

# Orbis scholae

VOL 15 / 3 / 2021

---

## **“Language of Reflection – Reflection of Language” in Foreign Language Teacher Education**

**Guest editors  
Miroslav Janík  
Manuela Schlick**

© Charles University, 2021

ISSN 1802-4637 (Print)

ISSN 2336-3177 (Online)

# Contents

<b>Editorial</b>	
<i>Manuela Schlick, Miroslav Janík</i> . . . . .	5
<b>Empirical Studies</b>	
“From Her Eyes”: On the Affordances of Video Resources in Supporting Teacher Reflection <i>Julia Hüttner</i> . . . . .	7
The Nature of Reflective Communication Within Video Clubs: What Matters? <i>Klára Uličná</i> . . . . .	25
On the Language of Student Teachers’ Professional Vision: How Do Pre-Service EFL Teachers Comment on Classroom Videos of Pupil Engagement? <i>Miroslav Janík, Eva Minaříková, Tomáš Janík, Zuzana Juříková</i> . . . . .	43
Student Teachers’ Use of Language: Discourse Functions in Teaching-Based Reflective Writing <i>Petra Knorr</i> . . . . .	61
<b>Theoretical Study</b>	
Professional Teacher Language: Its Contexts, Functions, and Potential to Further Teachers’ Professionalism <i>Manuela Schlick</i> . . . . .	83
Thanks to Reviewers . . . . .	101



## Editorial

Many teacher training programmes aim at practice-orientation and most of them take a reflective stance towards practice. Thus, the negotiation and discussion of reflections of practice become a core feature of teacher education. The focus of this special issue are thus the reflective processes and their verbalisations within teacher education and in consequence explores ways of how student teachers can be prepared for and aided towards developing their professional language of teaching. In addition, we aim at understanding the concept of professional language and how it is conceptualized and realised by practitioners and students during their professional development.

In this special issue, we address the concepts of professional vision (Goodwin, 1994; Lefstein & Snell, 2011; Sherin & van Es, 2005) and professional language (Wipperfurth, 2015) and their implications for reflection, as well as formats of teacher education that promote reflection of practice. Whereas much research focuses on reflective tasks and reflective competences, so far, little attention has been given to their linguistic aspect.

To fill this research gap, we have collected five articles, which cover different domains and contexts of foreign language teacher education. Three studies focus on the context of teacher education within university-based courses. The article of Julia Hüttner presents findings from a teacher education intervention which aimed at supporting student teachers' professional vision in order to improve their reflective practices. It discusses various interactions between participants describing and noticing specific teaching events on the video material, the challenges of suspending evaluation and the crucial role of dialogue in deepening the reflective process.

Klára Uličná aims to shed light on the nature of future English language teachers' reflective communication in the context of video clubs that are organized as part of their teacher education. Her study investigates the influence of different types of video interventions implemented in four different video clubs on the nature of pre-service teachers' communication and, consequently, its effects on students' reflections and their professional learning.

The interest of the study of Janík, Minaříková, Janík & Juříková is to describe how student teachers use language to describe and evaluate videos from English classrooms. The authors assume that the student teachers' language is not only shaped by

6 the professional discourse of related disciplines but also by everyday language. The authors aim to understand what future English teachers notice in videos of teaching practice and how they verbalize what they see.

The next two studies focus on cooperation between university education and practitioners or student teachers. Petra Knorr examines student teachers' discursive practices as they engage in reflective writing in the context of a teaching practicum. Her study provides detailed descriptions of verbal actions carried out in guided reflective writing.

In her contribution, Manuela Schick focuses on professional discourse and language as they are acquired and practiced in teacher education and applied and further developed in occasions of professional development. After a conceptual discussion of contexts and functions of professional teacher language, data from a practitioner video club illustrate the role of collaborative reflection and professional discourse.

By analyzing linguistic aspects of reflection in all stages of foreign language teacher education and professional development, all studies aim at better educational practice from different thematic perspectives. Furthermore, they contribute to investigating the practices of teacher education and highlight the role of interdisciplinary research between linguistics and education.

Manuela Schlick and Miroslav Janík  
Guest Editors

## References

- Goodwin, C. (1994). Professional vision. *American Anthropologist*, 96(3), 606–633.
- Lefstein, A., & Snell, J. (2011). Professional vision and the politics of teacher learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(3), 505–514.
- Sherin, M. G., & van Es, E. A. (2005). Using video to support teachers' ability to notice classroom interactions. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 13(3), 475–491.
- Wipperfurth, M. (2015). *Professional vision in Lehrernetzwerken: Berufssprache als ein Weg und ein Ziel von Lehrerprofessionalisierung*. Waxmann.

# “From Her Eyes”: On the Affordances of Video Resources in Supporting Teacher Reflection

Julia Hüttner

University of Vienna, Faculty of Philological and Cultural Studies, Department of English and American Studies

**Abstract:** The contribution presents data and findings from a teacher education intervention, which aimed at supporting (student) teachers’ professional vision in order to improve their (dialogic) reflective practices. In order to facilitate meaningful dialogue, video-recorded English lessons were used as bases of discussion. The 19 participants were early career teachers (with about two to four years teaching experience) from diverse geographical and educational backgrounds. Overall, interactions amounting to 349 minutes were recorded. Data show interesting interactions between participants describing and noticing specific teaching events on the video material, the challenges of suspending evaluation and the crucial role of dialogue in deepening the reflective process. Findings also show the affordances of video materials on fostering professional vision, such as the means of re-watching episodes and of several participants having seen the same teaching event. Although the participants had teaching experience, the facilitators were crucial in guiding towards both specific moments in the teaching events observed and to theory-based knowledge available to the participants. This raises implication for both pre- and in-service teaching aimed at reflective practice.

**Keywords:** English Language Teacher Education, professional vision, video-based lesson analysis, reflective practice

A professional foreign language teacher needs to be able to provide research-based, varied, stimulating, inclusive, yet standards-oriented, instruction. In addition, they need to respond continuously to developments in wider society, such as the pervasiveness of English outside of school environments or the increased use of new media by learners, and adapt their teaching practices accordingly. While no pre-service teacher education programme can in itself provide sufficient preparation for all the challenges teachers might face in their professional careers, it remains crucial to ensure that language teachers continuously develop so that they avoid the trap of “teach[ing] as they were taught” (Braun & Crumpler, 2004, p. 61). This phenomenon – also known as “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975; Borg, 2004) – contributes to strongly held beliefs on the part of student teachers about education, which need to be explicitly and continuously addressed in teacher education to prepare the ground for teachers’ acting in a principled and research-based manner.

A key element in fostering such development towards professionalism in teaching is reflection, and hence Reflective Practice (RP) has increasingly become the default framework of both pre- and in-service teacher education programmes. As with so

<https://doi.org/10.14712/23363177.2022.4>  
www.orbisscholae.cz

8 many concepts and practices in (language) education, also for RP we have to note, however, that this widespread use does not indicate the existence of one definition, universally shared by practitioners and researchers, either of RP itself or of its key concepts (Clarà, 2015; Mann & Walsh, 2017, p. 9). There is also still much room to expand on data-based evidence of how reflection is verbalised in (student) teachers or how and with which tools to best foster its development.

The present contribution will first present a brief overview of RP in Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) to then outline the potential of one specific tool, i.e., videos of classroom practice, in fostering reflection. Data from the explorative project VARIETE will serve to illustrate some of the patterns in reflective dialogues, drawing attention to the affordances of video in RP and to the (professional) language use of students.

## 1 Reflective Practice in Second Language Teacher Education

To state that reflection is the be-all and end-all of RP is, in many ways, a banal statement, yet it is important to note that this term reflection is used to signify quite distinct concepts, both in lay and expert discourses. For lay persons, reflection is often simply equated with thinking about or recalling an experience and the emotions attached to it, leading many early-stage students to simply recount teaching or learning events when asked to reflect on these. Crucially, however, reflective practice in SLTE refers back to two distinct origins in educational theory. Firstly, this is John Dewey's (1933, p. 118) definition of reflection as the "active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge", which crucially is linked to the experience of some level of incongruity. Thus, he views the function of reflective thought as "transform[ing] a situation in where there is experienced obscurity, doubt, conflict, disturbance of some sort, into a situation that is clear, coherent, settled, harmonious" (Dewey, 1933, p. 195). Importantly, for Dewey this movement towards clarity is related to the reflective engagement with "any belief or supposed form of knowledge" (Dewey, 1933, p. 118), indicating already the role given to theory and research in this rationalistic conceptualisation of reflection. Through such thinking processes, teachers can develop alternatives to routine actions. Donald Schön (1983, 1986) also highlights the starting point of reflection as "uncertainty" and its movement towards "mak[ing] sense" (Schön, 1983, p. 61), but places more emphasis on practice as a point of reference for reflection. Schön also addressed the relationship between reflection and actions, and distinguished between asynchronous reflection, i.e., on past events, termed reflection-on-action, and synchronous reflection while engaged in practice, known as reflection-in-action (Schön 1983). Later, the possibility of reflecting on future or planned actions was added in the notion of reflection-for-action (Killion & Todnem, 1991). In this context, Zeichner and Liston's (1996) suggestion is relevant that reflection, especially



the process of verbalising this process, improves teachers’ future decision-making processing.

Despite the importance attached to linking reflection to practice, it has to be noted that some questions remain on the exact level of influence of beliefs on practice. Basturkmen’s (2012) review shows the role of contextual factors; thus, situational constraints affect teachers negatively in putting their beliefs into practice. Additionally, she shows that teachers’ levels of experience affect alignment between beliefs and practices, with more experienced teachers showing a closer correspondence. Finally, there was a higher alignment between beliefs and practices with regard to planned aspects, rather than spontaneous ones, in teaching. Farrell (2008) and Farrell and Ives (2015) highlight the importance of bringing teacher beliefs to the level of consciousness, typically through asking teachers to verbalise their beliefs, to facilitate a reflection on the relationship between these beliefs and teacher practices.

A large body of research has addressed Reflective Practice in SLTE (e.g. Watanabe 2016; Barnard & Ryan, 2017; Mann & Walsh, 2017; Farrell, 2018), which also shows the specific needs of ELT in terms of RP. The complex relationship between the foreign language being both the object and medium of learning makes the teacher’s own use of the foreign language into a focus of reflection (e.g. Watanabe, 2016), which sometimes leads to a more general reflection on the type of English suitable as a learning target in a specific context (e.g. Sifakis, 2007).

We can summarise existing research on reflection, then, by stating that it needs to focus on gaining a deeper understanding of teaching and learning processes, which can fruitfully relate to the (student) teacher’s own past or present action, an observed practice of another teacher, or an envisaged future practice.

In addition to mental and cognitive processes, affective stances have been identified as part of being a reflective practitioner, such as open-mindedness, responsibility and whole-heartedness (Dewey, 1933) and the relevance of reflecting on emotions experienced during practice and/or reflection (Gibbs, 2013). Especially the latter aspect of addressing one’s feelings in a particular teaching situation can be a crucial means of pinpointing areas of incongruity or tensions, and thus giving space to this emotional knowledge in relationship to experience to as starting point for reflection.

Synthesising these thoughts, and in line with Boud and Walker (1998) as well as Mann and Walsh (2017), I shall be employing the following definition of reflection for the purposes of this paper: “The cognitive and affective processes and activities that (student) teachers engage in to make sense of (their own or others’) teaching practice by taking recourse to diverse types of knowledge.”

Reflective Practice (RP), then, uses reflection as a central feature in processes of teacher education and development. It aims to support teachers in extending their expertise through such reflection, which can be focused on their contexts, resources and actions, and to raise awareness of the complexity of decision making in planning and doing teaching (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Thus, RP aims to make “the difference between the expert teacher, who actively seeks to become a better

10 teacher, and the teacher who is merely more experienced than the novice teacher' (Burton, 2009, p. 299).

Various models of RP phases and cycles have been proposed (e.g., Kolb, 1984; Korthagen, 1985; Farrell, 1996), but in this contribution I shall not be concerned with arguing for a specific RP model; rather, I wish to note that the various steps and cycles described highlight the complexity of the processes individuals engage in to make sense of an incongruous situation. I concur with Mann and Walsh (2017) in viewing RP as an essentially social process, which requires dialogue and can be effectively assisted through scaffolding (Bruner, 1983). This social process is intertwined with an equally crucial individual, internal one, where (student) teachers make any new knowledge or belief their own. This relationship between the internal and the external or dialogic in reflection is complex and can be facilitated through a number of formats, including, for instance, Action Research. Finally, RP aims to create a reflective habitus that continues throughout a teacher's career and so creates a sustainable practice of continued development for both pre- and in-service teachers.

Despite its many benefits and its prevalence in teacher education programmes, RP is not without problems, including an over-focus on problems in teaching, an unintentional neglect of increasing knowledge bases of novice teachers and the difficulties of ensuring fair assessment of reflection (e.g., Fendler, 2003; Akbari, 2007; Hobbs, 2007; Mann & Walsh, 2013, 2017; Farrell, 2018). The two areas that I would like to focus on here, however, are, firstly, the continued difficulties in developing and implementing tools that facilitate reflection (rather than surface recollections and evaluations) and, secondly, an under-appreciation of the need to develop disciplinary literacy in subject-specific reflection (Wipperfürth, 2015, 2019; Mann & Walsh, 2017). These two issues are to some extent linked; we need activities within RP that foster dialogue and facilitate scaffolding, but at the same time (student) teachers need to be socialized into the discourse community of professional teachers, which includes using appropriate forms of disciplinary literacies as well as sharing and developing the knowledge bases of (professional) teachers.

In the following, I will suggest ways of using video-recorded lessons as a basis for dialogic reflection of student teachers.

## 2 Videos as a tool for reflection in teacher education

The use of classroom videos features quite prominently in teacher education, with its origins very much located in STEM teacher education<sup>1</sup>. However, as Sherin (2004, p. 20) noted and as still holds largely true, "the use of video in teacher education does not always reflect an understanding of precisely what it is about *video* that might provide support for teacher learning". As with any type of tool, the use of videos

<sup>1</sup> See Hüttner (2019) for an overview.

does not in itself constitute a methodology, but can be integrated into a range of teacher education programmes; here, my question is how video can support RP.

To my mind, the greatest benefit of this tool is that it allows an escape from the speed and synchronicity of teaching and observing. In practical terms, viewers can pause, re-view, play at slow motion or stop a video, allowing them to go back to viewing a sequence at a later time and in a different mind-set. Especially for student and novice teachers, this offers a means of breaking down some of the complexity of classrooms. Additionally, video recordings give access to practices that the viewers might be less familiar with, either because they are innovative or simply not that common in the viewers' educational environments (Gaudin & Chaliés, 2014). I would argue that a further, major affordance of using video recordings lies in allowing several viewers, including, for instance, student teachers and teacher educators, to view the same events and to have a record of these events to refer back to. Given the difficulties of especially student and novice teachers to use observation grids effectively, the ability to refer back to an event is priceless. As we shall see later, this shared viewing experience gives an unstilted reason for interactive meaning-making; the only way of arriving at a shared interpretation of what has been observed is through talking it through.

The ability to argue an interpretation of classroom events is linked to the possession of so-called “professional vision” (Goodwin, 1994), which van Es and Sherin (2008) paraphrase as the ability to notice and interpret significant classroom events. We can see how the target of such professional vision is or at least can be linked effectively to RP and how especially the ability to notice might well be fostered by using video-recorded, re-viewable lessons.

Existing research into the use of videos in RP originated largely within STEM teacher education and has shown that videos help student teachers move from very general descriptions of classroom events to analyses, while also encouraging foci on specific aspects of the learning and teaching event, and abandoning the level of generalities. The benefits of so-called video clubs, i.e., regular teacher meetings to discuss video-recorded elements of their own teaching in group, have also been highlighted. This body of research also underlines the importance of scaffolding and guidance for student teachers to achieve these developments (van Es & Sherin, 2008; Stockero, 2008; Star & Strickland, 2008; Harford et al., 2010; Sydnor, 2016).

More recently, however, research interest into the use of video resources as a tool in RP has grown in language teacher education, both in an Anglophone context and in the German-speaking world (e.g., Aguado et al., 2010; Baecher, 2011; Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Köhler, 2014; Kourieos, 2016; Endacott, 2016). Some of the benefits – and challenges – reported in other teacher education contexts are mirrored within SLTE, highlighting the affordances offered by video use. Trip and Rich (2012, p. 279), for instance, report positive effects of videos in pre-service teacher education, highlighting the ways in which video recordings offer an anchor for student teachers' attention, reflection and ultimately development. As one of their participants stated “it is something that you are really looking at in your own teaching and finding that

12 you want to change.” (Trip & Rich, 2012, p. 733). Some studies within SLTE have addressed language itself, as a focal point of reflection. Thus, the student teachers, who were working with video recordings of their own teaching practices, in the studies by Kourieos (2016), Köhler (2012) and Eröz-Tuğ̃a (2012) were forced to re-assess their English language use, both in terms of general proficiency, but more importantly, in terms of their ability to successfully accommodate their language use while giving instructions.

Mann and Walsh (2017, p. 22) point out the need for an in-depth account of the “language of reflection”, i.e., the linguistic practices observed and used in RP. As the authors state (Mann & Walsh, 2017), such a research focus is an analytic challenge for Applied Linguistics, but it also enables a deeper understanding of how critical thinking and reflection itself is verbalised in (student) teachers and, ultimately, how it develops. This acknowledges also the dialogic nature of learning as envisaged in Socio-Cultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006), where language mediates the learning processes between expert knower and novice (see also Example 2 below). Additionally, such a focus on the language used in reflective processes also bears crucial information on the socialisation into a professional group and the development of the professional language practices associated with this discourse community. Wipperfurth’s (2015) study of the video-based discussions of a network encompassing of eight teachers shows the complexity of teachers arriving at a shared, professional discourse to verbalise their specific knowledge base. The dialogues that emerged as a result of viewing video clips recorded and suggested by network members enabled novice teachers to benefit from experts, who in turn were empowered by making their expertise accessible through a shared professional language practice. Wipperfurth’s study underlines the importance of dialogue, leading her to suggest the concept of “reflective best practice in dialogue” (Wipperfurth, 2015, p. 315), i.e., the ability of teachers to not *present* their pedagogical content knowledge in action, but also to *reflect upon and explain* it in dialogue. In addition to highlighting the need for dialogue in such RP, this study also indicates the role of integrating specific subject knowledge.

The studies reported on here underline that the relationship between professional vision, RP and the use of video-based material is a potentially fruitful one. Studies like Stürmer et al. (2013) or Star and Strickland (2008) have already shown how video resources foster the development of professional vision, partly by allowing a more guided noticing of specific aspects of classroom action. This can specifically relate to aspects of foreign language use by the teachers themselves (e.g., Eröz-Tuğ̃a, 2013), which might be hard to notice when confronted with the complexity of live classroom observations or own teaching. As Brouwer (2015, p. 139) puts it: “the concreteness of video images invites teachers to make the analysis of teaching and learning subject-specific”. In line with other formats of RP using, for instance, lesson transcripts (Walsh, 2013), this affordance of noticing language use in more detail, putting the use of video allows for a clearer focus, especially on aspects of ELT that might be hard to give attention to. In terms of developing this selective attention

to move towards the element of knowledge-based reasoning of professional vision, the overarching framework of RP is crucial.

In the following section, the preliminary findings of a study with an international group of in-service teachers attending a Masters course in Applied Linguistics (for Language Teachers) in the UK will be presented. This project aims to incorporate the video-based resources in the development of professional vision and ultimately RP.

### **3 VARIETE: Illustrating the affordances of video-based reflective dialogues**

The exploratory project VARIETE (Videos as a Resource in English Teacher Education) was undertaken within the context of the teacher education modules of the Master of English Language Teaching (MA ELT) programme of the University of Southampton, UK, with a view towards improving the development of RP within a very heterogeneous group of students. The MA ELT and is typically attended by students from a range of geographical locations and educational contexts and although a minimum teaching experience of two years is required, the type and intensity of this experience varies. The data collection ran over the course of two semesters and was coordinated by two teacher educators; Richard Kiely<sup>2</sup> and the author of this paper. The analysis of the data is still ongoing so I am only able to present preliminary findings and to outline some of the challenges of tackling a data set based of dialogic data here.

As teacher educators committed to RP, we were faced with several challenges working with this group of students; firstly, for practical reasons, there was no possibility of getting students to do any actual teaching while on the MA programme. Secondly, the students came from a variety of educational backgrounds, where some were using Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and others worked in a context of grammar-translation-based teaching, often with very large classes of 100+ students. Additionally, the MA students had teaching experience with diverse age groups of learners. As part of their degree programme, students were familiarised with CLT and with the underlying theoretical approaches, including those related to language learning.

In our experience as teacher educators, we noted that this diversity of teaching experiences often remained unnoticed within the group of students and so individuals rarely described their teaching practices in detail. Thus, reflections by individual students frequently suffered from a lack of clarity with regard to the actual teaching processes and practices referred to, making responses to and engagement with these harder. Finally, students were still in the process of developing their abilities to talk about their professional practices, especially in English, which for most students was

<sup>2</sup> Many thanks go to Professor Richard Kiely for being a generous and optimistic collaborator in the challenging journey of fostering RP within MA courses for teachers.

14 not their first language or, indeed, the language in which they had originally been trained as teachers.

The idea to use videos as a basis for reflective discussions had arisen earlier, both in terms of videos of students' own teaching practice and of the practice of other teachers. With regard to the former idea, most students experienced difficulties in obtaining videos of their own practice in time before committing to the MA ELT programme. In terms of the second, the nature of many commercially available videos hampered their effectiveness for our purposes. Many such videos are heavily edited to show specific teaching practices, often to the extent of appearing unduly idealised and generally focused on the teachers only. Freely available videos on the internet give a more realistic image of teaching practices, but frequently have very poor recording quality, especially of sound, and remain unclear in terms of permissions obtained from the participants visible on the videos. An attempted solution to this problem was for the author of this paper to create VELTE (Video Resources for English Language Education), a freely available suite of videos of classroom lessons with background information from the teachers observed and teacher education activities, with funding from the Higher Education Agency of the United Kingdom<sup>3</sup>. The videos are full-length, high-quality recordings of entire lessons of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes in the UK. While ultimately, this resource should include videos of ELT classrooms from a range of context, within VARIETE we could only make use of the existing UK-based ones.

Overall, the aims of the VARIETE project are to improve understanding of video materials as triggers for teacher reflection and learning; and to provide information on most effective means of integrating videos in (reflective) teacher education. More precisely, we ask the following research questions:

In what ways do video materials facilitate teacher reflection and learning?

Which areas of classroom practice do student teachers focus on?

Which patterns of engagement with the materials can be observed?

In what ways does group discussion extend learning from video materials?

The 19 student teacher participants were early career teachers with a minimum of two and a maximum of four years of teaching experience. Their backgrounds varied, but the majority were from either Asian, typically Chinese, or Middle Eastern background. Informed consent was obtained from the students to take part in this research study. In the course of one semester, students were given two extended video-based tasks, which involved a teacher-educator-led group interaction. Around five students and one teacher educator made up these groups, which were audio-recorded.

Recordings amounted to a total of 349 minutes, which were transcribed and are currently being analysed within a frame of qualitative content analysis. Codes were developed, firstly, top-down, drawing on concepts from a) professional vision, with code clusters for 'selective noticing' and 'knowledge-based reasoning', b) dialogic

<sup>3</sup> The resource is available freely to teacher educators and student teachers from <http://www.southampton.ac.uk/velte>.

space in mentoring conversations (Bjuland & Helgevold, 2018), with codes for ‘requesting information’, ‘making supporting contributions’, ‘expressing shared ideas’, ‘providing evidence’ and ‘challenging ideas’ and c) identifying targets of noticing, e.g. speaking activity, monitoring, etc. Secondly, codes emerged bottom-up from the data to include, for instance, lack of / alignment with own practice; expression of novelty of observed practice and link to specific course material. An ongoing challenge is to find a way of clearly reflecting the dialogic nature, both between peers, i.e., the five or six student teachers, and between teacher educator and student teachers. As reflections are collaboratively developed, we can see that, at times, reasoning sequences are not fully developed by one speaker, but one aspect might be picked up by another speaker and developed further; whether in line with the original contributor’s ideas or not is frequently not clear. Disagreements among student teachers might lead to a discursive resolution (often also presented by student teachers with higher English proficiency), where again it remains unknown whether all individual student teachers subscribe to this view. Finally, student teachers at times present a continuation to another speaker’s description, evaluation or any other aspect of reasoning, where again the alignment with the original speaker’s reasoning remains unclear. Work is in progress on developing a clearer coding scheme to identify as clearly as possible, the collaborative development of knowledge-based reasoning, including evidence of alignment and disagreement among speakers.

Example 1 shows how ST3’s evaluation of the video sequence featuring the teacher ‘Emma’ is taken up by ST4 and ST5. ST3 seems to indicate a negative view of a speaking activity by stating that the teacher controlled the activity too much and that students could not focus on their answers. She seems to imply that the speed of the activity and especially diverse students being called up individually to answer meant there was too little time for the learners to have their answers ready and so engagement was low. Whether the critique by ST3 relates primarily to the control by the teacher or the speed of the activity is not entirely clear. ST4 takes on one part only of this statement, namely the control by the teacher and links that with a lack of free practice of specific language items. ST5 then takes these points up and again stays primarily with the control of the teacher and posits that learners are ‘not interested to talk to each other’ as a result of the teacher’s action. This is clearly a moment where ST5 interprets rather than describes and she maintains the position that facilitating communication among learners is the responsibility of the teacher (Lines 18–19) which ST4 positions as “another question here”. ST3’s point about speed and enabling students to focus on a specific question with enough time has by now been completely side-tracked.

While it is clearly relevant to code and analyse each student teacher’s reaction, there are two possible reasoning tracks here; firstly, the control by the teacher (i.e., calling up individual students) results in little preparation time for learners and hence low engagement. Secondly, this level of control results in little willingness by students to communicate with one another. I am currently working on the development of a suitably sensitive coding-system that distinguishes clearly between

## 16 Example 1

Line	Speaker	Statement
1	TED2:	that it was too fast or that it was too similar an activity or that's ok
2	ST3:	the speech I think but it cannot focus on the students' activity even the (?)
3		activities there maybe the purpose of deciding that this is good but just the
4		teacher just control all the situation and then the answer their your question
5		now but that is not it is not this student's turn and then maybe they cannot
6		just focus on this question so that's the point not all the student can get
7		engaged into all the activities
8	TED2:	Mhm
9	ST4:	generally, it seems that single students would be called on most of the time
10		and as as again as you said before there's (barely) in the way of free free
11		practice of that language items to actually communicating all ideas
12	ST5:	I think that what you said that probably the students do not communicate
13		very well in between them just because they have no chance to do that
14		because everything which is happening is happening through the teacher and
15		that's why they are not actually interested to talk to each other
16	ST4:	yea I think not just in that particular learning environment but also just
17		generally I don't think they are are socially homogenous group
18	ST5:	yea but isn't that the task of the teacher for them to start doing that
19	ST4:	yea to help develop those relationships yea
20	ST4:	[...] well that's that's sort of looking at another question here about the role
21		of the teacher which is maybe the role of Emma has is is slightly different
22		from that facilitative role that it's more that it's the that the instructor role
23		is closer

Note: ST – student teacher, TED – teacher educator

shared reasoning sequences, where at least some speakers align with the arguments developed, versus individual or abandoned reasoning sequences, where a contribution is not further developed on or shown any kind of engagement by other speakers (dis/agreement).

A general observation related to the importance of the presence and activities of the teacher educator (see also, Bjuland & Helgevd, 2018; Dawidowicz, 2019). These included scaffolding student teachers' contribution through probing questions and engaging all group members, primarily, but also through the modelling of a critical engagement with the video material. This supported the development of professional vision in the student teachers, by showing how a separation of the levels of observation and interpretation is possible and fruitful in allowing for alternative interpretations, and so helped student teachers move away from overly quick evaluations of the teaching practices observed. However, it proved quite challenging to effectively maintain a balance of fostering open discussion among the student teachers, and hence taking very much a facilitator role, versus providing clear feedback, as expected by several of the students (see also Chick, 2015; Hall, 2020).



The student teacher participants homed in on a range of issues and practices as objects of their dialogic reflections. Prime among these were differences, and to some extent similarities, of the teaching events shown on the videos to student teachers’ own experiences, sometimes accompanied by emotionally coloured expressions of surprise. This also shows the affordance of video to ensure that the same practice is discussed and so to highlight diverse expectations of teaching. Example 2 shows how one Thai student reacts to observing a class focusing on oral production.

**Example 2**

Line	Speaker	Statement
1	TED2:	ok good so in general just starting off with that lesson quite different
2		both in terms of audience and teacher and everything from the (word)
3		we watched for last week so what did you find most most striking or
4		interesting or significant just quite generally about that lesson for you
5	ST4:	@ first of all I have I have seen the the speaking the speaking lesson that
6		was really interesting as said before
7	TED2:	mhm
8	ST4:	I mean because the speaking lesson perhaps doesn't exist in Thailand @@

Note: ST – student teacher, TED – teacher educator, @ – laughter

While attention was paid in the instruction to separating the three levels of description, interpretation and evaluation, students did continue to merge these. With the help of probing questions on the part of the teacher educators, some clarity in terms of specific aspects of teacher and/or student behaviour that led to a specific evaluation could be gained, but the tendency to jump to an immediate evaluation remained strong.

Example 3 shows this merger and the evidence that the student teacher provided for her interpretation when probed.

**Example 3**

Line	Speaker	Statement
1	ST1:	yes she [the teacher on the video]’s kind of listening (to) them moving her
2		head but she’s really listening really attentively and she interrupts at the
3		right times to correct their mistake sometimes
4	TED1:	how could you tell she was listening attentively
5	ST1:	from her eyes @ I’m not kidding actually I think it is clear to see when we
6		the way she ok I can understand that she’s really listening

Note: ST – student teacher, TED – teacher educator

18 Line 4 shows the teacher educators attempt to get the student teacher (ST1) to provide some evidence for her interpretation of attentive listening by the teacher (Line 4), which is then specified as being from “her eyes”. The laughter and phrase of “I’m not kidding actually” in Line 5 seems to indicate an awareness that this might not be the expected kind of evidence in terms of professional discourse. It is one of the affordances, however, of a shared video resource that the teacher educator and student teacher could continue to debate in more detail this specific evidence.

While not wedded to a fixed trajectory of reflective episodes, a very tentative frame in the reflections by the student teachers could be observed as follows: explicit, verbalised noticing → description of teaching event → evaluation of teaching sequence or action → evidence for evaluation → link to own teaching practice

In line with Mann and Walsh (2017), I do not consider the exact sequencing or indeed presence of all these stages as indicative of quality of reflections, and, indeed, very few episodes showed all elements. Descriptions of events and evaluations were most frequently made explicit, with evidence for evaluation the least frequently realised one. Example 4 illustrates some of these elements in one student teacher’s contribution.

#### Example 4

Line	Speaker	Statement
1	ST6:	I saw which is the organization of the lesson that she managed actually by
2		the end of the lesson to get students to produce. I have always imagined
3		that we cannot make students produce in one one session, so we give them,
4		for example, and we give them, by the end of the class, we may give them
5		limited or guided questions for opening questions [...] to produce some
6		writing some presentations some anything that is a little bit (?) and guided
7		questions that would be like homework or that would be for the next time.
8		Of course, she did it teach them that [i.e. make students produce writing in
9		one class]

Note: ST – student teacher

We can see here that ST6 makes explicit reference to noticing, viz “I saw” (Line 1), a specific teaching practice. i.e., the effective use of lesson organization to include learners’ written productions, which is briefly described in Lines 1 and 2. In Lines 2 and 3 ST6 goes on to contract this practice with her expectations (“I have always imagined that we cannot”) and implicitly her own practice described as finishing one session with writing tasks for homework. We can also note only a limited use of teaching-specific professional discourse in the terms “guided questions” and “opening questions”, but generally there seems to still be some struggling evident in the appropriate use of the language of education.

Example 5 shows the frequent pattern of students evaluating a described teaching event positively (Line 1) and indicating a willingness to incorporate this in their

own envisaged future teaching practice (Line 2), again without providing evidence for the evaluation.

**Example 5**

Line	Speaker	Statement
	ST:	in two groups and having feedback for their presentations which is something very good I mean for myself next time when I'm gonna have writing session or speaking session

Note: ST – student teacher

We can see that the language of reflection of this student continues to be characterized by very limited use of clearly professional discourse items, with “feedback” the only semi-technical term of education in use.

In the data observed in VARIETE, we can thus see both similarities and difference to the three layers of reflection described by Blomberg et al. (2014) or van Es and Sherin (2002), i.e.: (1) Description of events; (2) Evaluation with regard to potential effects on student learning; (3) Integration of observed or experienced events with professional knowledge, leading to inferences on past and future action.

Firstly, while some student teachers did include all of these elements in their reflections, the evaluation element often did not refer to evidence as a basis of the evaluation at all, and only very rarely explicitly referenced envisaged student

**Example 6**

Line	Speaker	Statement
1	ST6:	one thing that I noticed that happened at different moments in the
2		classroom it was that the teacher was trying to link the content (in hand) to
3		the students' personal lives (.) even the [...] activities they carried out was
4		mostly about their lives and minute thirteen he asks them 'is there anything
5		you are afraid (of) if so why' and he asks 'do you know anybody who has
6		phobia' it happened again in the minutes of forty-five he said 'do you like to
7		be hypnotized by this man' I think [...] one good way to learn vocabulary and
8		for students to remember then it's (linking) them to
9		ST4:
10	students were fascinated to listen to that and really wanted to know, but	
11	they weren't so eager to divulge their own their own stories [...]	
12	ST3:	don't you think that because he didn't allow extended enough extended
13		time for example when he asked about the if one of them has a situation
14		when he felt afraid or [...] so I think the time wasn't very wasn't enough for
15		them to answer because maybe they feel shy because it's about phobia and
16		about real life so, and then he moved to the imagination so imagine that
17		blah blah blah so yeah I think it wasn't enough time for them

Note: ST – student teacher

20 learning as a reason for their evaluations. The separation of individual layers of reflection in the data frequently proved difficult, as did any data-led, clear distinction of diverse quality or depth of reflections based on these layers.

The final example I wish to present (Example 6) is taken from an extended period of student teacher dialogue, uninterrupted and not scaffolded by the teacher educators.

The three student teachers in this extract are discussing an ESL lesson with advanced, teenage learners, focused on fluency. The overall theme of the 90-minute lesson related to fear and phobias.

Several elements of video-based reflective dialogues are shown clearly here; firstly, both ST6 and ST4 mention their noticing of specific aspects of the lesson observed explicitly (Lines 1 and 9 respectively), and the precision in terms of the point in time in the lesson (“minute thirteen”, Line 4; “minute forty-five”, Line 6) is evidence of ST6 having made use of the affordance of the video recording in terms of pausing, and possibly reviewing specific episodes. This is also shown in the exact quoting of the teacher questions in Lines 4 to 6. The link made is to the pedagogic principle in personalising potential learning material, such as vocabulary, to increase learner motivation. However, having established which specific time -span of the lesson is being discussed, ST4 offers a ‘yes-but’ disagreement with ST6’s positive evaluation of this sequence by describing the hesitance of students to talk about their own fears, in this sense challenging the assumed positive effect of personalising the teaching target of the lesson (i.e., “one good way to learn vocabulary”, Line 7). Some evidence for the evaluation is provided by ST4 in observing that students “weren’t eager to divulge their own stories”, a rare instance of a clear focus on learner, rather than teacher behaviour. ST3 finally introduces a complementary explanation by referring to extended (wait) time, i.e., suggesting that the teacher did not leave sufficient time for students to respond to the potentially challenging question of recalling their own fear-inducing experiences. On the plus side, I would argue that this extract shows how the use of video enables an in-depth discussion of the same event and how dialogue and the inherent questioning for detail and offering of alternative interpretations improves the quality of student reflections. However, we have to note that while some ELT-related concepts are used in the interpretation of this teaching extract (personalising learning; extended wait time), the use of professional language of the discourse community is not (yet) in place.

## 4 Conclusion

The examples from the preliminary findings of the VARIETE project underline the potential of video-based dialogic reflections to help student teachers develop their professional vision as part of their RP, which aligns with findings by Stürmer et al. (2013); Star and Strickland (2008) and Janík, Minaříková & Gröschner (2015), to name a few. The student group investigated here is specific in many ways, as the

mixture of educational and geographical contexts means that the practices available on the video resources were more diverse from the student teachers’ own practices than is the case in many reported research studies. For most student teachers, talking about their professional practices as teachers at all, and most definitely doing so in English, is an unfamiliar experience, which clearly benefitted from scaffolding provided by the teacher educators on the course. Using videos on this course presented the teacher educators with a way of promoting reflective dialogues and clarifying some of the existing assumptions held by student teachers, which made video a helpful tool for promoting reflection.

This diversity of students’ backgrounds and language proficiency levels also means that analysing dialogic reflective data bears some challenges in terms of coding the trajectories of individual and joint reflections. Continuing work on this project aims to provide quantitative trends and tendencies based on new and detailed coding in the frame of Qualitative Content Analysis.

One aspect that is noticeable also at this stage in the project is that the use of professional discourse patterns, be it at terminological or at argumentative level, only appeared in few instances of student teacher contributions. Whether this is inherent with the orality of the data, the L2 status of most participants in the study or simply the challenges of doing reflection and using the professional discourse of teachers at the same time cannot be answered in this project. It does remain evident that more work is needed; this has to address both the analysis of reflective discourse as evidence of processes of reflection, as well as the development of the clearer guidelines and tools that aid the development of professional language among (student) teachers.

### Acknowledgment

My heartfelt thanks go to Prof. Richard Kiely for his collaboration in the teacher education classes investigated here. I am grateful for the funding by the Higher Education Academy (UK) for the creation of the VELTE resource.

### References

- Aguado, K., Schramm, K., & Vollmer, H. J. (Eds.). *Fremdsprachliches Handeln beobachten, messen, evaluieren: Neue methodische Ansätze der Kompetenzforschung und der Videographie*. Peter Lang.
- Akbari, R. (2007). Reflections on reflection: A critical appraisal of reflective practices in L2 teacher education. *System*, 35(2), 192–207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.12.008>
- Baecher, L. (2011). Collaborative video inquiry in MA TESOL coursework: Working together to improve ourselves. *ELTED*, 14, 1–7.
- Barnard, R., & Ryan, J. (Eds.). (2017). *Reflective practice: Voices from the field*. Routledge
- Basturkmen, H. (2012). Review of research into the correspondence between language teachers’ stated beliefs and practices. *System*, 40(2), 282–295. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.05.001>

- 22 Blomberg, G., Sherin, M. G., Renkl, A., Glogger, I., & Seidel, T. (2014). Understanding video as a tool for teacher education: Investigating instructional strategies to promote reflection. *Instructional Science*, 42(3), 443–463. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-013-9281-6>
- Borg, M. (2004). Key concepts in ELT: Apprenticeship of observation. *ELT Journal* 58(3), 274–276. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/58.3.274>
- Boud, D., & Walker, D. (1998). Promoting reflection in professional courses: The challenge of context. *Studies in Higher Education*, 23(2), 191–206. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079812331380384>
- Braun, J. A. Jr, & Crumpler, T. P. (2004). The social memoir: An analysis of developing reflective ability in a pre-service methods course. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, 59–75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2003.09.006>
- Brouwer, N. (2015). Video-based reflection on teaching: What makes it effective? *Orbis Scholae*, 9(2), 139–144. <https://doi.org/10.14712/23363177.2015.84>
- Bruner, J. S. (1983). *In search of mind*. Harper and Row.
- Burton, J. (2009). Reflective practice. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 298–307). Cambridge University Press.
- Chick, M. (2015). Dialogic interaction and the mediation of learning during pre-service teacher education. In G. Pickering & P. Gunashekar (Eds.), *Ensuring quality in English language teacher education* (pp. 162–168). British Council.
- Clarà, M. (2015). What is reflection? Looking for clarity in an ambiguous notion. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 66(3), 261–271. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487114552028>
- Dawidowicz, M. (2019). Perspektiven auf das Lernen in virtuellen Gesprächen über eigene Unterrichtsvideos. *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 48(1), 84–102.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think*. D.C. Heath & Company.
- Endacott, J. L. (2016). Using video-stimulated recall to enhance preservice-teacher reflection. *The New Educator*, 12(1), 28–47. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1547688X.2015.1113351>
- Eröz-Tuğ̃a, B. (2013). Reflective feedback sessions using video recordings. *ELT Journal*, 67(2), 175–183. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccs081>
- Farrell, T. S. C. (1996). *A qualitative study on the reflections of four English as a foreign language teachers in Korea*. Indiana University of Pennsylvania.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2008). *Novice language teachers: Insights and perspectives for the first year*. Equinox.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2018). *Research on reflective practice in TESOL*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315206332>
- Farrell, T. S. C., & Ives, J. (2015). Exploring teacher beliefs and classroom practices through reflective practice: A case study. *Language Teaching Research*, 19(5), 594–610. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168814541722>
- Fendler, L. (2003). Teacher reflection in a hall of mirrors: Historical influences and political reverberations. *Educational Researcher*, 32(3), 16–25. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X032003016>
- Gaudin, C. & Chaliès, S. (2015). Video viewing in teacher education and professional development: A literature review. *Educational Research Review*, 16, 41–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2015.06.001>
- Gibbs, G. (2013). *Learning by doing: A guide to teaching and learning methods*. Oxford Brookes Centre for Staff and Learning Development.
- Goodwin, Ch. (1994). Professional vision. *American Anthropologist*, 96(3), 606–633.
- Hall, A. R. (2020). Critical reflections on donor influence and the role of critical communication pedagogies in the classroom. *Communication Education*, 69(3), 387–395. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03634523.2020.1768420>
- Harford, J., MacRuairc, G., & McCartan, D. (2010). ‘Lights, camera, reflection’: Using peer video to promote reflective dialogue among student teachers. *Teacher Development*, 14(1), 57–68. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13664531003696592>
- Hobbs, V. (2007). Faking it or hating it: Can reflective practice be forced? *Reflective Practice*, 8(3), 405–417. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14623940701425063>

- Hüttner, J. (2019). Towards “professional vision”: Video as a resource in teacher learning. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 473–487). Routledge.
- Janik, T., Minaříková, E., & Gröschner, A. (Eds.) (2015). Striving for change: Video-based teacher education programmes and related research [Special issue]. *Orbis Scholae*, 9(2).
- Killion, J. P., & Todnem, G. R. (1991). A process for personal theory building. *Educational Leadership*, 48(6), 14–16.
- Köhler, A. (2014). Reflektierte strukturierte Videoanalyse als Mittel institutioneller Professionalisierung angehender Fremdsprachenlehrender: Fokus auf nonverbale Elemente. In C. Moritz (Ed.), *Transkription von Video- und Filmdaten in der Qualitativen Sozialforschung* (pp. 523–543). Springer.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Prentice Hall.
- Korthagen, F. A. (1985). Reflective teaching and preservice teacher education in the Netherlands. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(5), 11–15.
- Kourieos, S. (2016). Video-mediated microteaching: A stimulus for reflection and teacher growth. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(1), 65–8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2016v41n1.4>
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and genesis of second language development*. Oxford University Press.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. University of Chicago Press.
- Mann, S. & Walsh, S. (2017). *Reflective practice in English language teaching: Research-based principles and practices*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315733395>
- Mann, S., & Walsh, S. (2013). RP or ‘RIP’: A critical perspective on reflective practice. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 4(2), 291–315. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2013-0013>
- Richards, J., & Farrell, T. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers: Strategies for teacher learning*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667237>
- Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. Temple Smith.
- Schön, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a design for teaching and learning in the professionals*. Jossey-Bass.
- Sherin, M. G. (2004). New perspectives on the role of video in teacher education. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Using video in teacher education* (pp. 1–18). Emerald.
- Sifakis, N. (2007). The education of teachers of English as a lingua franca: a transformative perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 17(3), 355–375. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2007.00174.x>
- Star, J. R., & Strickland, S. K. (2008). Learning to observe: Using video to improve preservice mathematics teachers’ ability to notice. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 11(2), 107–125. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10857-007-9063-7>
- Stocker, S. L. (2008). Using a video-based curriculum to develop a reflective stance in prospective mathematics teachers. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 11, 373. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10857-008-9079-7>
- Stürmer, K., Königs, K. D., & Seidel, T. (2013). Declarative knowledge and professional vision in teacher education: Effect on courses in teaching and learning. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(3), 467–483. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8279.2012.02075.x>
- Sydnor, J. (2016). Using video to enhance reflective practice: Student teachers’ dialogic examination of their own teaching. *The New Educator*, 12(1), 67–84. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1547688X.2015.1113346>
- Trip, T. R., & Rich, P. J. (2012). The influence of video analysis on the process of teacher change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(5), 728–739. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.01.011>
- Van Es, E. A., & Sherin, M. G. (2002). Learning to notice: Scaffolding new teachers’ interpretations of classroom interactions. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 10(4), 571–596.

- 24 Van Es, E., & Sherin, M. G. (2008). Mathematics teachers' learning to notice in the context of a video club. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(2), 244–276. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.11.005>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: Development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.
- Watanabe, A. (2016). *Reflective Practice as Professional Development Experiences of Teachers of English in Japan*. Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783096985>
- Walsh, S. (2013). *Classroom discourse and teacher development*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Wipperfurth, M. (2015). *Professional Vision in Lehrernetzwerken: Berufssprache als ein Weg und ein Ziel von Lehrerprofessionalisierung*. Waxmann.
- Wipperfurth, M. (2019). Oberflächliche Unterrichtsanalyse: Wie handlungsleitendes Wissen in Unterrichtsnachbesprechungen verhandelbar wird. *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 48(1), 103–122.
- Zeichner, K. & Liston, D. (1996). *Reflective teaching: An introduction*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Prof. Mag. Dr. Julia Hüttner, MSc.  
Department of English and American Studies / Centre for Teacher Education  
University of Vienna  
Universitätscampus Hof 8.3.  
Spitalgasse 2–4  
1090 Vienna, Austria  
[Julia.Huettner@univie.ac.at](mailto:Julia.Huettner@univie.ac.at)



# The Nature of Reflective Communication Within Video Clubs: What Matters?

Klára Uličná

Charles University, Faculty of Education

**Abstract:** The study's aim is to shed light on the nature of future English language teachers' reflective communication in the context of video clubs. The objectives of the video clubs were to further develop students' pedagogical content knowledge in relation to English language teaching and learning, professional vision, and reflective competence. Concerning the professional and political aspects of communication, this study aims to investigate the influence of different types of video interventions implemented in four different video clubs on the nature of pre-service teachers' communication and, consequently, its effects on students' reflections and their professional learning.

**Keywords:** reflective communication, political aspects of communication, professional learning, collaborative professionalism, communities of teachers, video clubs, video interventions, professional vision, pre-service teachers

The professional development of the participating pre-service teachers (PSTs) lies at the heart of this study. The study draws on the author's long-term experience with leading video clubs in the role of a facilitator and an ELT (English language teaching) methodology teacher at the same time. The focus of interest was directed towards the nature of communication among the PSTs within the video clubs and any possible differences that may have arisen due to different types of video interventions. Video clubs, in our sense, refer to developmental study courses in which PSTs individually and collectively observe and reflect video recordings of different (future) teachers (similarly e.g., Sherin & Han, 2004 and many others). Reflective communication, thus, plays a crucial role in the PSTs' professional learning.

## 1 Nature of reflective communication: two perspectives

The nature of reflective communication may be perceived and researched from at least two perspectives. For this study, these are defined as *professional aspects of communication* and *political aspects of communication*.

Professional aspects of communication include the ability to use professional language, which is an attribute of a profession and its professionals. Professional language plays a role in pre-service teacher education in a two-fold way. On one

26 hand, it is the aim and instrument of the PSTs' professional learning (cf. Wipperfurth 2015). On the other hand, the PSTs' command of professional language reflects the degree of their professional development. It functions as an interpretative frame for structuring and analysing experience. It is also a tool used for further learning such as for the development of *practice-based theory of knowledge and action* (Goodwin, 1994) or *theory-enriched practical knowledge* (Oonk et al., 2004). These theories link the quality of reflection, i.e., the language of reflection, with the depth and breadth of understanding of the issues addressed (concerning reflection in its relation to language, also refer to Knorr in this monothematic issue). PSTs' command of professional language also supports bridging the gap between discourse of practice rooted in the practical experience of teachers and discourse of theory often based on the meta-language of theory and research (e.g., Giddens, 1986; Korthagen et al., 2001; Wipperfurth in this issue). Pre-service teacher education and the PSTs' discourse is quite specific since it differs from both, the academic language of theory and the practice-based language of practice (e.g., Cassidy & Tinning, 2004). In the words of Freeman (1996), PSTs are primarily equipped with so-called local language, primary discourse, which enables teacher educators to develop the PSTs' professional language in close relation to practical experience through its reflection. A video-based approach is one of the most effective ways to do so since PSTs' primary discourse develops towards professional discourse effectively precisely through reflection of various types of recorded lessons. Additionally, the concept of professional vision, in close connection with a video-based approach, is one of the most effective frames to do so since it functions as an interpretative frame for the reflections (e.g., Sherin & van Es, 2009; Santagata & Guarino, 2011; Gaudin & Chaliès, 2015; Minaříková et al., 2015; Estapa et al., 2016; Hüttner, 2019). The relationship between a video-based approach and professional vision was already addressed in Goodwin's (1994) claims about the role of language in the processes of structuring professionals' in-field experience and the development of professional vision. Professional vision is defined as a professional competence, which consists of two interconnected dimensions: selective attention, i.e., knowing what to pay attention to, and knowledge-based reasoning, i.e., reasoning about the identified moments (for more details on professional vision see e.g., Sherin, 2001, 2014).

Taking these considerations of the professional aspect of communication into account, in this study, we primarily focus on the political aspects of communication. Although being of great importance, these are often overlooked when furthering or investigating professional vision in the context of pre-service teacher education. In Goodwin's (1994, p. 606) original definition professional vision comprises "socially organized ways of seeing and understanding events that are answerable to the distinctive interests of a particular social group". It reflects the political dimension of professional vision through acknowledging the role of social processes while constituting the professional vision as such. Goodwin's original definition of professional vision thus included two equally important traits, social processes through which specialized knowledge is constructed, and specialized knowledge itself.

This definition allows for the social process through which specialized knowledge and knowledge-based reasoning to be seen as equally important as the specialized knowledge itself. In line with this understanding, Lefstein and Snell (2011) explored the *political dimensions of teacher learning*. They revisited Goodwin's origins of professional vision on a theoretical level and explored the implications of re-asserting the *politics of professional vision* within a video-based teacher development programme. Their findings suggest that what is talked about and how it is expressed is influenced not only by what the participants of the study noticed, their selective attention. It is also affected by group dynamics, political correctness, and diplomacy among the participants. For example, all participating teachers shied away from particular issues in the workshop discussion, tried to minimise face threats, and the discussion included many prolonged silences (Lefstein & Snell, 2011, p. 20–21). These considerations and previous findings highlight the influence of political aspects on the ways teachers and PSTs communicate among each other and open two further dimensions to be considered.

The first dimension is the role of *teacher learning communities* as a common model of teacher development (e.g., Hargreaves, 2000; van Es, 2012). This model is based – as the term already suggests – on teacher learning in continuous cooperation within professional communities and on planning, sharing, and reflecting experiences in order to improve learning processes and outcomes (see, e.g., van Es, 2012 on the development of a teacher learning community in a video club). However, not every group of teachers is a community of teachers in the sense of sharing and reflecting own teaching practices and cooperating with the aim to learn and develop professionally (Grossman et al., 2001). Moreover, establishing an environment of a community that enhances deeper and stronger relationships, support and solidarity often needs to be supported. Hargreaves and O'Connor (2018) frame such support as *collaborative professionalism*, which they differentiate from professional collaboration and informal collaboration: „One way to think about all this is in terms of high and low emphases on trust in working relationships on the one hand, and structure, tools and precision in work organisation, on the other” (p. 5). According to them, “collaborative professionalism is the golden cell of professional collaboration, where teachers have strong relationships, trust each other, and feel free to take risks and make mistakes” (p. 5). In our view, these are the positive variables influencing the nature of communication and supporting the development of a teacher learning community. Grossman et al. (2001) propose a model of teacher community in the workplace based on a long-term project with mainly English and English as a second language teachers. It is a “model of the markers of community formation as manifested in participants’ speech and action” (p. 2), i.e., in communication. In a developmental perspective, they introduce the term *pseudocommunity* to describe the initial stages when a community starts to form and individuals have a natural tendency to pretend to be in community and act as if they are already part of a community that shares values and common beliefs. At this stage, members of the groups interact face-to-face with the tacit understanding that it is against the rules

28 to challenge others or ask for clarification. This understanding paves the way for the illusion of consensus, a false sense of unity, and conflict suppression. Pseudocommunities regulate speech by appointing a facilitator to control the discussion or allowing a group member, who is often the most voluble member, to seize the conversational reins. Within their model of forming teacher professional community, Grossman et al. (2001, p. 94) place pseudocommunity at an evolving phase of forming group identity and norms of interaction among the members of the group. Similarly, Grossman et al. (2001) talk about surface friendliness and Tickle (1994) introduce the notion of deceptive discourse. In both cases, the nature of communication is again being influenced in a restrictive manner.

The second dimension covers the core of the collaborative processes, that need to be considered when establishing learning communities, especially with PSTs. In connection to the nature of communication within video clubs, it is mainly the type of experience that participants work with or, in other words, the *type of video intervention*, which is how the video is shared, observed, and reflected. Previous research shows differences between settings that use video recordings of participants' own teaching or video recordings of peer teachers or unknown teachers. Some researchers (Eraut, 2000; Seidel et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2011; Kleinknecht & Schneider, 2013) observe that sharing own teaching with others, i.e., using own and peer video recordings, trigger and increase the influence of issues of political correctness, self-defence mechanisms, a lower degree of criticism, avoidance and suppression of conflicts, surface friendliness, etc. This occurs especially at the beginning of such experience. However, over time, as the relationships develop and establish, reflective discussions among the members of the community become more open through addressing a variety of aspects, including providing each other with e.g., constructive critical feedback (e.g., Seidel et al., 2011; comp. with Grossman et al., 2001). This might also be caused by the fact, that from the very beginning of sharing and reflecting own and peer teaching, demand for and appreciation of feedback from peers occurs (Trip & Rich, 2012; Minaříková et al., 2016). On the other hand, observing and reflecting on videos of other/unknown teachers or student teachers usually leads to more dynamic and open interactions among the members of the community, they are more involved in the discussions from the very beginning, addressing a variety of topics (e.g., Gaudin & Chaliès, 2015).

As the discussion of previous findings has shown, there is a certain degree of understanding of the nature of communication among (future) teachers in the context of communities of practice as well as to its establishment, in comparison to the professional aspects of communication, there is little known about the political aspects of communication. The variables influencing the width and depth of communication, and about the emotional and motivational processes are not as well studied (e.g., Kleinknecht & Schneider, 2013).

## 2 Investigation into the nature of communication within video clubs

Investigating the ways PSTs communicate among each other during video clubs and its impact on the learning environment and climate is essential to better understand their professional learning. Thus, this study attempts to shed light on the nature of reflective communication to contribute to the discussion concerning the influence of different kinds of video interventions realized in different kinds of video clubs on the nature of communication. Furthermore, we believe, the variety of video club interventions influence PSTs' professional learning processes and outcomes. Therefore, this investigation focuses on the political aspects of reflective communication as a significant variable in a PSTs' professional development.

### 2.1 Research context and participants: different conceptions of four video clubs

At the beginning of a two-year follow-up of a Master of Arts study programme for teachers of English as a foreign language, students were sent an e-mail with an offer to participate in a video club focussing on professional development based on working with different types of video interventions. An availability sampling method was used and generated a research sample of nine pre-service English language teachers who enrolled in this specialized course. The students were divided into two groups. During both semesters of their first year Master of Arts studies, each group participated in two video clubs: Video Club 1 and Video Club 2.

The first group worked with videos of other teachers and student teachers, which was called public video group (PVG). The PVG consisted of five PSTs in the first semester and four PSTs in the second semester due to one student's planned Erasmus scholarship. In the first semester (PVG1), the video club was based on a set of videos of practicing teachers. The second semester (PVG2) was based on videos of other student teachers. The videos were shared with the students, observed and reflected, i.e., future teachers at the same level of professional development.

The second group used video recordings of their teaching performance, called own video group (OVG). Four PSTs attended the OVG during both semesters. In the first semester, Video Club 1 (OVG1) included a so-called preparatory phase during which the participating PSTs planned and prepared lessons with the support of an ELT methodology teacher (author of this study). Firstly, in a seminar session, PSTs were provided with information about a cooperating school, a cooperating teacher and her three classes. They could choose a class according to its description and the topics to be covered. They chose to present and further practice past tense. As a home assignment, they were all told to think about the topic and come up with ideas which they brought to the second seminar session. During the second seminar session they prepared a general plan and developed own materials for two consecutive lessons together. Consequently, they individually finished the concrete lesson plans which

**30** was again consulted with the ELT methodology teacher. Each student then taught the prepared lesson in the arranged classes in two parallel groups. These lessons were videotaped for the purpose of the video club so that one lesson by every student teacher could be discussed in the OVGs. OVG1 was designed in accordance with the principles of Lesson study (cf. Doig & Groves, 2011; Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004), except the supporting role of an ELT methodology teacher educator. In Video Club 2 (OVG2), participating PSTs planned and prepared their lessons individually. They taught and videotaped their lessons at different primary schools and classes of their choice during their regular mid semester month-long Teaching Practice placements in schools. The video recordings were then shared, observed and reflected with the other PSTs in the same way as PVG.

Each of the four video clubs was based on a different kind of video intervention, as summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1** Different types of video interventions within the video clubs

	PVG intervention	OVG intervention
Video club 1	Practicing teachers	Own teaching with support
Video club 2	Student teachers	Own teaching without support

All video clubs were organized in the same way. Each video club (PVG1, PVG2; OVG1, OVG2) consisted of three online and three face-to-face seminar sessions with a rough length of 120 minutes, although the time frame was kept deliberately flexible. They were blended learning courses combining online tasks assigned via LMS Moodle with seminar sessions held once a fortnight. Each task assigned in Moodle consisted of selected video(s), a set of guiding questions, and an open question eliciting individual PSTs' further comments. In the Moodle assignment the PSTs were asked to observe the video(s) at home, write a reflection (its length was not set), submit it via Moodle, and bring it to the next seminar discussion. The whole seminar discussions were then devoted to oral reflections of the observed video(s) structured according to the above-mentioned guiding questions including any other topics that arose from the discussions. In all types of video clubs, observed videos were reflected both, individually and collectively, in a written form and orally, and in a structured and an unstructured manner.

## 2.2 Research aims and questions addressed

The main research aims were to uncover if and how different types of video interventions affect the nature of reflective communication within different types of video clubs. Three research questions were thus formulated:

1. What was the nature of reflective communication among PSTs in PVG during video club 1 and video club 2?
2. What was the nature of reflective communication among PSTs in OVG during video club 1 and video club 2?
3. What were the differences between reflective communication among PSTs in PVG and OVG during video club 1 and video club 2?

### 2.3 Data collection and analysis

Data that enabled us to answer our research questions about the nature of reflective communication among students and possible developments of it during video clubs were collected in the seminar sessions. All sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed and both, recordings and transcripts analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. To capture the nature of reflective communication and its possible changes caused by different types of video interventions the obtained data were approached from various perspectives and by different means.

Audio recordings were analysed first with regard to the *PSTs' engagement during reflective discussions*. To this end firstly, a quantitative analysis was applied to measure the *time proportion of the PSTs' engagement* and the *time proportion of the facilitator's (author of this study) engagement* in the seminar discussions. Secondly, inspired by a conversation analysis approach (e.g., Clift, 2016), we focussed on the *nature of the PSTs' engagement* by capturing *turn-taking*, primarily how turn units were allocated among speakers, in that case among the participating PSTs. Thirdly, the fluency of discussions, pauses, the occurrence of overlaps, and raising new topics for discussion, i.e., opening new discussion lines were analysed.

Transcripts of the seminar discussions were further analysed through deductive and inductive content analyses. In both cases, specific attention was paid to the differences between PVG and OVG and possible changes during the video clubs.

The deductive content analysis aimed to investigate categories of professional vision (see e.g., van Es & Sherin, 2010). *Occurrence and nature of evaluations in the context of alterations and predictions* were chosen because such categories explicitly or implicitly include opinions the participating PSTs express about the observed lessons. The chosen categories of professional vision were defined as follows: evaluation is a subjective judgement of what was noticed in the video; alteration is a suggestion for an alternative action to how the teacher in the video acted; prediction is a connection of what was seen in the video with a future state, e.g., what effect the event might have on pupils' future understanding or use of the subject matter (see e.g., Vondrová et al., 2020; sample statements are included in Table 5). Three subcategories were included in the coding process to revealed the three main categories' relevance and their interrelations for reflective communication: (i) Frequency of occurrence of the three categories (E: evaluation, A: alteration, P: prediction). (ii) Proportion of positive and negative evaluations (Ep: positive evaluation, En: negative evaluation). (iii) Cooccurrences of evaluations, alterations, and predictions

32 through first identifying each category occurring separately from others (see i) as well as in combinations of evaluations and either alterations or predictions. Thus, instances when evaluations were accompanied by alterations and/or predictions were identified first. Consequently, two possible sequences were analysed in detail for evaluations followed by alterations or predictions (Ep/En → A/P) and alterations or predictions followed by evaluations (A/P → Ep/En).

The inductive content analysis aimed at uncovering and capturing *specific features of the seminar discussions* as well as differences between the two settings of PVG and OVG over time. Repetitive hermeneutic readings of seminar discussion transcripts were employed. In addition and in accord with selected principles of grounded theory (e.g., Strauss & Corbin, 1994), we searched for emerging parts of transcripts representing the specific features of reflective communication during seminar discussions in pre-service teacher video clubs. Such idea units were then clustered into more general categories related to the topic of our interest. At the end of this phase, two PSTs, each a representative of one group (PVG and OVG), were asked to validate final summaries of the results.

## 2.4 Summary of main findings

### *Proportion and nature of PSTs' engagement in seminar discussions*

As mentioned above, each video club (PVG1, PVG2; OVG1, OVG2) consisted of three online and three face-to-face seminar sessions. The time set for each face-to-face session was 135 minutes (i.e., three 45-minute units). However, time flexibility was one of the claimed characteristics of the video clubs to allow for enough time until a discussion was running, the seminar continued and did not end until the discussion was exhausted. The discussions were considered exhausted when none of the students wanted to comment on the observed lessons or related topics and when all the topics from the students' written reflections were discussed, i. e. the topics the students did not bring to the discussion themselves, but they were included in their written reflections and it was the facilitator who opened the discussion lines. The shortest session took 100 minutes and the longest was 180 minutes. The average length of each face-to-face session was 129 minutes. In total, the OVG sessions were longer than those of the PVG.

The time proportions of PSTs' engagement in seminar discussions are presented in Table 2. In general, data showed that the PSTs from the PVG engaged in the discussions more than those from the OVG. Therefore, facilitator's engagement was less in the PVG and the engagement of the individual PVG PSTs was less balanced. Each individual PST's engagement varied naturally due to personal potential and willingness to communicate and share ideas. In each group there was one comparably quiet PST (Patricia and Olympia). More significant variances were caused mainly by Peg, who was the only PST of all who had a part-time job at a primary school while being engaged in pre-service teacher education and who thus dominated the discussions.



She was able to provide more profound insight into the teaching and learning processes but mainly by relating the discussed topics to her teaching.

**Table 2** Time proportion of PSTs' engagement in seminar discussions (%)

PVG			OVG		
PST	Video club 1	Video club 2	PST	Video club 1	Video club 2
Peg	23,0	30,0	Olivia	21,0	23,0
Penny	19,0	22,0	Ophelia	22,0	21,0
Pia	17,0	21,0	Octavia	18,0	22,0
Patricia	14,0	11,0	Olympia	16,0	13,0
Poline	14,0	–	–	–	–
Average	17,4	16,8	Average	19,3	19,8
<b>Total</b>	<b>87,0</b>	<b>↓84,0</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>77,0</b>	<b>↑79,0</b>
Facilitator	13,0	↑16,0	Facilitator	23,0	↓21,0

Note: PSTs nicknames reflect their membership of PVG or OVG by an initial letter of the given name.

To begin with observations from PVG, discussions among the participating PSTs were fluent and continuous without any significant pauses. Every seminar discussion during both video clubs contained many instances of overlaps, i.e., simultaneous talk by two or more discussion participants (see e.g., Murray, 1988), which implies a natural character of discussion in which participants do not hesitate to take the floor. A changing tendency can, however, be traced between PVG1 and PVG2. While participants mainly expanded each other's ideas during overlaps in PVG1, PVG2 contained significantly more overlaps, including disagreement among PSTs.

Interestingly, all the topics discussed during the PVG sessions were raised by PSTs, primarily Peg and Penny. In contrast, Pia did not open new discussion lines, except during a PVG2 session when her own teaching performance was discussed. However, once a discussion line was open, she contributed actively. Patricia's and Poline's roles were less active. Not only did they not raise many new discussion topics, they did either not contribute to the discussions naturally and were also sometimes invited by the facilitator for their contributions. Therefore, it can be said that while the facilitator's role was not of any major importance concerning the content and flow of reflective discussions (since it was exhaustively covered by PSTs), it was crucial for keeping a balance of PSTs' involvement. The facilitator's engagement rose in PVG2, it was for two reasons. The PSTs either asked the facilitator to expand on relevant theoretical background related to the issues discussed or to explain or clarify issues about which the PSTs' opinions differed. The facilitator's role can thus be labelled as a source of expert information and partly as an organizer and coordinator of the reflective discussions.

In comparison to discussions among PSTs from the PVG, discussions among PSTs from the OVG were more balanced concerning the PSTs' engagement but, at the same time, less balanced in its flow. In comparison to the PVG, there were hardly any overlaps in speech in either OVG1 or OVG2. In OVG1, two accidental overlaps occurred, but one of the PSTs immediately stopped speaking and apologised. On the contrary, the OVG discussions contained many long pauses. In many cases, the facilitator filled a pause proposing a new discussion line when a topic was exhausted. In the OVGs, the PSTs raised only a few new topics.

It is to be noted here that all topics raised by the facilitator were drawn from the PSTs' written reflections (submitted via LMS Moodle), which the facilitator had studied before each session. If needed, these were used to initiate new topics and ask particular PST(s), author(s) of the reflection(s), to comment. In the OVGs, no PST would take on a leading role. As in the case of Patricia and Poline from the PVG, in the OVG Olympia did not contribute much and even less during OVG2 when independently prepared lessons were the subject of reflection. It is interesting that there was an increase in the PSTs opening new topics during the OVG2. It was so mainly in situations when the PSTs captured on the video under discussion themselves opened new discussion lines about their lessons. This observation might explain why during OVG2 the proportion of PSTs' engagement was more balanced. Olympia, however, remained an exception as she often participated in the oral reflection only after being called on by the facilitator. During the OVG video clubs, the facilitator functioned more as an organizer of discussions by proposing specific aspects of the lessons observed, maintaining the flow of the discussion, and by introducing new discussion lines.

### *Occurrence and nature of evaluations in the context of alterations and predictions within seminar discussions*

Table 3 offers insights into the number of incidents when the PSTs explicitly or implicitly expressed their opinion about lessons that they observed and reflected through evaluations, suggesting alternatives, or predicting consequences.

**Table 3** Frequency of occurrence: evaluations, alterations, predictions

	PVG		OVG	
	PVG1	PVG2	OVG1	OVG2
Evaluation	52	94	44	112
Alteration	33	47	39	55
Prediction	11	21	17	13

Suggesting alternatives and predicting the consequences of the observed moments are both valuable targets of the PSTs' professional learning (see above). In the case of alterations, PSTs in the PVG and the OVG developed equally. On the contrary,

while the PVG video clubs supported the PSTs' ability to predict consequences of the observed situations, OVG2, which was based on reflecting independently taught and recorded lessons of the participating PSTs, saw a decrease in predictions. This decrease seems to be at the expense of a significant increase of evaluations expressed by the OVG PSTs.

Evaluating statements were further categorised as positive or negative evaluations to understand this area better. Table 4 shows the proportion of positive and negative evaluating statements in discussions of the PVG and the OVG during Video Club 1 and Video Club 2.

**Table 4** The proportion of positive and negative evaluations (%)

	PVG		OVG	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Video club 1	46	54	73	27
Video club 2	62	38	61	39

It is a striking result that the proportions of positive and negative evaluations in Video Club 1 differ in the PVG and the OVG, i.e., in the PVG negative evaluations prevail, in the OVG positive evaluations prevail. Equally striking is the almost perfect balance between the PVG and the OVG in Video Club 2 when comparing the changes in evaluative tendencies in both groups. The main difference between the PVG and the OVG was that the PSTs who worked with video recordings of their teaching performances evaluated the observed moments more positively. It is also interesting to view the results of OVG from Table 4 in the context of Table 3. It shows that while the PSTs of the OVG evaluated the observed lesson much more during Video Club 2, the proportion of negative evaluations increased simultaneously. The PVG proportion of positive and negative evaluations changed in an inverse direction. While in Video Club 1 where they were reflecting on lessons of unknown practising teachers, the PSTs took more critical stands; when reflecting on video recordings of unknown future teachers, their prevailing evaluations were positive.

To summarise, positive and negative evaluations were viewed in context in order to deepen our understanding of the characteristics of reflective communication related to the PSTs' evaluative expressions in different video clubs. Thus, they were further categorised into positive or negative evaluations, as a separate category from alterations or predictions. Next, positive or negative evaluations were viewed in combinations/sequences together with alterations and predictions. Findings based on this analysis, i.e., prevailing tendencies typical for each video club, together with the results presented above are presented in Table 5 to summarize the main synoptic characteristics of the PVG and the OVG communication in Video Club 1 and Video Club 2.

In Table 5, each video club is firstly characterized by features of reflective communication based on the PSTs' evaluations, alterations, predictions, and various forms of their combinations that appeared to be typical for particular video clubs. As a strong indicator for these typical features served the highest or lowest proportion of the occurrence of all three categories among all four video clubs. Secondly, representative quotations are included. Thus, Table 5 enables us to compare the groups on the level of Video Clubs 1 and Video Clubs 2 (horizontal perspective) as well as on the level of the PVG and the OVG (vertical perspective).

**Table 5** Characteristic features of evaluations in different video clubs (sample evaluations in bold)

PVG	OVG
PVG1	OVG1
Highest proportion of En (54 %). Highest proportion of separate E (70 %), without A or P. Highest proportion of E & P combination with slight prevalence of En → P sequence.  e.g.: <i>I think this was all very unfortunate, that he decided to teach irregular verbs together with pronunciation this way, he should have thought about it better, because it was very difficult this way and they [students] will not remember much I think – he told them too many of the pronunciation specifics.</i>	Highest proportion of Ep (73 %) in the context of lowest number of evaluative statements. Highest proportion of separate A (59 %), without E, which can be perceived as “hidden” or indirect evaluations. Highest proportion of Ep → P sequence.  e.g.: <i>It was a well-chosen topic for inductive grammar teaching. The pupils seemed engaged, they worked well, and I believe they will remember better. They might not be able to use it all immediately, but I am pretty sure, they understand the two tenses, its similarities and differences and how to use them.</i>
PVG2	OVG2
Proportion of Ep and En between PVG2 and OVG2 equals.	
Lowest proportion of separate E (49 %), without A or P. Highest proportion of En → A sequence.  e.g.: <i>Well, I see it in different ways, but more or less I think it was not very good. But she did tell them what was going to happen, which might have been a lesson aim, but I do not think they understood, probably not. It was too general, it should have been SMART, which would have been better, because then, she could have reflected the lesson with them at the end.</i>	Lowest proportion of separate A (23 %), without E. Highest proportion of A → En sequence.  e.g.: <i>Maybe it would have helped the pupils if you told them the aim and focus of the lesson. Something like we will do this and that because this and that. Or something like that. Without it, like the way it was, they might have felt a bit lost, do you know what I mean? Maybe it could have been done a bit better.</i>

To conclude, based on the tendencies typical for the nature of evaluative communication within individual video clubs presented in Table 5, a label characterizing each group and video club will be proposed.

The PVG seminar discussions can be described as *open critical communication*. The PSTs were mostly critical towards the observed lessons; however, in the course of all four video clubs, their stance shifted towards a more constructive approach. The occurrence of purely negative evaluations decreased. Negative evaluations were often entirely constructively supplemented by suggesting alternatives. Generally, the PSTs' stance changed from being more critical to more positive.

The OVG seminar discussions can be described as *sensitive, supportive communication*. This style was even more prevalent in OVG1, during which the PSTs generally evaluated each other's performance least often, and those evaluations were predominantly positive. In OVG1, critical comments were hidden behind alterations, which were mainly devoted to suggesting better alternatives to the lesson plans that the PSTs prepared with the facilitator. Despite the increase of negative evaluations in OVG2, the PSTs reflecting on the video recordings of their own performance maintained their positive stance and sensitive approach. They often provided each other with praise and appreciation, whereas their negative evaluations were often placed cautiously after offering an alteration.

### ***Specific features of the seminar discussions***

A number of specific features of seminar discussions concerning the nature of the PSTs' approaches to evaluations emerged from previous analysis. It revealed a strong contrast between *open critical communication* typical for the PVG video clubs and *sensitive, supportive communication* typical for the OVG video clubs. In both cases, a shift could be identified between Video Club 1 and Video Club 2. Although the main characteristic features remained the same, their nature changed. While the PVG PSTs' open critical communication became increasingly constructive, the OVG PSTs' sensitive supportive communication became more critical.

Based on a general understanding of the nature of communication not only in video clubs (see section 1 above), the findings summarized above led us to search for more systematic differences between the PVG and the OVG as well as between Video Clubs 1 and Video Clubs 2. Specific features of the seminar discussions were investigated by the inductive content analysis of the transcript of the seminar discussions. Further systematic differences could be identified for the following closely interconnected areas: criticism, defence, and agreement.

The degree of *criticism* expressed by the PSTs towards the observed lessons differed significantly between the PVG and the OVG. While the PVG PSTs often expressed critical comments concerning various aspects of the observed lessons, the OVG PSTs were much less critical to each other's teaching performance. In the PVG the degree of expressed remained stable during both video clubs. On the contrary, reflective discussions in the OVG almost lacked clearly expressed criticism towards observed lessons. What was, however, typical for communication among the PSTs

38 while reflecting on the video recordings of their own lessons was a high degree of self-criticism. During Video Club 1, such self-criticism was typically followed by praise and appreciation expressed by other PSTs, which further led to mutual support and reflection of the shared teaching experience on a more general level. During Video Club 2, the PSTs often expressed the wish to also receive critical feedback while sharing their own video recordings, which often functioned as a starting point to including some critical issues of the observed lessons in the discussions.

The degree of expressed *defence* was typical for communication in the OVG. However, it is interesting that it was not the self-defence mechanisms that prevailed. On the contrary, the PSTs expressed a certain degree of defensive attitudes towards critical comments, especially after that PST's self-criticism and facilitator's comments. As discussed above, such cases were often followed by reasoning about possible causes or general principles, especially in Video Club 1. An exciting insight into self-defensive attitudes and their influence on the nature of communication was revealed in Video Club 2. During the last seminar session, one PST, Olympia, expressed a substantial degree of self-defence connected to her video recording. It influenced other PSTs participation significantly and resulted in a relatively shallow and short discussion about Olympia's lesson since none of the PSTs expressed any disagreement with her explanations and excuses, nor expressed any elaborated reactions to the facilitator's comments connected to some critical moments of the observed lesson.

The degree of *agreement* among the PSTs was another area in which differences between the PVG and the OVG were identified. Disagreement among the PSTs was a typical feature of the PVG communication. PSTs often opposed each other's ideas by adding different and diverse pieces of opinion and often also by opening new related discussion topics. In this sense, the PVG communication can be labelled as a *chain communication*. It seemed to be a significant determinant of a PSTs' professional learning, especially by a wider variety of perspectives employed and by a need for reasoning expressed statements. The OVG discussion was, on the other hand, characterised by agreement. The PSTs often elaborated the already discussed topics further. However, the perspectives were not predominantly new or original, on the contrary, they often repeated and supported thoughts expressed by peers or they just deepened the insight into the discussed topics by adding a related thought or comment. Thus, this discussion can be labelled as a *snowball communication* in which PSTs reacted to each other by further elaborating the discussed topics. It can be viewed in the context of findings connected to opening new discussion lines and a leading role of the facilitator in raising new topics in discussions of the OVG.

### 3 Conclusion and discussion

This study presented the results of an investigation into the nature of reflective communication within four different video club settings based on the different types of video interventions that were presented. While the first and second research questions were fully addressed in section 2.4 from various perspectives, the third research question, which aimed at capturing the differences between reflective communication among the PSTs in the PVG and the OVG during Video Club 1 and Video Club 2, will briefly be summarized in the form of a concluding synthesis. To this end, the most prominent differences will be outlined and discussed in relation to previous findings and theoretical concepts presented in section 1.

The PVG video clubs were characterized by open critical communication based on the principles of collaborative professionalism (Hargreaves & O'Connor, 2018) and learning communities (van Es, 2012), such as well-set relationships, trust, expressed disagreement, and natural fluent discussions. Additionally, the PSTs in the PVG expressed critical views towards the observed lessons, which, changed over time, i.e., during the two video clubs, towards a more sensitive and constructive approach often complemented by suggesting alternatives. When discussing video recordings of other teachers or student teachers PSTs participated more actively in discussions which is in line with previous research findings (Gaudin & Chaliès, 2015). The role of the facilitator was thus less important.

On the contrary, communication among the members of the OVG video clubs tended towards the features of a pseudocommunity (Grossman et al., 2001) indicated by a lower degree of disagreement, a higher degree of sensitivity in commenting on the observed video recordings and the use of deceptive discourse (Tickle, 1994). The OVG communication was labelled as a sensitive supportive communication. However, during the two video clubs and in accordance with Grossman et al. (2001), who view pseudocommunity as an evolving phase in the formation of functioning learning community with set norms of interaction, the nature of communication among the OVG PSTs changed and improved. There was a shift from political correctness, surface friendliness, avoidance of conflicts, a lower degree of criticism and expressed self-defence mechanisms related to sharing one's teaching performance with others (Eraut, 2000; Lefstein & Snell, 2011; Seidel et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2011; Kleinknecht & Schneider, 2013) towards a more critical, although still sensitive, communication. It also further shifted towards expressing demand for feedback, and an appreciation of constructive critical evaluations from peers, which were, however, often placed after suggesting an alternative (Trip & Rich, 2012; Minaříková et al., 2016). It should not be left unmentioned that the gradually built safe environment proved to be fragile, as shown in Olympia's case at the end of the second video club. Olympia's self-defensive stance and expressed uninterest in any critical feedback reverted the nature of communication among the OVG participants to its initial stage. The role of the facilitator was increasingly significant in the OVG video clubs, especially in Video Club 1, which functioned on many principles of

40 a pseudocommunity where speech is regulated by facilitator controlling the discussions (Grossman et al., 2001). While in the PVG video clubs, the dominant role of the facilitator was a coordinator and an expert, in the OVG video clubs, the main roles were that of a proposer and a prompter (for more detail, see e.g., Rich, 2014).

The outcomes of the study suggest that different types of video clubs and video interventions influence the formation and functioning of the PSTs' learning community diversely and are suitable to be placed in different phases of pre-service and further in-service teacher education. For instance, observing and reflecting video recordings of unknown practicing teachers supports the development of the PSTs' reflective competence and the establishment of a collaborative learning community. Only in a second step, observing and reflecting on the video recording of one's own or peer teaching performance should follow and build on a well set and safe learning environment. Based on the results of this study it can be said that such an orchestration of different settings is likely to help promote the PSTs' professional learning based on reflection and cooperation.

Viewing these outcomes in combination with several limitations of this study can indicate implications for further research. It would be promising to replicate this study with more participants, involving a larger study group at a university and a group of practising teachers. This allows for three areas in which the research data in this study could and should be complemented. Firstly, it can compare the PSTs' written reflections prepared at home with their oral reflections in seminar sessions. Such a comparison would reveal what and how the PSTs shared within reflective communication. It also provides insight into what they decided to not discuss. Secondly, besides capturing the nature of political aspects of communication, it would be interesting to trace the development and changes of professional aspects of communication in both written and oral reflections. Lastly, as we gained data capturing students' professional vision before and after the participation in the video clubs, we should search for connections between the nature of reflective communication and the PSTs' professional learning by comparing the nature of communication within particular video clubs with the development of the PSTs' professional vision in dimensions, selective attention, and knowledge-based reasoning. This perspective would uncover the possible effects of political aspects of communication on reflective communication – reflective competence – and thus the width and depth of a PSTs' professional learning.

### Acknowledgments

This research has been financially supported by the project PROGRES Q17, 'Teacher Preparation and the Teaching Profession in the Context of Science and Research'.



## References

- Cassidy, T., & Tinning, R. (2004). "Slippage" is not a dirty word: considering the usefulness of Giddens' notion of knowledgeability in understanding the possibilities for teacher education. *Teaching Education*, 15(2), 175–188.
- Clift, R. (2016). *Conversation analysis*. Cambridge University Press.
- Doig, B., & Groves, S. (2011). Japanese lesson study: Teacher professional development through communities of inquiry. *Mathematics Teacher Education and Development*, 13(1), 77–93.
- Eraut, M. (2000). Non-formal learning and tacit knowledge in professional work. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 70(1), 113–136.
- Estapa, A., Pinnow, R. J., & Chval, K. B. (2016). Video as a professional development tool to support novice teachers as they learn to teach English language learners. *The New Educator*, 12(1), 85–104.
- Fernandez, C., & Yoshida M. (2004). *Lesson study: A Japanese approach to improving mathematics teaching and learning*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Freeman, D. (1996). Renaming experience/reconstructing practice: Developing new understandings of teaching. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (p. 221–241). Cambridge University Press.
- Gaudin, C., & Chaliès, S. (2015). Video viewing in teacher education and professional development: A literature review. *Educational Research Review*, 16, 41–67.
- Giddens, A. (1986). Action, subjectivity and the constitution of meaning. *Social Research*, 53(3), 529–545.
- Goodwin, C. (1994). Professional vision. *American Anthropologist*, 96(3), 606–633.
- Grossman, P., Wineburg, S., & Woolworth, S. (2001). Toward a theory of teacher community. *Teachers College Record*, 103(6), 942–1012.
- Hargreaves, A. (2000). Four ages of professionalism and professional learning. *Teachers and Teaching: History and Practice*, 6(2), 151–182.
- Hargreaves, A., & O'Connor, M. T. (2018). *Leading collaborative professionalism*. Centre for Strategic Education.
- Hüttner, J. (2019). Towards 'professional vision': Video as a resource in teacher learning. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (p. 473–487). Routledge.
- Kleinknecht, M., & Schneider, J. (2013). What do teachers think and feel when analyzing videos of themselves and other teachers teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 33, 13–23.
- Korthagen, F., Kessels, J., Koster, B., Lagerwerf, B., & Wubbels, T. (2001). *Linking practice and theory: The pedagogy of realistic teacher education*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Lefstein, A., & Snell, J. (2011). Professional vision and the politics of teacher learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(3), 505–514.
- Minaříková, E., Pišová, M., Janík, T., & Uličná, K. (2015). Video clubs: EFL teachers' selective attention before and after. *Orbis Scholae*, 9(2), 55–75.
- Minaříková, E., Uličná, K., Pišová, M., Janík, T., & Janík, M. (2016). Videokluby jako forma profesního vzdělávání učitelů: otevřenost komunikace z pohledu učitelů. *Pedagogika*, 66(4), 443–461.
- Murray, S. O. (1998). The sound of simultaneous speech, the meaning of interruption. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 12, 115–16.
- Oonk, W., Goffree, F., & Verloop, N. (2004). For the enrichment of practical knowledge: good practice and useful theory for future primary teachers. In J. Brophy (Ed.), *Advances in research on teaching: using video in teacher education* (p. 131–168). Elsevier Science.
- Rich, P. (2014). Examining the role of others in video self-analysis. In B. Calandra & P. J. Rich (Eds.), *Digital video for teacher education: Research and practice* (p. 71–88). Routledge.
- Santagata, R., & Guarino, J. (2011). Using video to teach future teachers to learn from teaching. *ZDM the International Journal of Mathematics Education*, 43(1), 133–145.

- 42 Seidel, T., Stürmer, K., Blomberg, G., Kobarg, M., & Schwindt, K. (2011). Teacher learning from analysis of videotaped classroom situations: Does it make a difference whether teachers observe their own teaching or that of others? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(2), 259–267.
- Sherin, M. G. (2001). Developing a professional vision of classroom events. In T. Wood, B. S. Nelson, & J. Warfield (Eds.), *Beyond classical pedagogy: Teaching elementary school mathematics* (p. 75–93). Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sherin, M. G. (2014). The development of teachers' professional vision in video clubs. In R. Goldman, R. Pea, B. Barron, & S. Derry (Eds.), *Video research in the learning sciences* (p. 383–395). Routledge.
- Sherin, M. G., & Han, S. Y. (2004). Teacher learning in the context of a video club. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(2), 163–183.
- Sherin, M. G., & van Es, E. A. (2009). Effects of video club participation on teachers' professional vision. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 60(1), 2–37.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology: an overview. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 273–285). Sage.
- Tickle, L. (1994). *The induction of new teachers*. Cassell.
- Trip, T. R., & Rich, P. J. (2012). The influence of video analysis on the process of teacher change. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(5), 728–739.
- van Es, E. A. (2012). Examining the development of a teacher learning community: The case of a video club. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(2), 182–192.
- van Es, E. A., & Sherin, M. G. (2010). The influence of video clubs on teachers' thinking and practice. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 13(2), 155–176.
- Vondrová, N., Novotná, M., Pavlasová, L., Robová, J., Stará, J., & Uličná, K. (2020). *Videointerventions: Bridges between theory and practice in pre-service teachers' development*. Karolinum.
- Wipperfürth, M. (2015). *Professional Vision in Lehrernetzwerken. Berufssprache als ein Weg und ein Ziel von Lehrerprofessionalisierung*. Waxmann.
- Zhang, M., Lundeberg, M., Koehler, M. J., & Eberhardt, J. (2011). Understanding affordances and challenges of three types of video for teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(2), 454–462.

PhDr. Klára Uličná, Ph.D.

Department of English Language and Literature  
Charles University, Faculty of Education  
Magdaleny Rettigové 4, 116 39 Prague  
Czechia  
klara.ulicna@pdf.cuni.cz

# On the Language of Student Teachers' Professional Vision: How Do Pre-Service EFL Teachers Comment on Classroom Videos of Pupil Engagement?

Miroslav Janík<sup>1</sup>, Eva Minaříková<sup>1</sup>, Tomáš Janík<sup>1</sup>,  
Zuzana Juříková<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Masaryk University, Faculty of Education, Institute for Research in School Education

<sup>2</sup> Masaryk University, Faculty of Arts, HUME Lab

**Abstract:** Teacher's professional vision is a well-researched concept that highlights the importance of noticing salient issues in classroom situations and reasoning about them. This paper aimed to investigate pre-service teachers' professional vision of pupil engagement: what student teachers notice in classroom videos regarding pupil engagement and how they verbalize it. The data was collected using interviews with classroom videos as prompts. 20 English as a foreign language pre-service teachers participated in the study. The data was analysed using qualitative content analysis and word clouds. The results suggest that pupil engagement is observed on three levels: behavioural, cognitive, and emotional, and it is seen in connection with classroom factors influencing it; the most mentioned one being teacher actions. To verbalize their noticing of pupil engagement, student teachers used words and phrases that describe engagement directly (such as "participate", "enjoy", "respond") or indirectly, for example through descriptions of actions ("raising hands") or suggestions of cognitive involvement with the content ("know" or "remember"). Understanding how student teachers talk about pupil engagement can help us tease out important points in discussions during teacher education programmes and, in doing so, aid the pre-service teachers in framing their noticing and developing their professional vision.

**Keywords:** professional vision, pupil engagement, word clouds, verbalisation

Pupil engagement affects academic success (Fredericks et al., 2004) and one of the most important factors influencing pupil engagement is teacher support (Fredericks et al., 2004; Gutiérrez et al., 2017; Skinner et al., 2008). Teachers must be prepared to encourage pupil engagement to contribute to pupils' academic success. Supporting teachers in conscious work with pupil engagement can be realized in different ways. One of them is supporting the development of professional vision. Professional vision is an aspect of teachers' competence that influences how they act in classrooms. This support is especially important in pre-service teacher education.

Professional vision describes what teachers notice in classroom situations and how they reason about it (van Es & Sherin, 2008). Certain aspects of professional vision have been addressed in the literature (e.g., professional vision for classroom management – Gold et al., 2013; for classroom discourse – Mendez et al., 2007) but so far not with specific regard to how engaged pupils are in lessons. Understanding this strand of professional vision could, however, contribute to further understanding (future) teacher thinking, and to designing ways to develop it with pupils' involvement in mind.

<https://doi.org/10.14712/23363177.2022.14>  
[www.orbisscholae.cz](http://www.orbisscholae.cz)

Professional vision is closely connected to verbal accounts of what is noticed (Minarikova et al., 2021), and the study of this phenomenon originates in linguistic anthropology. In teacher research, it has been mostly approached through verbal methods (questionnaires, interviews, reflective writing). In short, we understand professional vision by understanding the words teachers use to verbalize it.

This paper explores pre-service teachers' professional vision for pupil engagement in two respects: what they notice (focus on) and how they verbalise what they notice when they observe a video of a classroom situation. Capturing the themes and the verbalisations will help us understand how student teachers conceptualize pupil engagement and recognize what range of words and phrases student teachers use to describe it. When working with student teachers in teacher education programmes, this knowledge can help us understand them better and help them frame their noticing in different ways to develop their professional vision further.

The paper uses the context of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) to argue a more general (pedagogical) point. The video sequences are taken from EFL classes and, the participants are future EFL teachers. Pupil engagement is, however, a topic relevant to all teaching.

## 1 Professional Vision

The term *professional vision* was first coined by Charles Goodwin (1994). His understanding of professional vision draws on linguistic anthropology, action theory, conversation analysis, and various sociocultural theoretical approaches. From his point of view, professional vision can be defined as (1) a socially structured perception of the phenomena in professional life and (2) the understanding of those phenomena that suit specific interests that correspond to a specific social or professional group.

Goodwin's conception of professional vision is concerned with the socially constructed and historically recognized discursive practices through which the members of a profession construct and structure the objects of their professional interest (so-called objects of knowledge). Later, the originally linguistic-anthropological understanding of this term has been expanded and standardized, especially in the context of researching professionalism. The concept of professional vision developed into standardized characteristics of a measurable entity (cf. Lefstein & Snell, 2011, p. 507).

The concept of professional vision is currently prominent in research on teacher education. Origins go back to the teacher education reforms in the USA 20 years ago in the field of science education, where the adaptive teaching style was favoured (professional vision for reform teaching; see Sherin & van Es, 2005, p. 476; van Es & Sherin, 2008, p. 244).

Based on the study of Janík et al. (2016) we identified specific interests in research on professional vision in the field of teacher education that are focused on:

- the characteristics of professional vision in the “subgroups” of the teaching profession (teachers of different subjects, etc.),
- the object of professional vision and its specific components, such as a professional vision for classroom management (see Gold et al., 2013), professional vision for classroom discourse (see Mendez et al., 2007), professional vision of inclusive classrooms (see Roose et al., 2018) or so-called curricular vision (see Choppin, 2011),
- factors that affect professional vision, i.e., studies focused on the relationship between professional vision and professional knowledge (see Stürmer et al., 2013), effects of video-setting (such as own or foreign videos; see Blomberg et al. 2011; Seidel et al., 2011), differences between students or between groups of students (Stürmer et al., 2016), etc.,
- development of the professional vision using different interventions and measurement instruments within pre-service or in-service teacher education; in this respect also various formats of interventions are examined (e.g., video clubs, van Es & Sherin, 2010; lesson study, Wood & Cajkler, 2018; Observer, Stürmer & Seidel, 2017),
- the nature of teacher’s professional vision in studies using eye-tracking technology (see Jarodzka et al., 2021).

Research on professional vision is typically based on participants observing and analysing teaching, usually captured on video recordings of real classrooms. Professional vision has thus been mostly studied through verbal data (what teachers say they see) as accessing what they actually notice is more difficult to capture (the use of eye-tracking seems a promising avenue of research; cf. Minarikova et al., 2021). It is thus essential to understand the language that teachers use to verbalize their professional vision.

## 2 Professional Language of Teachers

The specific nature of professional language lies in the fact that members of a profession share a professional interest in knowing (or getting to know, exploring) a certain “domain of scrutiny” (Goodwin, 1994). Professional language is often (but not exclusively) marked by its lexical and phraseological features, often including metaphors (comp. Malyuga, 2011). It emerges and operates on the border between the *language of everyday life* and the *language of disciplines*, and it is also a mediator between the two (comp. Terhart, 1992).

Practitioners of respected professions such as law or medicine famously have languages of their respective profession. This allows them to communicate among themselves and often it relies heavily on the vocabulary of the related disciplines (languages often incomprehensible to laymen). However, the language of the teaching profession is less distinct. According to Jackson (1968), the language of teachers is hardly distinguishable from the language of everyday life. Hargreaves (1980) goes

46 so far as to claim that primary school teachers who have little connection to the disciplines share very little specialized language, even such language relating to child development and pedagogy. However, recently special attention has been on the domain specificity of teachers' language – especially in the field of didactics of mathematics (Mesiti et al., 2021).

Exploring and appreciating the specific character of the language of the teaching profession requires understanding its twofold function. On the one hand, language is the medium of instruction – this language needs to be simple, clear, and easily comprehensible to learners with a wide range of cognitive dispositions. On the other hand, the language of the teaching profession is also used for reflection on and communicating about the process of teaching itself and is thus a metalanguage to the former. To develop and share knowledge about educational phenomena, teachers need professional language to address complex, abstract, and theoretical issues of the profession, such as the quality of teaching and learning (Wipperfürth, 2015).

### 3 Pupil Engagement

To help student teachers develop their knowledge and understanding, we first need to understand how they address important phenomena in teaching and learning. One of the crucial aspects of the success of teaching and learning is pupil engagement during lessons (Skinner et al., 2008, p. 765). Engagement expresses “the behavioural intensity and emotional quality of a student’s active involvement during a learning activity” (Jang et al., 2010). Compared to motivation, engagement shows the temporary state where students are acting, studying, and doing and motivation is seen as the potential and direction of students’ energy (Oga-Baldwin et al., 2017, p. 141).

Engagement can be defined in three ways (Fredricks et al., 2004, p. 62): Behavioural engagement draws on the idea of participation; it includes involvement in academic and social or extracurricular activities. Emotional engagement encompasses positive and negative reactions to teachers, classmates, and school and influences willingness to do the work. Cognitive engagement draws on the idea of investment; it incorporates thoughtfulness and willingness to exert the effort necessary to comprehend complex ideas and master difficult skills.

An important issue for the context of our study is which aspects of the school and classroom context can promote or degrade engagement. Engagement is affected by the following factors (Fredricks et al., 2004): (1) school-level factors that cover the institutional setting of the school. Engagement is responsive to variations in the environment and can point to the specifics of each school, such as the size of the school, students’ participation in school policy, but also school environment per se. The next antecedent of engagement is the (2) classroom context, including teacher support, peers, classroom structure, autonomy support, and task characteristics. The last factor is (3) individual needs.

## 4 Methods

The study explored professional vision of pupil engagement and how it is verbalized by student teachers. More specifically, the research questions were:

When commenting on pupil engagement in a classroom video: 1) What do student teachers focus on? 2) How do they verbalize their noticing?

### 4.1 Data collection

The data was collected as part of a larger study focussing on EFL student teachers' and teachers' professional vision using interviews and eye-tracking technology. This study draws on the interview data with student teachers.

To tap into student teachers' professional vision, we selected two classroom videos portraying a frequent activity in English as a foreign language lesson. They show a teacher working with the whole class, eliciting previously learned information (vocabulary, information from a text). They illustrate well the topic of pupil engagement and offer good input for comments as the teachers engage the pupils with varying degrees of success. A detailed description of the video sequences is provided in Table 1.

**Table 1** Video sequences

<b>Video A (1 minute 3 seconds)</b>
Sequence from the first part of the lesson in the seventh grade of elementary school (lower secondary, ISCED 2), pupils had been learning English since the third grade. The class is preparing for a communication activity. The sequence portrays a revision activity about parts of the face. The teacher is working with the whole class. The teacher is at the front of the class, drawing on the board. He starts with a big circle, saying "imagine this is a face". He then draws different parts of the face and invites pupils to name them. Responses can be heard from different pupils. The responses are usually rather quiet, unanimated. The teacher carries on with this activity until all words he needs to cover are mentioned. In the video, the teacher and seven of the pupils are visible at all times.
<b>Video B (1 minute 43 seconds)</b>
Sequence from the first part of the lesson in the sixth grade of elementary school (lower secondary, ISCED 2), pupils had been learning English from the first grade. The teacher works with the whole class. The teacher starts by mentioning that in the previous lesson the class read about the tallest building. She then continues to ask for details and afterwards moves on to eliciting adjectives, first connected to the tallest building, and later on other adjectives. When pupils misunderstand a question (e.g., answering "skyscraper" to the question "where is it?"), she repeats it with modulated voice (stressing "where"). She uses intonation and gestures (e.g., to illustrate tall and long) to help pupils understand the questions and to respond correctly. At one point, she waves at a pupil and says "don't sleep", presumably having noticed the pupil's attention wavered. In the video, the camera switches angles between pupils and the teacher.

48 The participants were asked to observe each video sequence and comment on it. At first, the interviewer only prompted the participant to comment, later they asked specifically about pupil engagement. Each video sequence was shown twice with space to comment after each viewing.

## 4.2 Participants

The sample of our study consists of 20 students ( $N = 20$ ) studying English as a foreign language at the Faculty of Education at Masaryk University (Brno, Czech Republic). The selection of students was based on availability sampling. The students were invited to collaborate during their English didactics course and the participation was voluntary. The students were either in year 4 or 5 of their studies to become a teacher (i.e., they finished their undergraduate programme and were now in the first or the second year of their Master programme<sup>1</sup>). All of them had at least some teaching experience. Only two of the participants had no prior experience with analysing classroom videos. At the time of the study, all participating students had completed at least one semester of didactics of English as a foreign language. Further details are provided in the Appendix.

## 4.3 Data analysis

To answer the first research question, qualitative content analysis with inductive coding was used (Mayring, 2004). The coding and categorization of the idea units were done not to quantify and provide information on how often each category was mentioned but to prepare the data for analysis of how noticing is verbalized. Inductive coding was selected as the videos were focused specifically on pupil engagement; previous studies on professional vision concentrate either on classroom situations in general or have a different focus (e.g., classroom management). We thus found it beneficial to approach the data as a clean slate.

Participants' comments were divided into analytical units (so-called idea units) and these were then inductively categorized. One comment represents all utterances of one participant connected to one video sequence. One idea unit corresponds to an utterance, or a part of an utterance, clearly delineated in meaning, referring to the situation in the video sequence. In order to ensure reliability, the categorization and the coding process were conducted by two researchers in two steps. Firstly, all idea units related to video sequences were highlighted and then divided inductively into thematically related categories. The created coding scheme is available in Table 2. The final version of the coding scheme, despite being created inductively,

---

<sup>1</sup> To become a teacher in the Czech Republic, you typically need to study a three-year undergraduate programme followed by a two-year Master programme. This is all considered pre-service teacher education. Teaching practice is a compulsory part of the teaching study programmes at the Faculty of Education, Masaryk University.



corresponds to previously used coding schemes that were used to describe professional vision in general (e.g., Janik et al., 2016; Seidel et al., 2007; van Es & Sherin, 2008).

All idea units were then re-coded using this coding scheme. Firstly, two researchers coded 10 comments (both video sequences) individually and afterwards fine-tuned their coding together. The cases of disagreement were discussed until a consensus was reached. Secondly, coding proceeded in the entire research sample and again, cases of disagreement were discussed. Overall, the intercoder agreement was 80%, which ensured a satisfying degree of objectivity.

**Table 2** Coding scheme: what did student teachers notice?




Category	Description	Example
Environment	Comments on the classroom – the material equipment, arrangement of desks, etc.	“The desks, the way they are positioned, I think it contributes to the fact that the teacher has the children like..., that the pupils can cooperate more and they are more interested in what is happening” (video B)
Teaching	Comments on the classroom activity in the video sequence with a focus on teaching	“I think the activity was well-chosen. That it is always good to revise this way.” (video A)
Teacher	Comments on the teacher (in the video sequence) – his/her actions, knowledge, language, etc.	“Like, I’d say maybe the teacher wasn’t quite ready for the lesson.” (video A)
Pupils	Comments focused on pupils, their actions, knowledge, language, etc.	“It seems to me that most of those pupils actually reacted, and they were raising their hands, so they actually wanted to say something.” (video B)

Using the results of this coding, two researchers in collaboration looked at each idea unit within each category (Pupils, Teacher, Teaching, Environment). In this part of the analysis, we took three steps. First, we focused on words – we collected all the words and phrases that express or verbalize any aspect of engagement within each category and created word clouds (Vrain & Lovett, 2020): three for each category (one for teacher A, one for teacher B, and one for both). In the second step, to make sense of these, we looked at the word clouds in each category, referring to the comments for more context and looked for more general ideas that they capture. In the third step, we went from the ideas back to the words. The results present how aspects of engagement in each category (“ideas” from step 2; research question 1) are expressed in words (step 3; research question 2). The words were translated from Czech (the language of the interview) by a researcher proficient in English. Each translation was discussed with another researcher to confirm the trueness of the translation. Contented terms were discussed with a native speaker of English.

## 5 Verbalizing Pupil Engagement

In this chapter we present the analysis in each category (classroom environment, teaching, teacher, pupils), starting with the less complex categories. In the presentation, both research questions are addressed at the same time – what the participants focused on is entwined with the words they used to verbalize it.

**Table 3** Word clouds for category Environment

Teacher A	Teacher B
	
Teachers A and B	
	

### 5.1 Classroom environment




There were only few comments connecting the classroom environment with pupil engagement (Table 3). Most of them used descriptive language for seating arrangement (“if it was in a circle, the cooperation would be better”; “the way the desks are put”, “they sit one by one” or “close to each other”) or the number of pupils (“there is just few of them”). There were some instances, though, in which the participants

talked about the environment in emotionally charged terms, such as that it made some pupils “isolated” or “pushed away”. This was connected to commenting on the teacher’s “field of vision”.

## 5.2 Teaching

This category contained mostly notions of the activity (Table 4). Besides general expressions (“a well-chosen activity”), the content and the dynamic character of the activity were the centre of attention. As for the content, “speak<sup>2</sup>” represented a desirable aspect of the activity. The level of language content was addressed only for video A and in negative sounding terms “too easy” and “just basics”. So even though the activity “fulfilled the aim”, it was not deemed “effective”. Firstly, because the aim was not suitable due to the level of the content, and secondly, because it “just” fulfilled the aim – as if there could be nothing else positive said about the situation.

Table 4 Word clouds for category Teaching

Teacher A	Teacher B
 <p>A word cloud for Teacher A. The most prominent words are 'too easy' and 'fulfilled aim'. Other words include 'demotivating', 'strange', 'well-chosen', 'lengthy', 'just basics', 'difficult', 'more interactive', 'suitable form', and 'effective'.</p>	 <p>A word cloud for Teacher B. The most prominent words are 'speak', 'routines', 'dynamic', 'instructions', 'lengthy', 'faster', 'beneficial', 'action-packed', and 'well-chosen'.</p>
Teachers A and B	
 <p>A combined word cloud for Teachers A and B. The most prominent words are 'well-chosen', 'too easy', 'lengthy', 'demotivating', 'just basics', 'action-packed', 'routines', 'effective', 'suitable form', 'more interactive', 'strange', 'beneficial', 'fulfilled aim', 'faster', 'dynamic', 'difficult', and 'speak'.</p>	



As for teacher B, the participants described her as “motivated”. Comments regarding her actions concerned four areas – where her attention lies, how she involves everyone, how she gets them to talk, and how she helps them achieve when they are talking.

Attention was verbalized through expressions addressing where she “looked”, what she “focused” on, and “noticed”. The word look was also used negatively, in that she “overlooked” certain pupils. The overlooking and focusing only on a particular part of the classroom was then connected to comments on her not involving everyone – some pupils were not called upon because “she cannot call on everyone”. She “does not give them a chance” to speak so not everyone “has a turn”.

These verbalizations are in contrast with how participants expressed her effort to get pupils to speak – they used vivid action verbs such as that she was “pulling” information out of them and “pulling them in” to “engage” them. Verbs like “try hard” and “ask” were frequent. On the other hand, teacher B’s dominant position was relativized by expressions such as “she gave them space” or “let them work it out themselves”. However, even when they are working it out for themselves, the teacher is not passive and supports pupil engagement by “helping”, “advising”, and “guiding”. Her use of “gestures” and “intonation”, and “praise”, were put into connection with how engaged the pupils were.

#### 5.4 Pupils

This category is the key one for discussing engagement in class / learning and was the most frequently mentioned (Table 6). The participants noticed three different aspects of pupil engagement – their *behaviour* (what participants saw) and what they inferred from it in terms of their *interest* and *thinking/understanding*.

Pupils’ behaviour is the aspect readily available to be observed. The participants addressed mainly the face, the hand, the word, and the action.

Pupils’ *faces* told our participants where the pupils were “looking” and what “looks” they were giving the teacher (one participant even termed it a “murderous look”). “Closed eyes” were noticed, too. The *hand* represents a powerful sign in school settings – pupil engagement was verbalised as “raised hands” or “hands up” by almost all the participants of our research, but solely for teacher B. *Words* were important too – “saying”, “responding” or “expressing themselves” were popular verbalizations. Loudness was important, suggesting the willingness to participate (“quiet”, “silent”, “mumbling”). Pupils’ involvement in general (presumably subsuming the previous bodily cues) was verbalized mostly through *actions* as being “active” or “passive”, “reacting”, “participating” or even “working”.

An interesting part of the word cloud for teacher A was the recurrence of the phrase “saying Jesus”. This referred to this word being heard in the video in the background, said by a pupil in an exasperated tone, presumably as a reaction to a very simplistic drawing done by the teacher. The phrase itself as well as the tone



## 6 Discussion

Professional vision is often discussed in the literature on teacher thinking and teacher education. What teachers notice guides their thinking about classroom situations and about pupils and is a pivot point in how they act in the classroom (van Es & Sherin, 2008). It is thus vital to support student teachers in developing their professional vision. Pupil engagement is a prerequisite for school satisfaction (Gutiérrez et al., 2017) and school success (Skinner et al., 2008). Supporting student teachers in watching for pupil engagement in classroom situations and helping them verbalise and frame their noticing represents an important aspect of teacher education.

To do this, teacher educators need to understand how student teachers verbalize their notions of pupil engagement – what words and phrases they use to capture what they see.

In this study, we introduced the words participants used to verbalize what they saw in two classroom videos in terms of pupil engagement. We looked at their comments through four broad lenses represented by the four categories: environment, teaching, teacher, and pupils. Pupils stand at the core of analysing engagement – it is what they do and how they feel that is important. The themes mentioned in other categories are the factors that influence pupil engagement.

When it came to pupils, the observable cues (or what can be seen on the outside) were often addressed and used to draw conclusions about what is “on the inside”. In our data, the participants commented on pupils' behaviour, thinking and understanding, and interest and enjoyment. This corresponds to the conceptualization of pupil engagement into behavioural, cognitive, and emotional engagement (Fredericks et al., 2004; Jang et al., 2010).

Behavioural engagement was, in our study, verbalized in a broad range of terms, from descriptions of concrete actions (such as “saying Jesus”, “closed eyes” or “raising hands”) to talking about what pupils say and how (“respond”, “say”, “mumbling”, “shout out”) to general statements about observable activity or passivity (“participated”, “worked”, “active”, “passive”).

“Raising hands” was a very frequent verbalisation of pupil engagement, but only for teacher B. This is extremely interesting as the nature of the activity was the same in both video sequences – the teacher asks, the pupils respond. The participants watched teacher A video before the video of teacher B. After viewing only the first clip (A), no one mentioned raising hands as not being there; no one missed it. However, after watching teacher B video, most participants mentioned raised hands as a sign of pupil engagement, and even put it into contrast with no one needing to “shout out” the answer. Our participants accepted the framework set up by each teacher (need to raise hands or not) and only commented within this framework.

On a cognitive level of pupil engagement, participants mentioned “focusing”, “taking it in” or “being present”. We ascribed this to the cognitive aspect of engagement as, from a professional vision point of view, it cannot be directly observed in pupils' behaviour, only inferred from clues (from the observable behaviour described

56 through words and phrases mentioned above). This is different from previous studies that include attention into behavioural engagement (Fredericks et al., 2004; Jang et al., 2010; Oga-Baldwin & Nakala, 2017). Our participants also often used words “know”, “understand”, and “remember”. We classified this as commenting on pupil cognitive engagement as to “know” an answer or a word, one has to be present and hear and understand the task or the question. Our participants often used the word to “know” as a synonym to responding to a teacher’s prompt. In this way, “know” might be considered somewhere between a synonym to “respond”, a sign of attention, and an actual statement about pupils’ knowledge.

As was apparent from the word cloud in the Pupil category (Table 6), words describing emotions and emotional engagement were frequent in the comments. Enjoying an activity (verbalized as “enjoy”, “bored”, “interested”, or “excited”) was a theme for most of the participants but appears more prominently in comments on teacher A video, in which the pupils were less engaged.

The other categories that we looked at mostly encapsulate classroom context factors that influence pupil engagement (Fredericks et al., 2004). Teaching (in terms of the task/activity characteristics) was not mentioned that often and mostly in relation to the content and dynamics of the classroom activity. There were only few mentions of the environment itself but if so, they were usually strongly connected to pupil activity and engagement. Statements pertaining to the teacher were more frequent, but mainly for teacher B. As mentioned above, the classroom situation in video A was not as engaging as in video B. It might be the case that instead of criticising the teacher himself, the participants chose to address him in their comments only sparsely to evade critiquing him as a person. On the other hand, there were many comments about the efforts and ways of teacher B, who was seen mostly in a positive light. This is in line with previous research that shows that teachers tend to shy away from critiquing a colleague (Lefstein & Snell, 2011). In their verbalisations, the participants used mostly verbs to describe the actions of the teacher (“motivate”, “guide”, or “try hard”) or words to describe the teacher’s demeanor (“demeanor”, “intonation”, “gestures”). Teacher’s support as a factor of pupil engagement (Fredericks et al., 2004; Gutiérrez et al., 2017; Skinner et al., 2008) is thus mostly verbalised through what the teacher does, not how he or she is.

The study approached the general concept of pupil engagement through studying it in EFL context. From the comments, it is apparent that most of the themes and words used are connected more to teaching and learning in general rather than to the subject-specific context. The specificity is reflected in that participants address the “content” (i.e., the language level) of the activity as affecting pupil engagement. Here, the subject-specific point of view is crucial, and it is encouraging that student teachers see this connection, and address it, despite having gone through limited EFL methodology courses (see Appendix).

Professional vision has been studied in the context of teacher thinking and teacher education in general terms (van Es & Sherin, 2008) and for particular purposes (for classroom management – Gold et al., 2013; for classroom discourse – Mendez et al.,



2007; of inclusive classrooms – Roose et al., 2018). This paper contributes to this strand of research by illuminating what words and phrases used by student teachers hint that they are noticing pupil engagement. Being sensitive to these phrases (even though on the surface they might seem to refer to other aspects of teaching and learning – such as the word “know”) can help teacher educators tease out salient points in discussions and offer student teachers further support and framing of pupil engagement. Current research shows that professional language and participating in professional discourse are connected to socializing into a profession, becoming a member of a group (Freeman, 1996), and acquiring new ways of seeing (Goodwin, 1994; Wipperfurth, 2015).

The study itself (data collection and analysis) was conducted in the Czech language; the results were written up in English. This can represent one of the limitations of the study as certain nuances might get lost in translation, however carefully it is done. Also, only two video prompts were used (albeit from different ends of the spectrum of pupil engagement), which represents only a very limited fraction of the breadth of teaching and learning situations. Further studies in various languages and with various video prompts of different school subjects, teaching methods, and contexts in general are needed to have a clearer picture of student teachers' verbalisation of their professional vision of pupil engagement.

### Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the project English teachers' professional vision in/on action in communicative activities from the perspective of eye tracking (GA17-15467S) funded by the Czech Science Foundation and by the research infrastructure HUME Lab Experimental Humanities Laboratory, Faculty of Arts, Masaryk University.

### References

- Blomberg, G., Stürmer, K., & Seidel, T. (2011). How pre-service teachers observe teaching on video: Effects of viewers & teaching subjects and the subject of the video. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(7), 1131–1140. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2011.04.008>
- Choppin Ch. (2011). Learned adaptations: Teachers' understanding and use of curriculum resources. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 14(5), 331–353. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10857-011-9170-3>
- Fredericks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P., & Paris, A. (2004). School engagement: Potential of the concept, state of the evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 74, 59–109. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543074001059>
- Freeman, D. (1996). “To take them at their word”: Language data in the study of teachers' knowledge. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66(4), 732–762. <https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.66.4.3511321j38858h69>
- Gold, B., Förster, S., & Holodynski, M. (2013). Evaluation eines videobasierten Trainingsseminars zur Förderung der professionellen Wahrnehmung von Klassenführung im

- Grundschulunterricht. *Zeitschrift für pädagogische Psychologie*, 27(3), 141–155. DOI 10.1024/1010-0652/a000100
- Goodwin, Ch. (1994). Professional Vision. *American Anthropologist*, 96(3), 606–633.
- Gutiérrez, M., Tomás, J.-M., Romero, I., & Barrica, J.-M. (2017). Perceived social support, school engagement and satisfaction with school. *Revista de Psicodidáctica (English Ed.)*, 22(2), 111–117. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psicoe.2017.05.001>
- Hargreaves, D. (1980). The occupation culture of teachers. In P. Woods (Ed.), *Teacher Strategies* (pp. 125–140). Croom Helm.
- Jackson, P. (1968). *Life in classrooms*. University of Chicago Press.
- Jang, H., Reeve, J., & Deci, E. (2010). Engaging students in learning activities: It is not autonomy support or structure but autonomy support and structure. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102, 588–600. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019682>
- Janík, T., Minaříková, E., Pišová, M., Uličná, K., & Janík, M. (2016). *Profesní vidění učitelů a jeho rozvíjení prostřednictvím videoklubů*. Masarykova univerzita.
- Jarodzka, H., Skuballa, I., & Gruber, H. (2021). Eye-tracking in educational practice: Investigating visual perception underlying teaching and learning in the classroom. *Educational Psychology Review*, 33(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-020-09565-7>
- Lefstein, A., & Snell, J. (2011). Professional vision and the politics of teacher learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(3), 505–514. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.10.004>
- Malyuga, E. M. (2011). Professional language in formal and business style. *Global Journal of Human Social Science*, 12(3), 7–10.
- Mayring, P. (2004). Qualitative content analysis. *A companion to qualitative research*, 1(2), 159–176.
- Mendez, E. P., Sherin, M. G., Louis, D. A. (2007). Multiple perspectives on the development of an eighth-grade mathematical discourse community. *Elementary School Journal*, 108(1), 41–61. <https://doi.org/10.1086/522385>
- Mesiti, C., Artigue, M., Hollingsworth, H., Cao, Y., & Clarke, D. (2021). *Teachers talking about their classrooms: Learning from the professional lexicons of mathematics teachers around the world*. Routledge.
- Minaříková, E., Smideková, Z., Janík, M., & Holmqvist, K. (2021). Teachers' Professional Vision: Teachers' Gaze During the Act of Teaching and After the Event. *Frontiers in Education*, 6, Article 716579. <https://doi.org/10.3389/educ.2021.716579>
- Oga-Baldwin, W. L. Q., & Nakata, Y. (2017). Engagement, gender, and motivation: A predictive model for Japanese young language learners. *System*, 65, 151–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.01.011>
- Oga-Baldwin, W. L. Q., Nakata, Y., Parker, P., & Ryan, R. M. (2017). Motivating young language learners: A longitudinal model of self-determined motivation in elementary school foreign language classes. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 49, 140–150. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2017.01.010>
- Roose, I., Goossens, M., Vanderlinde, R., Vantieghem, W., & Van Avermaet, P. (2018). Measuring professional vision of inclusive classrooms in secondary education through video-based comparative judgement: An expert study. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 56, 71–84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2017.11.007>
- Seidel, T., Prenzel, M., Rimmele, R., Herweg, C., Kobarg, M., Schwindt, K., & Dalehefte, I. M. (2007). Science teaching and learning in German physics classrooms—findings from the IPN-Video Study. In M. Prenzel (Ed.), *Studies on the educational quality of schools* (s. 79–99). Waxmann.
- Sherin, M. G., & van Es, E. A. (2005). Using video to support teachers' ability to notice classroom interactions. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 13(3), 475–491.
- Skinner, E., Marchand, G., Furrer, C., & Kindermann, T. (2008). Engagement and disaffection in the classroom: Part of a larger motivational dynamic? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 100(4), 765–781. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012840>
- Stürmer, K., & Seidel, T. (2017). A standardized approach for measuring teachers' professional vision: The observer research tool. In E. O. Schack, M. H. Fisher, & J. A. Wilhelm

- (Eds.), *Teacher noticing: Bridging and broadening perspectives, contexts, and frameworks* (pp. 359–380). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-46753-5\\_21](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-46753-5_21)
- Stürmer, K., Könings, K. D., & Seidel, T. (2013). Declarative knowledge and professional vision in teacher education: Effect of courses in teaching and learning. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(3), 467–483. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8279.2012.02075.x>
- Stürmer, K., Seidel, T., & Holzberger, D. (2016). Intra-individual differences in developing professional vision: Preservice teachers' changes in the course of an innovative teacher education program. *Instructional Science*, 44(3), 293–309. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-016-9373-1>
- Terhart, E. (1992). Reden über Erziehung. Umgangssprache, Berufssprache, *Wissenschaftssprache*. *Neue Sammlung*, 32, 195–214.
- van Es, E. A., & Sherin, M. G. (2008). Mathematics teachers' „learning to notice“ in the context of a video club. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(2), 244–276. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.11.005>
- van Es, E. A., & Sherin, M. G. (2010). The influence of video clubs on teachers' thinking and practice. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 113(2), 55–176. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10857-009-9130-3>
- Vrain, E., & Lovett, A. (2020). Using word clouds to present farmers' perceptions of advisory services on pollution mitigation measures. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 63(6), 1132–1149. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09640568.2019.1638232>
- Wipperfurth, M., (2015). *Professional vision in Lehrernetzwerken: Berufssprache als ein Weg und ein Ziel von Lehrerprofessionalisierung*. Waxmann.
- Wood, P., & Cajkler, W. (2018). Lesson study: A collaborative approach to scholarship for teaching and learning in higher education. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 42(3), 313–326. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2016.1261093>

Mgr. Miroslav Janík, Ph.D.  
 Institute for Research in School Education  
 Masaryk University, Faculty of Education  
 Poříčí 31  
 603 00 Brno, Czechia  
 mjanik@ped.muni.cz

Mgr. Eva Minaříková, Ph.D.  
 Institute for Research in School Education  
 Masaryk University, Faculty of Education  
 Poříčí 31  
 603 00 Brno, Czechia  
 minarikova@ped.muni.cz

prof. PhDr. Tomáš Janík, Ph.D., M.Ed.  
 Institute for Research in School Education  
 Masaryk University, Faculty of Education  
 Poříčí 31  
 603 00 Brno, Czechia  
 tjanik@ped.muni.cz

Mgr. Zuzana Juříková, Ph.D.  
 HUME Lab  
 Masaryk University, Faculty of Arts  
 Arna Nováka 1/1  
 602 00 Brno, Czechia  
 jurikova@phil.muni.cz

## Appendix

*Research sample: a detailed description*

	Study programme	Year of study	Teaching experience	Experience with video analysis
S1	Master	5	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S2	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S3	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S4	Master	5	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S5	Master	5	Yes (2 years, Kindergarten)	Yes
S6	Master	5	Yes (Teaching practice and teacher`s assistant)	Yes
S7	Master	4	Yes (Private language school, tutoring)	Yes
S8	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice, tutoring)	No
S9	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice, tutoring)	No
S10	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice, tutoring)	Yes
S11	Master	5	Yes (4 years, language school, tutoring)	Yes
S12	Master	5	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S14	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice, tutoring)	Yes
S15	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice, tutoring, language school)	Yes
S16	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S17	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice, tutoring)	Yes
S18	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice, school language course)	Yes
S19	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S20	Master	5	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes
S21	Master	4	Yes (Teaching practice)	Yes

Notes: S13 was not included in the sample for technical reasons. S16 studied at the same time also Master programme in English Linguistics on Faculty of Arts (Masaryk University).

# Student Teachers' Use of Language: Discourse Functions in Teaching-Based Reflective Writing

Petra Knorr

University of Leipzig, Institute of British Studies

**Abstract:** The value of reflective writing in teacher education is widely accepted and research has focused increasingly on investigating the quality of students' reflective texts by assessing their reflective depth or breadth. Studies on student teachers' professional vision have looked at processes of noticing relevant classroom events and reasoning about them, emphasizing that thinking about teaching and learning is a strongly knowledge-guided process. While much empirical attention has been given to *assessing* students' writing, little insight has been gained into how reflective thinking actually unfolds. The aim of this study is to examine student teachers' discursive practices as they engage in reflective writing in the context of a teaching practicum. Data consists of reflective essays which were analysed using linguistically based qualitative coding in order to identify discourse functions in students' texts. Findings allow a detailed description of verbal actions carried out in guided reflective writing. They also indicate that due to the situated nature of their writing, student teachers engage in affective appraisal and reasoning processes which are verbalized by using everyday as well as academic language depending on students' zone of proximal development and their developing pedagogical content knowledge.

**Keywords:** reflective writing, foreign language teacher education, discourse functions, professional vision, professional language, knowledge-based reasoning

Reflective practice is both a means and an end in foreign language teacher education (FLTE) as programmes aim to develop *reflective competences* by engaging future L2 teachers in *reflective teacher learning scenarios*. The most commonly found objectives of a reflective teacher education are concerned with developing adaptive practitioners who can deal with classroom complexity and make informed decisions, connecting practical experience with theoretical knowledge, fostering conceptual thinking, increasing awareness of tacit knowledge, questioning and (re) considering prior beliefs and developing individual teaching philosophies (Farrell, 2019; Golombek & Johnson, 2019; Klempin & Rehfeldt, 2020).

Approaches in FLTE have recently seen an increase in practice-based, situated learning scenarios (e.g. teaching practicums, service learning, video-clubs, teaching-learning labs, etc.), which form a prominent context for reflective tasks. Practice-based reflections within these learning environments take on various forms. Distinctions have been made between self-reflection and reflecting on other people's practice, reflections based on real or videotaped experiences, oral reflections

62 (e.g. post-lesson discussions) versus reflective writing (e.g. journal writing), guided or free reflective tasks and monological or dialogical reflection (Abendroth-Timmer, 2017; Legutke & Schart, 2016).

The focus of this study is on student teachers' practice-based *reflective writing* and the verbalization of their reflective thoughts on lessons they taught in a practicum setting. Reflective writing is a well-established form of reflective practice in teacher education, particularly in settings which incorporate field experiences. In these contexts, it is seen as a means of encouraging students to think about practical teaching experiences in a systematic way, linking theory and practice, tapping into more tacit knowledge and promoting reflective thinking. It is sometimes an add-on to oral mentoring and post-lesson discussions or it functions as a substitute if institutional constraints do not allow a direct and immediate feedback from an observer. Burton (2009) argues that writing in itself is a composing process which actually requires reflection (see also Farrell, 2019). Research has, however, also pointed out that reflective writing is complex and tends to be superficial unless it is guided, supervised and practiced (Bain et al., 2002; Orland-Barak, 2005; Ryan, 2011). While much empirical attention has been given to measuring the quality of reflective texts, little insight has been gained so far into how writing academic reflections in a FLTE context actually unfolds and how it can be scaffolded or taught.

## 1 Reflective writing in teacher education

Central to the development of adequate support for writing reflective texts in higher education is a consideration of different dimensions which constitute reflective writing. Useful distinctions can be made with respect to *context*, *content*, *timing*, *audience*, *purpose*, *language* and *levels* of reflective writing.

The *context* of reflective writing scenarios in FLTE can range from seminar settings and their theoretical content, working with videotaped or observed lessons to lessons or teaching sequences taught by students themselves in labs, microteaching contexts or in actual schools. The context will naturally have an impact on all the dimensions mentioned above, most notably in relation to *content*. In settings which involve practical teaching experience, students are often asked to reflect upon their lesson plans, achieved aims, teacher and student actions, critical incidents, and possible consequences, solutions as well as implications for their future practices. Reflective writing also aims to focus students' attention on their individual development, the progress they have made and how they plan to develop their teaching competences further. There is, however, very little subject-specific, evidence-based guidance on potential content of reflective writing in practice-based FLTE settings. It has been established that prompts which are used to initiate reflection have a strong impact on the content and type of students' reflections (Bechtel & Mayer, 2019; Hatton & Smith, 1995). Task design in reflective FLTE is therefore central and the question needs to be raised as to what exactly it is that student teachers are

supposed to think about and in what direction their thought processes should be guided. Kaasila & Lauriala's (2012) findings show that a multi-contextual approach is highly beneficial in order to broaden and deepen students' reflections. In their research, they asked students participating in a four-week internship to focus their reflective writing not only on the lesson itself but also explicitly on pupils' learning, on the reading of research literature as well as on autobiographical tasks. Particularly the research reading and the autobiographical context seemed to deepen students' reflections and helped them to engage in identity work linking their past, present, and future teacher identities.

With respect to the *timing* of reflection, students thought processes will be mostly retrospective (*reflection-on-action*, Schön, 1983) when reflecting upon actual teaching experiences, but can also involve the reporting of *reflection-in-action* (Schön, 1983) or anticipatory thoughts, if other field experiences follow (Rogers, 2001). Reflective writing in an educational context will usually be targeted at an *audience* (a mentor / supervisor or peers), but it can also be personal when students are asked to just write for themselves. Interesting questions are currently being raised by researchers with respect to reflective tasks being obligatory or not and the effect this has on students' writing. Rosenberger (2017) found out that 37% of the students she interviewed perceived reflective tasks as being a mere compulsory exercise, particularly if they did not feel they had any problematic teaching episodes to report on.

With respect to different *functions* of reflective writing at tertiary level, Herman and Furer (2015) distinguish a *documenting function*, an *epistemic function* as well as a *coping function*. Their analysis of guidelines and manuals for reflective writing showed that there is considerable overlap between them and that one often leads to another. The first function which involves documenting and describing teaching events, is seen as a basic skill to be developed in teacher education. On the basis of describing events, reflective writing then mostly adopts an epistemic stance in that the reflective process should lead to some form of knowledge transformation. This might entail activating previous knowledge, raising awareness of tacit knowledge, linking theory with teaching experiences, or hypothesizing about solutions to problematic events. Herman & Furer argue with Bereiter & Scardamalia (2014) that an adequately complex and cognitively challenging situation must be given in order for students to feel a desire or necessity for *knowledge telling* and subsequently for *knowledge transformation* to happen. The coping function of reflective writing is geared towards problem-solving or individual empowerment with respect to difficult and burdensome situations. In the context of teacher education, reflective writing is also often used to demonstrate learning and growth in students' professional knowledge, so it could be argued that a *demonstrating function* could be added. Furthermore, reflective writing in FLTE also serves the purpose of promoting student teachers' reflective abilities. It therefore also has a *metacognitive function*.

This paper argues that reflective writing has yet another function, which could be described as supporting the development of a subject-specific *language* of

64 a community of practice – in this context the community of (prospective) English language teachers. The verbal expression of teacher knowledge and teacher identity has also been described as teachers' *professional language* or their *professional discourse competence* (Hallet, 2006; Knorr, 2015; Ryan, 2011; Wipperfürth, 2015; Yayli, 2012). Investigating student teachers' professional language use beyond the mere counting of discipline-related terminology can be achieved by adopting a genre-based linguistic approach. Ryan (2011), for example, suggests a close examination of the language used in reflective writing as one particular type of academic genre. She points out that academic, as opposed to personal reflection is complex and has high rhetorical demands. She argues that an awareness of the textual features and linguistic resources of reflective texts can support the teaching and assessment of such writing. According to her analysis, the genre achieves its purpose through discourse functions such as *description*, *recount*, *explanation* and *discussion*, and their respective linguistic realisations:

For example, it uses first person voice (I) with thinking and sensing processes (verbs/verbal groups), as does any form of reflection, yet it also requires the use of nominalisation (verb turned into noun) and technical participants (nouns/noun groups) of the discipline to allow dense and abstract concepts to be efficiently stated and compared. It also demands the use of evidentiary adjectival (descriptive attributes) and causal adverbial (circumstantial) groups to show reasoning and explanation. (Ryan, 2011, pp. 103–104)

Studies which aim at tracing teachers' theoretical knowledge base often revert to quantifying participants' use of subject-specific technical jargon. In an educational context the question needs to be raised, however, as to how student teachers' *developing abilities* to verbalize their dynamic and emerging professional competences can be described. The focus of this study is therefore placed on exploring how prospective foreign language teachers verbalize their thoughts in their reflective writing and particularly, what kind of discourse functions they use within the genre.

## 2 Levels of reflective thinking

One of the major goals of reflective writing in teacher education seems to be to achieve higher *levels* of reflective thinking. In order to evaluate the quality of learning environments or to investigate the impact particular measures have, students' *reflective competences* are assessed by analysing students' texts with respect to their *reflective depth* or *breadth*. Reflective breadth refers to the content of reflection and the ability to relate phenomena to various domains of teacher knowledge (Leonhard et al., 2011). This concept is based on the assumption that professional knowledge and reflective skills are strongly interrelated. Klempin (2019), in her study on the development of reflective competence in the context of teaching-learning



labs, operationalized reflective breadth based on Shulman's (1987) definition of *pedagogical content knowledge* (PCK). A far greater number of studies have tried to investigate the quality of reflective texts by analysing their *reflective depth*. Most of these studies base their analysis on multi-level models of reflection, which describe different forms of reflection. They are often informed by early frameworks suggested, for example, by van Manen (1977), who used the concepts of *technical rationality*, *deliberate rationality* and *critical rationality*, or Schön (1983) with his distinction between *technical rationality*, *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action* (for a systematic review on reflection models see Poldner et al., 2014). Many studies refer to Hatton & Smith's model (1995) either as a theoretical foundation or as a basis for context-specific adaptations (e.g. Abels, 2011; Klempin, 2019). Hatton & Smith (1995) distinguish between four levels of reflective writing: (1) *descriptive writing*, (2) *descriptive reflection*, (3) *dialogic reflection*, and (4) *critical reflection*, which are outlined by the authors in the following way:

In essence, the first is not reflective at all, but merely reports events or literature. The second, descriptive, does attempt to provide reasons based often on personal judgement or on students' reading of literature. The third form, dialogic, is a form of discourse with one's self, an exploration of possible reasons. The fourth, critical, is defined as involving reason giving for decisions or events which takes account of the broader historical, social, and/or political contexts. (Hatton & Smith, 1995, 40–41)

The categorisation of reflection into various levels used in many studies is mostly hierarchical: from descriptive being not at all reflective, and therefore less desirable, to multi-perspective, dialogic or critical reflection, being most desirable. Several authors have criticized such a hierarchical description of various levels as they imply a linearity and the idea that the highest level of reflection is most desirable (Aeppli & Lötscher, 2016; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Poldner et al., 2014). Given that reflective thinking takes place in a variety of contexts as well as in different developmental phases student teachers go through, it can be argued that it is better to use the idea of different *types* or *categories* of reflection rather than specific levels in order to emphasise that all of them are relevant and necessary (Aeppli & Lötscher, 2016).

Aeppli & Lötscher's (2016) framework of reflection (EDAMA) uses the idea of categories or domains instead of levels (e.g. *describing a situation*, *interpreting*, *using appropriate terminology*) in order to describe moments of reflective thinking during different phases of reflection (1 – *experiencing*, 2 – *presenting*, 3 – *analysing*, 4 – *developing measures* and 5 – *applying*). The 15 domains of reflection outlined in the EDAMA framework are not presented in a hierarchical order, and they are not meant to be followed one after the other. EDAMA was designed to describe the nature of reflective processes comprehensively and establish a basis for analysing them. A more accurate understanding of reflection can support educators in fostering student teachers' reflective thinking skills, but more research on how to actually operationalize reflective moments is still necessary.

Another body of research which attempts to evaluate (student) teachers' reflective competences is rooted in the concept of *professional vision* as described by Goodwin (1994) and transferred to the context of teacher training by Sherin (2001; 2007). As video-based reflection in teacher education has strongly increased over the last few decades, professional vision has gained much theoretical and empirical attention, particularly in the field of mathematics or physics but also more recently in the field of foreign language teacher education (Dawidowicz, 2019; Janík & Janíková, 2019; Minaříková et al., 2015; Uličná, 2017; Weger, 2019; Wipperfürth, 2015; 2019). It has been described as the ability to notice (*selective attention*) and interpret (*knowledge-based reasoning*) important features of classroom interaction (Sherin & van Es, 2009, p. 20), and as an indicator of (student) teachers' abilities to apply professional knowledge to authentic classroom situations (Sherin & van Es, 2009; Stürmer et al., 2013). Compared with other models of reflection, the concept of professional vision places a stronger focus on (student) teachers' conceptual knowledge as a basis for noticing and interpreting relevant classroom events, as Stürmer et al. (2013) point out when defining the process of knowledge-based reasoning:

Knowledge-based reasoning describes their [teachers'] cognitive processing of instructional events, based on their knowledge about teaching and learning (Borko, 2004; Sherin, 2007; van Es & Sherin, 2002). The ability to reason about noticed classroom events provides insights into the quality of teachers' mental representations of knowledge and the transfer of those representations to the classroom context. (Stürmer et al., 2013, p. 469)

Although the perception of professional vision as a solely cognitive ability and its investigation on the basis of academic standards has been criticized for being deficiency-oriented (cf. Lefstein & Snell 2011; Wipperfürth, 2015; Weger, 2019), it draws attention to teachers' professional understanding of teaching and learning processes and its development in higher education. Similar to research on reflective competence, studies on professional vision have also investigated depth and breadth in reflection as they focus on *content* on the one hand as well as *stances* or levels of reflection on the other (e.g. Uličná, 2017; Stürmer et al., 2013). The majority of these studies explore (student) teachers' knowledge-based reasoning skills by analysing different kinds of reflective discourse. They have also identified and deployed various levels of reflection, which are illustrated in Table 1.

As the overview illustrates, terms and levels vary according to the context and focus of the studies. They are used in coding schemes to analyse reflective data and as such are usually not elaborated on in detail. A closer look at these levels of reflective thought might, however, contribute to a better understanding of the discursive practices student teachers engage in when reflecting upon teaching experiences.

**Table 1** Different levels of knowledge-based reasoning

Authors & Research Context	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5	Level 6
<b>Sherin &amp; van Es (2009)</b> Mathematics teachers in video-clubs	Description	Evaluation	Interpretation			
<b>Stürmer et al. (2013)</b> Student teachers in the context of their general education studies	Describing	Explaining	Predicting			
<b>Blomberg et al. (2014)</b> Student teachers in the context of their general education studies	Description	Evaluation	Integration			
<b>Seidel &amp; Prezel (2007)</b> Expert physics teachers, school inspectors and student teachers	Describing	Explaining	Evaluating			
<b>Uličná (2017)</b> EFL student teachers	Description	Explanation	Theorizing	Evaluation	Alteration	Prediction

### 3 Verbal representations of reflective thinking

Studies on professional vision or reflective competence frequently operate with categories like describing, explaining, comparing etc., but rarely put an emphasis on these verbal actions. Some insight into the nature of reflective thinking can be gained by looking at the information studies provide on how the quality of reflective writing was operationally defined, but usually these methodological exemplifications are kept fairly short. In some cases, utilized categories are only named (Sherin & van Es, 2009), in other studies they are outlined in a bit more detail (Hatton & Smith, 1995; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Manouchehri, 2002; Stürmer et al. 2013). This is usually done, however, without providing definitions on how units of reflective thought were coded.

From studies that outline coding processes in more detail we can gather to some extent what kind of (mental) actions students perform when engaging in a reflective task. The starting point in all of the frameworks is a process of *describing* what has been noticed. Students provide an account of what happened in order to establish a context and to determine what it is that will become the focus of reflection. This process “reflects teachers’ ability to identify and differentiate between relevant classroom events” (Stürmer et al. 2013: 469). Processes that follow are analytical in nature and categories used to describe these activities are manifold. They range from *explaining*, *interpreting*, *generalizing*, *theorizing* and *evaluating* (see Table 1) in the context of professional vision to *comparative reflection*, *analysing*, *confronting* or *justification* in studies on reflective practice (Aeppli & Lötscher, 2016; Jay & Johnson, 2002; Poldner et al., 2014). Establishing clear boundaries between them is difficult as different terminology is used for similar actions and definitions of categories are often brief or non-existent. What seems central in this second comprehensive category is the idea of *explaining* an action or event by:

- decoding significance and clarifying meaning;
- analysing how things are related and identifying causal factors;
- classifying it by relating it to theoretical knowledge;
- applying appropriate subject-related terminology;
- referring to research, theory, coursework;
- looking at it from various perspectives;
- comparing actions with personal experiences.

One central element of reflective texts in teacher education is establishing links between theory and practice, which is sometimes subsumed under *explaining* or *reasoning* or labelled as *theorizing*. Uličná (2017, p. 44) defined it as the “interpretation and generalisation of what was seen using an underlying theory” and Stockero (2008, p. 377) coded units of reflective texts as *theorizing* when student teachers “referred to research or course readings in a way that added support to an analysis, or provided substantial evidence to justify the analysis”.

*Evaluating* as another central stance towards reflection, is sometimes subsumed under the concept of explaining, but more often it is listed separately (see Table 1). It refers to making “judgments about the quality of the interactions” (Sherin & van Es, 2009).

Most frameworks then establish categories that describe a change of perspective. From looking at what happened and how and why it happened, the focus shifts towards a more anticipatory reflection, *hypothesizing* and thinking about effects, implications of actions taken as well as possible alterations or transformations to enable alternative action. In the studies of a group of Czech researchers (cf. Uličná, 2017), the discourse pattern of *alteration* was added, which describes students “suggesting an alternative to what was seen” (Uličná, 2017, p. 44). Poldner et al. use the term *transfer* to describe thoughts that are “concerned with how the next action becomes different or better than what was previously done” (2014, p. 10). *Predicting*, a concept used in many studies on professional vision, describes “the

ability to predict the consequences of observed events for student learning processes by drawing on broader pedagogical knowledge and transferring this to classroom practice” (Stürmer et al., 2013). *Critical* stances towards reflection question underlying moral and ethical dimensions with respect to social, political, and economic forces that influence classroom events.

Reflective actions that are rarely made explicit in the form of categories, however, are the verbalizing of emotions as well as processes of self-reflection, although they form an integral part of reflective practice (Aeppli & Lötscher, 2016; Bechtel & Mayer, 2019; Farrel, 2019; Golombek & Johnson, 2019; Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005; Weger, 2019). Interestingly, Aeppli and Lötscher (2016) incorporate two perspectives into their model: an inward and an outward-looking direction of thought. While the outward perspective looks at the setting, the participants and their actions, adopting an inward perspective involves aspects like emotions, beliefs, individual competences, professional identity or mission. According to their model, all types of reflection can result from one of these two perspectives. The emotional side of an experience should therefore be seen as an integrative part of reflection, which should not be neglected but rather given a lot more empirical attention.

In research to date, a strong focus has been placed on the quantitative and qualitative study of knowledge-based reasoning processes by assessing the depth and breadth of students' reflection. Investigations tend to adopt an evaluative approach. Little is known however about how knowledge-based reflection actually unfolds as students engage in written reflective tasks. Professional vision has mostly been investigated in video-based learning or assessment scenarios, but not in the context of an internship. This is why the study wants to explore discursive practices of pre-service teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) who reflect on lessons they taught themselves during their teaching practicums. The aim of the study is to investigate how EFL student teachers write about their experiences in a practicum setting, and to analyse how student teachers verbalise their reflections.

## 4 Context of the study

The study focuses on reflective writing of EFL student teachers in the context of their subject-related teaching practicum. In the course of one semester, students observe and teach EFL lessons at German secondary schools on a weekly basis. A group of 5–6 students and a mentor first observe a lesson taught by the subject teacher. After that, students plan and teach one single or double lesson per week. These lessons are planned by two students (planner and co-planner), but they are usually taught individually. After a first draft of the lesson plan is handed in, the two students and the mentor meet up for a consultation. The lesson grid is then redrafted in final preparation for the lesson. The group, the mentor and the subject teacher observe and then discuss the lesson after it has been taught. Students are asked to write a reflective essay based on one of the two lessons they conducted. The writing

70 process is supported by a list of guiding questions (see appendix). The essay is part of a seminar which accompanies the teaching practicum. Students receive feedback from their instructors, and it is assessed on a pass or fail basis. Students attending this course and the practicum are usually in their third year of their EFL teacher degree at a German university.

## 5 Research methodology

The study is based on the in-depth analysis of six reflective essays. The texts were selected by means of a purposive sampling. In order to ensure the presence of maximum variability within the data, the researcher and the course instructor chose essays that covered a spectrum including two essays each that were of a basic, an average and an advanced level with respect to reflective depth.

A linguistically-based analysis of the reflective texts focused on investigating *discourse functions* used by students in their writing. Discourse functions, a concept frequently used in studies on Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and based on the fundamental notion of speech acts, are linguistic realisations of cognitive processes (Vollmer & Thürmann, 2013; Dalton-Puffer, 2013; Morton, 2020). They have also been described as thinking skills following a hierarchical order (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001; Bloom, 1956). Used as operators in educational contexts, they provide a set of verbs (e.g. describe, explain) which clarify what students are expected to do with a particular content (Morton, 2020). In a CLIL-context, cognitive discourse functions are seen as a link between cognition and verbalisation and as a bridge between content and subject literacy.

In this study, the research focus was on describing typical discourse functions in teaching-based reflective writing by investigating students' verbal actions. Texts were coded using MAXQDA software and first codes aimed to describe basic communicative intentions. After the first round of inductive coding, categories were refined by comparing them to types and levels of reflective thought established in other studies (cf. Table 1). This process led to a coding scheme that described the discourse functions students in this study used when engaging in reflective writing (see Table 2). The analysis was not meant to reconstruct *levels* of reflective thought in a hierarchical order; the focus was placed more on a description of verbal actions the students performed within the process of writing a reflective essay based on a lesson they had taught themselves. After the development and subsequent refinement of the coding scheme, all texts were coded using the code system provided in Table 2.

A more fine-grained analytical focus was then placed on investigating particular units of reflective thought in more detail, using techniques borrowed from discourse analysis. Here the aim was to trace how student teachers verbalize reflections which had turned out to be characteristic of this type of text in the context of the present study: analytical attention was directed towards *knowledge-related processes of reflection* and the expression of *emotions*.

## 6 Results

The focus of the investigation was on producing a comprehensive description of discursive practices student teachers engage in when reflecting on lessons they taught themselves in a practicum setting.

### 6.1 Discourse functions in reflective writing

Table 2 outlines the results of the investigation by listing discourse functions that could be found in the data. Definitions of the different types of reflective writing are provided alongside exemplary linguistic realisations which, in turn, are illustrated by examples from the data.

**Table 2** Discourse functions in student teachers' reflective writing

Function	Description	Linguistic realisations	Examples
DF1 <i>Describing</i>	Providing a descriptive account of an experience, noticing relevant events	I did ..., then I ... The students did ... / were ...	I started off with a reactivation of the students' pre-knowledge on British culture. (Lena_15)
DF2 <i>Evaluating</i>	Assessing if actions / events / plans were effective / successful or not, if aims were achieved	... worked out well ... went according to plan ... was a good decision ... was problematic / challenging The students were able to / eager to / motivated ...	I could see that my instructions worked well and I think letting them rephrase the last and most difficult one in German was a good decision. (Rieke_28)
DF3 <i>Identifying indicators</i>	Identifying indicators for evaluating plans / events / actions / aims	They seemed to ... They did ... / didn't ... / They could ... / couldn't They were able to ... ... which I gathered from their ...	When I walked through the rows, they did not seem to have any difficulties; neither in finding nor in recording their answers to the text's guiding questions. (Lena_20)
DF4 <i>Explaining / Reasoning</i>	Explaining how various events are connected, what caused certain events / actions, giving reasons for evaluations, justifying	A reason for that might be ... This was due to the fact that ... I attribute that to ... They were able to ... because ...	Towards the end of the lesson, I noticed a decrease in concentration. I attribute that partly to the fact that the last task was the hardest and that the subject gave the biggest room for a chat with a neighbour. (Rieke_32)

Function	Description	Linguistic realisations	Examples
DF5 <i>Noticing effects</i>	Realizing consequences / effects certain actions / events had	I felt that ... I realized that ... I noticed ... After I did ... the pupils ... This led to ... It made ...	Those elements were a key feature of each sequence during my lesson and I felt as if it really helped all the students, without the need for time-consuming differentiation. (Iris_29)
DF6 <i>Theorizing</i>	Substantiating / justifying plans / actions / explanations / evaluations by referring to academic concepts / theory / literature	According to ... ... as suggested / recommended by ... I made use of ...	Fortunately, I did not have to deal with many disturbances, but, when someone did not listen or a little chatting began, I used wordless interventions recommended by Scrivener (2012, p. 237-238). (Jenny_23)
DF7 <i>Suggesting alternatives</i>	Presenting or speculating about alternative teacher actions	I should / could have ... I did (not) ... instead of ... If I were to teach the same lesson again, I would ... It might have been ... Perhaps it might have helped if ...	I should have put more emphasis on the correct pronunciation of the new words by letting the pupils repeat them in plenary. (Lena_21)
DF8 <i>Hypothesizing</i>	Predicting student responses / effects if different actions had been taken	Students might have ... if I ... I should have ... in order to ...	Still, by investing more time in the exercise, they could have started to incorporate the words properly into their mental lexicon or even to use them actively. (Lena_21)
DF9 <i>Self-reflection (retrospective &amp; prospective)</i>	Stating personal aims and where they derive from; stating strengths and weaknesses; summing up what has been learnt; referring to own teacher identity / beliefs about TEFL; recounting experiences as a language learner; outlining implications for	My personal aim for the lesson was ... I had the goal to ... It was important for me to ... I wanted to ... I learned that ... I managed to ... I noticed / realized / found that ... I think I know better now ... I wish I had ... I need to get / have / remind myself ...	I still have to focus on being brief and to really make sure I have the class's full attention. (Anna_6)



Function	Description	Linguistic realisations	Examples
	further professional development	It is necessary that I / I would want to improve ... I still have to focus on ... In order to ... I will ... I hope I can ... I will try to ... I want to learn more about ...	
DF10 <i>Expressing emotions</i>	Recalling and reflecting on emotions - during the planning stage - before conducting the lesson - during the lesson - after the lesson	I really enjoyed ... I felt / was ... ... relieved / delighted / happy / nervous / stressed / anxious / ... It was ... ... rewarding / ...	I was a bit irritated when I noticed that I had missed out on that. (Rieke_33)

The discourse functions described in Table 2 are reiterated throughout the reflection and occur in cyclical processes. They are responsive to the context (reflecting on a lesson they taught themselves), and the questions suggested in the guidelines for writing a reflective essay (see appendix), but could not be exclusively assigned to certain prompts only. With respect to thematic foci of attention, it could be observed that students discussed the questions that were posed in the reflective task (e.g. the planning process, personal aims, their lesson plan and their aims, teacher and learner actions) as well as genre-specific content (e.g. explaining the contextual background to an imagined reader). A special focus was placed on questions of classroom management as well as critical incidents. A thematic content analysis would provide more insight here, but shall not be the focus of this paper.

Within these texts, sequences of reflective thought could be discerned which centre around a particular teaching event. A reflective sequence often begins with a description (DF1), which is followed by an evaluation (DF2), or both coincide when, for example, a problematic situation is described:

For the next task, however, I was not able to write the task on the board and just told the students what to do. They were able to complete the task but I think not all of the students understood it and just did what their neighbour did. Jenny\_25

Evaluations are sometimes supported by indicators when students outline what they base their evaluation on (DF3). This is closely related to students noticing what

74 *consequences* an action had (DF5). Students engage in *reasoning* processes (DF4) when they explain and justify plans or actions (Why did I act this way?), evaluations (Why do I think it went well/not so well?), or alternative actions (Why should I have reacted differently?). When students *explain or justify* a plan or action (DF4) or when they think about *alternatives* (DF7, DF8), they often base their reasoning on *theory* they studied (DF6). *Theorizing* (DF6) as a category is closely connected to other discourse functions. It is mostly realized by using technical jargon and academic language or by quoting from TEFL-related literature. However, a closer examination of verbal actions when theorizing revealed considerable variation among students regarding their use of professional language. Results of a more fine-grained analysis of students' professional language across all categories shall be presented in the following subchapter.

## 6.2 Students' use of professional language

Verbalizations representing students' PCK range from their use of *everyday language* in order to express their understanding of subject-specific concepts to arguing in a highly elaborate and profound manner using professional language. Some units of analysed text show that students' PCK is only just emerging and conceptual thinking is in a process of development within each participant's zone of proximal development (ZPD). This can be illustrated by the following example:

The subject teacher gave us the *basic construct* for our lesson, a text about Becky Falls Woodland Park and the *idea* to let the pupils write a dialogue. Therefore, we already had the *scaffold* for our lesson. (Anna\_3) [emphasis added]

The student's wording displays her understanding that she had received support through the English teacher's specification of the lesson's *content* ("basic construct") and its overall lesson aim ("the idea to ..."). In other words, she had started to realize that lesson content and aims are central dimensions of lesson planning which need to be negotiated, but she could not yet word her understanding in a conceptually precise way. It can be argued that it is not only through the use of appropriate TEFL-terminology that students display a (still developing) understanding of teaching conceptions.

Data analysis also showed that in some cases students' *understanding* of TEFL-related concepts is only just developing. Technical terms and concepts are used in a way that still need restructuring, refinement or elaboration. Against the backdrop of a sociocultural notion of learning, it seems essential to allow for some form of dialogue with "expert others" (Vygotsky, cf. Golombek & Johnson, 2019) in order to mediate student teachers' learning processes.

Students' use of professional language is particularly evident when students *explain, evaluate or justify* decisions or actions. But data analysis also revealed that knowledge is frequently expressed during phases of *describing*, although descriptions

are positioned at the lowest level of reflection in most frameworks (see Table 1). The following example illustrates a student's use of professional language when describing what she had planned:

The following *study phase* allowed me to cover *useful phrases* and put the emphasis on *indirect/ direct speech*, which they had learned in the previous part of the lesson by my co-planner. The *activation* consisted of writing a letter of complaint in which the students had to *use all of the language they know* including the *new grammar structures*. Iris\_15 [emphasis added when professional language was used]

Although descriptions are often regarded as less desirable because they are considered to be non-reflective, it can be argued that they are an essential step in a reflective cycle. Not only because they provide the context for further reflections, but also because they provide the opportunity for student teachers to practice their PCK-related language skills. Only if texts are coherent and terminology is used appropriately are they comprehensible to the reader. Descriptions also ask the student teacher to stop and think, to postpone judgements and interpretations, to carefully (re)consider what actually happened without jumping to conclusions too early (Aeppli & Löttscher, 2016; Rodgers, 2002; Rosenberger, 2017).

When analysing lessons, students' use of professional language is on the one hand closely linked to the actual situation students experienced. This is reflected through language use that is directed towards pupils' or student teachers' *actions* (Pupils could ..., I had to ..., I should have ...). Such reflections can also be retrospective (I managed to ...), hypothetical (I should have ...) or prospective (Next time I would ...). On the other hand, professional language sometimes becomes more abstract and goes beyond thinking about what could best be done in a certain situation. Reflections are then geared towards a more general understanding of underlying concepts. Reflective thoughts seem to move back and forth between context-bound (re)lived experiences and decontextualized generalizations (cf. Golombek & Johnson, 2019; Macnaught, 2020). This process also describes what Korthagen (2011) calls a shift from *personal practical knowledge*, which is "very much coloured by the desire to know how to act in particular situations" (2011, p. 37) towards "the level of formal theory". Similar to Korthagen's observations, the last level "at which a logical ordering is constructed in the personal practical theory formed before" (2011, p. 37) is rarely demonstrated in students' reflective writings. However, data analysis in this study also indicates that students' verbalizations can be placed along a *continuum* somewhere between displaying an everyday and an academic understanding of concepts; and between thinking about the here-and-now and generalizing from their experience. There are units of text in students' essays which are not distinctly geared towards a theoretical understanding of underlying concepts but which show that students begin to step back from the situation and adopt a slightly more general perspective. This is particularly evident when students reason about something and try to justify it with theory ("A reason for that might be...") or when they write about their conclusions ("I learnt ...," "... is a decisive component", "It is essential to...").

76 Another way of demonstrating knowledge (*knowledge telling*) is students' reference to *literature*. This is realized by quoting either directly or indirectly from a text and stating the source. Students mainly cite TEFL-publications which are used in TEFL-seminars. A closer examination of the data revealed various purposes for quoting literature: fulfilling a task (see Q2.7 in the appendix), acknowledging a source with respect to ideas, key concepts or teaching strategies they used, justifying plans and instant decisions, corroborating their reasoning, and relating theory to practice. In most cases, processes of *knowledge telling* could be found in the data. Only sometimes *knowledge transformation* could be assumed (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1987) when, for example, students engaged in a critical analysis of their actions against the backdrop of the theory they studied, thereby aiming to generate an alignment of practice with theory.

### 6.3 Emotions in teaching-based reflective writing

A dimension of reflective thinking and writing which is often neglected or downplayed in teacher education (cf. Golombek & Doran, 2014) is the verbalizing of *emotions* (DF10). Compared with video-based learning scenarios that focus on the study of lessons taught by other (student) teachers, the context of a teaching practicum and the reflection of self-conducted lessons naturally leads to more emotional as well as self-reflective responses. When verbalizing emotions students in this study express both positive and negative feelings in similar quantities. Positive emotions are reported when students feel *confident*, *excited*, *enthusiastic* and *motivated* before actually teaching, *proud* or *happy* in response to pupils' reactions in the classroom, or *relieved* and *happy* after completing the lesson. Negative feelings are mostly related to *nervousness*, *anxiety*, *insecurities* and *stress* before or during certain parts of the lesson. When negative feelings are verbalized with respect to events in the classroom, it is mostly in connection with challenging situations or critical incidents.

The idea to let two students hand out all of the material for the individual groups was not properly thought through on my part. For that reason, I started to get insecure for a moment, which the students echoed immediately, especially by becoming talkative. Due to this problematic classroom management, I had to adjust my original schedule. (Lena\_18)

It could be argued that a focus on positive or negative emotions when reflecting on teaching experiences could help students notice relevant teaching events. Golombek & Doran (2014) argue for an explicit inclusion of feelings in FLTE-related journal writing as they are "intertwined with cognition and activity as part of the developmental process of beginning teachers" (2014, p. 110). They can serve as starting points to reflect upon instructional practices engendered by an emotion and they can be addressed in mediation with a view to becoming "growth points" for the individual student teacher (ibid).

## 7 Discussion

The investigation of discourse functions in prospective EFL teachers' reflective writing gave an insight into how students verbalize their thoughts while reflecting on lessons taught in their teaching practicum (see Table 2). They can form a basis for further investigations tracing, for instance, how reflective acts are mutually dependent, how they typically unfold or what they are influenced by. Following calls to explicitly teach reflective writing in higher-education courses (e.g. Ryan, 2011), the outlined *discourse functions* and their *linguistic realisations* (Table 2) could be addressed in FLTE-courses when, for example, exemplary reflective texts are studied or scaffolding is provided in order to develop a shared language of reflection assisting students in demonstrating discourse competence.

Compared with video-based settings which are normally the focus of investigations on professional vision, it could be shown that guided reflection in teaching-based learning scenarios initiates processes of *self-reflection* (DF9), the reporting of *emotions* (DF10) as well as knowledge-based reasoning processes according to students' ZPD. The unity of cognition, emotion and activity proposed by Golombek and Doran (2014) is therefore particularly evident in students' reflections on situated teaching activity in actual language classrooms. Reflective processes in students' writing are based on their developing understanding of teaching conceptions and instructional practices. Research informed by sociocultural theory highlights the creation of *structured mediational spaces* (Golombek & Johnson, 2019), in which students can verbalize their everyday understandings, engage with academic concepts, and receive support from expert others. Students' implicit or explicit references to the co-construction of knowledge amongst students participating in the practicum, subject teachers as well as teacher educators indicate that the situated nature of the teaching practicum within a context that integrates school-based and academically reflected experience, creates the mediational space conducive to student learning.

Findings also suggest that emotive content emergent in the data is worthwhile looking at, as it is often related to descriptions of critical incidents. Emotions, for example as an expression of emotional or cognitive dissonance, might indicate areas in which further conceptual development may be needed (cf. Golombek & Doran, 2014). For teacher educators, emotive content could help to understand student teachers' individual ZPD and to scaffold their teaching experience respectively. It can be argued that an explicit focus on students' emotions might support them in their *selective attention* to critical incidents and their potential to function as individual growth points (cf. Farrell, 2019). Asking students to reflect on their feelings might even be extended to explicitly encourage them to describe moments during teaching which they found puzzling, troubling or exciting (cf. Rodgers, 2002).

The concept of professional vision, which has been predominantly used in video-based settings, has shown to be applicable also in the context of teaching-based learning scenarios. Data analysis has revealed that discourse functions like

78 *explaining, noticing effects, theorizing or hypothesizing* are particularly frequent when students reflect upon critical moments. The noticing-stage, as part of the idea of professional vision, is therefore central not only when analysing video material of lessons taught by others, but also when reflecting upon own lessons taught. More (empirical) attention should be given to the question as to how these noticing processes can be supported. Becoming aware of one's emotions can be one way of directing students' reflective processes in order to initiate a meaningful knowledge-based engagement with a particular teaching experience. Reflective writing would then be more than just a task that needs to be accomplished.

Limitations of the study are concerned with the small size of the sample. As the study only shares preliminary findings of a larger project, further analytical steps will be taken and the description of discourse functions will be tested against other researchers as well as compared with reflective texts from various learning contexts.

There has been much argument about the actual transformative power of reflection, questioning to what extent student teachers (re-)construct knowledge by engaging in reflective writing tasks. More research seems to be necessary in order to investigate how task design effects their writing, how *knowledge telling* and *knowledge transformation* can be distinguished and how transformative processes beyond the mere fulfilment of task requirements can be supported. Following more holistic approaches towards reflection (cf. Farrell, 2018; Gerlach, 2021; Korthagen, 2011) which call for an integration of student teachers' inner lives, their emotions and tacitly held assumptions, it seems a promising way to ask students even more explicitly to recall *emotions* (F6) and their source, to then *describe critical incidents* (F9), or to outline *personal aims* (F11) in their reflective writing in order to tap into their more implicit orientations

### Acknowledgement

I would like to thank the journal's anonymous reviewer for their constructive comments as well as Fiona Hynes for her critical reading of the text.

### References

- Abels, S. (2011). *LehrerInnen als "Reflective Practitioner": Reflexionskompetenz für einen demokratieförderlichen Naturwissenschaftsunterricht*. VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften / Springer.
- Abendroth-Timmer, D. (2017). Reflexive Lehrerbildung und Lehrerforschung in der Fremdsprachendidaktik: Ein Modell zur Definition und Rahmung von Reflexion. *Zeitschrift für Fremdsprachenforschung*, 28(1), 101–126.
- Aeppli, J., & Lötscher, H. (2016). EDAMA – Ein Rahmenmodell für Reflexion. *Beiträge zur Lehrerinnen- und Lehrerbildung*, 34(1), 78–97.
- Anderson, L. W., & Krathwohl, D. R. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives: Complete edition*. Longman.

- Bain, J., Ballantyne, R., Mills, C., & Lester, N. (2002). *Reflecting on practice: student teachers' perspectives*. Post Pressed.
- Bechtel, M., & Mayer, C. O. (2019). Professionelle Unterrichtswahrnehmung und Selbstreflexion schulen – Ein Projekt in der Lehrer(innen)bildung im Fach Französisch. *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 48(1), 50–62.
- Bereiter, C. & Scardamalia, M. (2014). Knowledge building and knowledge creation: One concept, two hills to climb. In S. C. Tan, H. J. So, & J. Yeo (Eds.), *Knowledge creation in education* (pp. 35–52). Springer.
- Bloom, B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals*. Longmans, Green.
- Blomberg, G., Sherin, M. G., Renkl, A., Glogger, I., & Seidel, T. (2014). Understanding video as a tool for teacher education: Investigating instructional strategies to promote reflection. *Instructional Science*, 41(3), 443–463.
- Borko, H. (2004). Professional development and teacher learning: Mapping the terrain. *Educational Researcher*, 33(8), 3–15. doi: 10.3102/0013189x033008003
- Burton, Jill (2009): Reflective practice. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards, (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 298–308). Cambridge University Press.
- Dawidowicz, M. (2019). Perspektiven auf das Lernen in virtuellen Gesprächen über eigene Unterrichtsvideos. *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 48(1), 84–102.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2013). A construct of cognitive discourse functions for conceptualising content-language integration in CLIL and multilingual education. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(2), 216–253.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2018). Operationalizing reflective practice in second language teacher education. *Journal of Second Language Teacher Education*, 1(1), 1–20.
- Farrell, T. S. C. (2019). Reflective practice in L2 teacher education. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 38–51). Routledge.
- Gerlach, D. (2021). Making knowledge work: Fostering implicit reflection in a digital era of language teacher education. *Language Education and Multilingualism – The Langscape Journal* 3, 39–51.
- Golombek, P., & Doran, M. (2014). Unifying cognition, emotion, and activity in language teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 39, 102–111.
- Golombek, P., & Johnson, K. E. (2019). Materialising a Vygotskian-inspired language teacher education pedagogy. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 25–37). Routledge.
- Goodwin, C. (1994). Professional vision. *American Anthropologist*, 96(3), 606–633.
- Hallet, W. (2006). *Didaktische Kompetenzen. Lehr- und Lernprozesse erfolgreich gestalten*. Klett.
- Hatton, N., & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11(1), 33–49.
- Hermann, T., & Furer, Y. (2015). Dokumentieren, Lernen, Bewältigen: Funktionen des schriftlichen Reflektierens. In M. Honegger, D. Ammann, & T. Hermann (Eds.), *Schreiben und Reflektieren: Denksuren zwischen Lernweg und Leerlauf* (pp. 35–44). hep Verlag.
- Janík, M., & Janíková, V. (2019). Entwicklung der professionellen Wahrnehmung künftiger Daf-Lehrer(innen) mittels einer videobasierten online-Plattform (Daf-Videoweb). *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 48(1), 63–83.
- Jay, J. K., & Johnson, K. L. (2002). Capturing complexity: A typology of reflective practice for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18(1), 73–85.
- Kaasila, R., & Lauriala, A. (2012). How do pre-service teachers' reflective processes differ in relation to different contexts? *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(1), 77–89.
- Klempin, C. (2019). *Reflexionskompetenz von Englischlehramtsstudierenden im Lehr-Lern-Labor-Seminar: Eine Interventionsstudie zur Förderung und Messung*. J. B. Metzler.

- 80 Klempin, C., & Rehfeldt, D. (2020). Promoting and measuring reflective skills in depth and breadth of English and physics teacher trainees. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 32(2), 225–239.
- Knorr, P. (2015). *Kooperative Unterrichtsvorbereitung: Unterrichtsplanungsgespräche in der Ausbildung angehender Englischlehrender*. Narr.
- Korthagen, F. A. J., & Vasalos, A. (2005). Levels in reflection: Core reflection as a means to enhance professional growth. *Teachers and Teaching*, 11(1), 47–71.
- Korthagen, F. A. J. (2011). Making teacher education relevant for practice: The pedagogy of realistic teacher education. *Orbis Scholae*, 5(2), 31–50.
- Lefstein, A., & Snell, J. (2011). Classroom discourse: The promise and complexity of dialogic practice. In E. McCartney & S. Ellis (Eds.), *Applied linguistics and primary school teaching* (pp. 165–185). Cambridge University Press.
- Legutke, M., & Schart, M. (Eds.). (2016). *Fremdsprachendidaktische Professionsforschung: Brennpunkt Lehrerbildung. Giessener Beiträge zur Fremdsprachendidaktik*. Narr Francke Attempto.
- Leonhard, T., Wüst, Y., & Helmstädter, S. (2011). *Evaluations- und Forschungsbericht Schulpraktische Studien 2008-2010*. Pädagogische Hochschule Heidelberg.
- Macnaught, L. (2020). Demystifying reflective writing in teacher education with Semantic Gravity. In C. Windberg, S. McKenna, & K. Wilmot (Eds.), *Building knowledge in higher education: New directions in teaching and learning* (pp. 19–36). Routledge.
- Manouchehri, A. (2002). Developing teaching knowledge through peer discourse. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18, 715–737.
- Minaříková, E., Pišová, M., Janík, T., & Uličná, K. (2015). Video clubs: EFL teachers' selective attention before and after. *Orbis scholae*, 9(2), 55–75.
- Morton, T. (2020). Cognitive discourse functions: A bridge between content, literacy and language for teaching and assessment in CLIL. *CLIL Journal of Innovation and Research in Plurilingual and Pluricultural Education*, 3(1), 7–17.
- Orland-Barak, L. (2005). Portfolios as evidence of reflective practice: What remains 'untold'. *Educational Research*, 47(1), 25–44.
- Poldner, E., van der Schaaf, M., Simons, P. R.-J., van Tartwijk, J., & Wijngaards, G. (2014). Assessing student teachers' reflective writing through quantitative content analysis. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(3), 348–373.
- Rogers, R. (2001). Reflection in higher education: A concept analysis. *Innovative Higher Education*, 26(1), 37–57.
- Rodgers, C. R. (2002). Voices inside schools: seeing student learning: Teacher change and the role of reflection. *Harvard Educational Review*, 72(2), 230–253.
- Rosenberger, K. (2017). Schreibend reflektieren. Zur Praxis institutionalisierter Reflexionstexte in der Lehramtsausbildung. In C. Berndt, T. Häcker, & T. Leonhard (Eds.), *Reflexive Lehrerbildung revisited: Traditionen – Zugänge – Perspektiven* (pp. 190–200). Klinkhardt.
- Ryan, M. (2011). Improving reflective writing in higher education: a social semiotic perspective. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 16(1), 99–111.
- Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. Basic Books.
- Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (1987). Knowledge telling and knowledge transforming in written composition. In S. Rosenberg (Ed.), *Advances in applied psycholinguistics: reading, writing, and language learning. Volume 2* (pp. 142–175). Cambridge University Press.
- Scrivener, J. (2012). *Classroom management techniques*. Cambridge University Press.
- Seidel, T., & Prenzel, M. (2007). Wie Lehrpersonen Unterricht wahrnehmen und einschätzen – Erfassung pädagogisch-psychologischer Kompetenzen mit Videosequenzen. *Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft* (Sonderheft 8), 201–216.
- Sherin, M. G. (2001). Developing a professional vision of classroom events: teaching elementary school mathematics. In B. S. Nelson, J. Warfield, & T. L. Wood (Eds.), *Beyond classical pedagogy: teaching elementary school mathematics* (pp. 75–93). Erlbaum.



- Sherin, M. G. (2007). The development of teachers' professional vision in video clubs. In R. Goldman, R. Pea, B. Barron, & S. Derry (Eds.), *Video research in the learning sciences* (pp. 383–395). Erlbaum.
- Sherin, M. G., & van Es, E. A. (2009). Effects of video club participation on teachers' professional vision. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 60(1), 20–37.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1–22.
- Stocker, S. (2008). Using a video-based curriculum to develop a reflective stance in prospective mathematics teachers. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*, 11, 373–394.
- Stürmer, K., Königs, K. D., & Seidel, T. (2013). Declarative knowledge and professional vision in teacher education: Effect of courses in teaching and learning. *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83, 467–483.
- Uličná, K. (2017). Professional vision of future English language teachers: Subject-specific noticing and knowledge-based reasoning. *E-Pedagogium*, 17(2), 38–49.
- van Es, E., & Sherin, M. G. (2002). Learning to notice: Scaffolding new teachers' interpretations of classroom interactions. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 10(4), 571–596.
- van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing with ways of being practical. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 6(3), 205–228.
- Vollmer, H. J. & Thürmann, E. (2013). Sprachbildung und Bildungssprache als Aufgabe aller Fächer der Regelschule. In M. Becker-Mrotzek, K. Schramm, E. Thürmann, & H. J. Vollmer (Eds.), *Sprache im Fach. Sprachlichkeit und fachliches Lernen*. Waxmann Verlag.
- Weger, D. (2019). Professional vision: State of the art zum Konstrukt der professionellen Unterrichtswahrnehmung in der Lehrer(innen)bildung. *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 48(1), 14–31.
- Wipperfürth, M. (2015). *Professional Vision in Lehrernetzwerken: Berufssprache als ein Weg und ein Ziel von Lehrerprofessionalisierung*. Waxmann Verlag.
- Wipperfürth, M. (2019). Oberflächliche Unterrichtsanalysen: Wie handlungsleitendes Wissen in Unterrichtsnachbesprechungen verhandelbar wird. *Fremdsprachen Lehren und Lernen*, 48(1), 103–122.
- Yayli, D. (2012). Professional language use by pre-service English as a foreign language teachers in a teaching certificate program. *Teachers and Teaching*, 18(1), 59–73.

Dr. Petra Knorr  
 University of Leipzig  
 Institute of British Studies  
 Beethovenstraße 15, 04107 Leipzig  
 Germany  
 pknorr@uni-leipzig.de

## Appendix

### Reflecting on your SPS-lessons: some guiding questions

#### 1 Observation

1. How did you go about planning the lesson? How did that feel?
2. What sequence did you use and why?
3. Outline briefly the main phases of your lesson (didactic steps, materials, activities, etc.).

- 82
4. What personal aims did you have for your lesson?
  5. How did you feel when teaching the lesson and standing in front of the class?
  6. How did your pupils respond to your teaching (Were they all on task, what problems did they have, what did they seem to enjoy most/least)?

## 2 Analysis

1. What did the pupils learn or practice in the lesson? Was there a clear outcome for them?
2. Were the aims of your lesson actually achieved?
3. Was the lesson too easy or too difficult for the pupils?
4. What worked out well and why? (pupil participation, interest, materials, pair work, etc.)
5. What problems occurred during the lesson? (media, time management, instructions, etc.)
6. What were the reasons for particular problems?
7. What did you learn in the lecture and the seminar about ...? How does that relate to what you experienced? How does that explain why something went well / not so well? Please make reference to at least four sources of TEFL literature.

## 3 Reflection in the narrower sense / Evaluation / Conclusion

1. What did you learn from planning the lesson (work with textbook & extra material, preparing content, co-planning, consultation, etc.)?
2. What did you learn from teaching the lesson?
3. What did you take from the advice / feedback you received (fellow students, the pupils, the teacher, the instructor/mentor)?
4. If you taught the same lesson again, what exactly would you do differently?
5. What are the aspects on which you'd like to focus special attention in future lessons (e.g. clearer instructions, more thorough content analysis, better time management, smoother transitions, address more pupils, increase student-talking-time, etc.)?
6. If this was your second SPS-lesson: What went well this time? Did you make progress in your effort to plan & teach a lesson? If not, what steps do you wish to take in order to seriously improve on your weaknesses?
7. What are you looking forward to in the next lessons you will teach?

The list of guiding questions was compiled and continually adapted by teacher educators of a FLTE programme at the University of Leipzig (most notably Fiona Hynes and the author).

# Professional Teacher Language: Its Contexts, Functions, and Potential to Further Teachers' Professionalism

Manuela Schlick

University of Vienna, Center for English Language Learning, Teaching and Teacher Education Research

**Abstract:** Much attention has been dedicated to the professional development of teachers and how their professional knowledge base is formed in teacher education, but little attention has been paid to the surface level of such measures, that is the professional language used and developed within teacher education. The first part of this article presents a definition of professional teacher language and provides overviews for its contexts and functions in order to conceptualise its role for teachers' professional development and its potential for teacher education. To further illustrate this potential, a cognitive-linguistic perspective is applied to discuss the relationship of practical teacher knowledge and its verbalisation. This touches on the fundamental question of what proportion and aspects of teachers' professional knowledge base can be made explicit through language and how language can help to form this knowledge base. The second part contextualises and discusses results from an empirical qualitative study of practitioner teachers' discussing their practice in a professional learning group. This illustrates one methodological approach to exploring how practitioners verbalise their decision making in practice within professional discourse in a professional learning community.

**Keywords:** professional language, professional development, language teaching, strategic knowledge, PCK

Language plays a fundamental role in teachers' professional development (PD). Much of what teachers do in order to systematically advance their practice is mediated through language. Before, after, and around teaching practice, language is – naturally – the foundation for all professional discourse of teachers. It permeates teacher education as a tool of acquisition, explication, reflection, communication, and evaluation. Maybe because it is such a natural, omnipresent tool it has been paid little attention in teacher education research. Professional teacher language is often conceptualised as the “surface phenomenon” of what is under investigation in areas like reflection, professional vision, teacher beliefs, and the professional knowledge base of teachers using interviews, written texts, and discourse as a basis, all of which consist of language-mediated data. But as a phenomenon in its own right, teachers' professional language and its relevance for teacher education and PD is under-researched. The aim of this contribution is to put this excellent tool of professional language right at the centre of attention and explore its role and functions for teacher education and the PD of teachers. This is also adequate as language is already often being used very deliberately and thoughtfully in teacher education, when formulating tasks, asking questions or it is evaluated critically in reflective tasks, exams, or seminar papers, and yet is rarely reflected upon itself.

<https://doi.org/10.14712/23363177.2022.11>  
[www.orbisscholae.cz](http://www.orbisscholae.cz)

## 1 Rationale

Teacher education and PD have both been intensively researched. For this reason, the initial literature review serves two purposes: firstly, the scarce research literature on language aspects of teacher education and teaching practice are discussed. Secondly, connections to major research areas and questions of teacher education and teaching practice are identified. With a general angle on English language teacher education, much research from general educational studies and other subjects is included. In the main part, a definition of professional teacher language is provided before the contexts in which teachers use language professionally are discussed. After sketching where teachers use language, the question as to what purposes such language use can serve is dealt with. Three figures about the contexts and functions of professional language are proposed to offer a concise overview of the truly broad field of focus that opens when looking at professional language use in teacher education and the PD of teachers.

## 2 Literature Review

Professional teacher language is not yet researched in Educational Sciences. Occasionally, it is discussed as a defining feature of the status of professionalism in teaching, in stark contrast to other professions like medicine (Bryson, 2016). In the discourse on teacher professionalism in the United Kingdom, professional language is occasionally mentioned but not defined or researched further. For example, Swann et al. (2010) list professional language as one of their defining features (Swann et al., 2010, p. 564). It is also mentioned but not explored further by Pollard (2010). Carr (2000) only touches on it within a critical appraisal of power play in professional discourse but does not offer a discussion of professional language either. There are no chapters with a title relating to professional language in recently published handbooks on general teacher education or second or foreign language teacher education (Burns et al., 2009; Loughran & Hamilton, 2016; Walsh & Mann, 2019).

Most educational research that includes an explicit focus on linguistic aspects has investigated discourse settings as in teacher collaboration (like professional learning communities, Bausmith and Barry 2011), mentoring and supervision (Copland, 2010; Donaghue, 2016; Waijnryb, 1994), post-teaching conferences (Knorr, 2015), post-observation feedback (Copland & Donaghue, 2019), or reflective writing (Knorr, this issue). But there is hardly an explicit analysis of the language used in those settings of teacher education. One exception is Hedgcock (2002, 2009), who calls for a “socioliterate approach” (Hedgcock, 2002) acknowledging the fact that novice teachers need to learn about text genres within teacher education and teaching practice. But, even for this area, he states that “little research has examined the role of genre awareness in language teacher development” (Hedgcock, 2009).

General Linguistics does dedicate research to subject-specific technical languages, analysing the form and role of technical terms within a system-linguistic approach (cf. Gunnarson, 2016; Roelcke, 2010). Such a system-linguistic perspective is occasionally used in research on teachers' professional vision (Seidel et al., 2011), albeit without discussing the cognitive-linguistic dimension and thus coming to partially problematic conclusions about teachers' professional skills (cf. Wipperfürth, 2015, p. 73). Other research on professional vision has yielded results on discourse patterns or the use of different discourse functions (Knorr; Uličná; both in this volume). Despite it being called "vision", professional vision was originally conceptualised as the discourse practices of experts and novices in a professional field, in Goodwin's case of lawyers and archaeologists (cf. Goodwin, 1994).

The research field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) offers many insights into genre pedagogy and its effectiveness in language teaching and literacy education in the context of ESP (Flowerdew, 2015; Hyland & Shaw, 2016). However, its potential for language teacher education itself has hardly been discussed (Hüttner et al., 2009). One exception is Hedgcock and Lee's (2017) study in which they apply approaches from ESP to language teacher education and aim for genre awareness in student teachers. However, Hedgcock (2002) and Hedgcock and Lee (2017) do not take a cognitive-linguistic view and thus does not explore the relationship between the linguistic surface level of professional language and the professional knowledge base that is being verbalised.

The following considerations are based on a cognitive-linguistic perspective on professional teacher language, discussing the interrelations of professional knowledge and professional language (cf. Roelcke, 2010, p.14). Cognitive Linguistics focusing on second language classrooms offer insights into cognitive processes during language acquisition (e.g. Holme, 2012), yet lack a focus on its relevance for teacher education. This is why, very briefly, relevant research from the field of teacher cognition (e.g. Borg, 2018; Li, 2019) is considered here. Neuweg (2011) argues that differences need to be drawn between applied professional knowledge ("Handlungswissen"), that is knowledge actually used while teaching on the one hand, and practice-guiding knowledge ("handlungsleitendes Wissen"), which is used when planning, reflecting, or communicating about teaching on the other hand. While it is debated how much of applied professional knowledge can actually be verbalized, Wipperfürth (2015) suggests applying the iceberg model of communication to professional discourse: without practice and a deliberate effort, only a certain portion of teachers' professional knowledge base can be explicated verbally. But by deliberately developing professional language as a tool to explicate teacher decision making and by cherishing professional discourse, we can increase the portion of what can be verbalised and discussed (Wipperfürth, 2015, p. 83).

As this study focuses on verbalisations of teacher knowledge, the focus lies on practice-guiding knowledge (Neuweg, 2011). Such practice-guiding knowledge is what allows for discourse about decision making in teaching. And teachers need to make many decisions when teaching. There is no current research on this, but

- 86 Borko et al. (1990) speak of 1500 decisions per day. When investigating the such practice-guiding knowledge, many studies refer to Shulman, who posits that the professional knowledge base of teachers involves different sources of knowledge or “categories” (Shulman, 1987, p. 9) of knowledge. His concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) has inspired intensive academic debate and much research (Kunter et al., 2009; Park & Oliver, 2008; see Berry et al., 2016, for an overview).

### 3 Part I: Phenomenology of a Professional Language of Teachers

As there is no definition of professional language of teachers to date, the present article wants to present such a definition based on a cognitive-linguistic understanding of it. Such a cognitive-linguistic perspective examines the relationship of professional language and professional teacher knowledge.

#### 3.1 Defining Professional Teacher Language

When teachers use language during teaching practice, their language becomes a tool and as such it is an expression and result of professional decision making: they make professionally situated decisions on how they phrase questions, explain a concept, give feedback, or set tasks. Teaching practice involves intensive online decision making which, due to its complex and dynamic nature, cannot happen explicitly (Neuweg, 2011). It is, thus, before or after teaching that teachers can enter a discourse about teaching. It is this temporal, spatial, and situational distance from the necessity to make decisions during classroom practice that allows teachers to reflect on, explicate, and exchange teaching decisions and experiences. These communications about teaching are what the concept of professional teacher language focuses on (Box 1).

#### Box 1 Professional Teacher Language

Professional teacher language is defined as the language teachers use to inform themselves, learn, document, plan, evaluate, reflect on, or communicate about teaching and related teacher decision making. It is a professional language in the sense that it aids individual acquisition of professional concepts, the reflection of, collegial discourse on, and further development of teachers’ responsible, effective, and appropriate decision making in the interest of successful educational and subject-related learning processes in the teachers’ professional work contexts.

This language might be used in oral, written, or multimodal form as well as in self-referenced or interactive settings. Professional teacher language thus includes readings, discussions, presentations, texts, audios and videos which teachers read, participate in, listen to, view, produce, or view with the aim of furthering their professional development and their teaching practice.

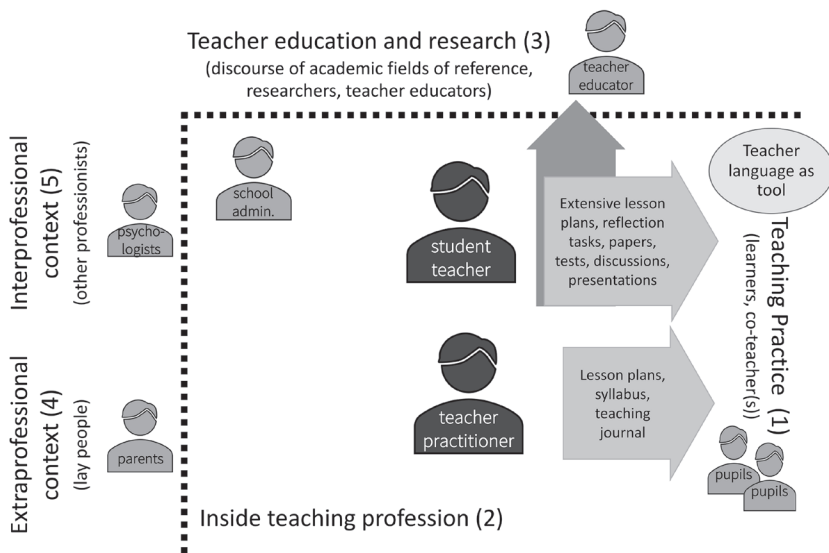


Figure 1 Contexts of professional language use

The content and aim of such language use can refer to all areas of teachers' practice. Figure 1 serves the purpose of visualising and distinguishing between those different contexts of language use of teachers, which are then explained below. This first step covers the surface level of language use and asks in which context, in which modes, and with whom teachers communicate about their professional work.

There are five main contexts in which teachers use language professionally: the core context includes teaching practice within the classroom (1) and the wider intra professional workspace "inside the teaching profession" (2), which includes, for example, school conferences, collegial cooperation, or mentoring. One major source for professional language lies in teacher education and research (3) with its academic fields of reference like the subject domains, subject-specific teaching methodology, pedagogy, or learning psychology. It is not only the context in which teachers learn about relevant concepts in the field but also one in which they acquire profession-specific text genres and discourse skills. The extraprofessional context (4) includes communicating with lay people, especially parents, while the interprofessional sphere (5) comprises all communication with professionals from other domains like psychologists or social workers, for example. The extra- and interprofessional contexts (4) and (5) are not further discussed in this article.

Within teaching practice (1) language is used as a tool. This form of professional language use is well researched, also because it is the main and most important aspect of teacher work, that is teaching practice for the sake of successful instruction and education. This use of language is called teacher language as a tool or teacher language within teaching. Due to its pivotal importance, it is an important point of reference when applying professional teacher language in reflections or

88 post-teaching conferences, for example. After all, any measure for the PD of teachers aims at improving the teaching and learning situation.

The second sphere is that inside the teaching profession (2). Physically, this is typically the school context that teacher practitioners work in. More generally, this sphere includes all intraprofessional communication about and for teaching. Teachers write and communicate for teaching when reading for, researching, planning, evaluating, or reflecting on teaching practice. This can be in the form of lesson plans, syllabi, or teaching journals, when it is carried out in written, monologic form and with the main aim of writing down one's own thoughts and making plans for oneself, which is thus called the self-referenced use of professional teacher language. All those texts can, of course, become part of collegial exchange and interaction when teachers collaborate with colleagues or serve as mentors for student or novice teachers.

Interactive communication also includes written forms such as reading or writing blogs, books, reports, material, or comments, which, due to modern technology, also allows for multimodal communication using videos, pictures, podcasts, or multimodal social media interaction (Fütterer et al., 2021), etc. Teachers can be both readers or authors of such material and thus use language to research for material, exchange with colleagues, or offer their expertise in the form of reports, teaching materials, comments, videos, or presentations to a wider audience.

Teaching is a profession that requires a high level of responsibility (Furlong et al., 2000; Helsper, 2011; Wipperfurth, 2008) as it covers a sensitive area of a functioning society, that is the education of the younger generations. Such education serves core societal purposes such as qualification, enculturation, allocation, and integration (Fend, 2009). As a profession it is consequently characterised by the autonomy of teachers in their decision making which needs to be based on a professional knowledge base (Furlong et al., 2000). Analogously to doctors or lawyers, teachers thus undergo an intensive teacher education programme which ideally continues in the form

**Table 1** Modes and contexts of professional teacher language

Mode	Teacher education	Teacher PD and practice
Oral	<i>Monologic</i> : e.g. presentations <i>Interactive</i> : e.g. discussions, oral exams, post-teaching conferences	<i>Interactive</i> : e.g. planning meetings, post-teaching conferences
Written	<i>Productive</i> : e.g. extensive lesson plans, papers, portfolio and reflective tasks, transcripts, forms <i>Receptive</i> : e.g. academic texts, research reports, lesson plans, tasks	<i>Productive</i> : e.g. lesson plans, syllabus, reports <i>Receptive</i> : e.g. academic texts, research reports, lesson plans, blogs
Multimodal / interactive	E.g. (multimodal) texts in social media and blogs/vlogs, visualised presentations, video annotations and analyses	E.g. video study clubs, intervision (peer coaching), supervision

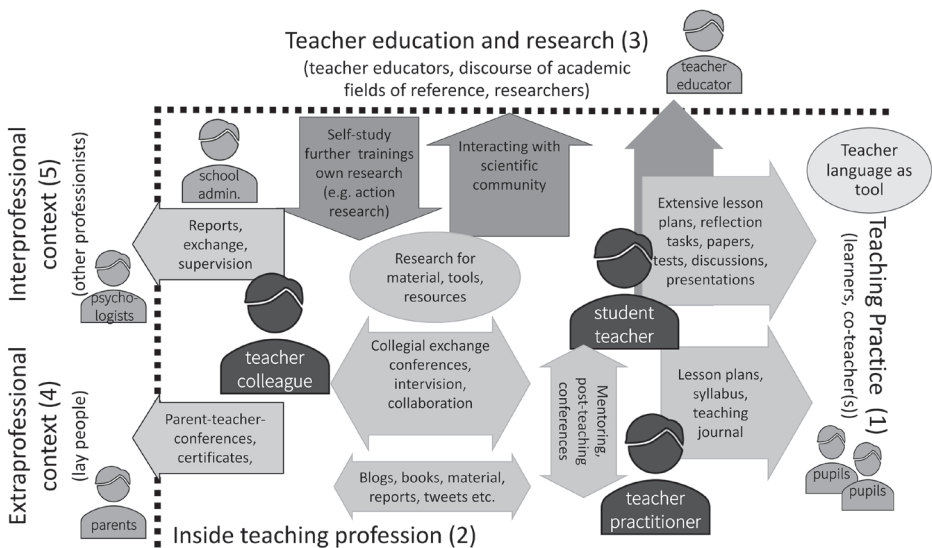


of PD and adequate measures throughout their teaching careers. Therefore, the third sphere of teacher education and research with its academic fields of reference (3) is a key field of professional discourse and the acquisition of the relevant skills for it.

In order to systematize and give examples for possible forms of professional teacher language use or discourse, Table 1 a Table 2 give an overview of modes and contexts of professional teacher language.

**Table 2** Contexts of professional teacher language

Collegial – Individual	Evaluative – Non-evaluative	Descriptive – Analytical – Reflective	Formal – Informal
<i>Collegial</i> e.g. video study clubs, post-teaching conferences, intervention, planning co-teaching	<i>Non-evaluative</i> e.g. supervision, collegial exchange, mentoring, coaching	<i>Descriptive</i> e.g. reports	<i>Formal</i> e.g. reports, certificates
<i>Individual</i> e.g. lesson plans, certificates, blogs, teaching journal	<i>Evaluative</i> e.g. feedback or assessment in teacher education or collegial feedback	<i>Analytical</i> e.g. action research, lesson study, diagnosis <i>Reflective</i> e.g. teaching journal, tasks in teacher education	<i>Informal</i> e.g. Twitter, blogs, forums, hallway talk, staff room, telephone, or video conversations



**Figure 2** Examples of using professional teacher language in different contexts

Figure 2 brings together these examples of professional language use and the contexts described above and in Figure 1.

### 3.2 Functions of Professional Teacher Language

According to linguistic research in this field, a professional language in any profession should be unambiguous, comprehensible, and economical; it should strengthen professional identity and allow for anonymity (cf. Roelcke, 2010). Through the process of communicating about teaching practice, professional knowledge becomes analysable, reorganisable, and communicable for professional discourse and PD (cf. Neuweg, 2008, p. 208). Similarly, Freeman and Cazden (2003) and Simons and Ruijters (2004) describe the role of collegial exchange for awareness raising and PD, although they do not explicitly refer to the role of professional language and verbalisation.

Three fundamental assumptions need to be made explicit at this point:

- 1) Teaching is not about applying rules that will solve the challenges or problems of teaching (cf. Shulman, 1986) as that would constitute a craft but not a profession. Teaching is rather about professional decision making within the often conflicting requirements of specific teaching situations (Helsper, 2004). As Shulman wrote, “What distinguishes mere craft from profession is the indeterminacy of rules when applied to particular cases” (Shulman, 1986, p. 13).
- 2) As a consequence of this assumption, interested researchers need to position practitioner teachers as highly valuable informants and partners in research, listening carefully to their conceptions and interpretations of teaching processes as well as their weighting of conflicting requirements and the principles and norms they base their decisions on.
- 3) Researching teachers’ decision-making processes can, thus, not pursue the aim of formulating principles that would solve problems of teaching, as teaching will remain a complex, often ambiguous field calling for professional judgement rather than the application of rules. Rather, research can deepen our understanding of the complexity of professional teacher decision making and allow us to understand what aspects teachers take into account, what they base their evaluation on, and how they reach decisions they consider appropriate and good for the aim of successful learning processes and education for their learners.

This is in line with how Shulman defined PCK: “PCK was not to be construed as ‘something’ that teachers had in their heads but was a more dynamic construct that described the processes that teachers employed when confronted with the challenge of teaching particular subjects to particular learners in specific settings” (Shulman, 2015, p. 9). When we analyse the use of professional teacher language it is this understanding of decision-making processes within the professional practice of teachers that we seek. During classroom practice, teachers apply this professional knowledge base (‘Handlungswissen’), but it is through language that it becomes

analysable, reorganisable, and communicable and thus productive for professional discourse and PD (cf. Neuweg, 2008, p. 208).

### 3.3 Professional Discourse Within Professional Learning Communities

Much has been said about the role of critical friends and collegial exchange in professional teacher development, e.g. for professional learning communities (Bausmith & Barry, 2011). Gruber et al. (2008) argue that critical friends alone do not suffice; instead it is the professional experience of those friends that makes the difference. They analyse the potential of what they call persons in the shadow, which is an extension of the idea of critical friends. They argue that – on an advanced level of expertise – only experienced fellow-professionals can give feedback that promotes PD. This is because they share an understanding of the problems and only because of their own advanced level of expertise can they judge where there are mistakes or room for improvement in other professionals' practice. It is because they have experienced the same hurdles and have developed solutions and alternatives that they can share. At the same time if both professionals share a similar level of expertise, it is also easier to take on new interpretations and alternative practices in their own professional judgement (cf. Gruber et al., 2008). As previously discussed, such an exchange between critical friends or persons in the shadow is mediated through language, that is professional teacher language. At the core of Figure 3 below of the

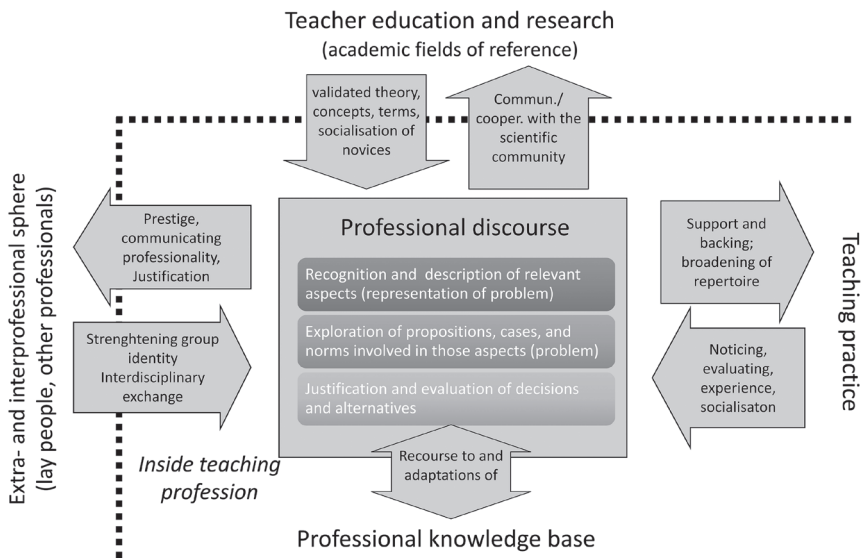


Figure 3 Functions of professional teacher language

92 functions of professional teacher language stands the treatment of relevant aspects of teaching – identified “problems” of teaching.

From a cognitive-linguistic perspective, such verbalisations link back to the professional knowledge base of teachers: teachers express their knowledge base or use it to make sense of what they hear or read or view from other teachers or texts about teaching (arrow at the bottom). Teaching practice is the point of reference for professional discourse. In their practice, teachers notice and, consequently, interpret relevant aspects of their teaching that can be further explored in professional discourse (arrow on the right pointing left). At the same time, an enhanced understanding or a broader or deeper understanding of those aspects through professional discourse has the potential to support teachers’ practice (arrow on the right pointing right). Finally, it is through the use of professional language when reading and writing, and in discourse, that (student) teachers acquire and integrate validated theories and concepts from research in their professional knowledge base (arrows on top). And lastly, professional language has a social function (prestige, group identity) and allows for interprofessional discourse (arrows on the left).

#### **4 Part II: Professional Language Use in a Heterogenous Interactive Setting of Post-teaching Collegial Exchange Between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Practitioner Teachers**

In order to listen to teacher practitioners and their perspectives on challenges and decision-making processes in their actual practice, a special research setting was created. The aim was to approximate an authentic, situated, and focused use of professional teacher language by experienced and novice teacher practitioners. The “learning teacher network” project brought together four experienced and four novice EFL teachers from secondary schools in urban and rural areas of Greater Munich, Germany. Of course, there was positive selection in the sense that all of those teachers were motivated and open to participating in a voluntary, unpaid year-long project which involved them being filmed and their teaching being discussed by the group; for some it even involved a two-hour journey for each meeting.

For 12 months, that is in the summer semester of one school year and the winter semester of the following school year, this group of teachers met 8 times, roughly every 6 weeks, to discuss a 10-minute video-recorded sequence of one participant’s EFL practice so that every teacher had the opportunity to get feedback from and discuss their teaching with the group. This setting is thus as close as possible to that of professional learning communities. Two weeks before each meeting, the participants were provided with a DVD containing three camera perspectives, a transcript, and a filled-in questionnaire containing information on the general content and structure of the lesson, background information on the class, and particular wishes for feedback from the teacher recorded. They also received a two-page observation

grid with six guiding questions and introductory guidelines asking them to focus on observable learning processes and learning outcomes. Two guiding questions asked for a general evaluation of the sequence and its structure. The other four directed the teachers' attention to core elements of EFL like teacher-student interaction, grammar and vocabulary teaching, adaptations of teacher language, and corrective feedback. This grid should scaffold and direct discussions towards subject-specific aspects. The meetings were audio recorded and lasted about 90 minutes, starting with a short introduction by the teacher recorded, and were not moderated by the researcher, who was present but remained a passive observer.

The effectiveness of the learning teacher network was meant to be supported by and allow for the following aspects (cf. Wipperfurth, 2015, p. 118):

- situated learning through video-taped classroom practice of the participants;
- relevance to their own teaching by discussing their practice;
- focused exchange between colleagues with heterogenous experience (four /highly/ experienced teachers and four novices);
- the communicative situation is familiar to English teachers as they experienced debriefings or post-teaching conferences during their teacher education
- absence of inhibiting factors like assessment by third parties, e. g. superiors or teacher educators;
- teachers can experiment with new ideas and understandings in their practice between each meeting and can discuss their experiences (deliberate practice).

The project was not designed to measure growth in teacher knowledge but to explore whether teachers can verbalise relevant teacher knowledge in collaborative settings and to analyse this sample setting of collegial exchange. The situated context of their discourse is particularly relevant as Berry et al. (2016) have called for "treating PCK essentially as a knowing-to-act that is inherently linked to, and situated in, the act of teaching within a particular context (Cochran et al., 1993; Hodgen, 2011; Mason, 2008; Petrou & Goulding, 2011)". Generally, the methodology of the study discussed here and the study by Knorr (2015) "represent [...] a general shift in research methodology within the topic of language teacher professionalisation. [...] While German research has an established tradition of working with retrospective data elicited through questionnaires or interviews and focusing on the emic perspective of teachers' professional identities or their subjective theories, recent studies are increasingly directed towards praxeological methodology helping to understand in-situ data, for example from videography" (Heine et al., 2020, p. 231).

#### 4.1 Verbalised Professional Knowledge Within Professional Discourse

According to Shulman (1987), there are various categories of teacher knowledge which include content knowledge (CK), PCK, knowledge of pupils (KofP), knowledge of contexts (KofC), knowledge of the curriculum (KofCu), and knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds (KofVal). It is argued here that when investigating teachers' decision making, it is more revealing to analyse the various subcategories in which all of the above-mentioned categories (CK, PCK, KofP, KofC, KofCu, KofVal) can be represented. These subcategories are summarised in Table 3 using definitions from Shulman (1986):

**Table 3** Forms of teacher knowledge as described in Shulman (1986, pp. 12–13)

Subcategory	Short description of subcategories
Case knowledge	<i>Prototypes</i> exemplify theoretical principles. <i>Precedents</i> capture and communicate principles of practice or maxims. <i>Parables</i> convey norms or values.
Propositional knowledge	<i>Principles</i> (from “disciplined empirical or philosophical inquiry”) <i>Maxims</i> (derived from “practical experience”) <i>Norms</i> (derived from “moral or ethical reasoning”)
Strategic knowledge	Deciding for the most appropriate option when two or more conflicting options can be chosen in a specific question of teaching: “When strategic understanding is brought to bear in the examination of rules and cases, professional judgment [...] is called into play.” (Shulman, 1986, p. 13)

According to Shulman (1987) these “are ‘forms’ in which each of the general domains or particular categories of knowledge previously discussed – content, pedagogy, and curriculum – may be organized” (Shulman, 1987, p. 10). For reasons of space, the following discussion only focuses on strategic knowledge, which according to Shulman equals professional judgement as “the hallmark of any learned profession” (Shulman, 1986, p. 13). Strategic knowledge is understood here as professional judgement that solves a concrete teaching situation which – for the teacher – causes a conflict between equally applicable principles, maxims, norms, or cases. It is these conflicts that make underlying principles, maxims, and norms particularly tangible and concrete. It is only because those principles are considered important and relevant that strategic knowledge comes into play in the first place (Wipperfürth, 2015, p. 56).

How practitioner teachers verbalise strategic knowledge was researched in the “learning teacher network” project (Wipperfürth, 2015). For analysing the verbalized strategic knowledge, all verbalisations of professional teacher knowledge is treated as one entity. This is based on the fact that the teachers viewed their discussions as very open and stated in the individual interviews, conducted after the project end, that they did not hold back with opposing views or criticism and appreciated

critical comments from the others. As argued above, colleagues can serve as “persons in the shadow” (Gruber et al., 2008) having a high level of shared understanding. Indeed, the participants agreed that the level of mutual understanding and the effectiveness of communication was very high (Wipperfürth, 2015, p. 161).

Every subject has areas that are particularly challenging for practitioners as they are complex and often create situations that cause a conflict between equally applicable principles, maxims, norms, or cases. These situations require teachers to apply strategic knowledge. A summary of principles of instructed language learning is provided in Ellis and Shintani (2014). To select one relevant example within the network project, the particular teaching setting was considered: German EFL classrooms are characterised by a rather homogenous group of learners and teachers that are predominantly non-native speakers and share the main language of education with their learners. Consequently, one area that requires strategic knowledge is opened by the question of target language use, especially with beginning learners. The underlying challenge can be described as follows: how can we teach a language through the language when the learners still have low proficiency in it? (cf. Butzkamm, 1993)

All network meetings were audiorecorded, transcribed and analysed using summarizing qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2014). The following summary combines discussions from five sessions in which the participants discussed the issue (cf. Wipperfürth, 2015, pp. 246–250). In total, 31 codings were identified for the aspects of monolingual spoken classroom interaction and language use in group speaking tasks in the eight network meetings. The following rule was applied for coding passages as “strategic knowledge”: all passages, in which teachers discussed solutions for conflicts in teaching situations, if previously they had identified two or more conflicting principles, maxims, norms, or cases that could be applied to justify a teaching decision. After paraphrasing and summarising (Mayring, 2014, p. 10),

**Table 4** Examples for strategic knowledge for monolingual EFL teaching with beginning learners

Conflicting principles, maxims, norms, or cases	Strategic knowledge
Learners' desire to communicate effectively with each other (normally in their L1) ⇔ maximum degree of relevant use of target language in pair or group work	Careful task design; Sufficient amount of previous language and content scaffolding; Monitoring pair and group work
Learners' lack of linguistic means to express themselves correctly in the target language and a resulting high level of mistakes and errors ⇔ aiming for accuracy in L2 input	Planning for and clearly marking accuracy-based and fluency-based activities; Cultivating a positive and constructive attitude towards errors and mistakes
Codeswitching by learners in classroom interaction because of lack of linguistic means ⇔ classroom interaction as valuable L2 communication	Teach classroom phrases early and extensively; Establish routines and rules for target language use early; Use non-verbal communication to remind learners of target language use

96 16 verbalisations of strategic knowledge were identified out of which three examples are summarized in Table 4.

To first identify the conflicting principles, maxims, or norms, or cases (as defining strategic knowledge), all EFL-specific areas mentioned within these codings were identified and are summarised in the following. The participants discussed considerations around questions of lesson planning, task design, task authenticity, task complexity, relevance, instruction giving, monitoring pair and group work, code-switching by learners, treatment of errors and mistakes, accuracy- and fluency-based activities, adaptations of teacher language, the quality of teacher questions, the importance of language and content scaffolding, the proficiency level and age of the learners, using non-verbal teacher communication, expectations of learners, and last but not least, classroom management. One indicator that monolingual EFL teaching is particularly relevant for strategic teacher knowledge is the high number of interrelated areas of EFL that the participants discuss in relation to monolingual teaching. As a baseline, all participants agreed on various occasions that using as much English as possible requires a high degree of attention and discipline on the part of the teacher both, during lesson planning and teaching. This is another indicator that monolingual EFL teaching is particularly relevant for strategic teacher knowledge.

To shed more light on normative considerations within the participants' strategic reasoning, metaphoric use of language as analysed. Two participants stated that they discipline themselves to not "slip back into German" or "fall back on German". Both expressions use the metaphoric space of up and down, which is often related to a positive (up) or negative (down) evaluation (cf. Lakoff & Mark, 2003).

For reasons of space, it was not possible to include a more extensive discussion of this example of professional discourse around strategic knowledge, analysed in more detail in Wipperfürth (2015). Still, the EFL-specific example of monolingual teaching illustrates the potential of looking at the *forms* of professional knowledge (cf. Table 3) as a valuable extension to previous discussions focusing rather on the *categories* of professional knowledge (CK, PCK, etc.). What could also be briefly illustrated was that analysing verbalisations of conflict in teacher decision making, and analysing the interconnected considerations of teachers as well as analysing metaphoric language use, are possible methods to take a cognitive-linguistic perspective on professional teacher discourse.

## 5 Conclusion

There is great potential in acknowledging professional language as a powerful instrument of PD to expand discussions of teacher professionalism, teacher education, collaboration, and development. It needs to be stressed that despite a lack of explicit examination of professional teacher language, there is an extensive, ever-growing field of research on moments, contexts, and the efficacy of measures of teacher



education and teachers' PD where professional language is, of course, being used. This research is naturally and necessarily language-mediated as we cannot directly research teachers' decision-making processes but have to rely on observations or forms of expressing such processes in oral or written texts. Conceptualising and researching professional teacher language is thus both a supplementary reflection on previous research and a starting point for a more language-sensitive approach to teacher education and research.

This article has argued that a stronger focus on the use of language has potential to improve teacher education and PD. Especially professional learning communities can be framed as effective settings to cherish "reflective best practice in dialogue" (Wipperfurth, 2016). As Gunnarsson (2016) highlights, the focus on a more complex view of professional communication also opens up a whole range of research foci and methodological approaches.

As language pervades almost all processes of teacher education, teaching practice, and much of teacher development, it is time to move this aspect into the limelight. A language-sensitive approach to teachers' PD and related research can help establish focused and efficient professional communities of practice and research. Further studies can explore when, how, what for, and with whom language teachers use professional teacher language in different school contexts and research processes and stages of acquisition of professional language within teacher education. This can help probing ways of scaffolding the acquisition of professional discourse skills and language. Following a cognitive-linguistic perspective, researching processes and stages of acquiring both professional concepts and language for teacher education offer still open research fields. It would be desirable to examine the role of technical terms more critically for different participants and phases of teacher education. To that end research needs to explore and validate methods for analysing professional language use and its relation to the acquisition of professional concepts and professional knowledge. Different contexts can be analysed for their likelihood to promote or inhibit focused professional discourse. Taken all together, looking at teachers' professional language use and acquisition processes of professional language and discourse skills can inform a language-sensitive approach to teacher education.

## References

- Bausmith, J. M., & Barry, C. (2011). Revisiting professional learning communities to increase college readiness: The importance of pedagogical content knowledge. *Educational Researcher*, 40(4), 175–178.
- Berry, A., Depaepe, F., & van Driel, J. (2016). Pedagogical content knowledge in teacher education. In J. Loughran & M. L. Hamilton (Eds.), *International handbook of teacher education* (pp. 347–386). Springer Singapore. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-0366-0\\_9](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-0366-0_9)
- Borg, S. (2018). Teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. In P. Garrett & J. M. Cots (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language awareness* (p. 75–91). Routledge.

- 98 Borko, H., Livingston, C., & Shavelson, R. J. (1990). Teachers' thinking about instruction. *Remedial and Special Education, 11*(6), 40–49. <https://doi.org/10.1177/074193259001100609>
- Bryson, D. (2016). Professional language: Understanding and being understood. *Journal of Visual Communication in Medicine, 39*(3–4), 158–159. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17453054.2016.1246942>
- Burns, A., & Richards, J. C. (Eds.). (2009). *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher Education*. Cambridge University Press.
- Butzkamm, W. (1993). *Psycholinguistik des Fremdsprachenunterrichts*. Francke.
- Carr, D. (2000). *Professionalism and ethics in teaching*. Routledge.
- Cochran, K., DeRuiter, J., & King, R. (1993). Pedagogical content knowledge: An integrative model for teacher preparation. *Journal of Teacher Education, 44*(4), 263–272.
- Copland, F. M., & Mann, S. (2010). Dialogic talk in the post-observation conference; an investment for reflection. In G. Park, H. P. Widodo, & A. Cirocki (Eds.), *Observation of teaching: Bridging theory and practice through research on teaching* (pp. 175–191). LINCOM.
- Copland, F., & Donaghue, H. (2019). Post observation feedback. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 402–416). Routledge.
- Donaghue, H. (2018). Relational work and identity negotiation in critical post observation teacher feedback. *Journal of Pragmatics, 135*, 101–116. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2018.08.002>
- Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research*. Routledge.
- Fend, H. (2009). Die sozialen und individuellen Funktionen von Bildungssystemen. In C. Hof et al. (Eds.), *Handbuch der Erziehungswissenschaft* (pp. 43–55). Schöningh.
- Flowerdew, J. (2015). John Swales's approach to pedagogy in genre analysis: A perspective from 25 years on. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 19*, 102–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.02.003>
- Freeman, D., & Cazden, C. (1991). Learning to talk like a professional: Some pragmatics of foreign language teacher training. In L. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (pp. 225–246). University of Illinois.
- Furlong, J., Barton, L., Miles, S., Whiting, C., & Whitty, G. (2000). *Teacher education in transition. Re-forming professionalism?* Open University Press.
- Fütterer, T., Hoch, E., Stürmer, K., Lachner, A., Fischer, C., & Scheiter, K. (2021). Was bewegt Lehrpersonen während der Schulschließungen? – Eine Analyse der Kommunikation im Twitter-Lehrerzimmer über Chancen und Herausforderungen digitalen Unterrichts. *Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft, 24*(2), 443–477. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11618-021-01013-8>
- Gunnarsson, B.-L. (2009). *Professional discourse*. Continuum.
- Goodwin, C. (1994). Professional vision. *American Anthropologist, 96*(3), 606–633.
- Gruber, H., Lehtinen, E., Palonen, T., & Degner, S. (2008). Persons in the shadow: Assessing the social context of high abilities. *Psychology Science, 50*(2), 237–258.
- Hedgcock, J. (2002). Toward a socioliterate approach to second language teacher education. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*(3), 299–317.
- Hedgcock, J. S. (2009). Acquiring knowledge of discourse conventions in teacher education. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 144–152). Cambridge University Press.
- Hedgcock, J. S., & Lee, H. (2017). An exploratory study of academic literacy socialization: Building genre awareness in a teacher education program. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 26*, 17–28. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2017.01.004>
- Heine, L., Marx, N., Schädlich, B., & Wilden, E. (2020). Review of doctoral research in language education in Germany (2014–2018). *Language Teaching, 53*(3), 341–357. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444820000063>
- Helsper, W. (2004). Antinomien, Widersprüche, Paradoxien: Lehrerarbeit – Ein unmögliches Geschäft? Eine strukturtheoretisch-rekonstruktive Perspektive auf das Lehrerhandeln. In B. Koch-Priewe, F.-U. Kolbe, & J. Wildt (Eds.), *Grundlagenforschung und mikrodidaktische Reformansätze zur Lehrerbildung* (pp. 49–99). Klinkhardt.

- Helsper, W. (2011). Lehrerprofessionalität – Der strukturtheoretische Professionsansatz zum Lehrberuf. In E. Terhart, H. Bennewitz, & M. Rothland (Eds.), *Handbuch der Forschung zum Lehrberuf* (pp. 149–170). Waxmann.
- Hodgen, J. (2011). Knowing and identity: A situated theory of mathematics knowledge in teaching. In T. Rowland & K. Ruthven (Eds.), *Mathematical knowledge in teaching* (pp. 27–42). Springer Netherlands.
- Holme, R. (2012). Cognitive linguistics and the second language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(1), 6–29.
- Hüttner, J., Smit, U., & Mehlmauer-Larcher, B. (2009). ESP teacher education at the interface of theory and practice: Introducing a model of mediated corpus-based genre analysis. *System*, 37(1), 99–109. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.06.003>
- Knorr, P. (2015). *Kooperative Unterrichtsvorbereitung: Unterrichtsplanungsgespräche in der Ausbildung angehender Englischlehrender*. Narr.
- Kunter, M., Klusmann, U., & Baumert, J. (2009). Professionelle Kompetenz von Mathematik-Lehrkräften: Das COACTIV-Modell. In O. Zlatkin-Troitschanskaia (Ed.), *Lehrprofessionalität. Bedingungen, Genese, Wirkungen und ihre Messung* (pp. 153–166). Beltz.
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (2003). *Metaphors we live by*. The University of Chicago Press.
- Li, L. (2019). Teacher cognition and teacher expertise. In S. Walsh & S. Mann (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education* (pp. 335–349). Routledge.
- Loughran, J., & Hamilton, M. L. (Eds.). (2016). *International handbook of teacher education*. Springer.
- Mason, J. (2008). From concept images to pedagogic structure for a mathematical topic. In C. Rasmussen & M. Carlson (Eds.) *Making the connection: research to practice in undergraduate mathematics education* (pp. 253–272). Mathematical Association of America.
- Mayring, P. (2014). *Qualitative content analysis: Theoretical foundation, basic procedures and software solution*. <https://nbn-resolving.org/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-395173>
- Neuweg, G. H. (2008). Grundlagen der Lehrer/innen/kompetenz. *Odgojne Znanosti*, 10(1), 13–22.
- Neuweg, G. H. (2011). Das Wissen der Wissensvermittler. In E. Terhart, H. Bennewitz, & M. Rothland (Eds.), *Handbuch der Forschung zum Lehrberuf* (pp. 451–477). Waxmann.
- Park, S., & Oliver, J. S. (2008). Revisiting the conceptualisation of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK): PCK as a conceptual tool to understand teachers as professionals. *Research in Science Education*, 38(3), 261–284. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11165-007-9049-6>
- Petrou, M., & Goulding, M. (2011). Conceptualising teachers' mathematical knowledge in teaching. In T. Rowland & K. Ruthven (Eds.), *Mathematical knowledge in teaching* (pp. 9–25). Springer Netherlands. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-9766-8\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-9766-8_2)
- Pollard, A. (Ed.). (2010). *Professionalism and pedagogy: A contemporary opportunity*. Institute of Education.
- Roelcke, T. (2010). *Fachsprachen*. Erich Schmidt.
- Seidel, T., Stürmer, K., Blomberg, G., Kobarg, M., & Schwindt, K. (2011). Teacher learning from analysis of videotyped classroom situations: Does it make a difference whether teachers observe their own teaching or that of others? *Teaching & Teacher Education*, 27(2), 259–267.
- Shaw, P., & Hyland, K. (Eds.). (2020). *Routledge handbook of English for academic purposes*. Routledge.
- Shulman, L. (2015). PCK: Its genesis and its exodus. In A. Berry, P. Friedrichsen, & J. Loughran (Eds.), *Re-examining pedagogical content knowledge in science education* (pp. 3–13). Routledge.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4–14.
- Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1–22.
- Simons, P., & Ruijters, M. (2004). Learning professionals: Towards an integrated model. In R. Boshulzen, R. Bromme, & H. Gruber (Eds.), *Professional learning: Gaps and transitions on the way from novice to expert* (pp. 207–229). Kluwer Academic.

- 100 Swann, M., McIntyre, D., Pell, T., Hargreaves, L., & Cunningham, M. (2010). Teachers' conceptions of teacher professionalism in England in 2003 and 2006. *British Educational Research Journal*, 36(4), 549–571. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01411920903018083>
- Wajnryb, R. (1994). *The pragmatics of feedback: A study of mitigation in the supervisory discourse of TESOL teacher educators* [PhD thesis]. Macquarie University.
- Walsh, S., & Mann, S. (Eds.). (2019). *The Routledge handbook of English language teacher education*. Routledge.
- Wipperfürth, M. (2008). *Kompetenzmodelle: Professionalisierung und Berufsverantwortung als Leitkonzepte für Lehrerbildung*. University of Munich.
- Wipperfürth, M. (2015). *Professional vision in Lehrernetzwerken – Berufssprache als ein Weg und ein Ziel von Lehrerverberufung*. Waxmann.
- Wipperfürth, M. (2016). Sprachlosigkeit in der LehrerInnenbildung? Reflective best practice in dialogue. In F. Klippel (Ed.), *Teaching languages – Sprachen lehren* (pp. 123–144). Waxmann.

Manuela Schlick  
University of Vienna  
CELTER: Center for English Language Learning,  
Teaching and Teacher Education Research  
Spitalgasse 2, 1090 Wien  
[Manuela.schlick@univie.ac.at](mailto:Manuela.schlick@univie.ac.at)

## Thanks to Reviewers

The Editors of the *Orbis scholae* journal would like to take this opportunity for thanking the following colleagues who reviewed articles submitted to Volume 15:

Marie Fenclová

Ralf Gießler

Světlana Hanušová

Petr Hlad'o

Tomáš Janík

Daniela Ježová

Irena Kašparová

Friederike Klippel

Petra Knorr

Ladislav Kvasz

Jana Kvintová

Kateřina Lojďová

Jana Majerčíková

Barbara Mehlmauer-Larcher

Eva Minaříková

Štefan Porubský

Sandra Reitbrecht

Karen Schramm

Jan Slavík

Karel Starý

Zora Syslová

Zuzana Šalamounová

Klára Šed'ová

Radim Šíp

Klára Uličná

Miroslava Váňová

Eliška Walterová

Zbyněk Zicha

