which verified Nelly's intention to focus on the students' presentations. Towards the end of OEQ-2, she expressed her concern about the students not being able to deliver the presentation. Therefore, Nelly's decisions in planning for her second lesson focused on what the

students needed, and how she can best provide them with the required content by selecting student presentations with an awareness that they might not be able to deliver their presentation.

5.4.2.2 Interactive Decisions

There were three prominent CIs that I noted during the lesson observation. These CIs were on Nelly's time management, teaching approach and the management of the activities.

The first CI that occurred was in terms of time management. In LP-2, it was clear that the students were expected to prepare their presentation ahead of time, since Nelly assigned them to prepare their presentation as their homework the day before the lesson. However, they turned up to class unprepared for the presentation, causing Nelly to allocate an unplanned 15 minutes for them to discuss with their group members to finish preparing for the presentation. An interesting observation that complemented the CI was extracted from PLI-2:

Actually, yes because I just gave the task yesterday so basically, I know because even yesterday they have told me that "Teacher, maybe I would not be able to finish this because I have parties, celebrations and some of them said "Teacher, the koperasi has closed, I could not buy the mahjong (flip chart) paper" There were a lot of excuses...some of them do it, they have their own initiative but some of them, they just go with the flow. (Nelly-PLI-2)

It was worth noting that Nelly had indeed formed an expectation of the students not being able to complete the task before she planned for the lesson, but this did not seem to be a part of her considerations during her instructional planning process.

The second CI occurred when Nelly changed her planned teaching approach, which was not to 'spoon feed' the students, to provide them with the information pertinent to the lesson with more details than she planned to. This CI was noticeable when she spent more than 20 minutes explaining the elements, where she initially had planned for a maximum of 10 minutes. An explanation on this change was provided in PLI-2, where Nelly stated that she had an expectation that the students, at least some of them, would have read the short story before the discussion on the elements took place:

Yeah, basically I didn't write it in my lesson plan because I thought about just giving it verbally because I thought some of them actually read about it (the

short story) so I just try to add a few things that went missing (from their explanation). (Nelly-PLI-2)

Another unmet expectation caused her to go the extra distance in providing the students with the relevant information about the short story. Due to the unexpectedly lengthy explanation that she had to give, her time management was also compromised, where she did not have time to complete activity two.

The time management issue caused Nelly to assign activity two as homework to the students, instead of completing it in class. It was noted in the observational field notes that activity 1 was still on going, up until the last 10 minutes of the lesson, with the worksheet for activity two was still not being distributed. Nelly made a salient point on this particular decision of hers:

Yeah, when I looked at the time, I'm like okay, I'm out of time...maybe this should be the homework for them...that's why I tried my best to explain things so that they won't have difficulty at home (in completing the worksheet)...

(Nelly-PLI-2)

The decision that she took reflected her intention to scaffold activity two for the students by allowing extra time for their presentations. By not rushing through this, Nelly felt that she was providing the students with as much support as she could, so that the worksheet could be completed at home without too much difficulty. Therefore, the CIs made during Nelly's second lesson could be said to have occurred because of expectation issues and a chain reaction from another CI.

5.4.2.3 Lesson Reflections

With regard to Nelly's lesson reflections, they could be categorised in terms of students' motivation and the teaching approach.

A retrospective question was asked on how she felt when her expectations were not met and the data from PLI-2 suggest that Nelly appeared to feel helpless and lack empathy towards the students:

...this is not the first time (the students did not do their homework) but basically I know their capability of doing something so I expected it to happen, it's just that I don't know how to really motivate them because previously I tried to scold them and they were so scared but then again it's tiring when you have to get mad

and shout so that's why when they are not paying attention I just said that if you do not understand it's none of my business, I have done my work.

(Nelly-PLI-2)

She believed that the expectation that she had set was based on her knowledge on the students' ability and it was their low motivation that had kept them from performing better in her lesson. She also explained that she had to resort to warning the students sternly several times in order to get them to complete their work, though to no avail. In the end, she resorted to just leaving them, as long as she knew she tried her best.

The last reflection was on the change in the selection of her teaching approach during the lesson. Initially she planned to change from being too teacher-centred by getting the students to do most of the talking. However, she ended up doing most of the explanation, as noted in the earlier section. Her reflections on this were explained, to some extent during PLI-2:

...it's just that I would provide them more guidance because they had no clue how to do the presentation because these are students that had already been usually 'spoon fed' by teachers because they are like KRK students. Kelas Rancangan Khas (Special Class Programme) ...the good students. The teachers are always like "you have to memorise this, copy this, copy that" so I think that it is quite difficult for them to move over to something different...so yeah I just want them to be more independent but still it is something quite unexpected of them.

(Nelly-PLI-2)

Nelly explained that the intention of getting the students to conduct the presentation was to get them to be more independent in their own learning. However, this effort was proven to be quite taxing on both Nelly and the students. It was quite challenging for the students as they had gotten used to their original teacher providing them with everything they need, as claimed by Nelly. This suggests that Nelly had to change midway through the lesson, as the students were not able to reach Nelly's expectation of having them to work independently.

5.4.3 Lesson 3: Taking It Seriously

Nelly's third lesson focused on a short story from the literature component as well. However, the story chosen for this third lesson was different than the one used in the second lesson. The learning objectives remained similar, with a focus on the

elements of the short story. Nelly prepared two activities for this lesson, the first as worksheet completion and the second one a quiz competition based on the short story.

Similar to the previous lessons, lesson 3 was conducted between 2.10 pm until 3.25 pm. This could be considered as a tough time to get the students to focus, which was apparent in Nelly's lessons, as the classroom becomes quite warm and humid. The boys in the classroom were also noticeably more playful than the girls.

5.4.3.1 Planning Decisions

For the third lesson, Nelly's planning decisions focused mainly on preparing the classroom activities for the students. In OEQ-3, she elaborated on the dilemma that she faced when she was planning for this lesson, where she could not decide whether to choose a fun or a serious activity. It could also be suggested that Nelly felt hopeless in finding the right activities for the students, as she felt that all her efforts were in vain, as can be seen from the excerpt taken from OEQ-3:

...I am tired of thinking what activities should be done to attract them but I guess some of them are just lazy to learn. They are smart but they are lazy. Maybe English is too boring for them or not challenging enough.

(Nelly-OEQ-3)

The extract above also indicates her frustration in providing activities that were interesting but were still left unappreciated by the students. Although Nelly presented this dilemma in her OEQ-3, her LP-3 pointed her planning actions in a slightly different direction. She planned for two activities, where activity one was a worksheet completion and activity two was a quiz competition between the students. Although Nelly mentioned that she felt defeated in her goal to provide the students with interesting activities, she had still put in some effort to make lesson three interesting by outlining a quiz competition for the students. This suggests that Nelly was still trying to include fun activities for the students, despite her feelings of hopelessness in attracting the students' interest to the lesson.

5.4.3.2 Interactive Decisions

In terms of the changes that Nelly made during lesson three, the biggest change was in her time management.

After introducing the lesson and doing a brief recap of the lesson before, Nelly distributed a worksheet for the students to complete, based on the content that was discussed in the

previous lesson. Nelly planned to allow 10 minutes for the students to complete the worksheet, which contained short answer questions regarding the elements of the short story that they reviewed the day before though, it actually took her 25 minutes to complete the activity. An interesting observation was how 5 minutes into the activity, Nelly asked and checked on the students' progress. With this close monitoring by Nelly, the students still did not manage to complete the activity on time. Nelly was left with only 25 minutes to discuss the answers and to accomplish activity 2, the quiz competition. The discussion of the answers was done at length, which took Nelly another 15 minutes. She proceeded with getting the student to re-check their answers and to check their understanding of the short story. The CI noted was on how she had spent such a long time on activity 1 that she had run out of time for activity 2. In PLI-3, her frustration was expressed on this CI:

Yeah, I thought at first they could finish it because it was (an) easy worksheet... as long as you have read it, you can just finish it within 10 minutes because there were a few boys in front that read it and they were super quick with all the answers...but not these (other) boys and some girls who were still struggling...actually they know the answers but they are struggling with how to construct the sentences so actually they need more time constructing sentences instead of writing the answers. (Nelly-PLI-3)

In other words, Nelly had a mistaken expectation that the students would not have had any problems answering the question because in her mind, as long as the students had read the story, they would be able to answer the questions in the worksheet, which did not occur. It is interesting how in the previous lesson, she had experienced the students' habit of not reading and this information was somehow still not utilised in building her expectations of the students in her planning.

5.4.3.3 Lesson Reflections

Similar to her first and second lesson, Nelly's lesson reflections were mostly focused on the students' characteristics during the lesson namely the students' understanding, behaviour and motivation in the classroom, as can be seen from several excerpts taken from PLI-3.

What I like most about the lesson is the worksheets made them aware of what they had learned, to help them memorise things better because some of them have not read the short story yet so based on the exercises I think they somehow could understand at least the synopsis of the story. (Nelly-PLI-3)

The first excerpt showed how Nelly valued that the worksheet that she gave had some impact on the students' understanding of the short story that she had done with the students. Even if they had not read the story, she felt that the worksheet would have helped the students to some extent, in understanding what the short story was about.

What I like least is that they always take time and always take time to answer questions like that (activity 1)...there were a few boys who are always not focused in class. They are always playful in my class. Even if I tell them it will come out in their exam, it would not give them anything to make them feel scared or what not. I really hate it when they are not focusing on what I have asked them to do (Nelly-PLI-3)

...maybe they have this attitude where if it's not an examination they don't feel the urge to do all of the question. They just do everything lightly.

(Nelly-PLI-3)

...like yesterday I gave them the worksheet so today at least I could just mark if they had any incorrect answers, they could immediately change and get the right answer but then some of them haven't finished the question...so I decided yeah you can just bring it on Monday. So I think all of them take English (the subject) lightly, like it is not as important as science subjects, mathematics...

(Nelly-PLI-3)

The subsequent excerpts taken from PLI-3 indicated how she felt that the students were just not motivated to learn English. This belief of hers seemed to be firm, as she repeated the phrase 'taking the lesson lightly' twice during PLI-3. Another phrase that highlighted Nelly's frustration was 'there were a few boys who are always not focused in class'. These examples suggest that her view of the students' motivation to learn was low, and show how it impacted their behaviour during the lessons.

5.4.4 Summary of Individual Approach

Nelly's planning reflections differ by the lessons, where for each lesson she focused on different aspects. Planning reflections for lesson 1 was mainly anticipating problems such as students encountering difficulties and losing their focus in finishing the tasks assigned. In her second lesson, Nelly's planning reflection revolved around her contemplation of either using a teacher-centred or learner-centred approach in explaining the content of the lesson. Although her LP-2 suggests that she chose to conduct a learner-centred approach

in her lesson, she turned to a more teacher-centred approach when the lesson was conducted. Her planning reflections in the third lesson focused on her consideration of whether she should use a 'fun' or 'serious' activity. Her planning reflections included her feelings of frustration for when she actually put in effort to come up with interesting activities were then left unappreciated by the students. Overall, Nelly's planning reflections appear more segmented as compared with Aleya or Aqma where for each lesson, she seemed to be reflecting on different aspects in her plans.

In making her IDs, Nelly was found to be ineffective due to several factors. Her anticipation of problems of students not focusing were realised during the lesson 1, where the students did struggle to finish and focus on the task. However, Nelly's IDs in response to these incidents could be categorised as ineffective, as she took too much time to respond to the incidents. Another aspect that made the decision be ineffective was her first decision to prolong the activities, without providing any other scaffold to help the students complete the task. Interestingly, it was discovered that she had expected this to happen to a certain extent, but no actions were taken to minimise the impact of this expectation. This in turn costs her time with the lesson where the final activity did not materialise. The ID that she made for her third lesson was her choice of using teacher-centred versus the student-centred approach planned. Upon investigation, she attributed this decision to the students' inability to complete the assigned homework, something that she had anticipated. A similar incident occurred in lesson 2 where even though she closely monitored the students during the activity, she still ran out of time and attributed this to the fact that the students did not complete the reading assignment, which would have helped them more in accomplishing the task. Again, although she expected that the students would possibly not complete the reading assignment prior to the lesson, no actions were taken to cater to this expectation. Therefore, Nelly demonstrated no actions upon the expectations that she had built on the students to reduce the impact of projected incidents to the lesson.

Nelly's post-lesson reflections were mostly focused on how the students could have made the lesson better instead of how she could make the lesson better. In her first post-lesson reflection, she focused on the students' responses during her post-lesson reflections, with an emphasis on how the topic was a bit boring for the students. She focused on the limitations that she perceived as hindering factors to make effective IDs. Among the limitations were how she focused on the students' characteristics of having low motivation for not accomplishing the assignment given. She further reflected on how

some of the IDs made were outcomes of the students not completing their assignment, a crucial aspect if she wanted to use the learner-centred approach. In terms of using a teacher-centred approach, Nelly attributed this to the fact that the students are used to being 'spoon fed' by their original class teachers, making it difficult for her to change the approach. Similar to the second lesson, Nelly focused on the students' behaviour, motivation and understanding in her post-lesson reflections, with the absence of how she could have made the lesson better. In conclusion, Nelly signaled the absence of sufficient inward examination of her practices as a teacher in her post-lesson reflections.

5.5 Case Study 4: Carmel

Carmel was assigned to teach two Form 1 classes, which were Form 1E and Form 1F. These two classes make up a total number of 10 lesson periods amounting to approximately 5 hours and 25 minutes of contact hours per week. For the purpose of this research, due to logistical issues, a mutual agreement between Carmel and the supervisor was made for the data collection to be done in Form 1F. A summary of the findings for Carmel's data is illustrated in Table 8 below.

5.5.1 Lesson 1: Individual vs. Group Work

The first observation of a lesson by Carmel was conducted for an hour. Similar to Nelly, Carmel's lessons took place during the school's afternoon session. Lesson one was conducted from 2.20 p.m. to 3.20 p.m. and centred on the topic of 'Going Places'. The objectives of the lesson were to focus on vocabulary building and Carmel prepared two activities, which was to label pictures on the worksheet given and answer some comprehension questions based on a dialogue-reading activity.

This class was different than the others as there were only 8 female students in the class. The small number of female students could have contributed to the fact on why they were quite passive as compared to the boys.

Table 8 Findings Summary: Carmel

	Planning Reflections	Interactive Decisions	Lesson Reflection
Lesson 1	Managing students	Managing students	Managing students
Lesson 2	Unexpected changes	Managing time Teaching approach	Students' behaviour Classroom activity
Lesson 3	Teaching approach	Teaching approach Managing students	Teaching approach Students' performance

5.5.1.1 Planning Decisions

In planning this lesson, Carmel's focus was on managing the students' during the lesson. The analysis of OEQ-1 revealed her beliefs on how she best perceives task dynamics in her lessons. She believed that any tasks given by her will be best completed by the students if they do them individually, instead of in pairs or in groups. According to Carmel, her previous experience with the students had shown that they became too difficult for her to control. She further added that assigning the students to individual work will 'make the students more manageable because they each have their hands full'. Her LP-1 complemented this belief of hers when there was neither pair nor group work planned for lesson one. Activity one included the students labelling pictures of holiday-themed cartoons to enhance their vocabulary, as an individual task. As for the second activity, Carmel planned to call up two students to read out a transcript of a conversation between two friends about their holiday experience. After listening to the conversation, the students were asked to underline the answers to some comprehension questions, also individually. These examples demonstrated Carmel's consistency in her beliefs on the strength of having individual work.

5.5.1.2 Interactive Decisions

In terms of Carmel's IDs, a CI that noted from the observation was in terms of managing the students, which is a similar theme formed during the instructional planning process. During the second activity, a CI was noted in terms of the task dynamics involving getting two students to read the conversation transcript aloud. A student was picked to read out

the conversation. She spent quite some time coercing the student to read. However, after about 2 minutes of persuasion the student still would not budge from his decision to not participate. Consequently, Carmel moved on with the lesson by dividing the students into two big groups, where she got them to read the conversation in chorus. This was found to be a salient finding, as she seemed to change her plan from being adamant that individual work is the best, to getting them into groups, even though it was just a read aloud activity without any other group work elements. PLI-1 with Carmel showed that after failing to get the student to read, she empathised with them for being put in a very uncomfortable situation, which led to her decision to group the students up, with the hope that they would provide courage to one another to read the conversation transcript aloud, as seen in the extract of PLI-1 below:

...seeing that the students didn't want to try, I have been in their shoes, being put on the spot like that especially when you have difficulty in trying something that's rare to you it will be very challenging and might put you down. So that's why I changed it. I want them to try but in groups instead. Maybe later on when they have more confidence they can try individually instead. (Carmel-PLI-1)

It was discovered that Carmel had taken on the students' cues about being very uncomfortable being put on the spot, and changed the task dynamics accordingly, to still achieve the objective of the activity. This also suggests that even at the planning stage, Carmel appeared to be insistent in her views of getting the students to work individually though she displayed some degree of flexibility in her IDs, which helped the students complete the second activity. She further added that even though it was a group read aloud session, she was still making sure that everyone participated, by monitoring them closely and reprimanding those who did not attempt to read:

Yes it's a task that is done together and it's not like I'm totally ignoring them. I do still monitor them and say things like "I'm not seeing your mouth opening...why aren't you saying anything?" (Carmel-PLI-1)

This also suggests that Carmel was cautious and aware of the fact that some students would not participate by getting their friends to do the work.

5.5.1.3 Lesson Reflections

Carmel's reflection on this lesson revolved around how she attributed the success of the lesson to her success in managing the students by going for individual tasks instead

of group tasks. During PLI-1, her beliefs of how individual tasks work better for this class were reinstated several times during PLI-1:

I think it went very well. Usually when I want to conduct activities, it will be very challenging and difficult because the students have problems focusing on their tasks. When I gave them tasks, they would walk around, talk to their friends, be loud and noisy, a bit chaotic. Usually I would have to shout and remind them but today it went well. (Carmel-PLI-1)

I think just now, because my mentor told me that they have to have their own task individually, they have to have something in their hand to keep them busy like just now. I do expect them to do their work individually although they can discuss with their friends so that actually went as planned. I have conducted group work before so I know group works is a big responsibility for them. And now that I know individual (tasks) work better with them, it's better I continue on... (Carmel-PLI-1)

The excerpts above also exemplify how Carmel formed her beliefs in the strength of conducting individual work. From PLI-1, she related how she had had unsuccessful lessons, particularly in managing the students when she attempted to have group work as part of her classroom activities. Students were reported to be unfocused and faced a lot of distractions when she conducted group work. Besides her previous experience, her interaction with her mentor had also influenced her beliefs, to some extent, where the mentor had advised her to use individual tasks instead. Being the permanent classroom teacher, the mentor, whose advice carried a lot of credit to the PSTs, would also have had a lot of experience in managing the students.

5.5.2 Lesson 2: Disruptive Changes

Carmel's second lesson was conducted during the last two periods of the school's evening session which was scheduled from 5.30 p.m. until 6.45 p.m. However, the lesson had to be shortened to one period due to an unscheduled talk arranged by the school for all the students. Therefore, instead of starting at 5.30 p.m., the lesson started at 6.10 p.m. The lesson focused on vocabulary building, where Carmel had prepared an activity to introduce the students to road signs, as the lesson's topic was 'Safe and Sound'.

The students appeared to be interested with the lesson as Carmel was using various road signs that they normally see outside the classroom, which made the lesson more

meaningful for the students. Carmel also displayed a good classroom control throughout the lesson, even though the lesson started later than planned. Another salient point that is worth highlighting is the fact that the students were focused regardless of the fact that it was the last period of the day.

5.5.2.1 Planning Decisions

The analysis of Carmel's OEQ-2 suggests that during the planning of the second lesson, she was aware of the possibility of the school having a lot of activities that might disrupt her lessons. In fact, Carmel related how some of her lessons have been postponed and disrupted due to these activities. Her feedback in OEQ-2 also suggests how frustrated she was with all the unexpected changes that she had to make in her lessons:

The school is having a lot of activities. A lot is happening. Too much and they are disruptive. I have been postponing a lot of my lesson plans. Getting really confused and quite burnt out actually. (Carmel-OEQ-2)

This was Carmel's feedback when asked about the most frustrating thing that she had to endure in planning her second lesson.

5.5.2.2 Interactive Decisions

Carmel also illustrated her feelings during PLI-2 regarding the changes that she had to make to her lesson:

We are expecting changes nowadays because the school is having a lot of events, so we are expecting changes. But for this lesson, it's just that it was towards the end of the day, so I was on the fence whether I should have a lesson plan that is challenging or easy enough for them to end the day well so that was my dilemma. (Carmel-PLI-2)

This indicated that Carmel had formed an expectation, to some extent, for her lessons being disrupted by school events. She did not seem too concerned during PLI-2; as opposed to how she expressed her frustration in OEQ-2, but further related how this in turn had put her in a dilemma about whether she should go for an easy or challenging activity, given the fact that the lesson was held after the talk and towards the end of the school session.

Another CI, which also revolved around her teaching approach, when she skipped some steps that she had planned for her first activity. She planned to have the students do some

pronunciation tasks with clip art papers that contain some road signs. Upon finishing the pronunciation practice, Carmel planned to have a discussion on the meaning of the road signs. However, during the lesson observation, she skipped this step and explained her decision in PLI-2:

... earlier we just pronounce the name of the road signs that we had on the mahjong (flip chart) paper and towards the end, I wanted to talk about some of the road signs that we had (put up) but most of them were pretty straightforward...that was why I chose (to explain just one sign)...

(Carmel-PLI-2)

After putting up the road signs that she intended to discuss with the students, she had realised that the road signs were quite self-explanatory, which was why she just chose one sign to explain.

5.5.2.3 Lesson Reflections

Looking back at the lesson that she had conducted, Carmel's reflections were mostly on her student management and the students' abilities where she was pleasantly surprised about how they responded to the lesson.

The first aspect that she was glad about was how well the students had behaved. This class was particularly categorised as having a lower proficiency as compared to the other classes. With this comes a stereotype that this class would have student behaviour issues. Carmel went to the class with the same expectation. But, it turned out the opposite where they co-operated with the teacher, enabling her to execute the activities as planned. Carmel explained:

I think that pretty much went according to plan and went much better than I expected actually because usually when it's the lower proficiency classes, you expect them to behave not so well but instead they're very nice, they were very quiet.

(Carmel-PLI-2)

Besides being 'nice' and 'quiet', she also felt pleased with the students' willingness to participate in the lesson, where getting volunteers to paste things on the board was not difficult:

Yesterday, I think the part that I liked the most was when the students had to paste the clipart up front because if I were to compare them with my other class,

they were very willing to participate. So that was beyond expectation really and I quite like it. (Carmel-PLI-2)

Relating the next reflection to her earlier dilemma in choosing the right activities for the students, in retrospect Carmel felt that the activity that she had chosen was not challenging enough, but convinced herself that it was okay, taking into consideration that the students just had a long talk that they attended and it was also the last period of school.

5.5.3 Lesson 3: Following Students' Cues

The final lesson observation for Carmel was held about a week after the second lesson. The observation took place in Form 1F and the lesson was held during the last two periods of the school session which was from 5.30 p.m. until 6.45 p.m., the same timing and class with the second lesson that was observed. The difference was that for this round of observation was Carmel did not have to cut down her plan to accommodate unexpected events held by the school. Lesson 3 focused on the students' reading comprehension, where Carmel had prepared a reading passage, followed by a worksheet that contained comprehension questions.

Compared to the second lesson, the students appeared to become slightly more restless towards the end of the lesson as it was towards the end of the school day.

5.5.3.1 Planning Decisions

A relevant aspect that was highlighted by Carmel during her instructional planning process was on her classroom activity. The analysis of her OEQ-3 revealed how a previous lesson influenced her instructional planning for this lesson:

I had a comprehension activity the other day and didn't think that it went well. So today, I'm hoping to do better because this is also a comprehension lesson. (Carmel-OEQ-3)

Although the elaboration on this was limited to describing that the previous lesson did not go well, it also indicated that a learning experience was taking place for her as a teacher while she conducted classroom activities. This simply signaled that she was reflecting on a previous classroom activity. What made it more interesting was that Carmel made a connection between a previous lesson and a current one, even though a more detailed account of the experience would have been more insightful. Given that classroom activity was highlighted in Carmel's OEQ-3, it is worthwhile to examine what

she planned for the activities in her LP-3. There were two main activities provided in the lesson, reading aloud a passage and answering questions from a worksheet prepared by Carmel. A further analysis of LP-3 indicated several teaching steps that she included, which could corroborate Carmel's thoughts about improving her classroom activities:

Teacher discusses unfamiliar words and the gist of the passage.

Teacher makes sure that students are completing their work.

Teacher guides students when needed.

Teacher gives feedback regarding students' participation. (Carmel-LP-3)

One could suggest that these were planned steps that Carmel wanted to take during the lesson to provide support to her students during the lesson, in order to ensure the success of the lesson.

5.5.3.2 Interactive Decisions

A unifying factor that had triggered the CIs during Carmel's third lesson seemed to be the students' responses and included her teaching approaches and managing the students.

The first CI involved an overlooked step in Carmel's planned teaching steps. In LP-3, after the students were done with the reading aloud activity she planned to discuss unfamiliar words with the students as well as the gist of the reading passage. However, it was noted that after the reading aloud session, she proceeded with asking the students questions that would elicit the gist of the reading passage from the students. The discussion of unfamiliar words was conducted simultaneously during the discussion of the comprehension questions that the students had completed. When asked whether she realised she had missed a teaching step during PLI-3, she replied:

I actually did forget about the part to discuss about unfamiliar words, I only noticed (that I missed it) after the student started asking question, "Teacher what was the meaning of this word?" I thought okay since they didn't understand some word so let's discuss some words, we'll try to find the answers.

(Carmel-PLI-3)

This indicated Carmel's awareness of the students' responses, she quickly picked up on the students' cue that they were unable to understand the words and proceeded to explain the words that they did not understand. Although she was only able to pick up on this

much later in the lesson, ultimately, the students managed to complete the worksheet, which was part of the lesson's objectives. However, some changes were also made towards the explanation that she gave to the students versus what she planned:

Some of the students did ask, what is a shopping cart? Is it like a credit card?
No it's not credit card, I was planning on discussing a lot of words but I didn't,
instead I discussed the words that they asked for. (Carmel-PLI-3)

Due to the fact that she only realised that she had missed a step much later during the lesson, she compromised by explaining only words that the students were asking for, instead of the list of words that she had in mind. Although the words that she explained were the words that the students were asking for, the CI did not impact the lesson's objectives.

The second CI revolved around Carmel's student management skills. The CI occurred when the class became quite chaotic soon after she distributed the comprehension questions worksheet to the students. She responded to this by calling for the students' attention. When asked whether she expected the class to be as chaotic during PLI-3, she replied:

I did. Students usually get chaotic when they receive worksheets just because they don't have the patience to wait for the instruction. What we learn in microteaching was that we were supposed to give the instruction first and then distribute the worksheet but sometimes when I do that, by the time they get the paper, they forgot about it (the instruction). So I thought that if I were to guide them one by one, they would understand it better. So give the paper first, I should be expecting chaos and I can tell them well you start with your name, write down your name and then we'll discuss. (Carmel-PLI-3)

By expecting that there would be chaos, Carmel was able to address the issue by quickly calling for the students' attention. The prompt act to manage the students appeared to have been formed by her previous experiences of trial and error during her lessons. She did try out suggested method that she had learned during university, but she found out that it did not work as the students forgot about the instruction when they receive the worksheet. Instead, she indicated some improvisation by giving out the worksheet, expecting some chaos, dealt with the chaos and proceeded with the instruction to the

students. Her ability to respond to the chaos created by the students had indeed helped with the completion of the task.

5.5.3.3 Lesson Reflections

Consistent with her planning and IDs, aspects that Carmel reflected upon were the teaching approach that she used during the lesson as well as the students' understanding of the lesson.

In terms of the teaching approach, Carmel reflected on how she was pleased with the approach that she took during the lesson, specifically when the students were discussing the answers to the questions with her:

I like the fact where we were able to look for the answer together. Some of the students did answer the questions while the rest of them were still asking me questions (on what they were supposed to do). The discussion helped the rest of them to find the answer while those who had answered earlier than others can check their answer as well. (Carmel-PLI-3)

Interpreting what Carmel mentioned during PLI-3, it seems she felt that the discussion was helpful for the students, regardless of whether they completed the worksheet faster than the rest of their classmates. Relevant to this was how she felt the students' understanding of the lesson was achieved and how the lesson was indeed a success:

... I think this particular lesson went well. The students understood what we were doing. I would want the students to actually look for the answer themselves. Those who I know, can and they did, while those who can't, I think they tried. The very simple question, they did answer it so they tried. (Carmel-PLI-3)

She placed equal importance on commending the students for putting in some effort in answering the worksheet given, which could have formed her definition of a successful lesson.

In addition, Carmel also indicated that there were not many things that occurred beyond her expectations. For example, Carmel also explained that during the management of the activity, the issues that she had to deal with were more to do with questions that she expected from the students, such as asking her where the answers were in the reading passage, and getting them to start completing the worksheet that was given to them.

Besides that, there were also student management issues where she had to monitor the students closely while they were completing their work, by asking questions how much they had progressed during the lesson, and reprimanding them when necessary. Overall, Carmel reflected on how she felt the lesson was indeed a success and she would not change anything in the lesson, even if she were given the chance to do so.

5.5.4 Summary of Individual Approach

Previous experience played a central role in Carmel's planning reflections. Her planning reflections for lesson one highlighted her belief in the power of conducting individual tasks in the classroom. Unlike Nelly, she clearly articulated how her previous encounter with the students formed this belief, where she found them to be more focused when working individually. When lesson two was conducted, it was in the season of school programmes, which had disrupted Carmel's lessons several times. She discussed how she felt frustrated with the constant disruptions that school programmes have had on her lessons. Her expectation came true during her second lesson, where the students had to attend a talk, which took her half of the time allotted to her lesson. In the third lesson, the notion of using past experience was again mentioned in her planning reflections. She indicated that she wanted to do better than the lesson before as she is teaching the same language skill, which was reading comprehension. The past experiences that she used when planning for her lessons contributed to the IDs that she made in her lessons.

The IDs taken by Carmel mostly brought positive impact to her lessons. In lesson 1, although she stated her belief in having individual tasks in her lesson, she maintained her flexibility in carrying out the classroom tasks. She realized that some of the students struggled to perform by themselves, where she then grouped them up to read out passages aloud. This particular decision was effective in getting the students to participate in the activities. Although she took a turn in her IDs, this did not seem to have altered any of her beliefs in using individual tasks, as she reiterated how individual tasks actually worked in some parts of her lesson. As her second lesson was disrupted, she retained the planned activities but skipped some teaching steps that had saved her some time. This effective decision made sure that she managed to accomplish the lesson outcomes. She related in her reflection how she was also pleased with the students' performance, which she felt contributed to the success of the lesson. Carmel's IDs in lesson three were effective as she addressed arising issues as soon as she caught them, for example, when the students started to ask questions on the meanings of words. Rather than addressing just that one question, she prevented the problem from reoccurring by asking the students

other words that they did not understand. The urgency in tackling the classroom management issue also helped Carmel to have good class control. Positive comments were also given to the students in her lesson reflections, and she conveyed how she expected certain things to happen in class, such as students not understanding the meanings of words. This could be seen to be a helpful notion in her making effective IDs. Looking back at her lessons, Carmel was able to reflect on the success of her lessons. It appeared that her post-lesson 1 reflection reinforced her beliefs on how she felt individual work was better for her students. The focus for her second lesson reflection revolved around how she was surprised at the student responses, as she had expected them to be passive during the class. She related how the activities was not challenging enough for the students, unfortunately, she did not make the connection between the student responses and the activities that could have contributed to this. The third lesson reflection focused on how she viewed the lesson's success. She also reiterated that there was nothing unexpected that happened during the lesson. In conclusion, a striking finding that is worth highlighting was Carmel's ability to use her previous experience to build her expectations toward the lessons, which worked to her advantage, as the unexpected events that occurred during the lessons were well-managed. Overall, all the lessons were successfully conducted.

5.6 Case Study 5: Leon

For the practicum, Leon was assigned to teach two Form 4 classes-Form 4SA and Form 4AK. Similar to the other practicum teachers, Leon had a total of 10 periods of teaching English, with 5 periods for each class respectively. For the purpose of this research, Form 4SA was chosen for practical and logistical reasons. The class was described as 'higher-intermediate' in terms of proficiency level. The students for this class were also streamed based on their academic achievement, which minimised the proficiency gap between the students, though not completely. Table 9 represents the findings for Leon's lessons.

5.6.1 Lesson 1: Relating to Previous Experience

The first lesson of Leon's observed was scheduled for an hour and 10 minutes, as it was a two-period lesson. He aimed to have the students present an interview that they were assigned to prepare as homework from the previous lesson and to conduct a listening activity. Both activities revolved around the topic of 'Dare to Dream' which focused on successful figures in Malaysia.

Leon's class was different than the other PSTs' because he was the only one teaching Form 4, which is considered the upper form. Students in the upper form are 16-year olds, and this means they are more mature than those in the lower form. Leon regarded the students as higher intermediate and they appear to be an easy group to be managed.

5.6.1.1 Planning Decisions

From the analysis of OEQ-1, an aspect highlighted by Leon was how he had shaped his current lesson based on his previous experience dealing with the students. He related how he observed the students' reactions to his activities and made changes to the approaches that he planned accordingly. Leon's teaching approach movement analysed in LP-1 was linear, as illustrated in Figure 6.

Table 9 Findings Summary: Leon

	Planning Reflections	Interactive Decisions	Lesson Reflection
Lesson 1	Teaching approach	Managing activity	Managing activity Developing materials Students' response
Lesson 2	Managing students Classroom activities	Teaching approach	Students' responses
Lesson 3	Time management Teaching approach	Teaching approach	Teaching approach

In total, Leon planned five teaching approaches to be used in lesson 1, with one occurrence for each approach. The teaching approaches seemed to be more student-centred than teacher-centred, where the only occurrences of the teacher dominating the talk were in the explanation that needed for the students.

5.6.1.2 Interactive Decisions

Leon's IDs during lesson one were focused more on managing his activities.

In terms of activity management Leon swapped his second activity to become the first activity. LP-1 indicated that he wanted to start the lesson with the students' presentations, and the listening activity would be done after the students had finished presenting.

However, after the class started, Leon checked with the students to see whether they had finished preparing for the presentation and found a majority of them had not. He appeared calm and began to distribute the worksheet for the listening activity, signalling that he was going to proceed with the second activity instead.

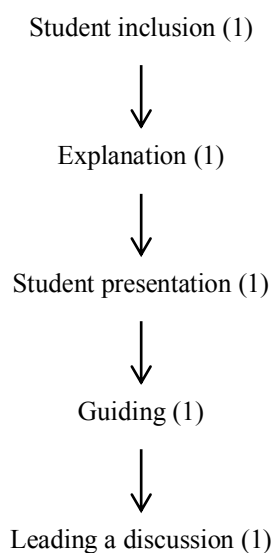


Figure 6: Leon's movement of teaching approaches

He proceeded with activity 2 as he had planned. Leon explained his actions on the CI:

I couldn't proceed with the first activity, which was presentation because most of them did not finish the presentation. The second reason is when I executed the listening activity first, indirectly; I exposed to them the expectation to present later. I said to them, "Can you listen to the interview and can you do something like that?" (Leon-PLI-1)

The first excerpt indicated why Leon could not proceed with the presentation. He also rationalised the benefit of bringing the listening activity forward to the students. The listening activity, which was an interview session with a notable figure in Malaysia, was meant to be an example that the students could learn from for their presentations, where they too had to come up with an interview role-play. In addition to his explanation above, he added:

There is another reason why I proceed with the second activity. The first reason is because they didn't finish their presentation and I thought that if I can't finish the first activity then at least I could finish the second one. At least they'll learn something. (Leon-PLI-1)

His rationale for his actions suggests that Leon tried to compensate for the students' lack of preparation for activity 1 with the second activity, through which he felt that at least he could achieve the second objective of the lesson. He also mentioned that if he could not execute the first activity, he hoped that the students would learn something from activity two.

5.6.1.3 Lesson Reflections

Leon's post-lesson reflection focused on the management of the activity and the material development, where he expressed how pleased he was with both the aspects, and his slight disappointment with the students' responses to activity one.

In terms of the management of the activity, although he had to swap activity one with activity two, he felt that the change was for the betterment of the lesson.

I expected them to present this morning but they still hadn't finished it but I think in general I managed to do both and I have planned the lesson to become flexible, which means I can make activity two become activity one and vice versa. So in general, I think I planned the lesson successfully and for today's lesson there were not many changes. I just follow my lesson plan.

(Leon-PLI-1)

The excerpt not only suggests that Leon felt that the lesson was successful that he felt comfortable to move the activities around, as he indicated his ability to become flexible with the lesson plan. He also considered that the changes that he made were minor and he was still going by what he had planned, and that the lesson turned out to be a success.

The second aspect that he reflected on was his success in developing the materials to suit the students' proficiency and ability levels.

I think I like the listening activity the most. First of all, I myself prepared the material so I know the content, I know it's suitable for the proficiency of my students and is related to the topic that they are learning. And the words they are supposed to know, the question below that they have to answer had both LOTS (lower order thinking skills) and HOTS (higher order thinking skills) questions.

(Leon-PLI-1)

In this excerpt, Leon expressed his confidence in using the material that he had prepared as he knew the content of the material well, which had helped him to deliver the lesson well, to some extent. He also reflected that he knew that the material would suit his students' proficiency and on how it matched with the topic that he had to teach for the lesson. On top of that, he also mentioned the inclusion of both lower and higher order thinking skills questions in the material that he prepared. Therefore, in terms of his material development, Leon indicated his confidence in the content, suitability to students' proficiency levels, as well as the questions he had prepared.

Finally, an aspect that he felt could be improved was the students' responses to the assigned presentation, which affected his lesson plan. Leon recalled the incident where the students did not complete the presentation in PLI-1:

... the students were not well prepared and because they did not consult me. They did ask me a lot of questions even though I had explained to them what they needed to focus on, they need to have a scope of plan, focus on the contribution, maybe the secret of the personality, what inspires the personality but they did not include that. (Leon-PLI-1)

Leon mostly focused on what the student could improve and how he felt he had given them all the explanation he could, yet the students still could not manage to finish the task.

5.6.2 Lesson 2: Capitalising upon Previous Experience

The second lesson that observed of Leon focused on the developing the students' listening skills. The recording chosen for the lesson was an exchange between a presenter and a news correspondent who was covering an innovation fair, which was in line with the theme of the lesson on science and technology. The activities planned for the lesson included a pre-listening activity, a while-listening activity as well as a post-listening activity. Overall, the lesson achieved the objectives set in the lesson plan, with some minor modifications done during the lesson.

5.6.2.1 Planning Decisions

Leon's planning decision for the second lesson mainly revolved around the management of the students during classroom tasks, as well as on the students' proficiency levels and abilities.

Analysis of Leon's OEQ-2 suggests that his reflection during the instructional planning process that revolved around the management of the students was derived from his concern about getting the students to be more involved with the activities that he planned for them. Specifically, he planned to have a variety of task dynamics—a mixture of individual, pair and group work during the lesson. He also added in OEQ-2 on how he felt the students in a previous lesson he conducted were discouraged because the lesson was too teacher-centred. It appeared that this particular previous experience of his had influenced his planning decisions to incorporate more task dynamics to his lessons. This belief was apparent in LP-2 where he planned to begin the lesson with pair work for the pre-listening task, individual work for the while-listening task as well as group work for the post-listening task. Thus, one could conclude that Leon's decision to have a variety of task dynamics was influenced by his previous lesson.

The second aspect reflected during Leon's instructional planning process, as found in the analysis of OEQ-2 was his consideration of whether the activities matched the students' proficiency levels and activities. It was also found that as part of his instructional planning steps, he seeks his mentor's advice on his lesson plan and feels that this is crucial in helping him prepare a good lesson plan. In this instance, his mentor provided him with advice against the post-listening activity that he initially planned. In LP-2 the post-listening activity was a discussion between the students based on open-ended questions. Leon explained that the initial plan was to get the students to complete a true/false worksheet, which the mentor felt was going to be too easy for them. The open-ended questions were a result of the mentor's advice. Leon's decision to change the post-listening activity indicated that the mentor's advice carried some weight in his instructional planning decisions.

5.6.2.2 Interactive Decisions

The CIs that occurred during Leon's second lesson mostly revolved around his teaching approach steps as well as his language use in code switching to the Malay language.

In LP-2, right after the pre-listening activity ended, he planned to distribute a worksheet and allow time for the students to read and understand the exercise. However, he skipped this step and moved on to instructing the students to answer Part B while they listen to the audio recording for the while-listening activity. In PLI-2, he relates how his previous experience in using the same activity informed his interactive decision for this particular CI:

...I did this same lesson with Form 4A and I found the exercise, basically all of the words are very easy for them to understand and I believe I should not have done that because I believe with their proficiency, they must be able (to figure it out). They will not have that problem so I skipped the question that was asking them of any unfamiliar words.

(Leon-PLI-1)

This excerpt provided useful insight to understand his interactive decision. It appeared that during the planned step, he intended to ask the students whether they saw any unfamiliar words that they do not understand in the worksheet. Drawing from his previous experience in using the same activity with a different class, he predicted that this particular class would not have any problems understanding any of the words, thus making the teaching step unnecessary and skipping it altogether.

5.6.2.3 Lesson Reflections

An interesting theme that emerged in Leon's lesson reflection for PLI-2 was on the students' responses to the activities that he had planned. Although in general, he expressed that he felt the lesson was a success, he had some reservations about how the students had responded to the open-ended questions that he had used during the post-listening activity. He indicated some level of disappointment as he felt that the students had not done their best in answering the questions:

I think the groupwork because I leave the group with two open-ended questions and the question is very open, general for them to answer. However I expect more from them as you can see during the discussion, when they share their answer on the board, most of them have similar answer, they do not want to expand their explanation, don't want to give examples, they are still afraid to share their own opinion, they rather play safe with their answer. I expect them to answer, why, they must have a personal opinion about why having invention is important, maybe probably because it's something related to them. For example one of them tell told me new invention is important because we can save people's lives, with our new but they do not write that but they tell me that, they did not write that...

(Leon-PLI-1)

In summary, his frustration was based on how the students had formulated answers that were not critical enough for him. Interestingly, towards the end of PLI-2, he indicated that if he were given a chance to go back to the lesson he would have provided the students

with more support for the post-listening activity. This is vital as it indicated Leon's self-efficacy in providing the students with a better lesson.

5.6.3 Lesson 3: Providing Feedback

Leon's third lesson focused on providing feedback to the students on their mid-term examination, which occurred the week before the observation. Leon marked their papers and he had planned to utilise the lesson to inform the students of their results for the English subject as well as to go through the examination papers with them. The lesson could be described to be very much teacher-centred, given the nature of the plan to provide feedback to the students. The lesson mirrored a typical lesson that would occur when providing feedback for an examination or a test. Nevertheless, the lesson still provided the research with relevant data concerning planning, IDs and Leon's lesson reflections.

5.6.3.1 Planning Decisions

In planning this lesson, Leon expressed his concerns about his time management and in the steps in the teaching approach that he was going to use.

The analysis of Leon's OEQ-3 suggests that time management became Leon's concern in terms of whether the materials he prepare would cover the duration of time that was allocated for his lesson. In this case, the material that he was referring to was the examination paper that he was planning to discuss with the students. He also elaborated upon how he felt that he would have a lot of extra time on his hands with the materials that he was going to use. The analysis of LP-3 did not show evidence of this feeling, as the only time indication given by Leon in LP-3 was the division for the three big stages of the lesson, set induction (10 minutes), development (25 minutes) and conclusion (5 minutes). No specification was indicated for how long he planned to spend on discussing Paper 1 and Paper 2, although he did split the development stage to address the different papers. Hence, although he expressed concerns about his time management, this was not apparent in LP-3.

Secondly, a description of the planning steps that he took while planning for this lesson was found in the analysis of OEQ-3. He began by reading the answer scheme for the examination papers, analysing the parts that needed emphasis as well as deciding on the parts that he needed to focus more on. In OEQ-3 Leon expressed his intention to focus on the students' usage of punctuation in their writing, which was translated as part of his teaching steps in LP-3. The analysis of LP-3 also suggests that the steps that he took while

planning the lesson was crucial to enable a successful feedback session with the students, which was the main objective of the lesson. LP-3 outlined his plans for how he would carry on with the discussion, where he indicated that he would be explaining the marking scheme as well as the suggested answer. In essence, the explanation on the steps that he took when he was drafting LP-3 provided valuable insight into how he had rationalised LP-3. Without conducting the steps that he had indicated in OEQ-3, it would be challenging to achieve the objectives of the lesson.

5.6.3.2 Interactive Decisions

The most apparent CI during this lesson was in terms of Leon's teaching approach, in particular the teaching step that he added. In LP-3 Leon suggested that after he was done with providing his feedback on Paper 1, he would move on to Paper 2 of the English examination. However, right after the discussion on Paper 1 was done, a CI was noted where he provided extra tips, which was not an included step in LP-3. Specifically, the extra tips included Leon relating to the students his personal experience in scoring an English paper. PLI-3 with Leon gave some insight into the CI, where he claimed that in the initial LP-3 he did include the step but took it out as he was worried that he would not be able to execute it. However, during the lesson, he felt that the students needed more support, to which he responded by giving the extra tips. Thus, the first CI revolved around a change in steps in his teaching approach.

A second CI was noted in the same theme, where there was a modification made to the teaching approach. However, instead of adding steps as the CI above showed, this time, a teaching step that he planned was skipped during the lesson. In LP-3, Leon had indicated that he wanted to spend time on Sections A, B and C of Paper 1, but he went straight for Sections B and C, leaving out Section A. Interestingly, he explained in PLI-3 that he felt Section A was easy for the students, and the time was better spent on Sections B and C, where they needed more help:

Because this is a post mortem and I think section A is not much of a challenge for them. (Leon-PLI-1)

I can't say that (howthey scored in Section A) but I think section A is not as difficult, you see I only focused on section B and C because they are more higher level, compared to section A which is more lower level, I think it wasn't a problem for them. (Leon-PLI-1)

He further added that Section A was in a multiple-choice answer format, where this arguably suggest it was an ‘easier’ task for the students. The action of skipping a section contradicted his initial concern in OEQ-3 where he was worried that he might have too much time on his hands. Therefore, this second CI suggests that Leon also made modification to exclude some teaching steps that he deemed unnecessary for the students.

5.6.3.3 Lesson Reflections

Since the CIs that occurred revolved mainly around his teaching approach, it was apt that Leon’s lesson reflections revolved around the same theme. His reflections on the lesson included both his positives and areas that he wished he could improve. First, he was pleased with the teaching approach, as he felt that the lesson had achieved its objectives and he managed to complete everything that he had planned to accomplish. His complaints about the lesson also related to his teaching approach, where he felt he should have put more emphasis on summary. It was also insightful to note that this stemmed from him feeling guilty about not preparing the students well in terms of the summary that they did for the examination paper. Thus, he wished that he had spent more time on the summary with the students to make up for the aspects that he did not cover for the students’ examination.

5.6.4 Summary of Individual Approach

Leon’s planning reflections capitalised on his previous experience with the students. From the first lesson, he related how the teaching approach that he had chosen was based on his previous encounters with the students, specifically utilising how the students responded to his previous teaching approach. In his second lesson, it was also found that Leon was still utilising his previous experience in his lesson planning. This time, his focus was on having more variety in task dynamics by combining individual, pair and group work for the classroom activities. He stated in OEQ-2 how the students seemed discouraged in the previous lesson because he had chosen an activity that was too teacher-centred. Leon’s planning reflections for his third lesson shifted focus on his worry about having too much time on his hands for the lesson, as he planned to focus on providing feedback on the students’ examination papers. He had also reflected on the teaching steps that he had planned to take. Although there were no explicit mentions of previous experience, this does not indicate that previous experience was not thought about when he was making the planning decisions.

Leon could be described as flexible in his interactive decision making, where changes were often focused on his teaching approach. For his first lesson, the ID that Leon took was effective, where he swapped the order of activities because the students did not complete the assigned task needed for the first activity. He later explained that through this change the students received more support in completing activity one. The utilisation of his previous experience also influenced his ID, where he purposely skipped the planned part of explaining some words to the students. According to him, the usage of the same lesson with another class proved that they did not need the explanation, as the words were easy for them to understand. The ID taken in his second proved that although he was worried about not having enough time, he still managed to add a few explanations were deemed necessary when he noticed that the students needed more support in understanding his feedback. This signalled his ability to be flexible with his plans, when the need arises. Thus, the ability to be flexible was an important trait for Leon's interactive decision making.

As for his post-lesson reflections, Leon could be seen as successful in reflecting his lesson's pros and cons. His first post-lesson reflections examined the importance of being flexible in delivering his lesson, which he felt contributed to the success of his lesson. The second post-lesson reflection seemed to focus on the students' responses, both positive and negative. Although the focus was on the students' response, Leon was still able to examine what he could have done to support the students better in the post-listening activity. Finally, his post lesson reflections for his third lesson included his thoughts on how he felt he should have focused more on the summary section of the examination paper. It is interesting to point out that his reflections on all three lessons were quite thorough, where he was able to justify his actions and decisions.

5.7 Conclusion

The main contribution of this chapter is to address how PSTs bring with them different beliefs, values and mindsets when they plan, conduct and reflect on their lessons. Aleya embodied the harsh reality of teaching, where things may not go as planned and PSTs may use multiple compensation strategies to make up for mishaps. Aqma appeared an 'ideal' PST, where she did everything 'right'. Nelly was sceptical about the students' ability and this influenced her lesson planning. Carmel set an example for how the recycling of previous experiences could benefit a lesson. Finally, Leon exhibited the most flexibility in his LPs, which worked out well. It is hoped that this chapter was also

successful in capturing how these beliefs, attitudes and mindsets impacted the lessons that were included in this data collection.

CHAPTER 6: CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the individual case studies that illustrated the PSTs' planning, IDs and post lesson reflections were presented. Also demonstrated was how each PST brings different set of beliefs, attitudes, values and mindsets, which contributed to how their teaching practices are shaped. This chapter will attempt to analyse these practices across the cases by focusing on highlighting similar themes and discussing the contrasts based on the three research questions. As opposed to the previous chapter that examined the formation of PSTs' beliefs in individual lesson cycles, it is hoped that this chapter will provide a more comprehensive picture of the individual stages of teaching to complement the individual case analysis.

This research aims to explore to explore the instructional planning of TESL PSTs. In order to achieve this aim, three sub-research questions were formed. As compared to how the previous chapter was organised, the presentation of the cross-case analysis will be according to the three research questions:

1. How do TESL pre-service teachers plan for their lessons?
2. How do the TESL pre-sevice teachers make their interactive decisions?
3. How can TESL pre-service teachers' post-lesson reflections be described?

6.2 Planning Lessons

The analysis of the PSTs' instructional planning process revealed that their planning reflections could be categorised as either belief formation or problem anticipation. They demonstrated their belief formation in terms of their lesson coherence, managing their instructions and managing students, selecting classroom activities, and teaching approaches. As for problem anticipation, it was found that the PSTs mainly anticipated problems in terms of classroom management issues such as managing the students and time.

Table 10 PSTs' Planning Reflections

	BELIEF FORMATION						
	PROBLEM ANTICIPATION						
	Pedagogical Concerns			Management Issues			
	Lesson coherence	Classroom activities	Teaching approach	Managing instructions	Managing students	Managing time	Managing unexpected changes
Aleya	✓					✓	
Aqma		✓		✓		✓	✓
Nelly		✓	✓		✓	✓	
Carmel		✓			✓		
Leon			✓		✓	✓	

These categories are summarised in Table 10. The analysis also revealed that although there were similarities in the categorical aspects of their planning reflections, the PSTs brought different perspectives when they planned for their lessons. It is also important to point out at this juncture that the aspects presented in this section are not exhaustive; instead they are discussions of those highlighted by the PSTs during their instructional planning process.

6.2.1 Belief Formation

Pajares (1992) described teacher belief as a set of perception and judgment that influences the teachers' practice inside or outside the classroom. Borg (2003) places teacher beliefs as part of a bigger concept that is teacher cognition. In other words, teacher beliefs could be described as the mental representation of teacher thoughts and understanding about teaching that carry influence on their teaching practice. Based on this definition, beliefs may not necessarily be articulated as it could also transcend onto one's practice, to some extent. True to the definition, the PSTs in this research displayed an array of beliefs as part of their instructional planning reflections. In examining the belief formation that emerged from the data, some of these beliefs come off as already well developed, compared to some that could be described as still developing. Aleya, Aqma and Carmel all displayed a firm belief in the aspect of lesson coherence, managing instruction and managing students; while their beliefs toward selecting classroom activities and teaching approaches were those which was still developing.

6.2.1.1 Lesson Coherence

Aleya was the only PST whose pedagogical concern during her instructional planning process revolved around the aspect of maintaining lesson coherence. Her belief on lesson coherence during her instructional planning process as initially focused on making sure that her first lesson had smooth transitions from one stage to the other:

Firstly, I would think about the organisational aspect of the lesson, starting from the set induction to the conclusion to ensure that the flow is smooth and it relates one stage to another. (Aleya-OEQ-1)

Transition points were indicated in LP-1 to signal the end of one stage and the beginning of another and corroborated this interpretation, where she focused on creating a smooth lesson in terms of transitions between the teaching stages.

Interestingly, her reflections on lesson coherence evolved to focus on developing activities that are aligned with the content that she had planned for lesson two:

...I would want to teach the students and follow up with activities relating to teaching... (Aleya-OEQ-2)

In her LP-2, activities planned appeared to support her teaching content, where she focused on the skill of writing a report. Her LP-2 began with the teacher explaining the concepts of report writing, and continued with a pre-writing activity, where the students brainstormed the content of their own report.

In her third and final lesson, Aleya's reflections on lesson coherence appear to merge earlier focuses that she had formed in the prior two lessons, where LP-3 clearly outlined her consideration of both coherence in terms of content as well as the movement of the lesson. This suggests that although Aleya's instructional planning concern through out the three lessons was focused on making her lessons coherent, the belief seemed to develop by incorporating both content and movement of the lesson to ensure she achieved coherence in her lessons. Although this could only be identified in close analysis of her LP-3, she was still found to explicitly mention this aspect in OEQ-3.

...Lastly, I would think about the time it (the activities) will take and I usually estimate when it comes to time since it can be quite unpredictable. (Aleya-OEQ-3)

Aleya's belief in having a coherent lesson got stronger by each lesson, where her reflection on lesson coherence evolved from reflecting on focusing on transitions of teaching stages, ensuring coherence in terms of content and a combination of both transition and content coherence.

6.2.1.2 Managing Instruction

Secondly, Aqma was also found to display a firm belief on the importance of giving clear instructions to the students. In OEQ-1, Aqma expressed her belief that instructions given to the students should be clear, and this belief could be attributed to her previous lessons with her students as well as through her interaction with her supervisor. LP-1 demonstrated the details that she provided in giving out clear instructions to the students:

3. Teacher divides the students into 5 groups.

4. Teacher provides mahjong paper and marker pen to the students.
5. Teacher asks students to identify what are the moral values in the poem.
6. Students need to write at least three sentences about moral values.

E.g.: We must value family relationship.

The belief was quite strongly rooted in her that it produced a positive outcome for her first lesson.

Interestingly, this particular belief was not present in her subsequent lessons, raising the question whether a belief can regress? Although one may argue that the absence did not mean that she had not considered it, the observations of subsequent lessons proved she had not. Lesson two was disorganised, with students left in confusion, not knowing what to do due to the lack of clear instruction. This demonstrates that Aqma's disorganization of lesson two was perhaps influenced by the fact that she did not consciously think about her instructions for her lessons as compared to her lesson one.

The presentation of Aqma's lessons above highlighted several issues. The first issue that emerged suggests that a belief can be formed via previous experiences as well as from interaction from an expert other, which is in this case the supervisor. Another issue that is worth looking into is whether a belief can regress over time, as suggested by Aqma's second lesson.

6.2.1.3 Managing Students

The next belief that was found among the PST was on the advantage that individual work has over group work as explained in detail in Carmel's OEQ-1:

Previously, I assigned them into groups for an activity. It didn't go well. They are loud because they are given the chance to be. Individual tasks would most likely make them more manageable because they each have their hands full.

(Carmel-OEQ-1)

Similar to Aqma, Carmel's belief appeared to have been influenced by her previous experience in teaching the class, where group work did not go as well as she had expected. Interestingly, although this belief was not repeated in OEQ-2 or OEQ-3, her LP-2 and LP-3 echoed this belief where the activities only required the students to work

individually. This was in contrast to Aqma's belief 'regression' in her second lesson, where Carmel's beliefs seemed to come through consistently in her LP-2 and LP-3.

In this case, Carmel exhibited a consistent belief in her choice of using individual work versus group work in her classroom activities. This appeared to be mostly formed by her previous experience in using group work with the students, where she knew that using group work does not go well with the classroom dynamics.

6.2.1.4 Classroom Activity

Another aspect that was categorised under pedagogical concern was the focus on selecting classroom activities. Coincidentally, this aspect was found to be common in Aqma, Nelly and Carmel's lesson three. Nelly's belief formation process leaned more towards self-questioning whether her activities should be fun or 'serious' for the students as reported in her OEQ-3.

I think about the activities that I wanted to do in class. I have a difficult time to choose between fun activities or serious activities. (Nelly-OEQ-3)

Her concern about developing her classroom activities could stem from her perception of her students' low self-motivation, which was also captured in OEQ-3.

...I am tired of thinking what activities should be done to attract them but I guess some of them are just lazy to learn. They are smart but they are lazy. Maybe English is too boring for them or not challenging enough. (Nelly-OEQ-3)

She seemed to believe that no matter how much effort she puts into her lesson, it would never attract the attention of the students. Although she felt there was no point in trying, she did put in some effort to make the lesson interesting as she included games as part of the lesson activity in her LP-3. This could suggest an inner debate in Nelly, on her contemplation of trying to provide the best for the students, despite her feelings of despair toward the students' response and achievements.

While Nelly's reflection seemed to revolve around her decision on whether to choose activities that were fun or serious, Aqma's main concern was to find suitable activities that could cater to the different proficiency levels that were present in her classroom.

My first concern while drafting my lesson plan is the students' proficiency levels. These Form 2 students have different proficiency levels, some of them

are advanced and some are intermediate. Therefore, I have to make sure that my activities will suit their proficiency. (Aqma-OEQ-2)

Not only did she feel the pressure to find suitable materials for the different proficiency levels, she also expressed her frustration in coming up with interesting activities for her students, and in how frustrated she would have felt if the activities do not attract the students' interest.

Both cases presented similar issues in developing classroom activities where both could be seen putting in thought on ways to attain the students' attention, with specific reservations about the types of activities that they would like. Compared with Aqma and Nelly's concern to make the activities more interesting for the students, Carmel's planning reflections included her attempts to include better comprehension activities, as compared to previous lessons as she felt that in the previous lesson, the activity that she had used did not help the students' comprehension.

I had a comprehension activity the other day and didn't think it went well. So today, I'm hoping to do better because this is also a comprehension lesson and I have selected similar activities. (Carmel-OEQ-3)

Her efforts to make the lesson better were explained in the OEQ-3 as well, where she included thinking about how she could simplify things for her students, to avoid confusion.

Overall, the PSTs' planning reflections involved the process of developing their beliefs in making the choice of activities to be used in the classroom. There were elements of inner debates, confusion and recapping previous experiences in making sense of their planning actions, which demonstrated the complexity of their thoughts when they plan their lessons.

6.2.1.5 Teaching Approach

Finally, the PSTs' planning reflections also demonstrated their beliefs about their teaching approach, specifically in Nelly and Leon's lessons.

Nelly's beliefs about her teaching approach came across in her third lesson, where she justified the selection of using student presentations. She felt that she should be more learner-centred as opposed to 'feeding' the students all the information required for the lesson, an action, that is negatively viewed as 'spoon feeding' in the Malaysian educational context:

The students did not have any basic knowledge about elements of a short story. So basically, I decided to start off with brief explanation, they will continue with presentation because I do not want to ‘spoon feed’ them much. (Nelly-OEQ-2)

Although she believed that the students should present the information, she had some reservations about whether they would still be able to complete the task. LP-2 subsequently pointed out that Nelly did plan her lesson to be focused on learners, where the students were required to present the information required for the lesson.

Moving slightly to a different perspective, Leon’s planning reflections demonstrated his developing belief in the selection of his teaching approach. He appeared to focus on choosing an appropriate way to approach a feedback session on an examination paper with the students. OEQ-3 provided insight to how he approached his planning, where he outlined his preparation steps, which included referrals to marking schemes as well as deciding on aspects of the examination paper that he would like to focus on. He explained that for this particular lesson, his mentor played a vital role:

For this lesson, my mentor influenced me a lot. I was asked to come to her class to see first hand how she conducts the discussion, the focus and the explanation of the techniques and the format of the paper. (Leon-OEQ-3)

This reinforced the role that a mentor plays in the PSTs’ belief formation during the instructional planning process, as also discovered in the other PSTs’ data.

To conclude this section, the PSTs’ planning reflection provided an insight in terms of the PSTs’ developed and developing beliefs in terms of lesson coherence, managing instructions, managing students, classroom activities and their teaching approach. The development of these beliefs was mostly contributed by the PSTs’ previous experience as well as their interaction with an expert, which in this case is their mentors and supervisors.

6.2.2 Problem Anticipation

Part of the PSTs’ planning reflection also revolved around problem anticipation, where it regarding their classroom management skills. Among the aspects that they see was challenges included their lesson included managing the students and managing their time and managing unexpected events.

6.2.2.1 Managing Students

The first aspect that the PSTs foresaw problems with when they planned their lessons was in terms of managing the students.

The first example is the case of Nelly, who stated that class control was the biggest concern in planning her first lesson. She further explained how playful the students were meaning would have problems focusing on a task. These concerns were not translated to her LP-1, as no precautions where she was mostly describing her teaching steps for lesson 1. No precautions were indicated in LP-1 as a consequence to her problem anticipation.

A similar anticipated problem was displayed in lesson 2 where Nelly anticipated that the students would not be able to accomplish the presentation that she assigned them to in lesson 2:

I am afraid that my students will not be able to present their work but at least they will slowly develop the skill and improve themselves. (Nelly-OEQ-2)

Although she appeared to have anticipated that the students would have problems accomplishing the task, LP-2 demonstrated that she went ahead with her plans to get the students to present as part of her teaching approach. Similar to lesson one, she did not have high hopes for the students to accomplish the task, because she perceived them as a playful and difficult to manage.

Finally, Leon also anticipated some problems in managing the students in terms of getting the students to become more involved in his second lesson.

I think of the involvement of the students; therefore, I separate the activities into three: pair work, individual work and group work. (Leon-OEQ-2)

During the previous lesson, the students appeared to be discouraged by the lesson, probably it was too teacher-centred and it was individual, therefore I made changes to the involvement of students in this lesson. (Leon-OEQ-2)

He tried to accomplish this by having different tasks to provide the students with more opportunities to participate in LP-2. Although this particular aspect was not made apparent in lesson 1, Leon's ability to utilise previous knowledge in lesson 1 was carried through to lesson 2, where he provided explanation as to how previous knowledge and his mentor influenced his anticipation of the problem.

To conclude, Leon and Nelly both anticipated problems in terms of managing the students, where Nelly appeared to be more concerned about having good class control, while Leon was more focused on getting the students to be more involved in the lesson. Another differentiating factor between these two PSTs was how Leon could be seen to take his anticipation a step further where his LPs catered to his worry. In other words, his LP-2 reflected the solutions that he felt were right for the worries that he had formed earlier.

6.2.2.2 Managing Time

Secondly, the PSTs' reflections also included their concerns about time management, which was demonstrated by three PSTs-Aqma, Nelly and Leon.

Both Aqma and Nelly expressed their concern about the students not being able to complete the tasks that they had planned for the lessons, which would in turn cost them time to complete the other planned activities.

I am also concerned about the time management as I am afraid that they may take longer time to finish the activity. (Aqma-OEQ-2)

I believe that some of the students have problems with their time management and they like to talk a lot instead of focusing on the task given. (Nelly-OEQ-1)

What distinguished these two PSTs was how these concerns were translated into their respective LPs. In Nelly's LP-1, although she was aware of the risk that the students may not finish the activities, her expectations for the students appeared to still be 'ideal' in the students' learning activity column, as she indicated that the students would finish the activity on time. Conversely, Aqma indicated a heightened sense of awareness in her time management, where she detailed specific time durations for each activity, which was not present in Nelly's LP.

Leon exhibited a different scenario, where he was concerned that the materials that he prepared were not enough to cover the entire class time period, which would leave him with extra time:

The duration of the period and the materials that I have are my major concerns. For two periods, I think there are not many things to discuss in the examination paper. I am afraid that there will be too much time left. (Leon-OEQ-3)

Although this concern was voiced, no observable action was found in the LP to corroborate this particular concern.

Overall, this section has highlighted that the PSTs planning reflections included their worries in terms of their time management. Similar to the previously discussed section, some of these anticipated problems were translated to their LPs, while some were not. The PSTs displayed how a similar issue could bring different sets of anticipated problems when a lesson is planned for different sets of students.

Overall, there were several management issues that concerned the PSTs when they planned their lessons including managing instructions, managing students and managing time. As seen from the results presented earlier, the PSTs brought their own perspective when it came to the issues that were discussed, where each of them had different concerns. It is crucial to note how these issues were viewed in order to better understand their planning concerns and practices.

6.2.3 Summary

To summarise, I have presented the PSTs' reflections during instructional planning have been presented to display the beliefs of the PST as well as problems anticipated in the lessons that they were planning. The aspects in which they formed their beliefs included lesson coherence, managing instructions, managing students, classroom activities and teaching approach, while they anticipate problems mostly in terms of student and time management. These beliefs and anticipations were mostly contributed to by their previous experiences as well as their interaction with an expert other, specifically their mentors or supervisors. It is also crucial to highlight a final note in this section, it is in the actual instructional planning document, the lesson plans, in the PSTs' actions are shown in mapping these beliefs and anticipations.

6.3 Interactive Decisions

This section will present analysis of the IDs that the PSTs took during their lessons, by identifying any actions that were not reflected in the lesson plan and were labelled as critical incidents (CI). The observable changes included their pedagogy, classroom management and language use. These findings were found across the cases exemplified in the previous chapter, with several unifying triggers in the PSTs' lessons, which prompted them to take these IDs. The decisions taken resulted in either facilitating or

interfering actions in the lessons and will be described further in this chapter. This process can be described as a change cycle as illustrated in Figure 7.

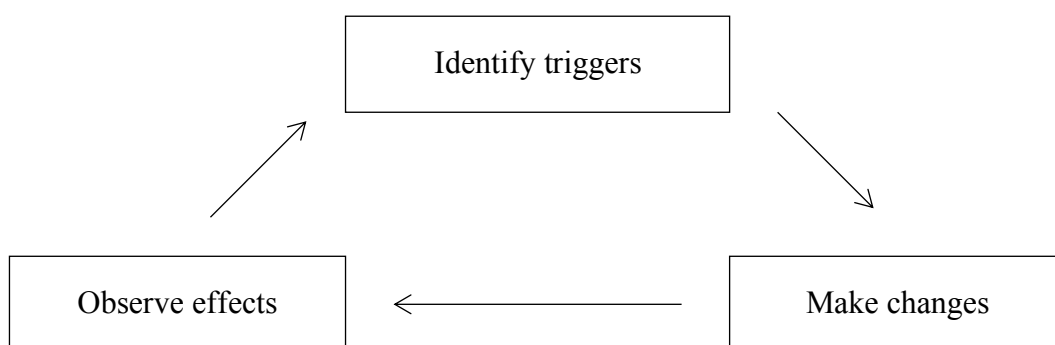


Figure 7: Change cycle

The analysis suggests that the IDs taken by the PSTs were driven by their attempts to respond to the students' cues, unmet expectations that were formed during instructional planning, as well as unexpected events that occurred beyond the PSTs' control.

6.3.1 Responding to Students' Cues

Responding to the students' cues was a major trigger in driving the PSTs to take IDs in their lessons. The students' cues included students' actions such as being distracted from the task, appeared to be puzzled with the task as well as not participating in the activities that were prepared by the PSTs.

The students in the lessons were at times seen as distracted from the lesson when they began to have small talk with their friends and began to make noises that are not productive to the lessons. Most of the PSTs, namely Aqma, Carmel and Nelly were able to pick up on these triggers during the lessons and all of them addressed the incident almost immediately, with different classroom management techniques, not allowing the incidents to prolong further. Aqma had a unique way of dealing with disruptive behaviour, by calling out the 'Hello, hello..hi' technique as described in the previous chapter. Calling out the individual disruptive students' names was also a technique used by Aqma and Carmel. In order for this to work, the PSTs demonstrated that they know the students well, a trait that is a challenge when dealing with forty students in a class. In her lesson one, Nelly explained she expected the students to be unfocused during lessons, an expectation that was formed from her previous lessons with the students. She asserted her classroom control when she immediately went around the class to check on the

students as soon as she had given out the instruction for the activities. These three PSTs also demonstrated that their IDs on classroom management were shaped by their previous experience dealing with the students, with the exception of Aqma, who included an emulation of what she had observed in her mentor's lesson, especially in dealing with disruptive behaviours. The IDs that the PSTs took all turned out well as the students' focuses were successfully redirected to the lessons. A factor that could have contributed to this success was the urgency that the PSTs had shown in dealing with the behaviour, and not allowing the behaviour to continue into the lessons.

Picking up the students' body language during the lesson proved to be a useful trait among the PSTs. The students' puzzled looks and their restlessness were examples of the body language that prompted Aqma and Nelly to make changes in their lessons. In her first lesson, Aqma switched her planned teaching steps following the puzzled looks from her students. She had planned to explain some concepts, get them to note the first concept, and then she planned to explain a second concept. However, she made a decision to finish her explanation, and then get the students to copy the notes, as she saw that the students looked confused after her first explanation. This turned out to work well in her lesson as the students were able to complete the activities that followed her explanation. On the other hand, although Nelly was able to pick up that the students were having problems understanding what to do in the lesson, she waited too long to take her interactive decision, which showed a lack in her time management skills. She had redirected the students to a handout that she used in a previous lesson, but she waited about 10 minutes after the activity had started before making this suggestion to aid them in the current activity. The description of these two PSTs indicates that the act of noticing the student's cues needs to be followed up with immediate actions in addressing their difficulties during the lessons.

A final student cue was their reluctance to co-operate with the planned activities, which was found in Carmel's lesson one. She planned a read-aloud session, where two individual students would be picked out to read out a dialogue. However, after failing to coerce two students to read, Carmel immediately grouped the whole class into two big groups and began the read aloud session as a whole-class activity. The students co-operated much better where everyone participated. Carmel illustrated an important issue that she had in mind when she changed the task dynamic, which was to empathise with the students. She recalled how she had disliked it herself when she was singled out to perform tasks when she was a student. This incident suggests that it is important for PST

to be able to make changes to accommodate the students' needs, as compared to spending too much time to dwell on incidents that were not expected.

6.3.2 Unmet Expectations

During the data collection process, it was apparent that the PSTs formed some expectations about how their students would respond, react and perform in the classroom. However, some of these expectations were not met, which caused the PSTs to make IDs based on them. The unmet expectations were mostly in how the students would perform in class as well as completing assigned homework to be used in the next lesson.

When Nelly and Leon assigned homework to the students, some of the tasks were meant to be used in their upcoming lessons. For example, when Nelly asked the students to prepare a presentation on the themes of a short story for her second lesson, she planned her following lesson to incorporate them. However, when the students turned up to class without preparing for the presentation, Nelly had to take the interactive decision of allocating an extra 15 minutes for them to complete the presentation. What was interesting is that in PLI-2, Nelly explained how she predicted that the students would not be able to finish the task, as they had hinted that they had a lot of homework from the day before. However, this contradicted Nelly's corresponding LP-2, as she maintained the slot for the students to present regardless of the students' signal of incapability to finish the presentation. Her interactive decision caused her to not be able to complete her next planned task. Leon exhibited a more positive perspective in dealing with students' inability to finish assigned tasks in his lesson one. Although his lesson plan incorporated time allocation for students' presentations, he was able to switch his plans around as he predicted that in case the students could not complete the assignment, he could proceed with his lesson. He switched the order of tasks, and only after the first task was completed that did he continue with allocating time for the students to complete their presentation. This move suggests it was a more successful lesson when compared to Nelly's and also displayed the importance of being flexible in delivering lessons.

A similar incident occurred in lesson three where the students had a problem completing a task, as they had not read the assigned reading material for Nelly's third lesson. Nelly expected the students to be able to finish a planned task within a certain amount of time, to which the students failed to comply. What Nelly did was to prolong the time duration to complete the task, which again compromised her time management skills. This caused her the same consequence as in her previous lesson, which was not being able to complete her next planned task. She explained in PLI-3 that she thought the students had read the

reading assignment that it would have helped them to complete the task as expected. It is insightful to note that Nelly did not display any increased awareness of the students' reading habits, despite having had a less positive experience with them in her previous lesson. A more time-efficient plan could have been prepared if the expectations for the students were altered in lesson three.

6.3.3 Unexpected Events

When teaching, there are bound to be events that are unexpected and beyond the teachers' control. These events will prompt teachers to make adjustments in their lessons or take IDs when they are teaching. In this research, unexpected events that became the causes of IDs taken by the PSTs were technical glitches, unscheduled school events, oversight in planning and executing the lesson plans.

The first unexpected event was when Aleya experienced a technical glitch during her third lesson. She planned to use the LCD projector and explained how everything tested out fine before the lesson. She planned to project the text on the screen and to get a few students to read the text out loud. However, the LCD projector did not work when she turned it on during the lesson and she continued to try to fix it for about 15 minutes, before she decided to get the students to read from a handout instead. Aleya explained her delayed interactive decision as she did not prepare any back-up plans for the students, as she had tried out the projector successfully before the lesson began. Her delayed interactive decision interfered with her lesson coherence as the students were left wondering and doing nothing for a good 15 minutes. Once the projector was back on, the lesson continued with a sense of rushing through the activities to make up for the lost time.

Carmel experienced an unexpected event for her second lesson where the school had an event that carried over into half of Carmel's planned lesson, causing her to only have 40 minutes as compared to her usual 80 minutes. She did not make any changes to the classroom activities, but rather skipped some teaching steps that she felt to be obvious to the students, for example explaining the pedestrian sign on the board. She was also pleasantly surprised as the students managed to complete all the tasks faster than she expected. This demonstrated the benefits of keeping a reasonable expectation on the students' ability in making IDs, rather than having expectations that are too high like Nelly. There was a strong balance of good judgment calls in Carmel's IDs to skip the steps with students performing beyond her expectations.

Unexpected events are unavoidable in teaching as exemplified in the paragraphs above. A crucial aspect that the PSTs have demonstrated is the importance of having a back-up plan, in case things go wrong. Although this may not guarantee that things will go perfect, it prepares the PSTs in anticipating any problems that may occur, which in return will help them in making sound IDs.

6.3.4 Summary

In examining the PSTs IDs, there were several factors that contributed to success in the IDs that the PSTs took which were promptness, flexibility and managing expectations. In most of the findings presented above, the actions that were taken promptly to address the triggering factors were successful in stopping the incidents from disrupting the lessons further. A delay in reaction could cause more problems to occur in delivering successful lessons. It is also crucial for the PSTs to be flexible in their plans. Reading the students' cues proved to be an important skill for the PSTs to know whether their plan was working. If these cues are ignored, the lessons may go on less effectively and could cause other problems such as losing the students' interest. Finally, previous lessons and experiences should be used as means to manage expectations for the lessons. Some of the expectations were not based on experiences, which could have turned out in a different way if the experiences were utilised to form any expectations for the students.

6.4 Post-Lesson Reflections

This final section will present the findings from the PSTs' post-lesson reflections, by highlighting the similarities and differences across the lessons. In examining the PSTs' post-lesson reflections, it was found that they included both reflections on incidents that had more prominent impact to the lesson as well as those on incidents with minor impact to the lesson. These reflections were further examined in terms of the levels of reflections as described by Lee (2005).

Lee (2005) labelled the levels of reflections as recall, rationalise and reflective reflections. Recall reflections occur when a teacher uses descriptions to recall their experiences in the classroom without offering any explanation for the experience. At a slightly more in-depth level of reflection, as offered by Lee (2005) is rationalise, where a teacher examines relationships between the incidents that occur in the classroom as well as comes up with reasons for why the incidents occur. The deepest level of reflection is described as reflective, where there is an added value of the intention to change and improve the

lessons in the future and being able to see the impact of their practices on the students' learning.

It was interesting to discover that reflections on changes that are critical were approached in a different manner as compared with changes that are non-critical to the lesson. Reflections on changes that are critical were limited to the level of rationalise and reflective, while reflections on non-critical changes involved all three levels of reflections, which are recall, rationalise and reflective reflections. This finding is illustrated in Figure 8.

6.4.1 Critical Changes

In the data analysis, a striking theme found among the case studies is the variation that the PSTs brought to their post-lesson reflections. The tendency to reflect and the way the reflections come through were to some extent, influenced by the perceived impact that a change has to a lesson. The perceived impact is arguably varied between the PSTs, where some might view a decision as more critical to their lesson as compared to others, which were demonstrated in the PSTs' data. For example, making a change in how a task is carried out may be more impactful for a PST than another, where it could enhance or disrupt how a lesson outcome is achieved. For the purpose of the data presentation, critical changes in this section refers to any changes made in the lesson that brought observable and apparent changes in the lessons' outcomes, which could be positive or negative outcomes. The PSTs' were found to reflect up to the 'rationalise' stage when the change brought positive outcomes to the lessons, but progressed to the deepest level of reflection, 'reflective', when the critical change brought negative outcomes to the lessons.

6.4.1.1 Rationalize

Two PSTs were identified to have reflected on the changes that were in favour of their lessons, namely Carmel and Leon. A further analysis of their reflections revealed how their reflections could be categorised as 'rationalise' reflection, where they were able to identify and further justify the IDs that they had taken in their lessons.

In Carmel's PLI-3, she reflected that she was pleased with the interactive decision that she had taken during the group discussion, even though there were some teaching steps she had missed. She was able to identify the interactive decision and how it was contributing to the success of the lesson:

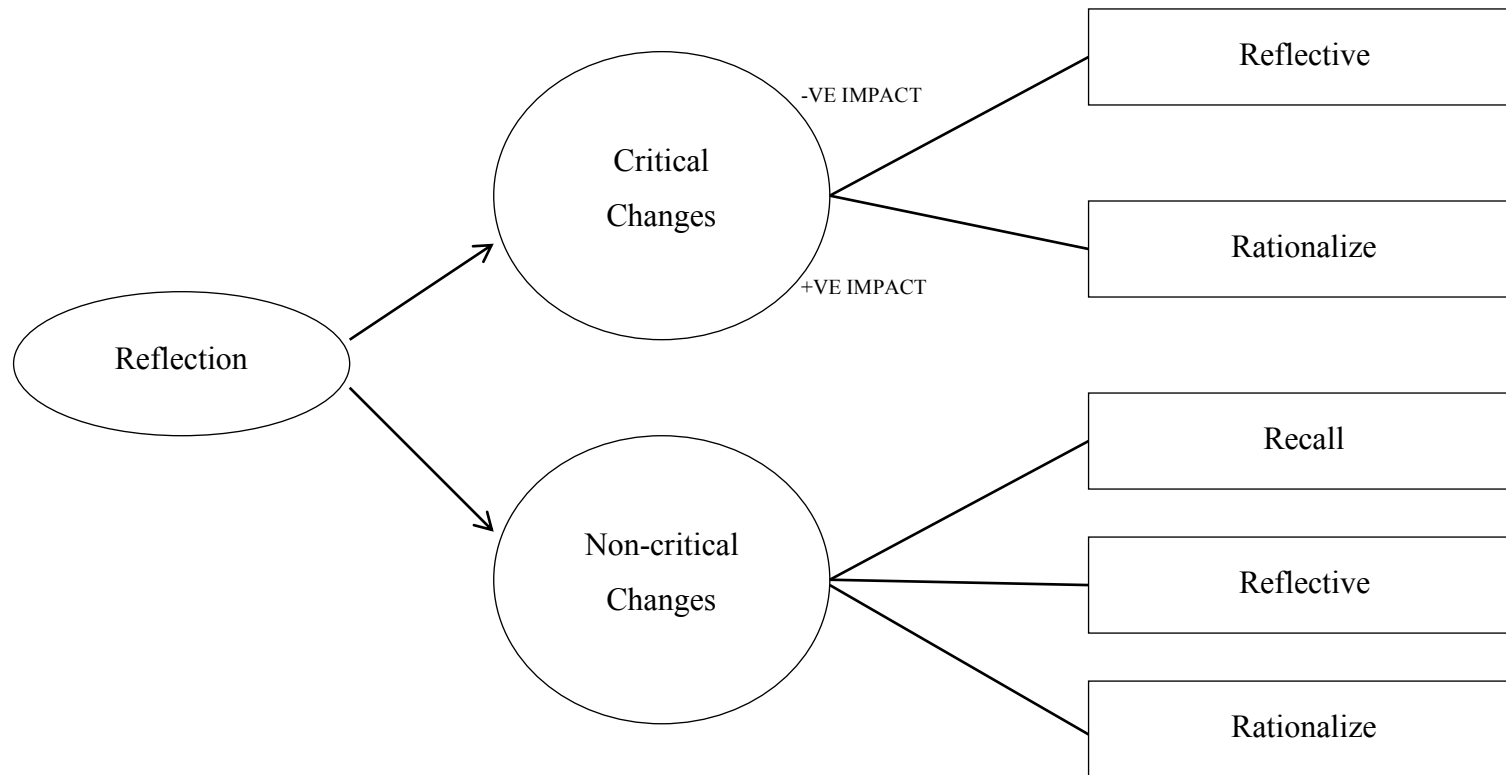


Figure 8: PSTs' post-lesson reflection

I like that we were able to look for the answer together. Some of the students did answer the questions while the rest of them were still asking me questions (about what they were supposed to do). The discussion helped the rest of them to find the answer while those who had answered earlier than others can check their answer as well. (Carmel-PLI-3)

The discussion that was mentioned in the reflection above referred to the interactive decision she took to combine the discussion of the answers to the task as well as the meaning of unfamiliar words, a step that she had missed during teaching. Her reflection included making the connection between using whole-class discussions as a means to task-completion, where she felt that it helped the students, regardless of their proficiency level, which points out her 'rationalise' reflection.

Leon was also found to reflect on his success in managing his activities and material development, two aspects that he deemed successful in his lesson one. Although he made some changes during the lesson in terms of how the activities were organised, he was able to reflect on these changes at the 'rationalise' level, where he stated:

I expect them to present this morning but they still haven't finished it but I think in general I managed to do both and I have planned the lesson to become flexible which means I can make activity two become activity one and vice versa. So in general, I think I have planned the lesson successfully and for today's lesson there were not many changes. I just followed my lesson plan.

(Leon-PLI-1)

I think I like the listening activity the most. First of all, I myself prepared the material, so I know the content, I know it's suitable to the proficiency of my students and it is related to the topic that they are learning. And the words they are supposed to know, the questions below that they have to answer have both LOTS (lower order thinking skills) and HOTS (higher order thinking skills) questions. (Leon-PLI-1)

He managed to reflect on and rationalise an incident in his classroom in terms of his flexibility in moving the activities around as well as the success of his material development. In his opinion, the materials worked well with the students because he combined his knowledge of the content with his knowledge of the students' abilities, which worked in his favour.

From lesson observation, it was identified that some of the IDs that Aqma and Leon took brought positive critical changes to their lessons. In their post-lesson reflections, Aqma and Leon were able to identify the factors that contributed to these successes in their lessons.

6.4.1.2 Reflective

Besides having positive impacts on the PSTs' lessons, some IDs also brought negative impacts to the lessons, where the decisions taken steered the lessons away from the predicted lesson outcomes. Aleya's IDs in her lesson 3 cost her time; while Aqma compromised the students' understanding with one of her IDs. For the reflection on both cases, the PSTs took to the deepest level of reflection where they identified aspects that they could improve on for future lessons.

Aleya's lesson three included a technical glitch when she tried to use the LCD projector. She fiddled with it for quite some time, and this had caused her time, where she was set back for about 15-20 minutes. Her reflection on this incident was:

...could have been better in terms of managing the time and unexpected things. Because of that, I didn't have much time to explain on what I want to teach... I should have prepared a Plan B, in case things did not work...

(Aleya-PLI-3)

A further conversation with Aleya found out that she insisted on getting the LCD projector working because she did not prepare any back-up plans for this particular lesson. Her post-lesson reflections showed that she identified this weakness and saw how having a back-up plan could have been better for her lesson.

In her second lesson, Aqma also produced reflective reflection when she discussed her poor instructions to the students, which had caused the students a lot of confusion:

Maybe I should write the instruction on the white board so they can understand because some of them kept asking me, what should they do? They didn't understand, so I better write the instructions on the board. (Aqma-PLI-3)

She added the importance of writing down the instructions on the board, which could have helped with the situation. This indicates her ability to not only see the impact of her practice on the students, but also how she could make the lesson better in the future.

It is interesting to note how these two examples pointed out that the PSTs are likely to engage in a deeper level of reflection on incidents that interfere with the lesson, as compared with incidents that facilitate their lesson, where their reflections would most likely remain at the 'rationalise' level.

6.4.2 Non-critical Changes

Most of the changes or IDs that the PST took during their lessons were not critical in the sense that they do not carry significant impact on the lesson outcomes. In other words, the changes made to the lesson brought minor alterations to the lesson flow, in which it did not affect the lesson outcome. The depths of the reflections on these non-critical changes were a combination of recall, rationalise and reflective.

6.4.2.1 Recall

Recalling their experiences formed a part of two PSTs' post-lesson reflections. Nelly and Carmel reflected on the students' dynamics in their reflections. Although the categories are the same, the perspectives of the reflections differ from one PST to the other. The analysis suggests that Nelly's reflections were limited as she viewed the students' dynamics in a less positive way as compared to Carmel.

Nelly's reflections on student dynamics mostly revolved around the students' low motivation and behaviour, which both occurred in her lessons two and lesson three. Her reflections described how the students were not focused and how they were always playful during the lessons:

...this is not the first time (the students did not do their homework) but basically I know their capability of doing something so I expected it to happen, it's just that I don't know how to really motivate them because previously I tried to scold them and they were so scared but then again it's tiring when you have to get mad and shout so that's why when they are not paying attention I just said that if you do not understand it's none of my business, I have done my work.

(Nelly-PLI-2)

I like least that they always take time to answer questions like that (activity 1)...there were a few boys who are always unfocused in class. They are always playful in my class. Even if I tell them it will come out in their exam, it would not give them anything to make them feel scared or what not. I really hate it when they are not focusing on what I have asked them to do

(Nelly-PLI-3)

...maybe they have this attitude where if it's not an examination they don't feel the urge to do all of the question. They just do everything lightly.

(Nelly-PLI-3)

Her descriptions of these behaviours indicated hints of frustration that she had with the students. The same reflections were repeated in both lesson two and lesson three, where no changes were seen in the students' motivation. She also stated how she felt that the students were 'taking things lightly' in her reflections for her third lesson, a statement that was repeated twice during the PLI-3. She also elaborated on how she felt that unless it was an examination, the students would not see the importance of the activities she prepared for them. These two reflections did not go beyond describing the students' behaviour and motivation and Nelly was not found to offer any attempt to examine the reasons the students acted in such way, as compared to the earlier reflections for her lesson one and lesson two where she was found to rationalise some of the students' behaviour.

On the other hand, Carmel's recall reflections were in a more positive note, where she expressed her surprise about the students' excellent behaviour and performance during her second lesson:

I think that pretty much went according to plan and went much better than I expected actually because usually when it's the lower proficiency classes, you expect them to behave not so well but instead they're very nice, they were very quiet.

(Carmel-PLI-2)

In her second lesson, Carmel conveyed how she was pleasantly surprised at how the students had behaved during the lesson. She described them as being very 'nice and quiet' as compared to how she expected them to behave. In addition, she was also pleased with how they had co-operated with her in volunteering for the activities that she had prepared. These reflections bear some resemblance to Nelly's reflections, in terms of the depth. Carmel, too, was not found to offer any possible justification as to why the students had reacted in such a way.

From these two PSTs, a conclusion could be drawn that the PSTs may stop at a recall level of reflection when examining their experiences, regardless of whether they feel more or less positive about the experience. The analysis also suggests several 'missed opportunities' that the PSTs could have taken by examining these incidents deeper, at least by seeking explanation as to why the students behaved in the lessons.

6.4.2.2 Rationalise

A deeper level of reflection is described as ‘rationalise’ reflection. As rationalise reflections, the justifications found in the PSTs’ reflections were based on what worked in the classroom and what did not work in the classroom. Four PSTs, Aleya, Carmel, Aqma, and Nelly reflected at this level on various aspects.

Aleya forgot to bring flip-chart papers to class, causing her to use A4 papers instead, though they were much smaller in size, for the group discussions. She reflected on this incident below:

The flip chart paper, it will be easier and nicer. So you don't have to take turn on the whiteboard because it's not that big so it will fit every group's presentation. I only managed to do two groups or three at least...so I need the flip chart paper.. (Aleya-PLI-2)

She was able to identify that it did not go too well. She proceeded by including how it could have had a better impact on the students’ sense of self-achievement if she had been better prepared.

Carmel reflected on managing group work and classroom activities. In her PLI-1, she began by associating different events together, where she examined how the students were more focused on the lesson as compared to her previous lessons:

I think it went very well. Usually when I want to conduct activities, it will be very challenging and difficult because the students have problems focusing on their task. When I gave them tasks, they would walk around, talk to their friends, be loud and noisy, a bit chaotic. Usually I would have to shout and remind them but today it went well. (Carmel-PLI-1)

Her reflections progressed to how she attributed this success to her mentor’s advice on handling individual work as compared to group work. Her reflections also indicated her keen interest in using the same task dynamic in her future lessons. In her PLI-2, Carmel elaborated upon how she felt that the classroom activity was not challenging enough for the students, but she reassured herself that it was okay considering that it was the last lesson of the day for the students:

I think just now, because my mentor told me that they have to have their own task individually, they have to have something in their hand to keep them busy

like just now. I do expect them to do their work individually although they can discuss with their friends so that actually went as planned. I have conducted group works before so I know group works is a big responsibility for them. And now that I've known individual (tasks) work better with them, it's better I continue on... (Carmel-PLI-1)

She managed to not only identify but also justify the reasons why the unplanned incidents occurred in her lessons.

Similarly, Aqma reflected on her teaching approach in her third lesson, where she was satisfied with the explanation that she gave to the students:

The explanation part, the first part when I explained to them, I showed them pictures about cause and effect and then I asked them to give some examples and then the sequence connectors, I explained that we actually have learnt about sequence connectors before, so I recapped that so that they can understand better. (Aqma-PLI-3)

She felt that the explanation worked well because she reminded the students of their previous lesson where they had learned a similar topic. These reflections demonstrated that the PSTs' were able to examine their practices in aiding the students' learning.

The earlier paragraph illustrated how the PSTs managed to rationalise incidents that worked well during their lessons. On the other hand, Nelly's experience with one incident was slightly different than those discussed earlier. In her first lesson, she felt that the students were not as responsive as she thought they would be and that they were really quiet through out the first activity:

So basically I think the flow of the lesson is okay but for the first activity it was quite quiet in terms of the discussion because they didn't engage much in the topic...perhaps because they learnt it previously. As a teacher, I find the topic, environmental problems is quite factual and less fun activities could be done... (Nelly-PLI-1)

She concluded that perhaps the fact that they had done a similar topic in their previous lesson contributed to them not responding well to the activity. This was in contrast to Aqma's lessons where she felt that reusing a previous lesson was beneficial to her students.

In conclusion, the PSTs were generally able to produce reflections that were deeper than merely recalling their experiences. They were able to identify the incidents, make relationships between them and provide justifications on the incidents, regardless of whether the incident was positive or otherwise.

6.4.2.3 Reflective

Naturally, fitting with the aspects of reflective reflections, those that were found were in this study were in terms of pedagogical concern, an aspect that was under the PSTs' control. Three PSTs that were found to reflect reflectively in this aspect were Aleya, Aqma and Carmel.

Aleya included a number of reflective reflections post-lesson. In her first lesson, she talked about how she wanted to have a more coherent lesson by doing better in terms of the pacing of her lessons and improving her lessons by adding another activity.

Organisation wise, I guess I could do better. The pace (transition) from one section to another section could have been better. I think overall I did cover everything, it's just that it needs to be a little bit neater in terms of organisation.

(Aleya-PLI-1)

It was unclear how she formed these thoughts although the findings from the lesson observation corroborated that she held these concerns.

Leon also reflected reflectively in his third lesson, where he described that he was not happy on how he had delivered his explanations to the students.

I think when I discussed summary after reading comprehension, paper 2 ...because I didn't focus on the summary itself, I merely went through the point only... I should have actually talked to them, explained to them about the summary, how to write summary, what is the summary all about, what did the question expect from the students and not just go through the point because the students seemed confused when I go through the format as if I expect them to have all those points in their answer. I think this was my weakness just now.

(Leon-PLI-3)

This reflection then progressed on to the reflective level, where he said:

I wish I could be more focused on discussing the summary, if possible, I would like to talk about how to score the summary and how student can actually get

more marks for paper 2, for writing summary. I think summary is very easy but the students find it difficult, the students cannot score (well) for summary.

(Leon-PLI-3)

The reflection above is an assertion of the necessity, to a certain extent, to provide a more detailed explanation in the future. Although he did not explicitly state how his ineptness in delivering the explanation affected the students, he was still able to state what he wanted to approach differently in the lesson.

To conclude, the examples above demonstrate how the PSTs used reflective reflection to think about their lessons, although the changes or incidents that occurred were not critical to the lesson outcomes.

6.4.3 Summary

In sum, all five PSTs were able to reflect on their lessons to a certain extent. Some were able to reflect in more depth as compared to others. A salient point found in their post-lesson reflections was how the impact of an incident shapes or determines the level of the PSTs post-lesson reflections. More variety was found in the PSTs' post-lesson reflections where it was found that if there were any incidents that interfered with the predicted lesson outcomes the PSTs tended to engage deeper in their reflection to examine what they could do to make things better in the future. However, if the incidents that happened were more facilitative in nature and helped them to achieve the lesson outcome, reflection was more on how the PSTs examined pedagogical content aspects when it came to making improvements in their lessons and did not put in enough emphasis on being emphatic to the students' points of view. They were focused on what they could do as teachers to make the lessons better, which is a positive in developing their teaching practice, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of the research by attempting to analyse the patterns and differences found across the individual case studies. Cross-case analysis has been presented by examining the findings based on the research questions that I have formed earlier. The next chapter will address these findings based on my interpretations and how these findings relate to the current literature.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

In the previous two chapters, the findings of this study were discussed by analysing the data through the examination of individual cases as well as across cases. This chapter focuses on bringing the findings together, by summarising the findings for each research question, which are then further addressed by highlighting emerging themes discussed in light of relevant literature. A similar structure to the previous chapter is used to ensure that the chapter stays logical and coherent.

The current study aimed to explore the instructional planning experience of TESL PSTs. In doing so, three research questions were formed to examine their practices during different stages of teaching:

1. How do TESL pre-service teachers plan for their lessons?
2. How do the TESL pre-service teachers make their interactive decisions?
3. How can TESL pre-service teachers' post-lesson reflections be described?

The discussion of these three phases of teaching is hoped to create a more comprehensive picture in understanding the experiences that PSTs go through when forming their professional knowledge base.

7.2 Planning Lessons

In examining the PSTs' planning reflection, as presented in the previous chapter, it was found that most of their planning reflections were influenced by several factors, namely their previous experience, knowledge of their students, level of self-efficacy, an 'expert-other' and their teaching beliefs. These factors influenced the PSTs' planning in two ways: one where there was observable action taken in response to the reflection done on influencing factors, and the other where no response is taken, yet references were made to factors, which will be discussed further in the next section.

7.2.1 The role of previous experience

It was found that among the factors influencing the PSTs' planning reflection was their previous experience. These experiences served as points of reference in some of the PSTs' planning reflections and decisions, namely in the aspect of selecting teaching approaches, classroom activities, and in terms of their time management. This is common among

teachers, where their instructional planning experience is not limited to fulfilling curriculum requirements, but is rather influenced by their experiences (Koni & Krull, 2015; Sardo, 1982).

Previous experience was found to help the PST make decisions in their teaching approaches when they plan for their lesson. The data indicated how the PSTs reflected on their past experience, and how their LPs were shaped in response to the experience that they had with the students. This was also found to be true in Clark and Yinger's (1987) interpretation of Yinger's (1980) work on teacher planning, where planning actions are normally drawn from previous experiences and prior planning. The data for the current study supports Clark and Yinger (1987), where in Leon's data for lesson one, it was found that his previous experience helped him decide the instructional strategies that he would like to use in his lesson. Lesson two also showed a similar pattern, where he wanted the students to be more responsive as compared to the previous lesson, where he consequently selected activities with a variety of task dynamics.

In a similar example, Carmel expressed how her classroom activity selection was based on her previous experience with the students in her third lesson. She further explained how a previous lesson did not go well and how she hoped that the current lesson was better. Although further details in terms of how she achieved the decision were limited in the data, the outcome of her thought was reflected in her LP-3, where the activities were deemed logical enough to be successful. However, this observation comes with caution due to the limited data presented by the participant. In a further examination of Carmel's data, it could be concluded that she had to some extent, formed teachers' *gestalts*, which is the teachers' perception of their 'here-and-now' situation, based on their classroom experience, which is always tacit or unarticulated (Korthagen, 2010). Carmel was not seen as actively using her experience in constructing her current lesson plan. In order for Carmel to actively build her knowledge on her past experience, she needs to consciously reflect on her past experience, as the knowledge that is formed by the teachers is largely subconscious, where progress in the knowledge could only happen through conscious reflection on the tacit knowledge (Gün, 2014; Morton & Gray, 2010).

Time management is also another aspect of planning reflections where the PSTs were found to be utilising their previous experience as an influencing factor. Similar patterns were observed in the cases of Aleya and Aqma, where their concern regarding time management was whether or not they would have enough time to complete the activities. Aleya further described that time spent in the classroom can be 'unpredictable' while

Aqma reflected on whether the students would fulfil her expectations and finish the task on time. The notion ‘unpredictable’ and ‘expectation’ suggests that these PSTs were making references to their previous experience with the students, which matched the description of how teacher expectation is built as given by Rubie-Davies, Hattie and Hamilton (2006). In dealing with the nature of unpredictability in terms of time management, both PSTs were found to deal with the issue by specifying the exact time duration for each activity planned for the lessons. Besides reflecting on having too much time, Leon reflected that he had more time than he expected in conducting his third lesson. This could be attributed to the fact that his third lesson focused on discussing exam papers and this was his first experience in holding such a lesson.

These data discussed above demonstrate the value of making reference to prior experience in planning for a lesson. Generally, the PSTs were able to make some references to their past experience in making their planning decisions. However, these references were found to be inconsistent in their planning, where some were able to make decisions based on their past experience in some lessons, while some made references, but no observable planning decision was seen to be made. Conway (2001) called for teachers to be able to turn ‘inward’, look at one’s experience and utilise it to form future expectations, which was demonstrated by the PSTs. Perhaps one of the explanations for the phenomena is that offered by Tsui (2009b), where she argued that in order to become an expert teacher, one has to be able to ‘engage in conscious and deliberate reflection’ on their practices. This will in turn enable them to make tacit knowledge that is formed from their experience explicit, which will then help them to progress in their teaching. Furthermore, Clark and Yinger (1987) considered planning to be recursive, where teachers make references to their previous knowledge and experience in making their planning decisions. PSTs should be able to not only retrieve their previous experience while planning, but also respond to the previous experience by making relevant decisions with regards to their lesson plans.

7.2.2 Knowledge of students

The next influencing factor on the PSTs’ planning decision is their knowledge on the students. This finding resonates with Koni and Krull’s (2015) review of past studies of teacher planning, where he found that teachers are prone to think about the students’ characteristics prior to thinking about learning objectives. The importance of thinking about the students while planning is further corroborated by Farrell (2013), who added that teachers must be able to acknowledge knowing about the students as individuals and not just their characteristics as a group. The PSTs were found to make decisions on their

selection of teaching approach, classroom activities and time management based on their knowledge of the students, which included students' schemata, behaviour and their levels of proficiency.

For her first lesson, Nelly seemed concerned about her time management, as she related her knowledge of how the students would have problems focusing on the task given. Her LP-1 indicated this concern when she specified the amount of time that she wanted the students to spend on the activity. However, there were contradicting time indications, as although Nelly spoke about her knowledge of the students, as what mentioned by Farrell (2013), Koni and Krull (2015), Tsui (2009b) and Ball et. al (2007), her decision for planning does not seem to reflect this knowledge. The explanation could perhaps be from Korthagen's (2010) notion of tacit knowledge, where some teachers require help in making this type of knowledge explicit.

In deciding her teaching approach for her second lesson, Nelly was also found to be basing her decision on her knowledge of the students' schemata. She explained how she knew that the students had limited knowledge of the literary text that she wanted to use, but she did not want the lesson to be too teacher-centred so she subsequently decided to get the students to present the text themselves. This is a valuable trait for a PST as this action resonates with the characterisation of how an expert teacher plans, which includes an awareness and response to the aspect of how well the teachers know the students including their individual characteristics, motivation, schemata and interests (Ball et. al, 2007; Koni & Krull, 2015; Tsui, 2009). It suggests that unlike her first lesson, Nelly made an informed decision on her teaching approach, based on what she knew about the students' schemata.

Knowledge of the students also influenced Aqma's planning reflections in her selection of classroom activities for her second and third lesson in the OEQs. In her second lesson, Aqma demonstrated her awareness of the students' proficiency levels by acknowledging that she had a mixture of proficiency levels in her class in OEQ-2. The same awareness of the different proficiency levels was repeated in a very similar voice in her OEQ-3 where she further related the challenges that she faced in finding not only suitable, but also, interesting activities for them. However, this finding was absent from the LPs for both lessons, which did not indicate that the classroom activities that she prepared for both lessons tried to cater to the different proficiency levels. Although students' proficiency levels were not explicitly mentioned in the literature, Aqma's data from her OEQs did communicate this knowledge to some extent. Arguably, this particular finding

demonstrated how she was able to put some thoughts into the students' proficiency levels, although this was not reflected in the LPs that she prepared, which was supported by Koni and Krull (2015) in their review of past literature on teacher planning that placed a heavy emphasis on the characteristics of learning activities alongside the students' characteristics.

A similar finding across all three examples appear to contradict the idea put forth by Tsui (2009), where she discussed the knowledge of students in the light of knowing the students individually as opposed to characterising them as a group. The PSTs appear to characterise their students as a group, without any indication of how the students differ individually, demonstrating that this could perhaps be too sophisticated a notion for beginning teachers. Another salient finding that needs to be discussed is how the PSTs were able to reflect on the factors that they think about when planning their lessons, but was not consistent in applying what they know about the students in the design of their LP, which contradicted the characteristics of an expert teacher as described by Farrell (2013). In his study, he described part of the characteristics of an expert teacher as being able 'integrate and use different kinds of knowledge', which appeared to be absent in the PSTs' through these observations (p. 1073). In helping to close this gap between the PSTs' practices and those of an expert teacher, engaging PSTs in conscious reflection could help, as suggested by Morton and Gray (2010).

7.2.3 Level of self-efficacy

Another factor that influenced the PSTs' planning reflection was their level of self-efficacy. The work by Bandura (1977) described efficacy as the amount of effort one is willing to put in and the duration of time that they are able to persist under constant challenges. In expanding the notion to teacher education, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) proposed that more empirical data has been found linking the level of self-efficacy with the level of effort that a trainee teacher will put in their practice.

This particular factor was found to be prominent in Nelly's data, where self-efficacy could have influenced her planning reflections, specifically the selection of her classroom activities. Nelly contemplated whether her activities should lean more towards the 'fun' or more 'serious' side of the continuum. From the data, it could be inferred that Nelly felt defeated in finding activities that may trigger the students' interests, where she felt that regardless of what she does, it would be in vain as she felt that the students were not motivated to learn. Although the corresponding lesson plan showed otherwise, Nelly's defeated feeling is commonly associated with having low self-efficacy. Faez and Valeo

(2012) regard self-efficacy as a concept that is ‘highly-situated’ or context-specific, where teachers would normally form their self-efficacy appraisal after they have evaluated the task and skills that are needed to fulfil the task. In other words, this explained why Nelly’s display of low self-efficacy was found to be sporadic throughout the three lesson observations, where at times she felt helpless and defeated. Faez and Valeo (2012) added that self-efficacy is not consistent, which is attributed to the fact that it is highly contextualised. Another finding in the data that resonates with the inconsistency of teachers’ self-efficacy was as Nelly wrote in her LP-3 about putting in some effort to make sure that the activity interests the students by including a quiz competition as opposed to having a lesson based on ‘chalk-and-talk’, a notion used in the Malaysian context where teaching is highly teacher-centred. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) described how research was still limited in finding the causes of self-efficacy but offered some insight into four possible sources, as suggested by Bandura (1993), which are mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion and psychological arousal. While mastery experiences deal with the satisfaction received from past teaching success, vicarious experience occurs when the target teaching action is modelled by someone else, verbal persuasion comes from interpersonal support offered by the school administrator, parents, fellow colleagues or any other stakeholders, and psychological arousal stems from the pleasure and joy received from teaching (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Although the notion above was clearly described, it is inconclusive whether Nelly’s level of self-efficacy was caused by any of these factors, as the data was in a sense limited to be able to make such a conclusion. Even so, Klassen and Tze (2014) strongly suggest that teacher training programmes should provide ample opportunities to raise the PSTs’ senses of self-efficacy, by providing supportive feedback, exposing them to competent models, and to manage any emotions that may hamper their teaching effectiveness, as needed by Nelly.

7.2.4 Teaching beliefs

Teaching beliefs were also found to be an influencing factor in the PSTs’ planning reflections, influencing their planning in terms of their teaching approach, managing students and managing their instruction. In defining what is meant by teaching beliefs in this research, a reference to Borg (2003) is apt where he proposed teacher beliefs as part of a bigger concept, which is teacher cognition. On the other hand, Pajares (1992) described teacher belief as a set of perception and judgment that influences the teachers’ practice inside or outside the classroom. Therefore, taking on these two definitions,

beliefs could be regarded as the mental representation of what teachers think and believe that influences teacher practice. Tillema (2000), in her review of past teacher beliefs research concluded that teachers bring with them their own beliefs into their teaching practice. Although some scholars view teaching beliefs as inflexible (Borg, 2011; Kagan, 1992; Peacock, 2001), others have contested this by discussing how teacher beliefs can change (Cabarroglu & Roberts, 2000; Tillema, 2000; Yuan & Lee, 2014). A further example on the dynamics of teaching beliefs was the work of Borg (2011) when he examined the beliefs of six in-service teachers, where he found that beliefs may be viewed in a developmental perspective, where it could be strengthened or expanded. With regards to this, three patterns of teacher beliefs were found from the data, one was retained throughout all three lesson observations, one appeared to 'regress' and the other was a one-off instance.

Aleya was the only PST that displayed her belief consistently throughout the three lesson observations: she formed a belief that having a coherent lesson was important to her when planning for her lessons. Her belief in having a coherent lesson could also be described as expanding. The belief for the first lesson was focused on getting the lesson to be coherent in terms of the transition between her teaching stages, proceeding to ensure that the lesson was coherent in terms of content in her second lesson and finally, in her third lesson, her teaching belief appeared to combine both coherence, in terms of lesson transition and content. This resonates Borg's (2011) findings in his study where beliefs could be seen as developing or expanding. In understanding teacher belief formation and change, Tillema (2000) also asserts that the belief construction is largely accommodated by the teachers' immersion in teaching practice where these beliefs may be adapted. In the case of Aleya, the IDs that she was forced to make led her to reflect on her lesson coherence, where she felt that the pacing of the lesson could have been better. This finding is also supported by Richardson (1996) whose work described teaching beliefs as the driving force of action and that experiences resulting from the actions could also form add to existing teacher beliefs. In using Cabarroglu and Roberts' (2000) range of teacher belief change, Aleya demonstrated 'elaboration or polishing', which meant that the belief is reconstructed with either the act of omitting or adding different dimensions to their existing beliefs. Arguably, in order to do so, the teacher could engage herself in an active post-lesson reflection (Farrell & Ives, 2015), as what Aleya did for her first lesson.

Another finding in terms of how teaching beliefs influence planning reflections lies in the case of Aqma, whose planning reflection demonstrated how her beliefs seemed regress from

her first to her second lesson. In her first lesson, she was observed to be adamant in thinking that her lesson should provide clear instruction to the students. Her LP-1 corroborated this as she specified the instructions for each activity that she had planned in detail. As a result, the lesson went smoothly. In her second lesson, her planning reflections' focus shifted to thinking about the students' proficiency levels and her time management, where no emphasis was placed on how she was going to manage her instructions. This resulted in her lesson delivery being quite chaotic when the students did not understand what they were supposed to do, due to her lack of instructions before the activity commenced. Her belief in having clear instruction during the lesson seemed to have 'regressed' and this affected her lesson delivery. Unlike Aleya, Aqma's data does not seem to fit with Cabaroglu and Roberts' (2000) range of teacher belief change. The closest description would be 'reordering', where the beliefs are reordered based on their perceived level of importance. However, this is difficult to confirm, as the aspect of managing instruction did not appear to be re-ordered, but instead it seemed like it was not thought about during the planning reflection.

Teacher belief was also found to be influencing Carmel's planning reflections and decisions in terms of her classroom management in selecting the task dynamics for her classroom activities. She was found to be quite adamant in expressing her belief that for her class individual work works better than group work, as she adjusted her belief from her prior experience dealing with the class. This could be seen to overlap with the aspect of previous experience, where Aqma's belief was arguably altered by her teaching experience as proposed by Richardson (1996). Tillema (2000) further suggested that in order for a belief change to occur, a post-lesson reflection could have a positive impact, as this allows the PST to raise their awareness of the meanings of their practice. Another interesting finding with regard to Carmel's belief formation is that it was only found in her first lesson, not in her second or third. While one may argue that this could indicate that this resembled an incidental reflection rather than belief imposition, her second and her third lessons included only individual work. According to Cabaroglu and Roberts' (2000) range of teacher belief change, this could indicate 'consolidation or confirmation', as they display consistent existing beliefs and the learning process makes their belief to become more established.

7.2.5 The role of the mentor

The final factor found to influence the PSTs' planning reflections was the mentor. In the present study, the mentor was the cooperating teacher who played both the role of an advisor and an evaluator in assessing the PSTs' progress in their practicum. In the view

of Calderhead and Shorrock (1997), the mentors' roles are significant in the teacher education setting because they provide the PSTs with information about teaching, advice, feedback about their practice and act as counsellors to the PSTs should things go wrong. In the present study, Leon demonstrated how his mentor influenced his planning decision in terms of the selection of his classroom activity.

Leon explained his concern about his selection of classroom activity for his second lesson, where he was not sure whether the activities matched the students' levels of proficiency. He also indicated a solution to this dilemma by seeking advice from his mentor, where he heeded her advice, demonstrating the mentor was highly regarded in this instance. This echoed the findings of Lloyd (2017), who found that novice teachers often seek advice from teachers who are more experienced than them in making decisions about their practice. Furthermore, what the mentor did with Leon was what Calderhead and Shorrock (1997) suggested as influencing by example, through providing a model for the students, which could be in the form of suggested lesson plans as well as ideas for activities. The mentor is regarded as the source of actions and solutions. However, mentors using this type of mentoring need to exercise caution as this 'directive' mentoring style, which could include giving opinions and advice, would not allow the PSTs to develop their knowledge to a high level (Mena, Hennissen, & Loughran, 2017). Mena et al. (2017) further elaborated that when mentors engage in a 'directive' mentoring style, the PSTs will not be able to express their knowledge as much, as compared with when mentors use a 'non-directive' mentoring style. In other words, mentors have to be careful with their mentoring style to refrain from 'prescribing' a solution to the PSTs as this would not help the PSTs to develop their understanding about teaching. This notion is similar to the notion of reflective practice put forth by Conway (2001) in the sense that if PSTs are not helped to examine their practices 'inward', they will not be able to construct meaningful future plans from their experiences. Therefore, mentoring types and processes could be exploited to help PSTs to become more reflective on their practices by taking a less 'directive' process in their mentoring style, which in turn will contribute to the PSTs' process of building a professional knowledge base.

In conclusion, in the instructional planning decision-making process, the PSTs were influenced by their previous experience, knowledge of their students, level of self-efficacy, teaching beliefs and mentors. In examining these influencing factors, it can be concluded that the PSTs were able to make sensible reflections on their planning, for example, anticipating problems with the lesson, but some were found to make

contradicting decisions when the actual planning took place. This reaffirms that perhaps the notion of teacher gestalts, where teachers may form ‘here-and-now’ perceptions that are tacit, which requires them to be engaged in conscious reflection (Morton & Gray, 2010), had indeed played a role in the PSTs’ planning process. Baylor (2002, p. 10) provided empirical evidence that “increased metacognitive awareness would probably lead PSTs to a richer and a more comprehensive understanding and appreciation of the planning process.” Tsui (2009) further added that a distinct difference between a novice and an expert teacher was making tacit knowledge explicit through conscious deliberation, a notion that PSTs should be aiming for. In the present study, this could be achieved by engaging in conscious reflection through helpful mentoring processes, their past experience, knowledge of students, levels of self-efficacy and teaching beliefs that could be effectively utilised further when they plan for their lessons, thus creating more effective lesson plans.

7.3 Interactive Decisions

Planning decisions provide a roadmap to a lesson, however, Clark and Peterson (1976) posit that initial teaching performance will generate some changes in both students and teachers. As the lesson unfolds, changes may inevitably happen due to the complexity of the classroom dynamics, which may include “interruptions, surprises and digressions” as mentioned by Clark and Peterson (1986) in Knezevic and Scholl (1996, p. 87). The complexity and the rapid development of a lesson require the teacher to “rely upon immediate, intuitive, or routine decision-making” (Calderhead, 1984, p. 4). In making these types of decisions, much research has distinguished the differences between how expert and novice teachers approach their IDs based on the amount of schema and extent of teaching repertoire that each teacher group has built based on their experience (Berliner, 1987; Carter, Sabers, Cushing, Pinnegar and Berliner, 1987; Farrell, 2013; Livingston and Borko, 1989; Tsui, 2009a; Tsui, 2009b; Westerman, 1991).

In discussing the IDs taken by the PSTs, the previous chapter presented the ‘change cycle’ that was commonly found across the participants when they made IDs that began with ‘triggers’. The IDs that the PSTs took during the lessons were driven by three triggers, which are responding to student cues, unmet expectations and unexpected events. In responding to these triggers, five practices worth discussing in terms of the PSTs’ IDs are the role of previous experience, management of expectation, punitive vs. redirection to task, flexibility and immediacy in their interactive decision-making.

7.3.1 Role of previous experience

In dealing with distracted students as well as disruptive behaviours, it was found that the PSTs relied on their previous experience. Their previous experience was found to shape the classroom management techniques that they used to stop the students' disruptive behaviours. For example, Aqma's unique classroom management technique was picked up during her teacher-training programme at the university. Aqma and Carmel also called out students' names, which they found to be useful based on their previous experience dealing with the students. Nelly, who formed an expectation based on her previous experience with the students becoming disruptive, immediately asserted control by closely monitoring them during the classroom activity. These actions were found to be effective in curbing the disruptive behaviour from progressing any further.

The role of past experience contributes to the schema built up as discussed by Westerman (1991) and Lloyd (2017). They described that these schemas help teachers make effective decisions in the classroom. However, several authors claim that the availability of the schema varies greatly between novice and expert teachers, where expert teachers have more schema, built from their years of teaching experience {Borko, 2008 #212; Calderhead, 1984; Farrell, 2013; Hall and Smith, 2006; Tsui, 2009a; Tsui, 2009b; Westerman, 1991) This schema is not only available to them, but experts are able to selectively choose the type of schema that they would like to use in addressing certain instructional challenges. In addition, Clarridge and Berliner (1991) found that novice teachers were not able to recall disruptive behaviours during their lessons, when they were asked about them post-lesson.

The data from the current study contested Hogan et al. (2003) by indicating that the PSTs in the present study were able to retrieve some of these schemas that were built from their previous experience and used them to tackle off-task behaviours that the students had shown during the lessons. Borg (2003) argues that the PSTs do have some schema built it them based on their past experience in schooling and being students themselves. It is also worth noting that past research had indicated that beginning teachers tend to place more focus on classroom management issues instead of instructional delivery (Calderhead, 1984). Due to this fact, it may be possible that the PSTs developed sufficient schema for them to be able to identify alarming student behaviours during lessons. Although the PSTs were able to identify and react to the student cues in their lessons, the more important issue is examining the manner in which the PSTs responded to the events by stopping the behaviours from progressing any further. Questionably, although the

PSTs were able to do so, there is room for better intervention in students' 'off-task' behaviours, as discussed in the next section.

7.3.2 Punitive vs. redirection to task

In dealing with student misbehaviour, Kyriacou (2014) emphasised the importance of re-engaging the students with the classroom task as quickly as possible. Westerman's (1991) findings supported this when he found that novice teachers in his study dealt with student misbehaviour by using punitive actions that may 'tune-out' the students from the lesson, unlike expert teachers who handled similar situations with their more sophisticated repertoire of management techniques. The expert teachers in the study were found to show students that they were aware of the misbehaviour, and implicitly reprimanded them by getting them to be more involved in the classroom tasks. This ensures that the lesson objectives are not compromised by unacceptable behaviour in the classroom.

Nevertheless, the findings of the current study, as described in section 7.3.1 above, showed that the PSTs' actions in responding to the students' cues were more to stop the behaviour from progressing than redirecting them to the task. Calling out individual student names, using 'Hello...Hi' and exercising immediate facilitation arguably only stop the 'off-task' behaviours from progressing further, but none of them showed any evidence of redirecting individual students who misbehaved back to the classroom tasks, which may affect overall student achievement (Westerman, 1991). Instead, after reprimanding the students to stop the 'off-task' behaviour, the teacher moved on with the lesson as a whole-class activity, which did not ensure that those who produced the 'off-task' behaviour focused on the lessons.

In examining the PSTs' practice when dealing with students' cues, it is apparent that the PSTs were alert and aware of behavioural issues that needed their attention, which is the first crucial step in having good classroom management skills. What is ideal is getting the PSTs to progress a step further by redirecting individual students who produced 'off-task' behaviours to the task given to them in the first place, as suggested by Westerman (1991). Although some researchers posit skilful classroom management will develop through time and experience (Kyriacou, 2009), some researchers argue that these PSTs could be trained or helped in responding to the students' cues better during their practicum through coaching and training as suggested by Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, and Leutner (2015). They found that in their research, training in classroom management skills improved the beginning teachers' ability to minimise classroom disturbances, which in turn improved classroom instruction. The PSTs in the current study did undergo a classroom

management course that was part of the teacher-training curriculum. However, the findings suggest some level of detachment between what was learnt during their training versus what experience during practicum, as compared to that in Dicke et al. (2015), where beginning teachers underwent training concurrently with teaching. Although Dicke et al. (2015) suggested effectiveness in training classroom management skills, a more practical solution could lie in getting the students to become more aware of their practice through engaging them in reflective practice, where they could be urged to examine their current practices and make future plans from the experiences that are made explicit through reflective practice (Morton & Gray, 2010).

7.3.3 Managing expectation

Closely related with the issue discussed above is the issue of managing expectations. This part of the discussion is going to be two-fold, on the formation of the expectation as well as responding to unmet expectation. In the case of Nelly and Leon, it was clear that in their lesson twos, they planned that the activities relied on the students' ability to finish their assigned homework, though it did not end up being completed by the students. Leon's management of expectation could not be commented on further as his third lesson did not require the students to complete any homework as part of the classroom activity. However, in Nelly's case, her third lesson went astray because the students did not complete an assigned homework, which was reading activity. It appeared as though her expectations for the students were not modified based on her previous experience.

Rubie-Davis et. al. (2006) suggest that teacher expectations are built upon information related to a host of individual student characteristics. This informs us that teachers form expectations based on what they know of students. In both cases, the PSTs expected the students to be able to complete the tasks prior to the lesson, an expectation that was not met. Rubie-Davis et. al. (2006) argued that if an expectation is sustained, disregarding any evidence of change, the students' progress may be impeded. This is understandable as 'sustaining expectation' suggests that teachers do not re-examine and remodify their expectations based on the students' performance. Nelly's data goes concurrently with Rubie-Davis et al.'s (2006) description of 'sustaining expectation' where the expectations were not altered regardless of change being shown. In discussing Nelly's case, Conway's (2001) notion of encouraging teachers to turn 'inward' to examine their practices appears to be relevant. Nelly could perhaps adjust her expectations for the students, which would in turn allow her to focus on more important instructional decisions, such as helping the students to achieve the lesson objectives by completing the

tasks planned. What Nelly experienced in this instance was similar to Carmel's planning experience, where she was not seen to be actively building her knowledge based on her past experience. Nelly's case supported Gün (2014) and Morton and Gray's (2010) suggestion that teacher knowledge can only advance when tacit knowledge is made explicit through conscious reflection.

The second part in managing expectations when making IDs is responding to unmet expectations. In both the cases of Leon and Nelly, Leon could be seen to make a more effective decision where he swapped his activities around so he would not be stuck with the activity that required the students to finish their assigned homework. Furthermore, he was able to justify this in his post lesson reflection, which will be discussed further in section 7.4. Nelly, however, appeared to be stuck with her decision to allow extra time for the students to finish the assigned homework, a decision that cost her time that would have been used in the second activity. Leon displayed more flexibility in how he managed the situation when compared to Nelly.

7.3.4 Flexibility in responding

Being flexible with the plans that they have set was also found to be an important aspect in making IDs for the PSTs in the current study. In the current study, there was a mixture of data where some PSTs demonstrated how they were more flexible than others in making their IDs. Authors such as Livingston and Borko (1989) and Parker and Gehrke (1986) identified this as improvisational skills to the lessons, given the progress of the lessons based on the students' responses and progress.

Carmel's ability to change the task dynamics from the planned individual work to group task in her lesson one was an example of how she was flexible with changes when necessary. This occurred after she established that she believed in the power of individual work as compared to group work for her students. Her third activity also demonstrated a similar skill, when she saw that some instructional steps became irrelevant to the lesson, prompting her to skip the planned steps. Leon showed the second demonstration of flexibility in his second lesson when he swapped his second activity with the first, as the students did not complete their assigned task for the planned activity one. In their study, Livingston and Borko (1989) found similar findings where the novice teachers did not have any problems with improvising their pacing, timing, and providing adequate examples based on the students' responses. The data from these two PSTs also demonstrate what Parker and Gehrke (1986) described as decisions that include selecting and rejecting alternatives during the lessons that needed to be taken to suit the students'

needs. In other words, assessing what the current situation is and making changes to the initial plans formed prior to the lesson.

Although the two PSTs were able to demonstrate their ability to improvise given teaching situations, Aleya showed otherwise when she encountered a technical glitch in her lesson three. She spent almost 15 minutes trying to get the LCD projector to work, which showed her lack of ability to improvise or to move to any contingency plans. Borko and Livingston (1989) argue that novice teachers are incapacitated at times in retrieving the right schema to work with, as their schema is often limited. Perhaps the contrasting evidence between the PSTs suggests that schema development could differ for individual teachers based on personal philosophies that could influence a teacher's practice (Farrell, 2014), which are a set of beliefs shaped by one's personal experience, upbringing and values. The point is that these PSTs should also be attributed as individuals, rather than be categorised as a general group, without placing any importance on the individuality that they bring to their practice.

7.3.5 Immediacy in responding

Immediacy in making IDs, especially in dealing with student cues was a valuable trait found in the PSTs' IDs. Tsui (2009b) characterised expertise by the ability of the teacher to respond to the complexity in the classroom by being able to respond to the classroom dynamic almost immediately, among other things. This is corroborated by Clark (1988), where he described effective decision makers as making rapid judgments by chunking these events into several categories and being selective in actions that need teacher intervention.

Clark (1988) and Farrell (2013) supported the findings of the current research where all three examples described in section 7.3.1 are indications that they were able to respond to the student cues before it progressed any further. The PSTs were found to immediately use the 'Hello...Hi' technique, calling out the students' names as well as immediately going around to monitor the students after the classroom activities were given out. Kyriacou's (2014) description of a number of qualities involved in making skillful and effective reprimands on student behaviour included that teachers should be pre-emptive, as tackling such issues before they are repeated and prolonged is deemed more effective. Although the perspective offered by Kyriacou (2014) is on managing student behaviour, the same perspective could also be applied to managing the tasks given to the students, where waiting too long to intervene may cause further problems in the lesson. An example of such a situation is from Nelly's lesson one, where she waited too long to provide an

intervention, when in fact she had realised that the students were already struggling with the activity that she provided. This caused her time management to go astray and she was not able to finish the other planned task.

To conclude, the interactive phase where learning takes place goes very rapidly and teachers normally rely on immediate, intuitive or routine decision-making (Calderhead, 1984). Nevertheless, scholars have also proposed that being intuitive highly relies on the availability of schema that can only be attained by many years of teaching experience or in other words, is only common among expert teachers (Carter, 1987; Hogan, 2003; Livingston, 1989; Tsui, 2009(a); Tsui, 2009 (b)). In aiding beginning teachers or PSTs, in this case, one way that could scaffold the process of being more intuitive and effective in their interactive decision-making skill is by engaging them in reflective practice, as this will enable them to analyse their own practices, which will in turn contribute to the building of their professional knowledge base.

7.4 Post-lesson Reflections

Soon after the lessons ended, the PSTs' post-lesson reflections were examined and it was found that their reflections on the lessons focused on both critical and non-critical incidents that were made during the lessons. These incidents were described as critical when it was found to have a more profound impact on the lessons, and when there were observable and apparent changes in the lesson outcomes. On the contrary, non-critical incidents were events that do not carry significant impact on the lesson outcomes. It was interesting to note the differences in the depth of the PSTs' post lesson reflections between these two types of incidents, where critical incidents were found to be reflected in only higher level reflections versus the others, where all three levels of reflections were engaged.

Over the years, many authors have described different levels of reflection (Jay & Johnson, 2002; Lee, 2005; Van Manen, 1977; Zeichner & Liston, 1987; Zwozdiak-Myers, 2010), as reviewed extensively in Chapter 3. For the purpose of this discussion, this section will use the terminology proposed by Lee (2005) will be used as headings to give a more concrete overview of the levels. However, in examining the data, references will also be made to other descriptions of reflective levels proposed by other authors. Critical or non-critical incidents will also be highlighted as the discussion on the reflective level progresses. This section will also examine how post-lesson reflections were used by the

PSTs in moving forward, by examining the role that reflections play in the preparations for their subsequent lessons.

7.4.1 Recall

In reflecting upon their lessons, Nelly and Carmel displayed the most basic level of reflection in describing the events and IDs that had transpired during the lesson, where one was more positive in her reflection than the other. A broader description of this level was proposed by Larrivee (2008) by using the term 'surface reflection'. She described this level of reflection as focusing on what is on the surface rather than examining what lies underneath the surface. This fits the data provided by both Nelly and Carmel as exemplified in the paragraphs below, where both of them stopped their reflection by selecting the incidents that they would like to examine and stopped short of examining the rationales behind the incidents.

In describing her IDs for her second and third lesson, Nelly's post lesson reflection involved a lot of frustration expressed particularly in relation to the students' motivation levels, where no further examination of why the students behaved in such a way was offered. Described by Lee (2005), this type of reflection can be categorised as the 'recall' level, where it involved identification of events, without any justification nor rationalisation. The basic description of how she felt about the students' motivation levels was also in relevance to how Schön (1983) described 'problem setting'. Jay and Johnson's (2002) interpretation of Schön's (1983) work resonated clearly with how Nelly described her lesson where they stated that problem setting may involve the teachers feeling the resistance from the students, but could not tell what the causes to the resistance were. The ability to identify events or problems is deemed crucial by Dewey (1933) in order for further levels of reflection to occur. This suggests that although Nelly felt less positive about her students' levels of motivation, her ability to identify the problems indicated the potential to reflect on a higher level. Another salient point made by Jay and Johnson (2002) was the importance of having a good judgement in portraying details in reflection. An example of such a reflection was given on how a child could be described as being disruptive versus a child who could not focus during reading, which may call for further instructional aid from the teacher. In examining Nelly's reflection above, there is perhaps more room to help her discern more detail about her post-lesson reflection.

On the contrary, Carmel's basic description of the events that transpired in her second lesson carried a more positive tone, where she was found to reflect on the students' excellent behaviour and their performance during the lesson. She indicated she was

surprised by how they were able to perform beyond her expectations. Nonetheless, similar to Nelly, she did not provide further examination of why this was so in her reflections, suggesting that she is also operating under the most basic level of reflection, which is to 'recall' (Lee, 2005). In Carmel's case, although there was no 'problem' to be identified per se, Kabilan's (2007) technique in his study that posed a question to his participants regarding an interesting technique or idea that they would like to further examine suggests that reflection should also involve examination of perceived success in the classroom. Jay and Johnson (2002) supported this by including 'Is this working?' as a typical question associated with the descriptive level of reflection. Hence, Carmel's 'recall' reflection for her second lesson demonstrated that the basic level of reflection should not only identify problems but also successes in a lesson for reflections to progress further.

Therefore, in examining the PSTs' post-lesson reflections, 'recall' was used to identify incidents that were not deemed critical to the lesson, which revolved around how the students responded to the lesson. The reflections on the students' responses involved a mixture of both success and a sense of frustrations, which according to Jay and Johnson (2002), should be done with consideration and care as reflecting without discerning details may prevent teachers from jumping to premature conclusions about a given classroom situation. This indicated that reflection at the lowest level could still be fruitful in improving practice, provided they it is done thoughtfully and with good judgment.

7.4.2 Rationalise

The second type of reflection that was found among the PSTs was 'rationalise' where associations were made between experience and practice, as well as to find justifications for particular incidents to add to the current knowledge (Larrivee, 2008; Lee, 2005). Some scholars also added to the description of this level of reflective practice by examining the alternative views of what is happening (Jay & Johnson, 2002), placing theory into practice (Van Manen, 1977) and examining their practice within the given context (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). In essence, engaging in this level of reflection goes beyond just describing the incidents that intrigue the practitioners, also including effort to further understand the situation through problems and alternative exploration.

The findings from the current study suggest that the PSTs reflected at this level for on incidents that they perceived as critical and non-critical. Critical examples involved decisions that affected the lesson outcomes, while non-critical examples revolved more around decisions that did not impact classroom performance on a wider scale. For example, Carmel reflected on the compensation strategy that she used in her third lesson,

when she missed some teaching steps. She elaborated on her action by examining what she did and how the decision helped the students' understanding. Another critical incident that Leon reflected on was his flexibility in moving his activity around in his first lesson. He rationalised how he felt that the swapping of the activities worked for the students. A similarity between the two PSTs was their ability to examine what contributed to the success of their IDs. This type of reflection was found to be useful as the PSTs were able to rationalise why certain practices in their lessons were successful, as suggested by Lee (2005) where he asserted that engaging in this level of reflection formulates guiding principle for further practice.

A majority of PSTs were also found to engage in the 'rationalise' level of reflection for incidents that were not perceived as critical. For example, Aleya reflected on her compensation strategy of using A4 sized paper instead of the flip-chart that she had forgotten to bring to class, and realised the missed opportunity to boost the students' sense of achievement by using the A4 papers. Carmel was found trying to make sense of why the students appeared to be more focused in a lesson as compared to a previous lesson. Aqma also reflected on a similar issue where she found that her explanation helped the students to make associations between the current lesson and a previous one. Nelly's rationalisation for why her students were not as responsive in her first lesson also indicated how the PSTs were found to rationalise on aspects that were not only perceived as critical, but also those that were less critical as well.

By examining the examples drawn from the data, it was apparent that the students were able to reflect at a higher level than merely describing an incident from their lesson. The descriptions of the 'rationalise' level of reflection as given by Jay and Johnson (2002), Larrivee (2008), Lee (2005), Van Manen (1977) and Zeichner and Liston (1987) were supported by the examples taken from the data, where the PSTs managed to display their justification and rationalise their decisions in the classroom. However, a more important question exists on whether these reflections were utilised for further practice as suggested by Morton and Gray (2010). Section 7.4.4 will discuss this issue further.

7.4.3 Reflective

Although different terminologies are used to label the third level of reflection, scholars seem to agree it would include justifications of incidents as well as putting theory into a more contextualised practice by making connections between segregated events, which will further inform practice (Jay & Johnson, 2002; Larrivee, 2008; Lee, 2005; Van Manen, 1977; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). However, differences were found in defining

the third level of reflection where some scholars suggest that this level should include approaching experience with the intention to make better changes in the future (Jay & Johnson, 2002; Lee, 2005), to a more sophisticated extent of considering their practices to involve moral, socio-political as well as historical impact on education (Farrell, 2016; Valli, 1990) and the examination of self-belief and self-principles (Larrivee, 2008). Nonetheless, the data drawn from the current study indicated the PSTs ability to reflect only up to the point of intention to change certain aspects to improve practice in the future, with no signals indicating consideration of moral, socio-political and self-beliefs.

In examining the PSTs' post-lesson reflections, a common similarity was found with two PSTs, Aleya and Aqma. They both engaged in the third level of reflection when their IDs brought negative impact to their lessons. For example, Aleya's response to the technical glitch caused her to lose 15-20 minutes of her lesson because she was too persistent in trying to get the LCD projector to work, instead of moving on to a different plan. She acknowledged this, when she mentioned how she wished she had prepared a Plan B, instead of wasting her time on the LCD projector. Her realisation of the need to have a backup plan, resonated with Lee (2005) and Jay and Johnson's (2002) descriptions of a 'reflective' level, where consideration of how things can be made better in the future is deemed crucial in reflecting at a higher level. Aqma also supported this description when she identified how her poor instructions impacted the students' understanding, and that she should write the instructions on the board in the future. Therefore, these two PSTs indicated that they are more likely to engage in 'reflective' reflection when there are perceived negative impacts from their IDs in class.

On the other hand, the PSTs were also found to produce 'reflective' levels of reflection when talking about their pedagogical concerns, even though no apparent impact was observed during the lessons in this regard. For example, Aleya wanted to perform better in terms of her lesson coherence by improving her pace in teaching, specifically moving from one stage to the other. Leon was also found to express how he could have done better in terms of his lesson explanations, providing more explicit information to his students. From the lesson observations, both aspects did not impact the lesson outcomes as much as those reflected by Aleya and Aqma in the earlier paragraph, which suggests that some PSTs were able to reflect on pedagogical issues, even when there were no apparent impacts on the lessons. It was also apparent in these cases that both PSTs were able to produce 'reflective' levels of reflections, but they were limited to looking towards improving future practices, as suggested by Lee (2005) and Jay and Johnson (2002).

In exploring possible explanations for why the PSTs' 'reflective' reflections were limited to only what they wanted to improve in the future and did not include any indication of moral, socio-political or self-beliefs (Farrell, 2016; Larrivee, 2008; Valli, 1990), Larrivee (2008) indicated that unless they are given carefully constructed guidance, novice and prospective teachers are likely to reflect at the surface level, or in this study, the 'recall' level. Contextually, this resonated with the research context, where the PSTs did not receive any prescribed prompts to use during their practicum, where the type of guidance received is mostly unconstructed and varies between supervisors. Besides receiving guidance, another aspect that could perhaps explain the absence of examination of moral, socio-political and self-beliefs is the expert-novice notion in teaching practice, as suggested by Farrell (2013). His findings suggest that expert teachers have a lot of schema to draw from, which enabled them to examine their practice at a more holistic level, where some were even able to reflect on "how their jobs fit into their lives" (p. 1075). Tsui (2009) added the importance of making tacit knowledge explicit was also common among expert teachers, which echoed the suggestion by Korthagen (2010). Thus, it could be suggested that perhaps in encouraging the PSTs to reflect at a higher level, they could be aided in consciously thinking about their practices, either through the act of carefully constructed guidance or through conversations that may scaffold the process of promoting reflection at a higher level.

7.5 Connecting the Dots: Building a Professional Knowledge Base

In building their professional knowledge base, it is said that teachers draw upon the rhythmic cycle of planning, teaching and evaluation (Morton & Gray, 2010). This means that the knowledge base is stacked upon from experience that was formed during the three different stages of teaching. Although the three areas are distinctive from one another in terms of the demands that they pose to teachers, Clark and Yinger (1977) stressed the importance for research to examine the subsequent actions that spring from teacher planning, as this may provide a more comprehensive view of teaching effectiveness. Yinger (1977) in Hall and Smith (2006) supported this in describing that the three stages are definitely not linear in nature, but rather cyclic, where each plan may be influenced by prior plans and teaching experience. The main point is, building a professional knowledge base requires teachers to be able to look back at what they did in the classroom and learn from that particular experience to make informed decisions, regardless of the stages of teaching they are in. Although some may argue that building this type of schema requires years of experience (Borko, Roberts & Shavelson, 2008; Calderhead, 1984;

Farrell, 2013; Hall & Smith, 2006; Tsui, 2009a; Tsui, 2009b; Westerman, 1991), some argued that given the right guidance, PSTs may be able to reflect more critically (Larrivee, 2008), which will in turn help them examine and improve their practice (Morton & Gray, 2010). The findings of the current study suggest four emerging patterns in the notion of using their prior experience for further practice. These patterns will be labelled as emerging, dissolving, recycled and segregated.

The first pattern identified is 'emerging', where there were aspects that were never highlighted as a concern during earlier lessons but appeared to be a result of an experience. Aleya indicated no concern in her earlier lessons on time management, but she displayed her concerns about managing her time better for her third lesson. This concern was accompanied by her decision to indicate specific timings that she wanted to have for individual activities. Although Aleya mentioned no explicit concerns in terms of her time management for her first and second lesson, the classroom observation indicated that she did face several problems in managing her time. Considering that there was a gap of four weeks in between lesson observations, there could have been missed 'learning experiences' that Aleya had gone through during that gap.

The second pattern in the utilisation of prior knowledge is 'regressing'; where there was ample reflection done on an aspect but the PST seemed to 'regress' in the performance of that particular aspect. This was clearly indicated in Aqma's case, where she was found to be quite persistent in her thoughts on how having a clear instruction was important for her lesson one. Her persistence was apparent across her planning, teaching and post-lesson reflection for lesson one. However, her second lesson went astray because of her lack of instruction to the students. This suggests that although an aspect has been thought through for a lesson, the teacher could slip back and 'regress' later.

'Recycled' is the third pattern of how the PSTs were found to utilise their previous experience in their practice. This is the 'ideal' pattern that is recommended by scholars who study teacher cognition. In 'recycling' their previous experience, teachers are recommended to base their practices, whether planning, teaching or evaluating their lessons on their previous experience. Carmel was found to 'recycle' her experiences in terms of her beliefs in the power of individual work for her class, instead of using group work. Her reflections for her first lesson concluded that individual work brought the best task dynamics for her lessons, and she was found to include only individual work for her subsequent lessons. Although Carmel's data suggested that she had indeed 'recycled' her experience, Pajares (1992) posits that beliefs are more inflexible than knowledge, which

could perhaps explain why Carmel was able to ‘recycle’ her experience in terms of the task dynamics. Nelly’s previous experience with the students’ responses and behaviour for her second lesson was ‘recycled’ to an extent, but only limited to her thoughts so she was not able to exploit the experience to her advantage as a teacher. Instead, she was found to express her disappointment with the students’ responses and behaviour with no observable action on her part to tackle the issue. Both these examples indicate how the experience can be recycled positively as well as negatively, where the teacher may not be able to react to the experience that they have constructed.

A final pattern that emerged from the PSTs’ data as to how they utilise their previous experience was ‘segregated’, a pattern that is the opposite of ‘recycled’. Mostly, the aspects that the PSTs were reflecting on, whether during planning, teaching, or reflection do not carry on through the stages, with the exception of the cases that were discussed in the paragraphs above. In other words, ‘segregated’ here refers to aspects that were not apparent during the other stages of the lessons. For example, if an aspect was reflected during planning, but other aspects appeared during teaching, and another during reflection, this is considered as the ‘segregated’ pattern.

These patterns indicate that although some of the PSTs were able to utilise their previous experience to a certain extent, but the data indicated the instability of their usage of their past experience in building their professional knowledge base. In building a professional knowledge base in teaching, the role of past experience plays a very important part (Koni & Krull, 2015; Korthagen, 2010). The data echoed the possibility that years of experience could help immensely in building schemata among novice teachers and PSTs, as suggested by Borko, Roberts, and Shavelson (2008), Calderhead (1984), Farrell (2013), Hall and Smith (2006), Tsui, (2009a), Tsui (2009b) and Westerman (1991). Nonetheless, these PSTs do show potential to identify these past experiences and build their professional knowledge based on these experiences, as some of them, although inconsistently, were able to show signs of re-examining their practices in improving, as suggested by Morton and Gray (2010). In doing so, the suggestion given by Larrivee (2008) to help PSTs to reflect more critically could perhaps be applied.

7.6 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the findings of the current research with regard to current literature. The chapter has also attempted to discuss the experiences of how the PSTs built their professional knowledge base in teaching by examining the relationships between the

different stages in a particular lesson and to the subsequent lessons. The following chapter will include suggestions for the future and implications of the current study.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive summary of the study. The findings of this research have revealed that the PSTs in the study were not able to consistently utilise their previous experiences in planning their subsequent lessons. In coming to conclusions, their experiences during planning, making IDs and post-lesson reflections were investigated in three lesson cycles. Upon summarising the key findings, their contributions will be addressed with regard to the research context, the participants in the study, empirical evidence for the literature, methodological contributions, and addressing the study's original findings. The chapter will also address how the findings will impact the teacher training community. The chapter ends with identifying the limitations and directions for possible future research.

8.2 Summary of the study

The current dissertation has presented the findings of a qualitative study exploring pre-service teachers' (PSTs) experiences in their instructional practice, particularly in their instructional planning process. The participants of the research were final year Teaching English as Second Language (TESL) PSTs, who were placed in Malaysian secondary public schools for their practicum.

The research was designed to understand the instructional planning of TESL PSTs. In the attempt to fulfil that aim, the research set out to include the exploration of their IDs while teaching, as well as examining their post-lesson reflection as suggested by Hall and Smith (2006), to provide a more holistic and comprehensive perspective into the whole teaching experience. This information is also used to understand how these stages develop over the course of a full lesson cycle and how this affects the TESL PSTs' subsequent instructional planning. Given these premises, the research questions that guided the current research are framed as:

1. How do TESL pre-service teachers plan for their lessons?
2. How do the TESL pre-service teachers make their interactive decisions?
3. How can TESL pre-service teachers' post-lesson reflections be described?

Due to the nature of the study, a qualitative research method was chosen. Five TESL PSTs were chosen based on convenience sampling. Each participant was observed for

three lessons and in each, they completed an open-ended questionnaire, submitted a copy of their lesson plan, underwent a lesson observation and participated in an interview, after the lesson ended. The open-ended questionnaire and lesson plan were used as means to collect data on the instructional planning process. Classroom observations together with the lesson plan were used to identify IDs made in the classroom while post-lesson interviews were held to elicit post-lesson reflections. This full data collection process was conducted a total of three times for each participant. The data collected were then coded and analysed.

Findings were presented in the form of individual case analysis and cross-case analysis. The individual case analysis was set to explore participants' experiences in planning for their lessons and to ensure that the flow of the lesson, from planning to post-lesson reflections, was not lost. A cross-case analysis approach was also used to generate a more comprehensive picture to respond to the research questions. The discussion focused on the factors influencing planning reflections, their interactive decision-making and the levels of reflection that the PSTs were involved in while describing their lessons. The discussion chapter also included a focus on the patterns of how the PSTs build their professional knowledge base, specifically with planning for their instruction as emerged across the lesson.

8.3 Summary of the findings

In addressing the research question, several patterns of how a current lesson influences subsequent instructional planning emerged from the data analysis. Four main patterns were identified from this data, specifically emerging, dissolving, segregating and recycling. 'Emerging' occurred when there were several instances of an aspect not being a concern in earlier lessons, but emerging as a result of a particular experience in other lessons. 'Dissolving' is the pattern found common among some PSTs, where it could also be used when a particular PST 'regresses' in some aspects, although she had shown quite a consistent performance on the particular aspect in earlier lessons. Some PSTs also displayed a pattern of the aspects that they are concerned with as being 'segregated' where they had no bearings to any of the lessons or stages of the lessons. The most 'ideal' pattern was 'recycled' where utilisation of previous knowledge was clearly portrayed in their subsequent instructional planning decisions. Therefore, although the PSTs displayed inconsistencies in utilizing their previous experience to plan their subsequent lessons, some were able to show that they did reflect on their experiences and capitalized on this

information in planning their subsequent lessons, which suggests potential for developing further.

In answering research question one with regard to how the PSTs plan their lessons, it was found that their planning approach could be described as either formulating beliefs or anticipating problems. The planning process was sometimes approached with a belief in mind on some aspects in teaching. In the current study these beliefs were in terms of how they view lesson coherence, management of their instructions and students, the selection of classroom activities and the selection of their teaching approach. Problem anticipation was another approach used by the PSTs when they planned for their lessons in terms of student and time management. The PSTs' planning approaches were discussed by examining the factors that influenced these approaches. The first factor was the role of their previous experience. In the current study, the PSTs were found to use their previous experience in making planning decisions with regards to choosing their teaching approaches, classroom activities and time management. Their knowledge of the students, which included how the students would respond, the students' schemata, and the students' proficiency levels influenced their planning in terms of time management, selection of teaching approach and their selection of classroom activities. A particular PST displayed signs of having low-self efficacy that could have influenced her planning decision in her selection of classroom activities. Approaching lesson planning with a set of beliefs also influenced the PSTs in their instructional planning decisions where the beliefs were seen to influence aspects such as lesson coherence, managing instructions and classroom management. Finally, an influencing factor in the PSTs' instructional planning decisions was the role that the mentor played during the planning process. For example, Leon implied that he included the mentor in most of his planning process and the decisions he made were influenced by their opinions. Thus, the PSTs' planning processes were mostly based on their beliefs or problem anticipation guided by either their past experience, knowledge of the students, level of self-efficacy, teaching beliefs, or mentor.

Research question two aimed to explore the IDs made by TESL PSTs during their lessons and revealed that the PSTs in the current study were driven by responding to student cues, unmet expectations, and unexpected events. The student cues included students' actions, such as appearing to be distracted from the task, appearing puzzled and not participating in the classroom activities. These actions forced the PSTs to change aspects of their classroom management, teaching steps, and management of the students. Secondly, the PSTs also made some changes to their time management and teaching steps to

accommodate the students' inability to rise to their expectations for completing assigned tasks. Finally, the occurrence of unexpected events also forced the PSTs to make IDs in their teaching steps and time management. In light of the findings, the discussion focused on the PSTs' practices in making these IDs. These IDs were discussed in terms of the role of previous experience, the PSTs' usage of punitive actions versus redirection to tasks, the way they managed expectations, and their flexibility and immediacy in responding to cues. The role of previous experience was found when the PSTs made changes to their classroom management decisions, where references were made to similar situations in previous lessons. In making these IDs on classroom management, the PSTs were found to approach dealing with students' misbehaviour in a more punitive manner, versus redirecting them to the assigned tasks as suggested by the literature on effective classroom management. It was also argued in the discussion that the PSTs were not using their experience enough to form their expectations for the students. Most of the expectations formed could have been altered, which would then allow the teachers to focus on other aspects of teaching, rather than making a change in aspects that could have been addressed if they had reflected on them. Being flexible and immediate in attending to classroom issues were also found to be traits that would ensure effective interactive decision-making by the findings. Thus, it could be concluded that the PSTs' IDs were driven by responding to student cues, unmet expectations, and unexpected events. The changes made showed several practices that characterized the PSTs' interactive decision-making skills, namely, the role of previous experience, being punitive versus using redirection to tasks, managing expectations, and being flexible as well as immediate in attending to the IDs.

In addressing research question three, the PSTs' post-lesson reflections examined both perceived 'critical' and 'non-critical' changes that they made in their classrooms. The perceived level of criticality was based on how much the change impacted the lessons in terms of observable and apparent changes to the lesson outcomes. These critical changes were reflected at the reflective and rationalise level. When the IDs taken were not perceived as critical, the level of reflections that were involved included all three levels of reflection, which were recall, rationalise and to be reflective.

In conclusion, the findings indicate that the PSTs were able to use their experiences in planning subsequent lessons. However, there were some inconsistencies, thus suggesting that these PSTs require support and guidance to be more conscious of their actions through engaging them in reflective practice.

8.4 Contributions of the study

The present research has made several contributions to the teacher training field in terms of the research context, the participants in this study, adding empirical evidence to the literature, methodological contributions, and an original finding on patterns of how the PSTs' lessons influence their subsequent instructional planning process.

8.4.1 The research context

As discussed in chapter 1, the Malaysia Education Blueprint drafted by the Ministry of Education Malaysia (2012) aims to improve the effectiveness of PSTs' professional development, partially by enhancing the practicum experience. However, for the past five years, research on PSTs' teaching practicum in the Malaysian context focused on perception, concerns, and attitudes on various issues (Berg & Smith, 2014; Low et al., 2017; Senom et al., 2013), the development of their beliefs (Berg & Smith, 2016; Othman & Kiely, 2016), reflective practice (Nambiar & Thang, 2016; Yaacob et al., 2014; Yee et al., 2017) as well as the development of their pedagogical content knowledge (Hosseini & Kamal, 2013; Leong et al., 2015), among other things. Although this signals that teacher training is an area of research interest in Malaysia, there appears to be a scarcity of research on the PSTs' instructional planning experience during the practicum, which is vital as understanding what PSTs go through during their instructional planning process allows the teacher training community to provide appropriate support to improve teacher training effectiveness.

The present research attempts to bridge this knowledge gap in various ways. The participants were TESL PSTs undergoing their teaching practicum in secondary schools in Malaysia. The research findings have informed the teacher training community, specifically in Malaysia, on how these teachers experienced the instructional planning process. An added value to the present research is that it is also not just limited to understand the PSTs' instructional planning experience, but also allows the researchers interested in this context to understand their instructional practice in terms of the IDs that the PSTs make during their lessons and how they reflect on them. It is hoped that the findings will enable teacher trainers to provide appropriate support to the PSTs in terms of 'recycling' their experiences or, in other words, to learn from their mistakes in planning future lessons. By doing so, it is hoped that this may contribute to the national aspiration to improve the effectiveness of trainee teachers' professional development.

8.4.2 Participants in this study

As mentioned earlier in chapter 3, there has been an extensive amount of research done on effective teaching (Cooper & McIntyre, 1996; Deming, 2014; W. Doyle, 1977; Farrell, 2015; Giovannelli, 2003; Kyriacou, 2009; Loughran, 2002; Medley, 1977; Muijs & Reynolds, 2011; Perrot, 1982; Qing, 2009) and expert teachers (Farrell, 2013; Gün, 2014; Johnson, 2005; Leinhardt, 1983; Tsui, 2003, 2005, 2009a, 2009b). However, there appears to be a gap in examining how PSTs are characterised in their teaching. This group could potentially have similar characteristics to novice teachers. Even so, novices are usually discussed in the comparative dimension alongside with expert teachers (S.-H. Ho & Liu, 2015; Hogan et al., 2003; Livingston & Borko, 1989; Lloyd, 2017; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Westerman, 1991; Wolff et al., 2015). Although they arguably are similar in some traits, it can also be argued that categorising and perceiving novices and PSTs to have similar traits as inaccurate, as the dynamics and contexts of both groups of teachers are different from one another.

As the participants of the current research were TESL PSTs, it is hoped that the current research has contributed to understanding how PSTs approach teaching better. The current research also has contributed to not just understanding PSTs that are undergoing practicum but highlighting some characteristics of PSTs in general.

8.4.3 Empirical evidence added to the literature

The findings of the study have also contributed to the existing body of literature in understanding what PSTs go through during instructional planning. Findings regarding planning decisions, IDs, and post-lesson reflection contribute to the broad context of literature on teacher behaviour and cognition, where the research community has always appeared interested in understanding how teachers behave and how their cognition is formed. The definition of teacher cognition as defined by Borg (2003) are actions that are not observable in teaching, namely teacher knowledge, beliefs and thoughts. Although the main aim of the study was to explore the instructional planning of TESL PSTs, the current research could also be referred to for the empirical evidence that it provided for each teaching stage, which makes the findings more versatile.

Besides contributing to the existing body of literature, the study also provided empirical evidence relating to Hall and Smith's (2006) suggestion on exploring planning, IDs, and reflections as a holistic process. As they discussed in their conceptual paper, research on teacher behaviour and cognition has always focused on the teaching stages separately;

however, they call for a more holistic approach in understanding how teachers behave and form their cognition. The findings of this research have attempted to address this by including data collected from all three stages of teaching. Furthermore, the current study took it slightly further by collecting data not from just one full lesson cycle, but from three. By doing so, it is hoped that the findings have covered as much ground as possible in terms of providing empirical evidence to understand teachers' instructional planning processed through a more holistic approach.

8.4.4 Methodological contribution

In terms of methodological contribution, the present research's design makes its contribution through the data collection process. Although the data collection methods have been used extensively individually, this research was designed to explore TESL PSTs' instructional planning process through a rigorous and multi-stranded data collection procedure.

As discussed in chapter 4, the study aimed to examine PSTs' instructional planning process by also examining their interactive decision-making process as well as their lesson evaluations. To collect the data for planning, open-ended questionnaires were distributed and lesson plans were also collected. Lesson observations and lesson plan analysis were carried out to understand their interactive decision-making process during teaching. Subsequently the PSTs were interviewed after their lessons to prompt their reflections on the lesson they just completed. Aiming for a gap of four weeks between each lesson, two more rounds of data collection took place, repeating the same methodology discussed above. It is vital to point out that the methodology allowed the research to capture as much data as it could to analyse what PSTs go through during instructional planning.

The same research design could perhaps be used in a longitudinal study for beginning teachers as well as for expert teachers, which could add to existing empirical data in understanding the instructional practices of these two groups of teachers.

8.4.5 Original findings

The most significant contribution that the study has made in understanding PSTs' instructional planning process was to identify patterns in the notion of using prior experience for subsequent lesson planning. Most studies relevant to the current research examined planning, interactive decision-making, and reflection as separate stages, thus preventing analysis from being done on how planning develops over lessons and time. As

the present study was set to examine full lesson cycles, it was able to identify four emerging patterns that previous experiences were used during subsequent planning.

The first pattern is ‘emerging’, where there were aspects that were not highlighted in earlier lessons but that appeared as a result of an experience. The second pattern is ‘regressing’ for certain aspects in teaching. For example, an aspect that was a focus in an earlier lesson was not present in subsequent lessons, and the teachers’ performance on that particular aspect appeared to have ‘regressed’. The third pattern was identified as ‘segregated’ where the aspects of concerns for each lesson were different from one another and appear to not have relationships with previous experiences. Finally, the fourth pattern is identified as ‘recycled’, where there was evidence of reflection on previous experiences in the PSTs’ subsequent instructional planning.

8.5 Implications for teacher training

The main findings of the study suggest that there is potential for improving practice when prior experience is taken into consideration. The PSTs were found to be able to do this, to some extent. This brings us to the discussion on implications of these findings to the teacher-training context, especially in Malaysia. The implications will be discussed pragmatically, as the research aims for practicality for the teacher training community.

The first implication is for teacher trainers to realise the value of reflective practice in training future teachers. In helping the PSTs to improve their teaching, much research has examined how reflective practice can be used to achieve such results (Etscheidt et al., 2011; Hayden & Chiu, 2015; Jay & Johnson, 2002). However, in the research context, reflection is limited to just getting the PSTs to complete a reflective log at the end of a school day. From experience, this process is not usually monitored, and the PSTs’ reflections in these logs vary significantly as some would treat them like a diary, merely reporting what they did as the day went by. Although briefed in the pre-practicum seminars on how the reflective logs work, problems still arise with PSTs using the logs to record their daily activities rather than to reflect on the lessons each day. The PSTs were required to log their reflections on a daily basis, but for some, schoolwork can be overwhelming, causing to accumulate their reflections into a weekly log instead of daily or per lesson, defeating the purpose of the reflective logs. Normally, the supervisors would be the ones taking charge of these reflective logs and commenting on the PSTs’ reflections. Since the current study calls for a more serious focus on reflective practice, supervisors could play their role in helping PSTs to reflect on their practices better, by

asking the right questions during supervision meetings, instead of just providing feedback on what should the PSTs improve. Although this feedback is valuable to the PSTs, it is also important to allow the PSTs to make their own meanings in their practice to learn from their mistakes.

Secondly, the scope of supervision should include planning as it is the starting point of other decisions to be made for and during the lesson. At present, there is just an understanding that supervision during practicum includes an evaluation of the lesson plan, though this product-oriented approach seems slightly unfair, as the processes taken by these PSTs are equally important as the end result. Thus, this research calls for a shift to also focus on the process that these PSTs go through in making their instructional planning decisions. Although aiming for a proper system to establish evaluation on the process seems to lack pragmatism at present, supervisors could still play their role by helping PSTs under their care to reflect on their experiences and utilise this knowledge in planning for their subsequent lessons.

Another implication that could be drawn from the study is the need for lecturers teaching methodology courses to include the notion of reflective practice when the students conduct their microteaching sessions prior to their practicum journey. At the moment, after microteaching sessions, student teachers write a reflective log to identify strengths and weaknesses of the sessions that they just delivered. They could include in those having the student teachers to re-design their lesson plans, as though they were going to teach it again, by utilising the reflective notes that they made. This mirrors the research by Ho (1995) and Myers (2012), who used lesson study as a means to improve future lessons.

8.6 Limitations and future research

There are several limitations posed by this study. The first limitation is in the qualitative approach used. Secondly, some of the specific methods used could be revisited. The third limitation is in terms of the data analysis process. And finally, my position as a former teacher trainer may also have posed some limitations.

Firstly, the qualitative approach in the present study made the study highly contextualised, reducing its generalisability. The research included five TESL PSTs enrolled in a public university in Malaysia. They were placed in three different secondary schools around the city of Shah Alam, Malaysia for their teaching practicum. The findings of this research should not be viewed as representative of other PSTs other than the ones

involved in this study. Although the study cannot be generalised, it has attempted to provide ‘thick descriptions’ as suggested by Koch (2006), so the study provided an in-depth exploration of the phenomenon being investigated, as suggested by Creswell (2012). The in-depth exploration of the research could perhaps be useful as a basis for future studies. As the study was approached using qualitative research and involved a small group of PSTs, future research could include some quantitative aspects that may provide a more holistic picture of how PSTs view instructional planning. Surveys on PSTs’ perceptions of their instructional planning experience, that include more participants, could perhaps generate a more generalised finding that may represent the broad population more fully.

The second limitation was in terms of the data collection methods used for the present research. In collecting data to tap into the PSTs’ instructional planning thoughts, an open-ended questionnaire was used. However, the nature of answering an open-ended questionnaire may not be the best way to tap into the PSTs’ thinking processes. A better method that could be used may be think-aloud protocols. This option was seriously considered for the current research, however, to use think-aloud protocols, the participants would have to be trained (Branch, 2013). Given the circumstances of the participants, requiring them to undergo training for the think-aloud protocol would be added time and stress to an already stressful time in their studies, the practicum, which could have led to problems recruiting participants. This led the research to inevitably use the open-ended questionnaire instead. Thus, future research could be planned in such a way that the participants be trained for the think-aloud protocol to be used to tap into their thoughts during instructional planning.

Another limitation posed by the data collection method is the usage of field notes during the classroom observations. As the study used post-lesson interviews to ask participants about their lessons, a better way to approach data collection for future research could be video-stimulated recall as Powell (2005) used for his study on the conceptualization of active learning among in-service teachers. The current study was unable to use video recording as some principals appeared reluctant to allow the recording of lessons during the pilot study. Therefore, to avoid placing the principals in difficult positions, the research opted to use field notes instead. Although Babbie (2008) argues that nothing can replace the presence of observation, especially in capturing all the relevant aspects of a social process, a stimulated-recall dialogue using videotaped lessons could enhance what

the field notes have noted, allowing more angles to be examined when compared to just relying solely on field notes to draw conclusions.

The third limitation that the present study may have was in terms of having me as the sole person to read and interpret the data. Future research could involve an external auditor to monitor the data analysis procedure to produce more rigour in the process. However, Koch (2006) also cautioned that researches that have external auditors may also pose some limitations, as readers and researchers may read and interpret the data differently, as they “bring with them their own pre-conception” (p. 92). Thus, if future research were to include external auditors, it is important that the researcher and the external auditor work closely together to mitigate issues in and ensure that the focus of the study is not lost.

Finally, my experience as a teacher trainer may have posed both a limitation and an advantage to the current study. Involved with teacher education for almost 8 years, I have formed my own beliefs about how PSTs behave and think. These beliefs naturally came upon beginning the research and, although the experience proved to be useful in the earlier parts of the study, it was difficult at first to separate the identity as a teacher trainer and as a researcher when conducting the research. The first challenge that in being the researcher was during the recruitment and data collection process. However, in the process of recruiting participants, the potential participants did not know me personally, as they began their studies at the university after I left on study leave. That lessened the ‘power relation’ issues that would have been possible if the participants were my former students. This was also helpful as the participants would likely not have been as open if they were my former students. Effort was also taken to assure them about issues such as confidentiality and my role at every post-lesson interview session. Secondly, in interpreting the data, I brought the beliefs that I formed as a teacher trainer, which were found to be quite useful in the process. However, I was also constantly aware of the risk of having ‘researcher bias’, which I was avoided by using triangulation methods. Although the necessary steps to ensure that the data is reliable have been taken, it must also be addressed that the interpretations of the study could have been influenced by my personal experience as a teacher trainer in the Malaysian context.

Despite the potential limitations, the study has contributed to growing the understanding of the experiences of TESL PSTs’ experiences in instructional planning. The study also contributed to the existing body of knowledge by including examination of how teachers make IDs during teaching and how they evaluate their lessons in their post-lesson

reflections. It is hoped that this study could also be a starting point for more research on understanding TESL PSTs' instructional experiences, especially in the Malaysian context.

Appendix

Appendix 1: Informed Consent Forms

THE UNIVERSITY *of York*

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Research Project: A Study on Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Instructional Planning

Researcher: Wan Nurul Elia Haslee Sharil

Contact Telephone Number: +6012 6953620/ +4407479477855

E-mail: wnhs500@york.ac.uk
OR for someone who is not involved in this project:
education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk

Research Institutions: University of York

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purposes outlined in the information provided.

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw during the data collection or within two weeks of the data being collected.

I hereby assign the copyright of my contribution to the researcher.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Date.....

INFORMATION

The researcher is interested in generating a theory on how reflection develops over time during instructional planning for TESL pre-service teachers.

You will be asked to provide the researcher with the daily lesson plans that you prepare for your practicum. Upon the completion of your lesson plans, you will be asked to answer an open-ended questionnaire. Answering the questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes. The researcher will observe lessons that you will conduct during practicum, approximately about 3 lessons in total. The researcher will discuss with you possible dates for these observations. The observations will be used solely to fulfil the research requirement and nothing else. During the observation, the researcher will take some field notes for the purpose of data collection. Finally, you will be interviewed after the lessons are observed and you will be asked to provide the researcher with your reflective journals. You will have access to all data collected by the researcher.

Two weeks after it is collected, your data will be anonymised and you will be given a pseudonym. No unauthorised persons will have access to the data. The anonymised data may be kept for up to 10 years and it may be made publicly available for other researchers to analyse and use in publications or presentations. The code linking your name and your data will be kept in a password protected encrypted file for up to two years after the data is collected, and only the researchers will have access to this code.

You will not be identifiable in any use of your data (in presentations or written reports).

Your involvement in the study is voluntary. You can withdraw during the study and you can also contact one of the researchers to withdraw your data up to two weeks after you have taken part. After that time it will not be possible to remove your data as it will be fully anonymised.

Appendix 2: Open-ended Questionnaire



Dear participants,

I am a PhD student at the University of York, United Kingdom. My research attempts to investigate instructional planning among Malaysian TESL pre-service teachers. I would like to invite you to answer the following open-ended questionnaire. It will take approximately 30 minutes and should ideally be completed BEFORE you begin the lesson.

All data obtained will remain strictly confidential and will be used solely for research purposes.

Thank you for your time and co-operation

Section A: Demographic Profile

1. Gender

Male	
Female	

2. Age

< 20	
21-22	
23-24	
> 25	

3. Part (Semester)

7	
8	

4. Do you have any formal teaching experience prior to the practicum?

Yes	
No	

5. If Yes, please indicate the duration and location of the teaching experience.

Section B: Lesson Details

Date _____

Time _____

Class _____

Topic _____

1. What are some of the aspects that you think about while drafting this lesson plan?

2. To what extent was planning this lesson influenced by your previous lesson(s) with this class?

3. Describe the steps that you go through while designing this lesson plan.

4. Who/what has been most helpful while designing this lesson plan?

5. What frustrates you the most while designing this lesson plan?

-THE END-

Appendix 3: Sample of Lesson Plan

LESSON PLAN

Date	: 28 April 2016	Time/Duration	: 10.30 – 11.50 a.m.
Class	: 2 Efisien	No. of Students	: 31
Proficiency Level	: Advanced		
Prior Knowledge	: Writing short paragraphs based on given topics, recount events.		
Theme	: People and Social Issues		
Topic	: Writing a Short Paragraph/Messages		
Language Skill Focus	: Writing		
Language Focus	: Expresses feelings and concerns		
Learning Outcomes	: By the end of this lesson, students will be able to:		
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Identify the format of message writing 2. Write a message to their friends 		
Educational Emphasis:	Thinking Skills, Values and Citizenship, Preparation for the Real World		
Moral Values	: Caring, Empathy, Compassion, Responsibility		
Resource Materials	: Form 2 KBSM Textbook, mahjong papers, colored papers		
Teaching Procedures :			

Stage	Skill	Activity	Rationale/AVA
Set Induction (10 minutes)	Listening	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher greets the students. 2. Teacher pastes a few flash cards on the white board consisting of different messages: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Thank you b. Get well soon c. Good luck 3. Teacher asks students if they know what they are. 4. Teacher introduces message writing. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To see if the students have a previous knowledge or schemata on a message 2. To see if students are familiar with messages AVA: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Flash cards

Pre-Writing (10 minutes)	Listening	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher explains about the message writing. 2. Teacher asks the students the benefits of message writing and writes it on the whiteboard. 3. Teacher explains how to write messages: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Pastes the format b. Labels the items c. Refers to pasted examples for more explanation. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Expose the students to writing messages and also their benefits 2. Teaches the format so that they will know how to write them <p>AVA;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Mahjong papers
While Writing (40 minutes)	Listening Writing Speaking Reading	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher tells the students that they are going to write a message to their friend. 2. Teacher tells the students about the activity: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Students are given the freedom to choose which type of message they want to write. ✓ b. Students are allowed to discuss with their friends for ideas. ✓ c. Teacher is going to give small pieces of colored paper. ✓ d. They have to write "Dear friend," as the receiver. e. After they have done with their message, teacher is going to collect the messages and put them in a box. f. Each student then has to 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Give students the opportunity to interact and use the targeted language 2. Give students first-hand experience of writing a message 3. To also expose them to different types of messages <p>AVA;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Small pieces of paper/

		<p>pick a message randomly from the box.</p> <p>3. Teacher writes down some positive quotes or words of encouragement that the students could use.</p> <p>4. Teacher then monitors the students while they are writing a message.</p>	<p>colored paper</p> <p>2. A box</p>
Post Writing (15 minutes)	Listening Reading	<p>1. Teacher collects the students' messages and put them in a box.</p> <p>2. Teacher then asks the students to pick a message randomly from the box.</p> <p>3. Teacher asks a few students to read their message aloud.</p>	<p>1. Let students experience what it feels like to receive a message</p> <p>2. Some students get to hear their message been read aloud; Feel appreciated</p>
Closure (5 minutes)	Listening	<p>1. Teacher concludes the lesson;</p> <p>a. Go through the format again.</p> <p>b. Remind the students of the benefits of message writing.</p>	<p>1. To remind the students of the format and the benefits</p> <p>2. To encourage the students to write messages</p>

Follow-up activity :The teacher asks the students to write another message for their teacher and paste it inside the book.

Self-Reflection :

Supervisor's Comments :

Appendix 4: Field Notes Observation Form and Samples

THE UNIVERSITY *of York*

OBSERVATIONAL FIELDNOTES

Project A Study on Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Instructional Planning

Date/ Time _____

Class _____

Teacher _____

Description of Events	Reflections

OBSERVATIONAL FIELDNOTES

Project Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Reflections on Instructional Planning: A Case Study

Date/ Time 12/5/15 (2.10 - 3.25 pm)

Class 2 BES

Teacher SN

Description of Events	Reflections
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher asked The Students whether they have finished their h/work, and T informed them that the last day for them to complete it is Monday. (synopsis) - T went around checking whether the ss have completed the worksheet - some didn't complete, so T reminded them to hand in everything by Monday. - T distributed new handout (activity for the day) - T asked whether there were any questions on the prev. h/work. - T went through the h/out with the students. - T informed the ss that the answer can be found in the book (short story) - 5 mins into Activity 1, teacher asked the students whether they have completed. - T helped them with 2 & 5 	<p><u>Incident 1</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - what was the initial plan when T checked the ss' work? <p><u>Incident 2</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Why did the T ask whether the ss the have any questions for the h/work. <p><u>Incident 3</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planned: 10 mins for Activity 1 (handout) - started at 2.35 pm; overrun slightly. <p><u>Incident 4</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - checked the ss work halfway through.

THE UNIVERSITY of York

OBSERVATIONAL FIELDNOTES

Project Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Reflections on Instructional Planning: A Case Study

Date/ Time _____

Class _____

Teacher _____

Description of Events	Reflections
<p>-T reminded the ss that they only have a minute left for answering the handout.</p> <p>-At 2.58, (20 minutes in) students were still trying to complete the handout.</p> <p>-At 2.58 pm, T began to discuss the answer with the students.</p> <p>-T wrote the answers on the board</p> <p>-T stopped writing the answer at no. 4.</p> <p>-The discussion on the worksheet finished at 3.15 pm.</p> <p>-T went around the classroom to check whether everyone the did the work.</p> <p>-T asked the ss again, whether they are clear with the short story.</p> <p>-T released the class for recess at 3.25 pm.</p>	<p><u>Incident 5</u></p> <p>-T wrote down the answers on the board.</p> <p><u>Incident 6</u></p> <p>-T asked the ss to mark their own work. was this planned? why?</p> <p><u>Incident 7</u></p> <p>-How did the teacher plan to conduct the discussion of the answers?</p> <p><u>Incident 8</u></p> <p>-Why did the teacher stop writing the answers on the board?</p> <p><u>Incident 9</u></p> <p>-T planned to play a game, but out of time.</p>

OBSERVATIONAL FIELDNOTES

intermediate

Project: Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Reflections on Instructional Planning: A Case Study

Date/Time: 30/3/16 (11.10-12.25 pm)

Class: 2E

Teacher: NAQ

Description of 2E: ranked 2nd

- Total no of SS: 32 SS.
- A bit playful, T had to spend quite a lot of time managing their behavior.
- weather was quite warm

Description of Events	Reflections
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - SS greets the T. - T asked ss whether they remember what they have learned in the prev. lesson. - T wrote down on the board: My Hero - 1) Brave father 2) Strong father 3) Not afraid of anything 4) Last stanza: afraid of spider. - T introduced today's lessons by pasting two cards - <u>Theme</u> and <u>Moral Value</u> of the same poem - T explained what 'theme' is by writing the meaning on the board. - T got called by a student saying that they do not have their lit. book. - T called upon a student who seemed to be distracted. - T asked the students what is the theme of the poem 'my hero'! - A few students volunteered to answer. 	<p><u>Incident 1</u></p> <p>Steps in LP: actual:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1-explain themes 2-moral values 3-copy 4-moral value <p>Why the change?</p> <p><u>Incident 2</u></p> <p>calling the student's name when they seem to be distracted.</p>

- Some selected students say cannot think when T nominated them.

- T said 'hells, helts' which was replied with 'hi' from the students.

Incident 1: was this a cm technique?

OBSERVATIONAL FIELDNOTES

Project Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Reflections on Instructional Planning: A Case Study

Date/ Time _____

Class _____

Teacher _____

Description of Events	Reflections
<p>→ spent the next few minutes explaining the themes of the poem that she has prepared.</p> <p>- In between, she tried to keep the ss focused by calling out their names.</p> <p>- T asked the ss to take out their lit book to copy down the themes. later.</p> <p>- T asked the students what are moral values.</p> <p>- ss shouted out answers in their first language.</p> <p>- T writes down 'the values that the poem teaches you'</p> <p>- T further explained by giving a guiding question: what are the moral values conveyed in the poem?</p> <p>- T gave the ss 5 minutes to copy the items down.</p> <p>- T went around assisting the ss.</p> <p>- T reprimanded a few who are not doing what they were told.</p> <p>* - T informed the students about the next activity being a group activity.</p> <p>- T went around to assist the students</p>	<p><u>Incident 4</u></p> <p>- what were some of the challenges that you faced in terms of managing the classroom?</p> <p><u>Incident 5:</u></p> <p>T writes the instruction on the board, but this was not indicated in LP.</p> <p><u>Incident 6</u></p> <p>- were there any unexpected problems etc when you went around?</p> <p><u>Incident 7.</u></p> <p>- Act. 3 should have started at 12.05 pm, but ss were still doing Act. 2 at 12.05.</p>

OBSERVATIONAL FIELDNOTES

Project Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Reflections on Instructional Planning: A Case Study

Date/ Time _____

Class _____

Teacher _____

Description of Events	Reflections
<p>- Some students got rowdy in the middle of the group discussion, prompting the teacher to call them out (to show she saw what they were doing)</p> <p>- 5 minutes before the lesson ended, T called upon 2 groups to present their answers.</p> <p>* Students were supposed to list down the moral values of the poem that they had discussed in the prev. lessons.</p> <p>- T corrected some pronunciation/spelling mistakes</p> <p>- T concluded the lesson by recapitulating what was done.</p> <p>- Lesson stopped at 12-31 pm.</p>	<p><u>Incident 8:</u></p> <p>- T rewarded a grp of students with lollipops? why?</p> <p><u>Incident 9:</u></p> <p>Act. 3 was not able conducted due to time constraints</p> <p><u>Incident 10:</u></p> <p>- feedback on students' presentation.</p> <p><u>Incident 11:</u></p> <p>- planned to have 2 grps, but proceeded with 1, why 2</p>

Appendix 5: Post-lesson Interview Protocol

THE UNIVERSITY *of York*

Interview Protocol Form

Project A Study on Malaysian TESL Pre-Service Teachers' Instructional Planning

Date _____

Time _____

Location _____

Interviewer _____

Interviewee _____

Consent Form _____

I. Introduction

- 1) Introduce self, express gratitude for time
- 2) Introduce aims of the study
- 3) Reiterate confidentiality as well as how data will be kept and treated
- 4) Inform participant of length of interview (approximately 30 minutes) and the general procedures.

II. Icebreaker

- 1) What do you think of the lesson?
Response:

Reflection by the interviewer:

- 2) What do you think went well with the lesson?
- 3) Why?
Response:

Reflection by the Interviewer:

- 4) What do you think did not go well with the lesson?
- 5) Why?
Response:

Reflection by the Interviewer:

III. Core questions

- 1) Could you describe what happened during (incident 1/incident 2/incident 3)?
Response:

Reflection by the Interviewer:

- 2) How would you describe the changes that took place during the lesson versus what was initially planned?
Response

Reflection by the Interviewer:

- 3) Why did you decide on those changes?
Response:

Reflection by the Interviewer:

- 4) If you had the chance to go back to the lesson, what would you change?
Response:

Reflection by the Interviewer:

- 5) Why would you want to make those changes?
Response

Reflection by the Interviewer

IV. Closure

- 1) Is there anything that you would like to add or change with regards to your earlier responses?
Response:

Reflection by the Interviewer:

- 2) Thank the participants and reassure them about confidentiality and anonymity.

Appendix 6: Sample Coding

Codes	Sub-codes	Themes	Over-arching themes
PL (Planning Decisions)	PL-Lesson coherence PL-Classroom activities PL-Teaching approach PL-Managing instructions PL-Managing students	Belief Formation	Types of planning decisions
	PL-Managing students PL-Managing time PL-Managing unexpected changes	Problem Anticipation	

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