



## Reflection and professional identity in teachers' future-oriented discourse

Alfredo Urzúa<sup>a,\*</sup>, Camilla Vásquez<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> University of Texas at El Paso, El Paso, TX 79968, USA

<sup>b</sup> University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620, USA

### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 3 November 2006

Received in revised form

27 February 2008

Accepted 16 April 2008

#### Keywords:

Teacher supervision

Reflective teaching

Teacher identity

Future-oriented discourse

### ABSTRACT

Educational researchers have recently suggested that Schön's influential model of the 'reflective practitioner' lacks a prospective, or future, dimension. In this study, we examine instances of future-oriented talk produced by novice English as-a-second-language (ESL) teachers during mentoring meetings in one North American university setting. Context-specific functions of future-oriented discourse (e.g., planning, prediction) are investigated in relation to reflective thinking and teacher identity. We illustrate how teacher mentoring meetings represent discursive spaces in which novice teachers have an opportunity to verbalize plans, predict outcomes, consider possibilities, and reflect on their evolving pedagogical practices. We argue that teacher mentors should become aware of these important functions, and encourage prospective reflection in novice teachers.

© 2008 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

### 1. Introduction

One of the most important trends in education in the past decades is the notion of reflective teaching. Largely based on the influential model proposed by Donald Schön (1983, 1987), this type of pedagogical practice calls attention to the types of knowledge that practitioners use in problem-solving and decision-making, and highlights the role of reflection in the process of making sense of personal experiences. Schön's model emphasizes two main processes: reflection *in* action and reflection *on* action. Reflection in action refers to the making of decisions guided by tacit knowledge that occurs in the midst of acting. Reflection on action, in contrast, denotes the kind of reflection that occurs after action has been taken, thus it is retrospective in nature. More recently, other scholars (e.g., Eraut, 1995; Moon, 1999) have underscored the importance of reflection *for* action, which focuses on future courses of action. This prospective type

of reflection, along with its relationship to the process of identity construction among novice English-as-a-second-language (ESL) teachers in a US university ESL program, constitutes the focus of this paper.

Given the complexities involved in teaching and in learning to teach, many educators have turned to Schön's notion of reflective practice as a way to connect multiple independent cognitive and procedural domains (e.g., problem-solving, decision-making, change and innovation) within one overall educational paradigm. Reflection and reflective thinking are now at the center of a wide range of educational practices (e.g., Adler, 1991; Calderhead, 1989; Copeland, Birmingham, De la Cruz, & Lewin, 1993; Gore & Zeichner, 1991; Tomlinson, 1999; Wallace, 1991; Yancey, 1998), with mentoring and teacher supervision representing but one example of such practices (Boreen, Johnson, Niday, & Potts, 2000; Proctor, 1993; Pultorak, 1993).

Another important, albeit more recent, phenomenon in teacher education concerns how teachers relate to their practice in light of both social and individual perspectives. There is a growing awareness within education generally—and within our own area of language teacher

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +1915 747 7038; fax: +1915 747 5292.  
E-mail address: [aurzua@utep.edu](mailto:aurzua@utep.edu) (A. Urzúa).

education, more specifically—that, in order to better understand the processes of teaching and learning, it is important to begin by attempting to understand teachers and to try to gain a clearer sense of the identities which “they claim or which are assigned to them” (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005, p. 22). At the same time, traditional views of identity as unitary, essential, and biologically given, have come to be replaced with a notion of identity as fluid, non-essential, and relationally determined (Woodward, 1997). Our identities emerge and develop in interactions (Gee, 2000) and, more importantly for the purposes of this analysis, they are manifested in discourse.

The position we adopt in this paper is that reflection is also “observable” in discourse (Urzúa, 2001), since reflective practice demands not only a “conscious awareness of the craft of practice, but also [...] an ability to articulate that knowledge” (Osterman, 1990, p.138). Similarly, we believe that teachers’ professional identities emerge through their social actions, including interactions with others, in which they not only reflect on past events, but also—and perhaps even more importantly with respect to their professional development—consider how those past events may inform future events and activities.

We propose that future-oriented talk, as it occurs in supervisory meetings,<sup>1</sup> constitutes an important discursive means for both teachers’ reflection and identity construction. Thus, this study examines novice teachers’ future-oriented discourse and its role in the verbalization of prospective reflection and teacher identity.

## 2. Reflection and identity within teachers’ future-oriented talk

Even though critics of Schön’s model question the likelihood that teachers are actually able to reflect in the midst of taking action (e.g., Eraut, 1995; Gilroy, 1993), most educators agree that it is reasonable to expect teachers to be able to reflect on action (retrospective reflection) and reflect for action (prospective reflection). However, Conway (2001) has called attention to the fact that most of the literature on reflective teaching conceptualizes reflection in a temporally truncated manner, focusing mostly on past-oriented reflection and seldom on prospective, or anticipatory, reflection, i.e., the kind of reflection that highlights activities such as outlining plans, anticipating contingencies, predicting results, and other similar future-oriented practices. These types of verbalizations are commonly expected to occur in interactions between student-teachers and mentors/supervisors (Kullman, 1998; Williams & Watson, 2004; Zeichner & Liston, 1985), whose aim is to encourage an examination of pedagogical intentions, outcomes, and commitments, and to view contexts of teaching as selections from a “universe of possibilities” (Zeichner & Liston, 1985, p.159).

Supervisory meetings also present recurrent opportunities for teachers to construct a sense of themselves in relation to their teaching environments. Acts of speaking

convey a particular sense of agency, and therefore, identity (e.g., Bruner, 1990; Duranti, 2004), and teachers’ professional identities emerge in the telling, sharing, and legitimization of their experiences (Golombek, 1998). Through teachers’ linguistic choices and the variety of ways in which they express themselves within institutional speech activities, such as supervisory meetings, teachers can either claim agency or minimize their own control over what takes place in their classrooms.

Just as with prospective reflection, the future orientation has also been largely neglected in scholarly work on identity, which tends to foreground past and present dimensions of identity (van Lier, 2006). Typically, scholars interested in the relationship between language and identity have focused on talk which reflects current or past experiences (e.g., Gee, Allen, & Clinton, 2001; Schiffrin, 1996, 2002). However, there is growing awareness among educational theorists and researchers about the importance of the future dimension in the discursive construction of self (e.g., Conway, 2001; Heath, 2000; van Lier, 2004; Wiley, 1994). Norton (2000) for example, uses the term *identity* “to reference how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (p. 5, emphasis ours). Similarly, Sfard and Prusak (2005) use the term “designated identity” to specifically denote discursive projections of self into the future. We argue that teachers’ future-projected talk, therefore, is an essential part of the identity work in which they engage.

## 3. Rationale for the study

Reflective approaches to teacher education highlight the important role that mentoring and supervision activities play in fostering reflective practices (e.g., Boreen et al., 2000; Calderhead & Gates, 1993; Tomlinson, 1995). However, much of the focus has been on the beliefs and practices of mentors rather than those of beginning teachers (Gratch, 1998), and only a handful of studies have aimed at identifying, in a reliable manner, instances of reflective talk in mentoring or supervision discourse (e.g., Zeichner & Liston, 1985; Williams & Watson, 2004).

The notion that teachers’ verbalizations of their experience provide a window onto their professional identities is also well attested in the literature (e.g., Chamberlin, 2002; Golombek, 1998). Personal narratives, for instance, represent not only powerful discursive resources for individuals to make sense of their everyday experiences (Ochs & Capps, 2001), but they also promote teachers’ self-awareness and understanding of tacit issues (Olshtain & Kupferberg, 1998). However, reflection on and discussion about teaching represent processes that are not limited to teacher narratives, which typically orient to past events.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> By “supervisory meetings” or “mentoring meetings” we refer to any type of one-on-one meeting that takes place between novice teachers and their supervisors/mentors.

<sup>2</sup> There are a range of meanings associated with the term “narrative” in education and related fields. (e.g., Clandinin & Connelly, 1996; Cortazzi, 1993; Johnson & Golombek, 2002; Juzwik, 2004, 2006; Richards, 1999; Vásquez, 2005). Regardless of the specific definition used, what all studies of teacher narratives have in common is an orientation toward and emphasis on *past* events, actions, or experiences.

While we acknowledge the contributions of narrative research in exploring teachers' reflection and identity (e.g., Clandinin & Connelly, 1996; Johnson & Golombek, 2002), we have become increasingly alerted to the importance of future-oriented talk in determining aspects of teachers' thinking and professional development. Furthermore, although issues related to teacher identity have been explored to some extent in teachers' written discourse, we were interested in examining the relationship between identity, reflection, and futurity in teachers' spoken discourse.

The present study differs from previous investigations in that it examines teacher identity as manifested in the talk that novice teachers naturally produce as they participate in their routine, professional activities, rather than focusing on written discourse or using elicited data, which constitute the bulk of studies in this area.<sup>3</sup> Furthermore, among investigations of situated teacher talk from supervision/mentoring contexts (e.g., Arcario, 1994; Farr, 2003; Farr & O'Keeffe, 2002; Phillips, 1999; Vásquez, 2004, 2005; Waite, 1992, 1993), there are no studies, to our knowledge, that have systematically explored teachers' future-oriented talk in these discursive events.

#### 4. The study

The present investigation provides information about how language is used to depict reflection for action and to construct an emerging professional identity. Reflection, in this sense, constitutes "a mental process with purpose and/or outcome in which manipulation of meaning is applied to relatively complicated or unstructured ideas ... or to problems for which there is no obvious solution" (Moon, 1999, p. 155). This emphasis on a goal-orientated and problem-solving type of reflection is especially relevant to teaching, an activity characterized by multiple, complex, and wide-ranging problems (Sternberg & Horvath, 1995). We also adopt the view that identity is not an essential quality, but rather one that is relationally and discursively constructed. Consistent with current conceptualizations of identity in the relevant literature, we define a teacher's professional identity as constituted in any utterances which include first person reference to one's activities, knowledge, beliefs and attitudes related to teaching.

In order to conduct the analysis, we used modal verbs of futurity in English (*will* and *be going to*) as linguistic signposts of prospective reflection and as markers of modality<sup>4</sup> that help to index the construction of a subjective self in discourse. Time and modality, as Fleischman (1982) has pointed out, are inextricably

linked: "Future is rarely, if ever, a purely temporal concept; it necessarily involves an element of prediction or some related modalization" (p. 24). Consequently, any utterance produced by a speaker, which refers to the future also assumes some degree of speaker subjectivity. As such, teachers' future-oriented talk during meetings represents an ideal source for investigating the intersection between prospective reflection and professional identity.

#### 4.1. Methodology

Two sets of spoken data from mentoring and supervisory meetings were collected, at two different points in time, in an intensive English language programme (IEP) at a southwestern US university. The meetings consisted mostly of dyadic interactions between a mentor or supervisor and an individual teacher.<sup>5</sup> Each data set was audio-recorded and subsequently transcribed by one of the researchers. Data set one, collected in 2001, comprises 20 mentoring meetings, which occurred at the beginning, middle, and end of the semester. Data set two consists of 19 post-observation meetings collected between 2002 and 2004. These meetings took place after a classroom observation, and the primary purpose was to discuss the supervisors' impressions and the teachers' own perceptions of the class observed. The meetings, in both data sets, ranged between 10 and 40 min in length.

Both data sets involved novice ESL teachers teaching in the same IEP program, 7 teachers in data set one (all female; all native English speakers), and 9 teachers in data set two (8 females, 1 male; 3 of the female teachers were non-native English speakers). Teachers' age ranged between 23 and 33. The teachers were all concurrently enrolled as graduate students in a Master's degree TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) program, and were teaching in the IEP at the same time they were taking graduate-level courses in TESOL.<sup>6</sup> In data set one, there was one single mentor (a female doctoral student in her early 30s), while two people shared the role of supervisor in the second data set (a different doctoral student, also in her early 30s, and a faculty member in her mid-40s, both female).

Although the talk in both data sets can be characterized as teacher/supervisor discourse, the speech activities in each were slightly different. The stated purpose of the mentoring meetings was to discuss issues related to classroom instruction, with teachers being encouraged to bring up problems and to discuss their teaching and students' progress, the program, and their specific courses. Post-observation meetings, in contrast, were more

<sup>3</sup> Examples of analyses of teaching identity in written discourse—from our own field of language teacher education—include Antonek, McCormick, and Dontato (1997), Brinton and Holten (1988, 1989), and Holten and Brinton (1995); examples of analyses of elicited data in this area include Golombek (1998) and Varghese et al. (2005).

<sup>4</sup> Even though other verb forms can express futurity in English (e.g., simple present, present progressive), these forms were not considered in order to limit the scope of analysis.

<sup>5</sup> Two meetings consisted of triads: One with two teachers and one supervisor, and the other, with two supervisors and one teacher.

<sup>6</sup> Both the MA in TESOL program and the IEP are housed in the same department. ESL teaching positions in the IEP are typically filled by MA students who have finished their first year of graduate studies. The IEP teachers hired tend to have some previous teaching experience (2 or 3 years, but not necessarily in ESL) and use this opportunity to further develop their teaching skills in a supervised setting. Therefore, our population somewhat blurs the traditional distinction between "pre-service" and "in-service" teachers.

context-specific and oriented towards one particular class session—although participants could naturally deviate onto other topics. All meetings, however, shared the same general goal of offering teachers an opportunity to reflect on their teaching and their classroom practice. Furthermore, although certainly not explicitly stated as an expectation, these meetings also provided teachers with a space in which they could continue to construct their professional identities, or their “teaching selves.”<sup>7</sup>

#### 4.2. Data analysis

Although the role of the mentor is unquestionably essential in these interactions, we do not include mentor or supervisor discourse in our analysis because we wanted to focus exclusively on the teachers’ emerging identity and reflective thinking.<sup>8</sup> Zeichner and Liston (1985) state that “attention needs to be given primarily to the conceptual levels of student-teachers if there is a concern with promoting more complex modes of reasoning during conferences” (p. 170). Furthermore, a focus on features of teacher talk—as opposed to the interaction between teachers and supervisors—has been used successfully in other studies of second language teacher cognition (see Woods, 1996). Thus, in order to closely examine the functions of teachers’ future-oriented discourse, the transcripts for each meeting were first separated, by speaker,<sup>9</sup> so that we could concentrate on the discourse produced only by the teachers. As Table 1 illustrates, in terms of amount of talk produced by the teachers in the study, the two data sets are quite comparable.

Next, a concordancing program (Barlow, 2005) was used to identify and extract all occurrences of the future forms *will* and *be going to* as well as their corresponding contractions (*’ll* and *gonna*). Each form was examined in its surrounding linguistic context. Table 2 shows the distributions of these future forms in both data sets.<sup>10</sup>

As shown in Table 2, twice as many instances of *will* and *be going to* occurred in the mentoring meetings in comparison with the post-observation meetings. This difference seems to reflect the different nature of the meetings in each data set, indicating that participating teachers in the mentoring sessions engaged more frequently in talk about future events than teachers in the post-observation meetings.

<sup>7</sup> We acknowledge that specific program types (IEP, MA-TESOL, etc.) and supervision contexts may vary across institutions and across countries; however, it is our understanding that similar types of one-on-one teacher supervision or mentoring activities take place in educational contexts around the world.

<sup>8</sup> Furthermore, most discourse analytic studies of teacher/mentor interactions tend to emphasize the role of the mentor. The present study attempts to redress this imbalance, and focus instead on talk produced by teachers.

<sup>9</sup> The extraction of student-teachers’ discourse from the transcripts was done automatically using a computer program that was written specifically to split multi-speaker transcripts into a separate file for each speaker (Jones, 2003).

<sup>10</sup> False-starts, repetitions, and non-modal forms of *be going to* (i.e., those instances in which *to* functioned as a preposition) were deleted from the data sets, and are not included in the counts shown in Table 2.

**Table 1**

Transcribed data (teacher talk)

	Data set 1: Mentoring	Data set 2: Post- observation	Total
Total number of words	34,806	31,016	65,822
Average number of words per meeting	1740	1551	1645

**Table 2**

Tokens of future forms in data sets

	Data set 1: Mentoring	Data set 2: Post- observation	Total
<i>be going to/ gonna</i>	165	77	242
<i>will/’ll</i>	128	73	201
Total future forms	293	150	443

In order to classify the future forms located in the data, the 443 forms were read in their linguistic context by both researchers and grouped into preliminary functional categories. Preliminary categories were determined on the basis of discussions of futurity in English, as found in the literature, and patterns inferred by the researchers from their close reading of the data. Initially, each researcher classified the future forms in one third of their own data set and then exchanged these for re-coding and reliability checking. This first comparison resulted in a 70% agreement. The researchers then discussed those cases that elicited disagreement, and further refined the preliminary functional categories. After this, another third of the data were classified, exchanged, and inter-rater reliability checked once more. The level of agreement using the redefined categories reached 90% agreement, and any remaining differences were resolved through discussion. Each researcher then classified the remaining third portion of the data.

#### 4.3. Taxonomy of functions of future forms

Each instance of *will* and *be going to* was coded according to its primary function, using the taxonomy created during the process described above. The resulting taxonomy includes both future and non-future meanings associated with future forms. A summary of these functions and examples from the data are presented in Table 3.

Four major categories of future meanings were identified: planning, prediction, uncertainty, and conditional. The “planning” category consists of utterances in which teachers expressed definite plans or future actions, usually involving volition, intentionality, or commitment. The category of “prediction” includes examples in which teachers expressed assessments of likelihood, often occurring with evaluative expressions. The “uncertainty” category includes utterances expressing doubt about a

**Table 3**  
Taxonomy of functions for future forms

Future Meanings	Examples
Planning	<i>I'll give them a couple they can choose from.</i>
Prediction	<i>I'm sure we'll work something out.</i>
Uncertainty	<i>I don't know how good they're gonna be on the actual test...</i>
Conditional	<i>I'm not gonna waste my time if they're not gonna put the effort in.</i>
Within reported speech	<i>I always say "The better you outline your paper the easier it will be for you to write your paper."</i>
Non-future meanings	Examples
Habitual	<i>...occasionally he'll prompt the other students.</i>
Past actions/Past Events	<i>...a few years ago it was more difficult for me to decide how grades are going to be broken down.</i>
Counterfactual	<i>I was going to but I didn't.</i>
Discourse marker	<i>...so we'll see.</i>

future state or outcome. The examples in the “conditional” category refer to future outcomes predicated on a condition (e.g., *if*-clause) being satisfied.

As Table 3 illustrates, in addition to future meanings, four categories of non-future meanings were also identified: habitual, past event or action, counterfactual, and discourse marker.<sup>11</sup> Because of our interest in future-oriented talk, we restricted our analysis only to those instances that encode future meaning, i.e., the first four categories in Table 3. As shown in Table 3, a “borderline” category also emerged: that of future forms located within reported speech. Given limitations of space, we did not analyze these instances even though they represent interesting cases of “future within the past,” which may merit further attention.<sup>12</sup>

#### 4.4. Distribution of forms by function and meeting type

Table 4 shows the distribution of forms by function in the two data sets.

Looking at the two data sets collectively, the largest category of future forms involved cases in which student-teachers expressed some type of planning (38%), followed

<sup>11</sup> Examples in the “habitual” category described a regularly occurring event or a habitual activity. Statements in the “past event or action” category consisted of temporally bounded actions or events, and those coded as “counterfactual” expressed an unrealized action or event. Finally, instances coded as “discourse marker” served to indicate the end of turns or episodic boundaries in discourse.

<sup>12</sup> In these cases, the modal occurred as part of actual reported speech or within constructed thought. These instances were typically framed as a past event (i.e., usually preceded by some type of reporting clause), and the speaker’s words or thoughts within the reported utterance oriented to the future. As a result of the well-known complexity associated with assigning temporal reference to verbs in reported speech, and given that some discourse analysts have argued that reported speech serves as an index of an “acting self” (e.g., Schiffrin, 1996, 2002), we believe that this category represents an important area for further research, particularly where teacher identity is concerned.

by instances of prediction (25%). Only a few instances of the uncertainty and conditional functions were found in the data. Future forms occurring in reported speech accounted for 15% of the tokens yielded and non-future forms accounted for another 15%.

## 5. Analysis by category

Due to their relative frequency, the primary focus of the analysis that follows is on the categories of planning and prediction. We also briefly discuss the uncertainty and conditional categories which, although far less frequent than planning and prediction, are nevertheless relevant to discussion about the future dimension of reflection in teachers’ spoken discourse.

## 6. Planning

Planning constitutes a cyclical process that includes teachers’ thinking prior to actual teaching as well as thinking occurring after classroom interactions, which in turn guide projections for future actions (Clark & Peterson, 1986). In general, planning statements are quite common in teacher discourse. They are related to various cognitive operations, such as decision-making, problem-solving, and evaluation, and allow teachers to address a wide variety of situations tied to instructional goals: courses, lessons, students, materials, procedures, and so forth (Woods, 1996). Research on teachers’ planning, however, has been traditionally concerned with the relationship between lesson plans and actual instruction, with little consideration of other potential functions of planning (Clark & Peterson, 1986). We aim to show, in the analysis below, that planning plays an important role in the development of a reflective teaching persona.<sup>13</sup>

In our analysis, we adopt a conceptualization of planning based on the theoretical model originally proposed by Yinger (1977; as described in Clark & Peterson, 1986). In this model, planning involves three main stages. First, an initial problem worthy of consideration is introduced, i.e., problem identification. This is followed by the progressive elaboration of plans over time, i.e., exploration and consideration of alternatives. The final stage involves teachers’ more definite thoughts regarding implementation and evaluation procedures, which in turn serve to generate subsequent plans.

The cyclical nature of planning allows the development of improved plans over time. However, as Woods (1996) explains, plans may also be ill-defined and often contradictory at the onset of the process, which can be frustrating and discomfiting. Not all plans are well structured, goal oriented, and consistent with one’s initial

<sup>13</sup> There are compelling reasons for establishing connections between planning and reflective thinking. Van Manen’s (1977) model of reflection, for instance, distinguishes levels of reflectivity on the basis of how individuals set up goals to address pedagogical concerns and how plans are designed to achieve those goals. Also, recent models of reflection have underscored the connection between reflective thinking and decision-making (Eraut, 1995; McAlpine, Weston, Beauchamp, Wiseman, & Beauchamp, 1999).

**Table 4**

Distribution of functions of future forms in data

	Planning	Prediction	Uncertainty	Conditional	Reported speech	Non-future <sup>a</sup>	Total
Mentoring	135 (46%)	82 (28%)	10 (3%)	13 (5%)	24 (8%)	29 (10%)	293 (100%)
Post-Observation	34 (23%)	28 (19%)	9 (6%)	1 (1%)	41 (27%)	37 (24%)	150 (100%)
Total	169 (38%)	110 (25%)	19 (4%)	14 (3%)	65 (15%)	66 (15%)	443 (100%)

<sup>a</sup> Includes habitual, past event or action, counterfactual, and discourse marker categories.

intentions; they may be tentative, ill-structured, and contradictory, especially when dealing with new or unfamiliar situations.

Throughout the planning process, teachers make decisions regarding what problems to explore, potential courses of actions, and how to interpret the outcomes of those actions. These decisions can be formulated from different perspectives: a plan may be expressed so that the decision-making process is interpreted clearly as a personal act (e.g., *I'm gonna change the lesson*), as a collective endeavor (e.g., *today we're going to start looking at going beyond the paragraph level*), or as the enactment of an action to be performed by others (e.g., *they're gonna organize the stuff that's all over the wall in the classroom*).

Because our data reflected these distinct perspective-taking approaches, we further subdivided the category of planning into three types: self-focused planning, group-focused planning, and other-focused planning (Table 5). As shown in the following sections, our data suggest that the formulation of plans is related to the various stages in the planning process, with teachers' talk about problem posing (stage 1) and progressive planning (stage 2) expressed from a self-focused perspective, while talk about implementation and evaluation of plans (stage 3) is expressed from a group- and other-focused perspective.

### 6.1. Self-focused planning: identifying problems

In general, "planning occurs when an individual's 'current state' is different from a 'desired state' or goal" (Woods, 1996, p. 52). This notion underscores a specific link to reflection in that reflective thinking is often viewed as being fundamentally concerned with transforming *present* situations into *preferred* situations (Van Gyn, 1996). Reflective thinking demands the development of different sets of competencies to apply to different problems. In the process of problem formulation, aspects of an undesired situation are specified or named. Example (1) illustrates this initial process of problem identification. The teacher, in this case, elicited topics of interest from her students to use as the basis for designing tasks and selecting materials. One of the topics chosen was "art", which proved problematic, so the teacher postponed dealing with it:

(1)... no, I'm doing ... because ... well because I can't ... I don't have enough <unclear> together for art ... I'm

**Table 5**

Breakdown of 'planning' category

	Self-focused (I)	Group-focused (We)	Other-focused (They)	Total
Mentoring	82 (60%)	13 (10%)	40 (30%)	135 (100%)
Post-observation	15 (44%)	13 (38%)	6 (18%)	34 (100%)
Total	97 (57.5%)	26 (15.5%)	46 (27%)	169 (100%)

doing travel tourism next ... and then **I'm gonna** do art which I have nothing for and I really don't have a clue...what to include with the arts...

In this example, the teacher recognizes her lack of knowledge about the topic and how her initial plan to develop the unit proposed by students has not been realized. This clearly causes frustration (*I really don't have a clue...*). On the other hand, this same frustration can initiate or trigger reflective thinking as a way to start dealing with the problem. In fact, later in the same conversation, when the mentor comes back to the topic of arts and offers to help look for materials, the teacher starts articulating a tentative plan to deal with the situation:

(2) yeah, that will really help and I've decided **I'm gonna** divide it into music...music art... [...] or it could be you know like pottery you know just art in general...

Teachers encounter problematic situations on a daily basis, and the ability to deal with problems in an effective way constitutes a valuable skill. Formulating a problem in a clear, well-structured manner is important for solving problems (Arlin, 1989; Dillon, 1982; Moore, 1990). Once a situation has been conceptualized as a problem, the appropriate search behavior can be generated. However, during mentoring and supervisory sessions, novice teachers are confronted with a very peculiar dilemma: they are expected to identify problems in the course of the conversation with which they may be uncomfortable being identified with, since this may involve presenting themselves as less than capable. At the same time, there is

an agreed-upon assumption that problem identification is, precisely, the purpose of the session so that both teacher and mentor can engage in a process of collaborative problem-solving. Thus, novice teachers need to choose between distinct ways of presenting themselves in relation to problem posing and problem exploration.

## 6.2. *Self-focused planning: exploring alternatives*

Formulating a problem in a fruitful manner requires a number of sub-processes, such as exploring, questioning, and considering possible solutions (Brugman, 1995; Getzels, 1985; Runco & Nemiro, 1994). For instance, example (3) shows one teacher outlining potential courses of action for how to assess students' oral proficiency.

(3)...but I don't think **I'm gonna** give them a grade based just on talking...uh... but **I'm gonna** have like a ... a rubric... you know... whether I can understand... whether they can answer the questions...

In this category, we also found various examples of how novice teachers construct distinct types of identities. In (4), for instance, the role adopted is that of a decision-maker and organizer, even though some aspects of the teacher's plans may still be tentative or ill-defined.

(4)... about topics you know and **I'll** give them a couple they could choose from and then **I'll** put them into groups ... you know or do you think it's better if they get into their own groups?...

In (5), in contrast, the teacher adopts a more assertive stance. She defines a future course of action specifying not only what she wants to do but also what she plans on *not* doing, implying that she has considered various options (e.g., formal tests vs. small quizzes and informal assessment activities) and is leaning towards one of these possible solutions:

(5)...**I'm not really gonna** have a test in my class I don't think... you know... not not like a full on test... you know... **I'm gonna** have like these little pronunciation quizzes and... you know... spelling bees and... your crosswords things like that...

In self-focused plans, the agency expressed by teachers may range from being somewhat tentative or cautious, in seeking confirmation or approval from the mentor (as in 3 and 4 above), to being more assertive and in control (as in 5). These modes of self-presentation, we believe, are tied to the need to negotiate between discursively constructing a knowledgeable and capable self while, at the same time, acknowledging their status as novice teachers in their interactions with a more experienced mentor.

Interestingly, though, there were also instances in which teachers projected themselves as autonomous and independent decision-makers, appealing not so much to their knowledge (or lack thereof) or current status, but to their belief system, as in example (6). In this instance, the teacher, having been advised not to discuss the 9/11 attack in New York with her students, decides to do otherwise

and communicates her strong feelings about this decision during the mentoring session.

(6)...I thought that was completely in left field... sort of... and I thought it helped to talk to them... so I chose to do that... and **I will** continue to choose to do that if they want to talk about it...

Despite the use of the hedge *sort of* that seems to be an attempt to decrease the force of the first utterance, most of the teacher's *I*-statements in (6) convey a sense of mindfulness, commitment, and control, denoting the speakers' beliefs and values with regards to her role not only as teacher but as a social agent and interpreter. Future actions resulting from conscious and deliberate decisions, as expressed in the statement "*I will continue to choose to do that,*" convey not only a definite purpose but also the assuming of responsibilities that go beyond instructional procedures and that deal with moral and social issues (Van Manen, 1977, 1991).

In sum, teachers expressed a range of degrees of commitment to their plans, from definitive to more tentative. Tentative planning, however, is not that unusual among teachers. Even the most experienced teachers may formulate tentative plans or plans to which they are not fully committed, especially if they involve future actions whose realization may be dependent on multiple factors.

In general, the first-person future planning expressions presented in this section involve preliminary decision-making and the imagining of future actions intended to reach a specific goal. We regard all of these cases of exploration and consideration of alternatives as evidence of speakers' attempts to construct a confident, independent teaching self.

## 6.3. *Group-focused planning: specifying content and procedures*

The majority of group-focused plans in our data were related to the final stages in the planning process, in which decisions have already been made (stage 3). The speaker can now consider the actual implementation of plans: specifying the timing and sequencing of activities, setting up instructional procedures, choosing materials, and of course, getting other participants involved, that is, the students themselves, who become implicitly encoded through the choice of first person plural pronouns in the subject position. In (7), for example, the teacher reports on her planning of how much time should be devoted to a particular exercise, while (8) exemplifies a different teacher making decisions about instructional sequencing.

(7) And I know, OK w- probably **we'll** spend like ten minutes doing, you know explaining this particular question from this exercise, because I know it will be difficult ...

(8)...I really thought I wanted to move into these lyrics, just have them, get them thinking about it and then next week, that's what **we're going to** spend a lot more time on ...

Even though the implementation of these plans clearly reflects teachers' decisions and actions, the choice of an inclusive *we* foregrounds the students' involvement in the events and situations. This strategy allows teachers to present themselves not so much as authoritative figures but as collaborators and cooperating partners in the classroom. Class activities are not simply led by the instructor and performed by the students, but both teacher and students are presented as team members, working in concert, even though the decisions are still being made by the teacher.

#### 6.4. Other-focused planning: managing instruction

The third sub-category, other-focused planning, refers to plans in which actions are to be carried out by others: most often students, and occasionally colleagues. Even though plans in the previous two categories also involved implementation of activities, other-focused plans typically had to do with specifying rules and expectations, as well as assigning or enforcing activities: essentially, matters of classroom management or control, as exemplified in (9) and (10).

(9)...you know and have a choice because if they're gonna be spending... and **they're gonna** spend at least a couple of hours on it ...

(10)... so in Multimedia what I was thinking about doing is showing a movie ...so **someone will** have to turn on and off the movie...you know what I mean?

Interestingly, of all three categories, this was the one in which teachers' verbalized plans—in a more evident manner—as actions to be carried out rather than as tentative, preliminary, or possible courses of action. These are plans that are to be implemented as opposed to plans that are still being considered. Although all plans can be said to signal some degree of intentionality, other-focused plans were found to be the most definite in that they include virtually no linguistic hedges (i.e., markers of uncertainty, hesitation, or lack of expression, including words or phrases such as *maybe*, *might*, *kind of*, etc.); in contrast, hedges were very often found in instances of self-focused planning. In other words, there was a noticeable tendency among teachers to express the highest level of intentionality when formulating plans dealing with immediate classroom management issues. One possible interpretation for this level of definiteness or certainty could be an attempt on the part of the teachers to convey the importance that specific actions are carried out for the overall success of the lesson. In other words, if specific actions are not secured or do not occur as expected, the lesson could potentially become unmanageable, disorganized, or ineffective.

That these plans dealing with instructional management and expected outcomes are expressed from a third-person perspective, i.e., a more distanced perspective, can be related to the notion that “increases in markers of distance indicate a problem point” (Linde, 1980, cited in Woods, 1996, p. 71). In other words, teachers are indicating, in their choice of words and syntactic struc-

ture, the fact that some aspects of their planning are dependent upon the behavior of others (i.e., their cooperation, collaboration, compliance) and thus not completely under their control, even though they are the ones doing the planning.

The ability to make decisions that influence what happens in and beyond the classroom can be understood as a signal of the teachers' attempts to claim authority as course instructors, while protecting themselves from potentially negative outcomes. Excerpts are reflective in that the speakers formulate plans in light of problems and challenges posed by situational constraints, and in that they verbalize their decision-making process, their level of commitment, and the perspective they have taken with regard to those problems and decisions. In essence, they represent instances at the intersection of reflection and identity.

## 7. Prediction

Prediction can be considered to reflect a “differing degree of consciousness in the planning process,” representing an intermediate stage between active decision-making and an expectation (Woods, 1996, p. 122). Utterances can be expressed at various degrees of likelihood, and in turn, such variability can help the speaker to convey a particular perspective with regards to the situation being communicated. It constitutes, then, a subjective way of expressing meaning that involves assessments of likelihood as well as evaluations of possible outcomes as desirable or undesirable, expected or unexpected.

Examples in the prediction category included high and low probability predictions, often accompanied by explicitly evaluative statements. Teachers consider the likely outcomes of their decisions in light of factors such as class size, perceived student motivation, students' language proficiency, and so forth, as well as in terms of personal and institutional objectives and goals. In addition, assessing the desirability of a potential outcome provides a type of internal feedback so that, if necessary, new plans or modifications to existing ones can be made. In (11), for instance, the teacher makes a prediction about how long an activity will take given the number of students in her class and then evaluates the expected outcome as undesirable.

(11)...because even with ten kids **it will** be a lot of time if I do it in class...I wouldn't want to take that much time.

(12)... **it's not going to** affect them in any way shape or form and given the situation... if they were just blowing off class... that's another thing...

In (11) and (12), predictions are expressed in rather definite terms, with little hesitation or uncertainty on the part of the speaker, but predictions can also be expressed with various degrees of certainty. In (13), for instance, the teacher predicts her students' academic writing abilities by the time they finish the course. This assessment, although not as definitive as the previous ones, is enough

to justify, according to the teacher, a follow-up writing course.

(13)... realistically it it's a Writing 2 class then **they're** probably **not going to** leave the class ready for... academic writing at the university level and **they're** probably **going to** have to go to Writing 3 class or something...

Thus, predictions in our data appear to serve two main functions: justification and assessment of possible outcomes in light of contextual constraints and availability of resources. These functions seem to be related to Zeichner and Liston's (1985) notion of justificatory talk within reflective discourse, which refers to "reasons and rationales underlying past, present, and future pedagogical actions and factors related to such actions," including assessment of efficiency, effectiveness, fairness, honesty, and potential utility (p. 163).

Expectations that are grounded in reality help teachers to adapt, modify, and reconsider their actions. If predictions and expectations match teachers' sense of what is and what will be, then it becomes easier to move on: new tasks can be tackled, new events planned, and new objectives and goals set up. During their initial teaching experiences, novice teachers need to be mindful of how their linguistic knowledge, pedagogical skills, and general sense of self (e.g., self-confidence, optimism, needs and desires) relate to the characteristics of a given task (e.g., familiarity, complexity, level of difficulty, relative importance). In (14), for instance, the teacher communicates a sense of awareness about her ability to handle different units in her course and predicts that one unit in particular will be particularly challenging for her, although she remains optimistic.

(14) ... yeah, that's the one I'm really worried about 'cause that's the one I have...no knowledge of... basically.. so I think with the other ones **I'll** be okay... I can put some together and you know **I'll** be fine ...

Grounding expectations in reality is one important aspect of teachers' metacognition, as is making accurate predictions based on experiential knowledge, consideration of imagined scenarios, level of commitment, and ability to evaluate one's own actions and the actions of others. Particularly among novice teachers, developing a sense of control is crucial to be able to continue teaching with a certain degree of optimism and hope (Conway, 2001). Failing to do so can be considered a sign not only of poor teaching but also of lack of progress in developing as a teacher.

## 8. Uncertainty

A few examples in the combined data sets consisted of future forms that conveyed uncertainty. In these instances, the future form occurred invariably within frames headed by clauses such as *I don't know*, *I wonder*, *I'm not sure*, etc., as illustrated by example (15):

(15)...[name of student] is not finished with his book but his book is so huge- I'm not really sure **I'm gonna** make him do another one ...

In (15), the teacher conveys uncertainty and hesitation in adopting a specific course of action. Such cases of indecisiveness or hesitation may result from insufficient experience, knowledge or skills, or unfamiliarity with a given situation. In any case, they represent potentially problematic situations but they appear to be different from instances of problem identification and explorative talk discussed earlier in that they are less goal oriented. Mostly, they appear to be ill-defined problems, i.e., problems that are difficult to specify (Arlin, 1989) or problems that may not have specific solutions and are, consequently, less appealing or engaging (Runco & Nemiro, 1994).

Utterances in this category can be viewed as part of a process of "problem-sensing," a stage previous to problem identification (Moore, 1990). However, given the small number of instances in this category, it is not possible to draw any further interpretations.

## 9. Conditionals

Although there were also too few examples in the conditional category to identify any strong patterns, verbalizing hypothetical situations is clearly related to teachers' exploration or consideration of alternatives and possible solutions. Most of these examples consisted of a potential course of future action contingent upon the occurrence of something expressed in the embedded *if*-clause, as in (16):

(16)...I could pull them aside but...if it boils down to that **I will** but I'm just gonna try to use little hints, tactics... I'm fine right now.

In essence, as example (16) illustrates, in these constructions teachers have to opportunity to explore their "imagined selves" in the context of various future possibilities.

## 10. Discussion

Our analyses support the notion that future-oriented talk in novice teachers' mentoring and supervision discourse is related, functionally, to the verbalization of prospective reflection, i.e., the type of reflection that allows the anticipation of future experiences in meaningful ways (Conway, 2001). In addition, planning and prediction appear to be tied to distinct strategies of self-presentation and perspective taking, which in turn can be considered as instances of teacher identity construction.

Teachers in our study usually adopted a self-focused perspective (*I will...*, *I'm going to...*) when formulating statements related to the initial phases of the planning process, i.e., problem identification and exploration of alternative solutions. This perspective enabled teachers to relate pedagogical events to their personal experiences, values, beliefs, and attitudes in order to determine future courses of action.

According to the planning model introduced earlier (Yinger, 1977) as well as current models of teacher cognition (Woods, 1996), decisions formulated during initial stages of planning serve to define later plans in which more definite actions are implemented, taking into account specific situational factors (e.g., students' current knowledge and abilities, time availability, institutional constraints) and teachers' assessment of such factors. In our data, the formulations of those latter plans seem to be related to different modes of self-presentation and perspective taking, i.e., group-focused (*we will..., we're going to...*) and other-focused (*they will..., they're going to...*) plans. These perspectives allow teachers to think of themselves in the context of the classroom environment, while presenting students or other teachers as active participants in the planning process.

When making predictions, teachers expressed varying degrees of likelihood and various levels of commitment in light of both an assessment of their own knowledge and skills, as well as enabling and constraining factors in place. In general, predicting statements allowed teachers not only to assess potential outcomes, but also to justify decisions, reconsider the need to adapt or modify actions already planned, communicate a sense of awareness and control, ground expectations in reality, and engage in various modes of evaluation and self-evaluation.

Furthermore, plans and predictions entailed various metacognitive and subjective dimensions, such as volition, intentionality, assertiveness, and certainty. By engaging in prospective reflection, teachers simultaneously communicated an image of themselves in various future or potential teaching roles, whether as confident, knowledgeable, and assertive teachers, or as hesitant and inexperienced ones. Future-oriented talk, thus, constitutes an index of constructed views of self, as teachers position themselves along various continua of control, authority, and expertise.

One aspect that we didn't include in our study, but which is important to mention here, refers to the levels of reflectivity achieved by teachers. Models of reflection often make reference to the fact that reflection may entail various levels of sophistication (Van Manen, 1977; Ross, 1989), although it has been rather difficult for researchers to find ways of determining those levels with sufficient ecological validity, i.e., the extent to which measurement techniques are relevant to actual teacher behavior and teaching contexts (Kagan, 1990). One way in which reflective thinking may result in distinct outcomes relates to the purpose of reflection, e.g., whether the aim is simply to define a specific course of action in response to a perceived difficulty, to evaluate one's own teaching, or to assess moral dilemmas. When conducting our analysis, it was evident that some instances of planning and prediction were related to technical aspects of teaching (e.g., selecting appropriate materials) whereas others dealt with more critical aspects (e.g., social and ethical implications). We are aware that not all instances involve the same level of reflectivity, and that there may be instances in which there may be little reflection and others in which teachers may engage in deeper levels of reflection. Determining such levels of reflectivity is

beyond the scope of this study. We believe, however, that we are dealing with forms of reflection and identity construction insofar as our data involves teachers' attempt to deal with problematic situations, formulate general and specific plans, assess potential outcomes and possibilities, examine knowledge and beliefs, or evaluate their roles within the context of their current teaching situation.

## 11. Conclusion

Language serves as the mediating tool between mentors and supervisors and it is the means by which novice teachers verbalize their reflective thoughts and construct an emerging identity as professionals in the field (Gratch, 1998). In this paper, we focused on the role that future-oriented discourse plays in specific functions related to reflection and identity construction, adopting the notion that "it is through language that an individual's plans and interpretations are labelled, represented and shared with others" (Woods, 1996, p. 73). Our findings reveal that, in our data, future-oriented talk is mainly used for planning and prediction, and that these serve to perform aspects of reflection *for* action, such as problem posing and problem identification, exploration of alternatives, monitoring and assessment, and evaluation.

Future-oriented talk, thus, constitutes a type of prospective reflection that allows novice teachers to interpret their early experiences with a view towards the future: to imagine the kind of teacher they want to become, and to use their formative years as a means to project a designated sense of self as teachers (Sfard & Prusak, 2005). Unfortunately, as Conway (2001) affirms, prospective reflection is not always present in teacher education programs, which for the most part tend to emphasize reflection on action (past oriented) and reflection in action (present oriented), even though the argument can be made that these types of reflection are less relevant to teachers with little teaching experience.

As our analysis demonstrates, future-oriented utterances convey various aspects of teachers' metacognitive selves, such as awareness, intentionality, commitment, self-confidence, and responsibility, which can be interpreted as active displays of professional identity construction. We believe that mentors can—and should—play a more active role in helping novice teachers to not only "present themselves as prospective teachers" but also to "acquire the confidence to see themselves as budding teachers" (Hawkey, 1997, p. 328). In order to do this, mentors should be aware of the challenges inherent in self-presentation and reflection during sessions with student-teachers. In these interactions, the teacher must negotiate presentation of self and the need to be more or less conscious of the type of professional identity being projected (Vásquez, 2004). In other words, too many expressions of uncertainty in an individual teachers' talk may signal that the teacher is struggling, weak, or incompetent; therefore, teachers may feel the need to balance this type of more tentative talk with that in which they are firm and less hesitant in their position and their knowledge: in other words, more "planning" and

“prediction” rather than “uncertainty” or “conditional” types of functions.

Mentors and supervisors, therefore, should make a conscious effort to make connections explicit between current and future situations, in particular during post-observation sessions, which tend to be more oriented toward past activities. Even though reflection on past actions can be beneficial to students, an orientation towards the future allows novice teachers to interpret past and current actions in light of future situations. Similarly, the verbalization of plans, predictions, and potential outcomes encourages teachers to engage in the kind of talk that will be more conducive to reflective thinking and practice.

We acknowledge that we have focused here only on plans and predictions that involve the use of future modals, and that not only are there multiple ways of communicating such functions through language, but also that teachers' reflection and identity construction involve much more than planning, predicting, and epistemic assessments. Yet our analysis strongly suggests that teachers' linguistic choices (i.e., talk about the future) can be related to specific aspects of reflective thinking (e.g., problem framing, consideration of possibilities) and identity construction (e.g., agency, level of commitment). These forms of anticipatory reflection and self-presentation constitute crucial components of Schön's reflective practitioner's model that have been largely neglected in the literature, which for the most part has focused on retrospective reflection.

In sum, mentoring or supervisory sessions constitute discourse spaces that promote reflection and self-awareness and allow novice teachers to look “toward the future with knowledge of the past from the viewpoint of the present” (Conway, 2001, p. 90). In these sessions, novice teachers have an opportunity to verbalize their plans for the future, to imagine expected outcomes, to explore possibilities, and to reflect on their pedagogical practices and their emerging roles as teachers. It is important that teacher educators understand how mentoring and supervision sessions relate to the process of identity formation and that they assume an active role in promoting not only reflection *on* action (retrospective reflection) but also reflection *for* action (prospective reflection). We believe that prospective reflection offers a unique opportunity to engage in active and meaningful decision-making, problem definition, exploration, and evaluation, and one that allows teachers to envision the future and to imagine themselves in that future.

## References

- Adler, S. (1991). The reflective practitioner and the curriculum of teacher education. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 17(2), 139–150.
- Antonek, J. L., McCormick, D. E., & Dontato, R. (1997). The student teacher portfolio as autobiography: Developing a professional identity. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81, 15–27.
- Arcario, P. (1994). *Post-observation conferences in TESOL teacher education programs*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Arlin, P. K. (1989). The problem of the problem. In J. D. Sinnott (Ed.), *Everyday problem solving: Theory and applications* (pp. 229–237). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Barlow, M. (2005). *MonoConc Pro* (Version 2.2) [Computer Software]. Houston, Texas. Open Source E-Commerce. Available at <<http://www.athelstan.com/>>.
- Boreen, J., Johnson, M., Niday, D., & Potts, J. (2000). *Mentoring beginning teachers: Guiding, reflecting, coaching*. York, ME: Stenhouse Publishers.
- Brinton, D., & Holten, C. (1988). *Dialog journals: A window on the act of teaching* (Revision of a paper presented at the Annual meeting of the teachers of English to speakers of other languages, March, 1988). ERIC document reproduction service no. ED303030.
- Brinton, D., & Holten, C. (1989). What novice teachers focus on: The practicum in TESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(2), 343–350.
- Brugman, G. M. (1995). The discovery and formulation of problems. *European Education*, 27, 38–58.
- Bruner, J. (1990). *Acts of meaning*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Calderhead, J. (1989). Reflective teaching and teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 5(1), 43–51.
- Calderhead, J., & Gates, P. (1993). *Conceptualizing reflection in teacher development*. Washington, DC: The Falmer Press.
- Chamberlin, C. (2002). “It's not brain surgery”: Construction of professional identity through personal narrative. *Teaching and Learning*, 16(3), 69–79.
- Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (1996). Teachers' professional knowledge landscapes: Teacher stories—stories of teachers—school stories—stories of schools. *Educational Researcher*, 25(3), 24–30.
- Clark, C. M., & Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 255–296). New York: Macmillan.
- Conway, P. F. (2001). Anticipatory reflection while learning to teach: From a temporally truncated to a temporally distributed model of reflection in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 89–106.
- Copeland, W. D., Birmingham, C., De la Cruz, E., & Lewin, B. (1993). The reflective practitioner in teaching: Towards a research agenda. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 9(4), 347–359.
- Cortazzi, M. (1993). *Narrative analysis*. Washington, DC: Falmer.
- Dillon, J. T. (1982). Problem finding and solving. *The Journal of Creative Behaviour*, 16(2), 97–111.
- Duranti, A. (2004). Agency in language. In A. Duranti (Ed.), *A companion to linguistic anthropology* (pp. 451–473). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Eraut, M. (1995). Schön shock: A case for reframing reflection-in-action? *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 1(1), 9–22.
- Farr, F. (2003). Engaged listenership in spoken academic discourse: The case of student-tutor meetings. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(1), 67–85.
- Farr, F., & O'Keeffe, A. (2002). Would as a hedging device in an Irish context. In R. Reppen, S. Fitzmaurice, & D. Biber (Eds.), *Using corpora to explore linguistic variation* (pp. 25–48). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Fleischman, S. (1982). *The future in thought and language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Gee, J. P. (2000). Identity as an analytic lens for research in education. In W. G. Secada (Ed.), *Review of research in education*, 25, 2000–2001 (pp. 99–125). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.
- Gee, J. P., Allen, A., & Clinton, K. (2001). Language, class, and identity: Teenagers fashioning themselves through language. *Linguistics and Education*, 12(2), 175–194.
- Getzels, J. W. (1985). Problem finding and the enhancement of creativity. *NASSP Bulletin*, 69(482), 55–61.
- Gilroy, P. (1993). Reflections on Schön: An epistemological critique and a practical alternative. In P. Gilroy, & M. Smith (Eds.), *International analyses of teacher education, JET papers one* (pp. 125–142). Oxford: Carfax Publishing Co.
- Golombek, P. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 447–464.
- Gore, J., & Zeichner, K. (1991). Action research and reflective teaching in pre-service teacher education: A case study from the United States. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 7, 119–136.
- Gratch, A. (1998). Beginning teacher and mentor relationships. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 49(3), 220–227.
- Hawkey, K. (1997). Roles, responsibilities, and relationships in mentoring: A literature review and agenda for research. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 48(5), 325–335.
- Heath, S. B. (2000). Seeing our way into learning. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 30(1), 121–132.
- Holten, C., & Brinton, D. (1995). “You shoulda been there”: Charting novice teacher growth using dialogue journals. *TESOL Journal*, 4(4), 23–26.

- Johnson, K., & Golombek, P. (2002). *Teachers' narrative inquiry as professional development*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Jones, J. (2003). *Speaker Splitter* [computer software, not available commercially].
- Juzwik, M. M. (2004). What rhetoric can contribute to an ethnopoetics of narrative performance in teaching: The significance of parallelism in one teacher's narrative. *Linguistics and Education*, 15(4), 359–386.
- Juzwik, M. M. (2006). Situating narrative-minded research: A response to Anna Sfard and Anna Prusak's "Telling identities". *Educational Researcher*, 35(9), 13–21.
- Kagan, D. M. (1990). Ways of evaluating teacher cognition: Inferences concerning the goldilocks principle. *Review of Educational Research*, 60(3), 419–469.
- Kullman, J. (1998). Mentoring and the development of reflective practice: Concepts and context. *System*, 26, 471–484.
- Linde, C. (1980). *Linguistic analysis of written texts*. Paper presented at NWAWE conference, Ann Arbor, MI.
- McAlpine, L., Weston, C., Beauchamp, J., Wiseman, C., & Beauchamp, C. (1999). Building a metacognitive model of reflection. *Higher Education*, 37, 105–131.
- Moon, J. A. (1999). *Reflection in learning and professional development*. London: Kogan Page.
- Moore, M. T. (1990). Problem finding and teacher experience. *The Journal of Creative Behaviour*, 24(1), 39–58.
- Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity, and educational change*. New York: Longman.
- Ochs, E., & Capps, L. (2001). *Living narrative*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Olshtain, E., & Kupferberg, I. (1998). Reflective-narrative discourse of FL teachers exhibits professional knowledge. *Language Teaching Research*, 2(3), 185–202.
- Osterman, K. F. (1990). Reflective practice: A new agenda for education. *Education and Urban Society*, 22(2), 133–152.
- Phillips, D., 1999. *The feedback session within the context of teacher training and development: An analysis of discourse, role and function*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of London.
- Proctor, K. A. (1993). Tutors' professional knowledge of supervision and the implications for supervision practices. In J. Calderhead, & P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualizing reflection in teacher development* (pp. 93–112). Washington, DC: The Falmer Press.
- Pultorak, E. G. (1993). Facilitating reflective thought in novice teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(4), 288–295.
- Richards, K. (1999). Working towards common understandings: Collaborative interaction in staffroom stories. *Text*, 19(1), 143–174.
- Ross, D. D. (1989). First steps in developing a reflective approach. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 40, 22–30.
- Runco, M. A., & Nemiro, J. (1994). Problem finding, creativity, and giftedness. *Roeper Review*, 16(4), 235–242.
- Schiffrin, D. (1996). Narrative as self-portrait: Sociolinguistic constructions of identity. *Language in Society*, 25, 167–203.
- Schiffrin, D. (2002). Mother and friends in a Holocaust life story. *Language in Society*, 31, 309–353.
- Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. New York: Basic Books, Inc.
- Schön, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Sfard, A., & Prusak, A. (2005). Telling identities: In search of an analytic tool for investigating learning as a culturally shaped activity. *Educational Researcher*, 34(4), 14–22.
- Sternberg, R. J., & Horvath, J. A. (1995). A prototype view of expert teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 24(6), 9–17.
- Tomlinson, P. (1995). *Understanding mentoring: Reflective strategies for school-based teacher preparation*. Milton Keynes, UK: Open University Press.
- Tomlinson, P. (1999). Conscious reflection and implicit learning in teacher preparation. Part I: Recent light on an old issue. *Oxford Review of Education*, 25(3), 405–424.
- Urzúa, A. (2001). *Perceptual and linguistic approaches to the study of reflectiveness in journal writing*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Arizona University.
- Van Gyn, G. (1996). Reflective practice: The need of professions and the promise of cooperative education. *Journal of Cooperative Education*, 31(2–3), 103–131.
- Van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective*. Norwell, MA: Kluwer.
- Van Lier, L. (2006). *Action-based teaching: Holistic and emergent learning*. In Paper presented at the TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) annual convention, Tampa, FL, USA.
- Van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing with ways of being practical. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 6, 205–228.
- Van Manen, M. (1991). *The tact of teaching*. New York: The State of New York Press.
- Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education*, 4(1), 21–44.
- Vásquez, C. (2004). Very carefully managed: Advice and suggestions in post-observation meetings. *Linguistics and Education*, 15(1–2), 32–58.
- Vásquez, C. (2005). *Teacher positioning in post-observation discourse*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Arizona University.
- Waite, D. (1992). Supervisors' talk: Making sense of conferences from an anthropological linguistic perspective. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision*, 7(4), 349–371.
- Waite, D. (1993). Teachers in conference: A qualitative study of teacher-supervisor face-to-face interactions. *American Educational Research Journal*, 30(4), 675–702.
- Wallace, M. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, M., & Watson, A. (2004). Post-lesson debriefing: delayed or immediate? An investigation of student teacher talk. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 30(2), 85–96.
- Wiley, N. (1994). *The semiotic self*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Woods, D. (1996). *Teacher cognition in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Woodward, K. (1997). *Identity and difference*. London: Sage Publications.
- Yancey, K. (1998). *Reflection in the writing classroom*. Logan, UT: Utah University Press.
- Yinger, R. (1977). *A study of teacher planning: Description and theory development using ethnographic and information processing methods*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing.
- Zeichner, K. M., & Liston, D. (1985). Varieties of discourse in supervisory conferences. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 1(2), 155–174.