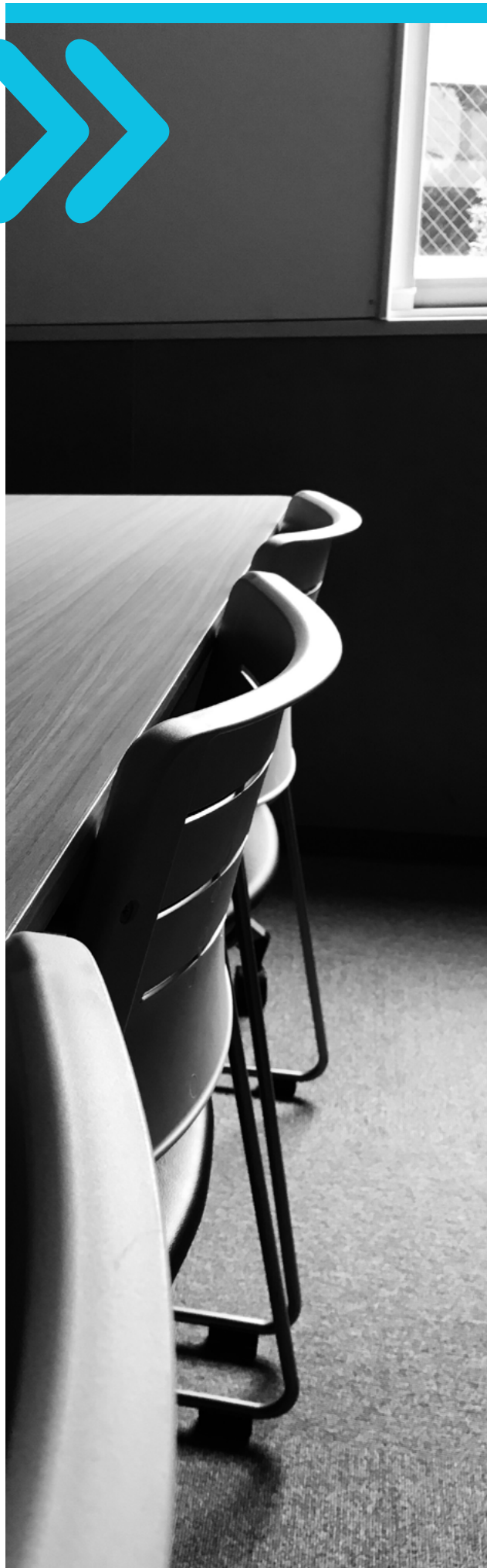
CLASSROOM OBSERVATION TOOL

The development of the classroom observation tool was guided by the need to direct students' attention to a range of interactional phenomena both inside and outside the observed class, as well as the need for prompt reflection in various contexts and with various stakeholders. This approach is guided by the realisation that the process of observation is not an isolated event limited to educational delivery or, indeed, the confines of a classroom. The resulting form prompts the visitor—in our case, pre-service teachers—to notice, reflect upon, and learn from a range of phenomena and practices that they encounter in their observed educational setting. It encourages a broader observational scope that goes beyond conventional teacher-student and student-student interactions to include aspects like power dynamics, somatic awareness, teacher and cultural identity, among others. In doing so, the intent is to instigate critical reflective teaching practice as proposed by Bartlett (1990), resulting in a teaching practice that effectively links the focus on classroom practices with the development of transferable skills related to employability and internationalisation.



The development of such an observation tool required us to engage with cultural theory. At the heart of this premise lies the understanding that culture is not an isolated entity but a fundamental part of the communication process. This communication, which is intrinsic to the dynamics of a classroom, encompasses more than just linguistic exchanges; it includes the unspoken rules, shared beliefs, values, norms, and power dynamics that shape interpersonal interactions and educational outcomes. We consider the classroom context a new cultural environment, where culture and communication are inseparable and interdependent. Thus, cultural theory enables the drawing of the students' attention to the complex aspects of culture and communication, and enables them to link their observations to the development of a range of employability skills.

From a wide variety of aspects that constitute the complexity, we have chosen to focus on the following four dimensions:

- Norms of classroom (social) interaction
- Hierarchy and power in different contexts
- Communicating with the Other
- Dealing with the unexpected (either self or Other awareness or both)

These key foci allowed us to draw on cultural theory as a guiding tool, combined with a specific transferable skill for employability and professional skills for teacher training (see Table O3.2).

Once we identified our key foci and how these related to transferable skills and professional teacher knowledge, we established a key observational point (see Table O3.2). This key observation helped us develop an observation tool to direct the observers' attention. Along with the observation prompts, we developed a reflection form to be completed in small groups post observation.

The observation criteria and prompts were piloted during ISP01 and ISP02 and the final version was used in ISP03. See Appendix 1 for the final version of the observation criteria in full.

Table O3.2

Focus of classroom observation

	Classroom and social interaction norms	Hierarchy and power in different contexts	Communicating with the Other	Self and Other awareness
Skill	communication skills, interpersonal skills	adaptability and flexibility	communicating with different audiences and adaptability to do so	emotional resilience, flexibility, openness
Professional knowledge	IRF (initiation-response-feedback)	classroom management; the teacher's body language	communication in the classroom	dealing with the unexpected
Key observation	turn-taking patterns	power dynamics of the classroom	how the teacher ensured that communication was effective	unexpected events and own emotional response

THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATION FORM AND ITS CRITERIA*

Section A: Classroom and Social Interaction Norms

The conceptual foundation for this section of the classroom observation form comes from the work of Edward T. Hall's work who identified three fundamental dimensions that underpin diverse cultural interaction and communication styles: context, space, and time.

- Context: Hall distinguished between high-context and low-context cultures (Hall, 1976). High-context cultures often rely on shared understandings, non-verbal cues, and
- the context itself to relay information. For instance, nations like Spain, Slovakia, and Poland tend to have a high-context communication style. Conversely, low-context cultures, such as Germany, stress explicit, verbal communication, with meaning rooted in the words themselves rather than the situation (Wang, 2008).
- Space: Also known as *proxemics*, this dimension focuses on intercultural differences concerning personal space norms and expectations (Hall, 1966).
- Time: Termed chronemics, this dimension examines how cultures perceive and value time (Hall, 1984). For example, cultures in Northern Europe and North America tend to be monochronic cultures, viewing time linearly and valuing punctuality and efficiency; in contrast, cultures in Latin America and the Middle East are polychronic, approaching time more flexibly and valuing relationships and harmony.

These dimensions are essential in a multicultural classroom, enhancing understanding of varied communication styles, preferences, and expectations, and can help to mitigate misunderstandings and conflicts arising from cultural differences. The observation tool uses these dimensions to prompt questions that enable observers to discern differences in communicative norms. The link between these questions, the observation dimensions, and the pedagogical focus of teacher training is further detailed in Table O3.3.

Cultural dimensions and classroom practices: The case of IRF and feedback

The above proposed cultural theory provides an insightful lens to observe teacher training practices such as the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) pattern and teacher feedback. This lens helps by demonstrating how the educational process is shaped by cultural nuances and highlights the importance of considering these cultural aspects in teacher training.

IRF is a prevalent form of classroom interaction globally (Cullen, 2002; Walsh, 2002; 2011; Waring, 2008). The process involves the teacher *initiating* a topic, students *responding*, and the teacher giving *feedback*. However, the effectiveness of this practice is a subject of debate due to its potential to restrict learner opportunities, while also being able to positively or negatively affect students based on the teachers' feedback (Cullen 2002; Walsh 2002; Wong and Waring 2009). The appropriate nature of the feedback, of course, is essential in guiding learners towards acquiring language skills.

** See Appendix 1 for a copy of the form.*

Teachers may use evaluative feedback, focusing on a learner's use of the target language, or content-based feedback, which engages with the meaning of a learner's contribution. The latter has been suggested as potentially significant in promoting natural language use and developing meaningful dialogue (Cullen, 2002).

These forms of interaction are important in socio-cultural theory, as learning is regarded as a social process and classrooms a prime site for social interaction (Xie, 2010). Classroom interaction is also inherently linked to the pedagogical goals of various stages of a lesson. Hence, the nature of teacher feedback can significantly impact the effectiveness of learning.

A cultural lens, such as the one we proposed above drawing on Hall's cultural dimensions, provides additional insight into these teaching practices. For example, teachers in high-context cultures, where non-verbal cues are of utmost importance, might provide feedback that is more implicit and reliant on context, for instance through gaze. gestures, or acoustic non-verbal cues. Conversely, in low-context cultures, feedback may be more explicit and direct. Cultures with a flexible concept of space may have more open discussions and student participation, potentially breaking the traditional IRF pattern. Conversely, in cultures with a fixed concept of space, the IRF pattern might be more rigidly adhered to, reflecting the hierarchical structure of the society.

Concerning the temporal dimension, cultures leaning towards polychronic time might exhibit more flexibility in the IRF sequence, allowing digressions and discussions to naturally flow within the lesson. In contrast, monochronic cultures might stick more strictly to the IRF sequence and schedule, with a focus on achieving specific lesson objectives within a given time frame.

Table O3.3

Prompts and examples of norms of classroom interactions

Prompts to observe	Pedagogic focus and reason	Dimensions of intercultural communication in classroom context
How does the teacher encourage participation?	elicitation; use of questions; nomination; gesture(s); supportive atmosphere	*Context:* In a high-context culture, teachers might use subtle non-verbal cues, or rely on shared understandings to encourage participation. For example, in a Spanish classroom, a teacher may encourage student participation with prolonged eye contact, a slight nod in the student's direction, or asking a question and leaving a pause for the student to fill in the answer. In low-context cultures, such as in Germany, communication tends to be explicit, clear, and straightforward. Teachers are likely to use direct verbal prompts to encourage student participation.
What kind of questions does the teacher ask? (display or referential)	purpose of questions. i.e., the importance of using referential questions to encourage extended and more complex answers for more effective learning	*Context:* Teachers in high-context cultures may pose questions that necessitate understanding of implicit classroom norms or broader contexts (like a recent class discussion or a shared cultural reference). Conversely, in low-context cultures questions could be more direct and require straightforward answers.
How long does the teacher wait for someone to respond? (Please count to 10 as you observe.)	the concept of wait-time, i.e., students need time to process the question or prepare an answer; the teacher's tolerance of silence	*Time*: In a context where the culture leans towards polychronic norms, teachers might show more flexibility with time, allowing longer pauses for students to formulate and express their answers. In contrast, in a monochronic culture (like Czechia) teachers might keep to a stricter schedule and expect quicker responses.
If students wish to ask a question, how do they signal that?	dependent on classroom atmosphere, norms of interactions, and pedagogical goals (Walsh 2011); raise hand; ask permission; spontaneous	*Space:* In a high-context culture, students might use subtle non-verbal cues to indicate a desire to speak, which could involve making specific eye contact with the teacher or a slight raising of the hand. In a low-context culture, signals could be more explicit, like a fully raised hand or a verbal indication.
How does the teacher respond to students' contributions?	feedback and follow-up; error correction, praise, content feedback, or follow-up	*Context:* In high-context cultures, feedback may be conveyed implicitly through non-verbal cues or indirect language. In contrast, in low-context cultures, feedback is typically more direct and explicit. The contract may be particularly stark in error correction, for example.

Since norms of classroom interaction have previously been found crucial to enhance participation and increase opportunities for learning (e.g., Walsh and Li, 2013; Xie, 2011), the focus on the cultural differences that may affect these norms will equip student teachers and other observers with invaluable insights. These insights would form the basis of reflection and learning that will allow them to succeed in a multicultural classroom, both at home and abroad.

Section B: Hierarchy and Power in Different Contexts

Hierarchy, status, and power dynamics are key constructs in the classroom that shape interactions, learning opportunities, and the overall educational experience. These constructs form part of the classroom culture, influencing not only the relationships between students and teachers but also interactions among students themselves. The ways individuals accept and orient themselves within these constructs are culturally conditioned, manifesting differently across various social, national, and institutional cultures (Brown, 1994). To comprehensively frame these constructs, we turn to the concept of power distance, a cultural orientation defined by Hofstede (1986). Power distance represents the extent to which less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally. It reflects the societal endorsement of inequality by both leaders and followers, and it informs attitudes and practices such as autonomous action, enforcement of hierarchical positions, and encouragement of learner autonomy.

Power distance, however, is not a static or isolated cultural value. It is susceptible to change over time (Daniels & Greguras, 2014), and interacts with other cultural values and dimensions. Moreover, while cultures may exhibit general tendencies on the societal level, variations exist among individuals, specific subcultures, and groups, including schools and classrooms.

In second language classrooms, power distance has been found to have considerable impact on the learning processes. For instance, Wand (2022) highlighted the role of power distance in classroom learning in the context of cross-cultural communication, observing its effects on equity in such environments. Notably, Wand identified that high power distance conventions may pose challenges for teachers attempting to foster student-centred learning, potentially inhibiting the development of critical thinking skills and learner autonomy. In his self-reflective study, Bakker (2022) noted that cultural differences, including power distance, fundamentally shape the teaching and learning contexts. More specifically, Bakker noted that low power distance cultures often result in student-centred education, characterized by learner initiative, active class participation, and

a willingness to challenge teachers. Conversely, high power distance cultures tend to uphold teacher-dominated environments.

The observation tool we designed is aimed to direct attention to aspects that have previously been identified to be linked to power distance, e.g., naming practice (Bakker, 2022), patterns of interaction, including who has the right to initiate it (Gerritsen et al. 2015), and non-verbal behaviour (Santilli & Miller, 2011). Based on these aspects, we propose five prompts. In Table O3.4, we provide an overview of the observations possible in the TEFE context.

Table O3.4

Prompts and examples for hierarchy and power in the classroom

Prompts to observe	Pedagogic focus and reason	Dimensions of intercultural communication in classroom context
How does the teacher address the class, the pupils, and you?	classroom atmosphere (formal, informal); teacher's tone of voice	Address terms have been found to provide an insight into the hierarchical structures of national, societal, and group cultures. In TEFE, for example, when pre-service teachers observe classrooms in Germany, they may find pupils addressing their teachers by their first names, whereas in countries with high power distance, the teacher's tone is more authoritative and address terms are more formal.
Can students initiate interaction?	teacher-student power relations; cultural expectations	This aspect focuses on whether students can freely initiate a conversation or must be invited to do so. Again, in low power distance cultures or their teaching contexts, there is a focus on student-lead learning and students may be freer to initiate interaction.
What did you notice about the teacher's posture, gestures, and movements?	classroom movement and somatic awareness; cultural expectations	Body movements are typical representations of authority. Whereas lower power distance countries can be expected to have more expressive, supportive and relaxed movements, higher power distance cultures may display more formal, authoritative bodily movements and gestures. However, we need to be mindful that these are broad tendencies and can vary individually and group level.
Does the teacher move or stand close to the students? How close?	cultural expectations about personal space	Respect for personal space is an important indicator of power distance. Physical closeness can be interpreted as approachability but also as an expression of power if a teacher can freely impose on the students' personal space. This aspect is also revealing in terms of Hall's dimension of space. In cultures where personal space is highly valued and touching is considered more intimate (often the case in Northern and Central European countries like the Czech Republic and Poland), teachers may maintain a consistent physical distance from students, making minimal physical contact. They might use more verbal instructions and less touching or moving in close proximity to students. For instance, a teacher might stand at the front of the classroom and rely on hand gestures or pointing to manage interactions. In contrast, in cultures where tolerance for proximity is higher and touching is considered a normal part of social interactions (often seen in Southern European and some Latin cultures, like Spain), a teacher might move around the classroom more freely, standing close to students when explaining a concept or when providing individual feedback.
Does the teacher have physical contact with the students? Do students touch each other?	cultural expectations	Touching is reflective of both power distance and cultural acceptance of proximity. In cultures where haptics is socially acceptable, touching a student's desk or shoulder to gain attention or to give encouragement might be a common practice. In terms of power, the interactional participant with more power (here, the teacher) is allowed to a greater extent to initiate physical contact.

The subtle behavioural indicators we prompt students to observe in this section often go unnoticed: by giving them the opportunity to notice and reflect on the possible differences and similarities, we are equipping a future generation of educators will be able to identify the need and adapt their behaviour to new cultural contexts—whether that is their own classroom with a more varied student cohort, a new institution, or a job in a new country.

Section C: Use of L1 and L2 in the Classroom

Communication is at the heart of all language teaching, and knowledge and awareness of communicative options are crucial for teachers. This is particularly the case in contexts where teachers are familiar with both the students' first language, L1, and the target language, L2.

The overarching focus of this section of the observation was the answer to the question "How does the teacher ensure that communication was effective?" The underlying rationale for the questions related to both pedagogical and intercultural communication research.

The first question, which prompts the student teacher to notice the teacher's efforts to adjust their communication to the audience, is based in the communication accommodation theory developed by Howard Giles (1971). The theory deals with "the behavioural changes that people make to attune their communication to their partner, the extent to which people perceive their partner as appropriately attuning to them." The theory puts forth two types of accommodation processes: *convergence* and *divergence*. *Convergence* is the process where people tend to adapt to the other person's communication characteristics to reduce perceived social differences. *Divergence* contradicts the method of adaptation and, in this context, individual emphasis is placed on the social difference and nonverbal differences between the interactants.

In the classroom, teacher approaches may include both behaviour (e.g., patience, facial expressions) and communication, often involving modification of input, such as use of repetition, paraphrasing, slower speech, or simpler vocabulary and syntax (Macaro, 2005). Similar strategies can be employed by the teacher to respond to students' lack of understanding of explanations in L2 (Question 2). Both modified input and use of L1 can facilitate comprehension and provide scaffolding for tasks (Anton & Dicamilla, 1998).

Two further questions relate to the use of L1 by students and teachers, and these relate to the long-running debate about the respective merits and drawbacks of L1 and L2 use in the classroom. The monolingual approach, i.e., using only L2, has long predominated, on the basis that exposure to and use of the target language is more likely to promote acquisition. Tekin and Garton (2020) comment,

Teachers' L1 use is seen as reducing the amount of L2 input, and therefore adversely affecting the learning process. This is regarded as a particularly valid argument against L1 use in foreign language settings where learners

have limited opportunities to engage with L2 out of class. (p.78)

There is, however, a growing acceptance that the use of L1 can also have a useful function in the classroom. For students, it can help to reduce anxiety and increase confidence in using language, which is beneficial for acquisition. In addition, it can be used as a means of negotiation and communication to complete tasks during pair work. Teachers have been found to use it for a wide range of practical purposes: giving instructions, providing translation, explaining vocabulary, clarifying grammar, correcting errors, managing classrooms, and maintaining discipline. Such use can help the pace and efficiency of the lesson and can encourage participation and learning. The use of L1 has also been found to be more effective for teaching about cultural diversity and developing non-judgmental attitudes toward cultures in other countries (Edstrom, 2006).

While the debate continues, student teachers need to clarify their own position: are they for or against L1 use and why? They may need to consider both the educational context and institutional policies to make appropriate decisions, and awareness of current debates and issues may help in this respect.

Table O3.5

Prompts and examples for L1 and L2 use in the classroom

Prompts to observe	Pedagogic focus and reason	Dimensions of intercultural communication in classroom context
What is the teacher's accommodation of weak use of L2?	behaviour and communication (e.g., patience, facial expression(s), verbal communication; error correction);	The observer might notice that the teacher strategically simplifies their language, avoiding complex vocabulary and sentence structures. They might also frequently use visual aids or gestures to support their explanations and encourage students to use synonyms or circumlocution when they cannot find the exact words in the L2.
	modification of input (e.g., repetition; paraphrasing; slower speech; simpler vocabulary and syntax)	The observer might notice that the teacher repeats the explanation using different words or gives concrete examples. The teacher might resort to using L1 to clarify complex topics, or they might use strategies like eliciting, where they guide students to find the answer themselves.
How does the teacher respond to students' lack of understanding of explanations in L2?	modified input and use of L1; to facilitate comprehension; to provide of scaffolding for tasks	The observer might notice the teacher allowing students to use their L1 during group work or brainstorming sessions, or when they are struggling to express complex ideas. The teacher might step in to provide the L2 equivalent of the L1 phrase, thus gradually enriching students'
How tolerant is the teacher of students' use of L1?	affective factors (to reduce anxiety and increase confidence in using language);	L2 vocabulary
	a means of negotiation and communication to complete tasks (e.g., in pair work)	
What do you notice about the teacher's own use of L1?	to encourage participation and learning;	The observer might notice that the teacher uses L1 sparingly, mainly to give complex instructions or clarify difficult concepts. They might also use L1 to establish rapport, especially at the beginning of the class, or to address cultural nuances and comparisons.
	to teach cultural diversity;	
	to develop non-judgmental attitudes toward cultures in other countries	

Critically and reflectively observing L1 and L2 use in the classroom is beneficial for the cognitive, affective, and behavioural aspects of teaching practice. Cognitively, it aids the understanding of linguistic pedagogical strategies and facilitates comprehension of the complexities involved in teaching a second language. Affectively, acknowledging and understanding the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom can prompt student teachers to reflect on their emotional responses and attitudes toward the use of first language and second language in instructional settings. This can lead to greater empathy and emotional intelligence, vital attributes for effective teaching. Behaviourally, these observations can shape how pre-service teachers act in their future classrooms. For instance, they might be more tolerant of L1 use, or use accommodation strategies to better communicate concepts.

Section D: Dealing with the Unexpected

As discussed earlier, by incorporating Kim's integrative theory of intercultural adaptation, the TEFE Toolkit strives to comprehensively address three crucial dimensions of learning: cognitive, behavioural, and affective. The previous three sections of the Toolkit's observation form component use a series of prompts aimed at focusing pre-service teachers on the cognitive and behavioural dimensions of intercultural learning. The cognitive encourages a deep understanding and comprehension of cultural norms, whereas the behavioural is concerned with translating this understanding into changed behaviours and actions in response to the host culture's practices. The observation form's final section addresses the affective dimension and prompts pre-service teachers to critically observe unexpected classroom events, comprehend how they are managed, and introspectively reflect on their own emotional responses to these incidents.

When considering the affective dimension, the concept of *disposition* becomes a critical focus. As explored in Schussler et al. (2010), pre-service teacher dispositions can be broken down into intellectual, cultural, and moral domains. Intellectual dispositions encompass understanding of content, pedagogical strategies, classroom management, and relationships with students. Cultural dispositions involve the awareness and appreciation of both teachers' and students' cultural identities, as well as the recognition of culture's influence on the learning environment and student achievement. Moral dispositions, on the other hand, deal with elements such as curriculum content, managing inappropriate behaviour, and motivating students. Affective elements of teaching, such as getting to know students personally and acknowledging the influence of external factors on students, also fall within this domain. Schussler et al.'s study found that teacher candidates with a high level of self-awareness of their dispositions exhibited an enhanced capacity for reflective practice. These individuals showed an ability to scrutinise their own actions, strike a balance between self- and student-focus, and adopt multiple perspectives. This skill set underscores the significance of the affective component in Kim's model and further reinforces the necessity of emotional understanding and empathy in effective teaching practice. Thus, prompts reflecting disposition were developed for Section D of the observation form and trialled, resulting in some insightful responses from TEFE pre-service teachers (see Table O3.6).

Table O3.6

Prompts and examples for dealing with the unexpected

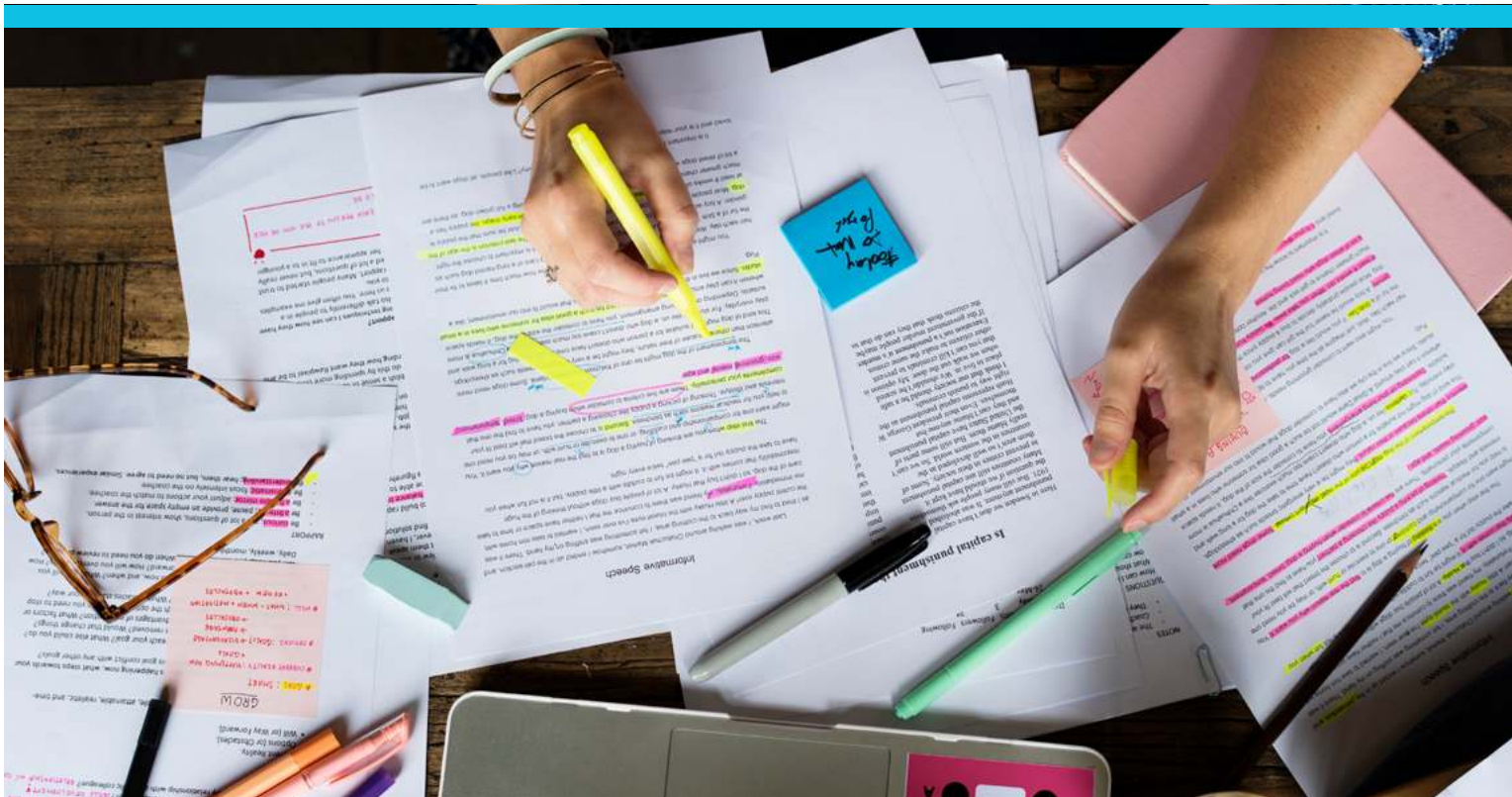
Prompts to observe	Pedagogic focus and reason	Some examples from classroom observations
Did you notice anything unexpected?	adaptability, flexibility, openness;	"*The most exciting experience for me has been to see that all students used their phones during the lessons (even as a "spare" book). In my country (Germany) it isn't common for the pupils to use their phones in class. Actually it is forbidden*"
Did anything surprise (or even shock) you?	teacher's own emotional resilience;	
How did the teacher handle any unexpected situations?	fostering emotional resilience in students;	"*I liked how the teacher reacted when a student corrected her mistake (in a sentence on the board). She thanked her for it and later told us that she values it so much, as it shows that they are paying attention."*
What was your emotional response?	teacher's own disposition;	*"In one classroom there was a picture of the Pope over the door, which I found odd at first but I realize that he's important in Poland."*
	unpacking and reflecting on one's own disposition to build self-awareness;	*"The most exciting experience for me has been seeing and learning from other cultures' educational system because it's an opportunity to grow as a future teacher and to reflect on my own 'way of doing' things."*

REFLECTING ON CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

Mackinnon and Grunau's (1994) views of reflection take account of learning in groups during teaching practice as they state that "reflection itself is dependent on the student-student forum, especially in situations where two or three prospective teachers work together in practicum" (p. 172). Their views also consider how teachers regard the "growing sense of criticism for one another's practice; and the manner in which they witness their peers enter the role of teaching" (p. 172). This interaction is evidence that reflection is a catalyst for learning (Ghaye, 2005) and is in keeping with Kolb's (1984) *experiential learning*, which involves learners taking responsibility for their own learning. The student teacher has the opportunity to make sense of any feelings and thoughts that may have emerged in the process of reflection, to think and draw parallels, and in the light of any concepts that have been generated in the reflection process, to plan and tackle new situations. In Sotto's (1994) view, "our most powerful learning takes place when we have had a suitable experience, and when we are able to reflect consciously on the experience" (p. 98).

With this in mind, four prompts we used to encourage student teachers to reflect on their experiences following the classroom observations during the three Intensive Study Programmes: ISP01, ISP02, and ISP03. The prompts enabled the use of curiosity-instigated episodes from the observations. Some of the responses were then used to aid in the design of some the O3 Toolkit Tasks.

- I noticed ……
  .....and I thought……
  because……
- I noticed ……
  and I wondered…… because ……
  ……
- I noticed …… and I will take away……
  …… because ……
- The most exciting experience for me has been …… ……
  …… because ……



SELF-REFLECTIVE TOOLS

Self-Learning, Self-Reflection and Self-Awareness

Self-reflection, as a crucial part of the learning process, can enhance both personal development and academic achievement by cultivating self-awareness and contextual understanding. This concept is embedded in various learning theories and models, most notably in Kolb's experiential learning theory (1984), Schön's reflective practitioner model (1983), and Mezirow's transformative learning theory (1991). As proposed by these frameworks, self-reflection is seen as a catalyst for learning because it promotes self-awareness and contextual understanding. Schön (1983), in particular, makes a strong case for reflection in professional practice. He differentiates between *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action*, arguing that the former allows professionals to reshape their actions in the moment, while the latter aids in learning from past experiences.

Prompts for such reflection, as Schön argues (1983), are often unique or problematic situations, so-called *critical incidents*. Such incidents make observers pause, question, and reconsider their established beliefs and practices. These incidents stimulate a shift from routine action to reflective thinking and provide an opportunity for learning and growth.

The process of reflection that follows a critical incident often involves critically questioning one's assumptions, beliefs, and practices, and seeking to understand the underlying reasons, consequences, and implications of those practices.

"Incidents happen, but critical incidents are produced by the way we look at a situation." (Tripp 1993, p. 8)

Critical Incident Analysis

Many definitions of *critical incident* exist in the literature. For Schön (1987), a critical incident is "a problematic situation that presents itself as a unique case and promotes reflection" (pp. 5-6). The starting point, therefore, is a problem. As Tripp (1993) points out, however, it is we ourselves who render an incident, i.e., problem, critical that makes that incident a critical incident. Sikes et al. (1985) have a more specific definition, one in which they also focus on possible outcomes: "a highly charged moment or episode that has enormous consequences for personal change and development" (p. 432). Kurtoglu-Hooton (2011) proposes the term "curiosity-instigated episodes" when referring to critical incidents, arguing curiosity can be triggered by something that is negative or positive and is therefore a more neutral term. Curiosity is a trigger for learning, and it is up to the individual to render any episodes critical as they reflect upon them. In Dewey's (1933) words, "we do not learn from experience but from reflecting on experience", and as Larrivee (2000) maintains, "... the more teachers explore, the more they discover. The more they question, the more they access new realms of possibility" (p. 306). These insights apply not only to teachers but also to language learners and, in fact, to any individual who is willing to learn.

Directing attention to curiosity-instigated incidents formed the basis of both the development of the observation form and the resulting reflective tasks we introduce below. By focusing on specific aspects of classroom interaction—such as patterns of participation, question types, teacher's wait time, student signalling, teacher's responses, power dynamics, tolerance for L1 use, just to mention a few—these observation and reflective tasks aim to shed light on the intricate dynamics that shape classroom discourse. In particular, the prompts in the observation form and in the reflective tasks below encourage observers to pay attention to scenarios that may challenge their existing assumptions and expectations about teaching and learning, thereby triggering a shift from routine observation to reflective engagement.

By drawing observers' attention to these critical incidents, the Toolkit we designed serves not merely as a tool for observing and reflecting on classroom practices, but more importantly, as a catalyst for stimulating self-reflection and facilitating transformative learning. Therefore, the observation form, with its specific focus on potentially conflicting situations and the tasks that single out concrete critical incidents, serve as a valuable tool for promoting critical reflective teaching practice (Bartlett, 1990).

USING THE TEFE FRAMEWORK

The set of resources and materials we have designed are interlinked with each competence and sub-competence presented in the TEFE Framework.

After the student teacher or NQT carries out their self-assessment using the TEFE Framework, they can do the specific Tasks in the Toolkit to provide evidence for their self-assessment. Each Task is accompanied by probing questions to encourage reflection and scaffold learning.

GUIDANCE FOR USING THE TOOLKIT TASKS

Below are some prompts to encourage critical reflective teaching practice (see Bartlett, 1990) while completing each of the Tasks in the Toolkit. The users of the Toolkit are strongly recommended to consult the guidance presented in Figure O3.1 as well as read the rationale for classroom observation criteria (see Self-Reflection Tools section) prior to responding to any of the Tasks in the **Teaching Practice Resource Pack for internationalisation .**

Figure O3.1

Guidance for working with the Tasks

Connection to Experience	Makes clear the connection(s) between the experience and the class content and theories
Precision	Identifies development of skills and knowledge, gives specific examples
Accuracy	Objective conclusions and facts are supported with evidence from scholarship
Significance	Draws conclusions, sets goals that address a (the) major issue(s) raised by the experience.
Balance	Finds the right balance between subjective and objective viewpoints, includes personal voice

Ash, S. L. & Clayton, P.H. (2004). The articulated learning: An approach to guided reflection and assessment. *Innovative Higher Education,* 29(2), 137-154.
Hatton, N. & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 11(1), 33-49.
Williams, K. (2012). Using frameworks in reflective writing. In Williams, K. (Ed.), *Reflective writing* (pp.77-102). Palgrave Macmillan.

Levels of Reflection

Being aware of the differences between each level proposed by Bain et al (1999) helps one understand the importance of moving from a description to critical engagement with the experience

Figure O3.2

Levels of reflection

Level 1	reporting the event as it occurred
Level 2	responding to the event in a spontaneous and emotional manner
Level 3	relating to the event in terms of past experience and knowledge
Level 4	reasoning about the event in terms of alternatives
Level 5	reconstructing the event in terms of theories that can be applied to a broader range of experiences

Bain, J.D., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J. and Mills, C. (1999). Using journal writing to enhance student teachers' reflectivity during field experience placements. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 5(1), 51-73.

Characteristics of Reflective Teachers (Korthagen, 2001)

According to Korthagen, each attribute listed in Figure O3.3 is of equal importance in ensuring effective reflective practice.

Figure O3.3

Characteristics of reflective teachers

Attribute 1:	A reflective teacher is capable of consciously structuring situations and problems, and considers it important to do so.
Attribute 2:	A reflective teacher uses certain standard questions when structuring experiences.
Attribute 3:	A reflective teacher can easily answer the question of what he or she wants to learn.
Attribute 4:	A reflective teacher can adequately describe and analyse his or her own functioning in the interpersonal relationships with others.

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