VIDEO BASED OBSERVATION AND FEEDBACK FOR THAI IN-SERVICE TEACHERS: THE MENTOR’S ROLE

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Introduction:
There is good evidence that a mentor (i.e. a relatively experienced teacher) who provides professional support to a relatively inexperienced teacher (i.e. a mentee) can effectively support professional development (e.g. Hobson and Malderez 2013). This article focuses on aspects of the mentoring role within a teacher development initiative in Thailand. External mentors worked with English language teachers as a follow-up to a three-week INSET course (nicknamed ‘bootcamp’ by the Thai Ministry of Education). Mentors reinforced content from this INSET course and guided teachers using a video-reflection process supported by an online platform (Iris Connect).

This article analyses both interviews with mentors and Thai teachers, as well as recordings of teacher-mentor discourse and video-club meetings. This data comes from a process where mentors guided reflection on both videos of a teacher’s own teaching and videos of other Thai teachers through online and face-to-face discourse. We consider aspects of the mentor’s role, identity and interaction. Interviews reveal some of the challenges and affordances that video provided in this process.

In summary, this article

- elaborates on elements of the mentors’ role and interaction in helping Thai teachers to be reflective about their practice.
- provides a contribution to our understanding of how mentors can support a video-based CPD intervention to promote teacher reflection.

Context
The British Council has been involved in teacher development projects around the world since the 1940s. In the wake of discussion about the pros of intercultural experience in teacher development (e.g. Gu 2005) and cons of having outsiders import ‘Western’ teaching methods (e.g. Holliday 1994), such projects look to create positive change through context specific, collaborative relationships that allow space for the development of the teacher’s voice and experience. This approach is evident in efforts to provide ongoing professional support for teachers through the use of mentoring. The English Language Teacher Development Project (ELTDP) in Malaysia, for example, had external mentors experienced in communicative language teaching (CLT) working with groups of up to ten dispersed teachers on location over four years. With no standardised one-size-fits-all training programme, this allowed for flexibility when dealing with individual contexts whilst also promoting collaborative and active learning (Bowden 2014a; Bowden 2014b). Similarly, the English Language Initiative for Secondary Schools (ELISS) project model in India moved away from its original cascade approach, in which it used selected secondary school teachers as ‘Master Trainers’, and on to a mentoring model that was more on-going, teacher-driven, and classroom-based (see Parnham et al 2017).

The Regional English Training Centre (RETC) project in Thailand began with an initial three-week basic methodology course (bootcamp) that reached over 17,000 primary and secondary teachers across Thailand. The training, led by teacher educators from CLT backgrounds, included input and simulated micro-teaching practice in which participants acted as students. To address reservations about the efficacy of decontextualized, ‘one-hit’ INSET (see Tomlinson 1988; Waters and Vilches 2000), follow-on tasks were added to the model. These allowed teachers to experiment independently with learned techniques in their own classrooms for two months. These participant teachers then returned to training centres to reflect on their experiences during a 1.5 day follow up process. Two trials of post-INSET mentoring took place during the second year of the project, in a move to find viable means of supporting teachers back at their schools and encourage sustainability. The first trial was purely online whilst the second, on which this research is based, included face-to-face support.

Face to face/online mentoring
Six experienced language teachers and teacher trainers were recruited as mentors, both from the pool of existing bootcamp trainers and externally. All had a background in communicative language teaching outside of the Thai state school system.
Two had significant experience working within Thailand and spoke Thai. Mentors were placed in 6 of the 15 regions with existing bootcamp training centres (selected in consultation with the Thai Ministry of Education to be spread evenly across the country). Each mentor worked with approximately 10 dispersed, in-service teachers, recommended by their bootcamp trainer due to their performance over the 3-week training course: capable teachers who they felt would engage with the process and be able to affect change within their schools.

Outside of their bootcamp training, participating teachers (mentees) had little or no experience of being observed, reflective discussion, or implementing more communicative practices into their classroom. In this sense, they were ‘relatively inexperienced’ (Hobson and Malderez 2013:89) when compared to their mentor, irrespective of how many years they had been teaching. Mentors, meanwhile, did not position themselves as experts of the Thai state school context but would work with teachers to understand their individual context and provide support that drew on both of their perspectives and experience.

Repeated delays to school access and an unsuccessful attempt to include existing Thai school ‘supervisors’ in the trial (see Figure 1) led to a reduced time frame of around 10 weeks.

During this time, mentors visited each teacher’s school three times and engaged with them online to provide support and opportunities for teachers to discuss, reflect and receive feedback on videos of their lessons. These were recorded and shared by teachers through a video sharing and feedback app/platform (IRIS Connect). Online interactions took place through a social media app (‘Line’) and in the form of written, time-tagged thoughts, feedback and questions added to video by the mentor and teacher (see Figure 2).
This 3-visit cycle (over 10 weeks) culminated in ‘video club’ sessions held at the teachers’ schools where they discussed selected clips of teaching practice with colleagues (see Figure 3). Where possible, these were scheduled to coincide with existing yet underused Professional Learning Community (PLC) meetings which had been introduced in early 2017 (Ritman & Rohitsatian 2017; Amornvuthivorn 2018; Saengpassa 2017).

Visit 1
- Learn about teacher’s context
- Video clips: discuss and provide examples of written reflection
- Choose a focal point:
  - classroom management
  - teaching meaning and use
  - student practice

Visit 2
- Spoken feedback (with video)
- Spoken feedback on written reflection
- Examples of sharing/discussing clips in online forums
- Choose focal point

Visit 3
- ‘Video club’ session led by participating teacher/mentor
  - Non-participating teachers invited from the same school
  - Teachers discuss selection of 5 to 10 minute video clips shared by other teachers on the trial (option to discuss their own clips should they wish)
  - Small discussion groups (3 to 5 teachers) with some set questions to scaffold

Figure 3: The complete 3-visit cycle
Literature review

In general terms, mentoring is seen as ‘a valuable process to aid professional and personal development’ (Garvey and Alred 2000: 113). It also encourages the teacher evaluation process since it can promote self- and peer-evaluation, rather than being restricted to a top-down or external evaluative process. Mentoring is a process that involves both ‘professional and emotional support’ (Nguyen 2017: 29) and, in most accounts, mentors are teachers in schools who take responsibility for student-teachers or novice teachers new to a school (Malderez and Bodóczky 1998).

Within teacher education, mentoring is seen as a key method of helping teachers develop (Mann 2005). Garvey and Alred (2000) suggest mentor-based education should focus on developing reflective skills, providing support and challenge. This reflective process of learning from personal experiences establishes internal frames of reference that can serve to improve teaching over time (Mercado and Baecher 2014). Mentors have an important role in helping the teacher-learner to negotiate and learn from knowledge and experience through supported interaction (Gakonga, 2019). Consequently, in order to promote reflection, a mentor may deliberately construct a discourse to create an interactional space (Orland-Barak 2001) where self-development is more likely (Basile et al. 2003). In such a space, mentees can articulate views on their practice and outcomes for language learners. Video has also been seen as helpful in encouraging reflection on experience (e.g. Baecher et al. 2018; Hockley 2018; Mann et al. 2019) and this is an important element of the intervention featured here.

In terms of our focus, most mentoring research has focused on school-based mentoring for preservice teachers during their practicum (e.g. Ambrosetti 2014; Wang & Odell 2002; Woullard & Coats, 2004). There are far fewer studies of mentoring in in-service situations (although see Gakonga 2019, for examples). For this reason, this is one of a few studies that have looked at mentoring support beyond an INSET course.

Mentors need to balance a range of different skills and a number of studies have identified exemplary mentoring (Orland-Barak & Hasin, 2010) or ‘good practices’ (e.g. Searby and Brondyk 2016). Bullough and Draper (2004) offer a range of techniques which mentors can use to support novice teachers in their training and early stages of their career. Orland-Barak (2012: 4) considers the following skills as key for a mentor: ‘highly developed organizational skills, interpersonal relationships, reflectivity, ability to integrate theory and practice, subject matter expertise, professionalism, leadership roles and the right combination of challenge, modelling, and support’. Wang and Odell (2002: 499) point to a prevailing humanistic view of mentoring that prioritises empathy and encouragement (see also Hobson 2016 on being emotionally supportive) but ‘fails to challenge prior knowledge about teaching and learning’? Mentors also need appropriate preparation to perform their roles effectively (Hobson et al. 2009).

Despite claimed advantages, the provision of effective and genuine emotional mentor support can be time consuming (Malderez and Bodóczky 1999). An experienced, competent teacher as a mentor is potentially a good source of useful information but there are limitations, especially if the mentor sees their role as primarily ‘advice-giver’. There are reports in the literature of mentors being negative or overly critical (e.g. Gratch, 1998) and the greater the power differential, the more likely that advice and even ‘judgementoring’ (Hobson and Malderez 2013) is likely to occur, although this is more likely in preservice contexts. When mentors do become overly evaluative the exchange becomes a ‘language of telling’ (Orland-Barak and Rachamim 2009: 602) and is not conducive to reflective talk and ‘educative’ mentoring (Feiman-Nemser 2001). For this reason, mentors are often keen to lower the power differential (Orland-Barak 2012). At the same time, mentees may expect evaluation and sometimes invite evaluation, even when the mentor is keen to establish a more equal footing (Hobson 2016). This is especially true in contexts (such as the current Thai context) where teachers are used to being positioned as advice-recievers.

The effectiveness of a mentor in terms of communication skills and critical reflection can be developed through explicit training (Everson and Smitheye 2000; Langdon 2013) and such training is seen as helpful by the mentors themselves (Pohl and Révész 2014). This kind of training can raise awareness of mentee/mentor talk (e.g. Ambrosetti, 2014; Everson and Smitheye, 2000) and can provide useful suggestions for encouraging reflection and reducing face-threatening discourse (Gakonga 2019). There is evidence that it can be helpful for mentors to record (video or audio) their practice and to reflect on it when listening back (Orland-Barak and Rachamim 2009; Gakonga 2019). Such training and self-awareness can help avoid linguistic features such as closed questions and
interruptions. It can also reduce time spent telling, explaining and ‘speaking for the mentee’.

Methodology
This research is best characterized as a qualitative case study (Richards 2003) of mentoring in a Thai context, adopting a constructivist theoretical position. Focusing primarily on interviews with both mentors (6) and mentees (5), it also draws on transcripts of video-based mentoring sessions (24). In doing this, we offer an evaluation of the role of mentors within the design of a mentoring programme. This section clarifies our theoretical position, qualitative research design and details data-sets, ethics, and our approach to sampling (selection of participants) and thematic analysis.

We recognize that teacher training and development is a social process that takes place in a specific sociocultural context (Johnson 2009) where knowledge is negotiated and co-constructed between teachers and mentors and between teachers in video-based CPD talk (Baecher et al. 2018). Our study seeks a detailed practitioner-led account of how mentors used the video process in different ways for teacher development purposes. For this reason, interviews were designed to elicit detailed descriptions of mentor and mentee perceptions. Following Copland and Creese (2015: 29-37), the major goal of the interviews was gaining an insider, or emic, perspective about video use and the value participants place on the process.

Summaries of all interviews were produced and we then selected key contributions and significant exchanges for transcription. The summaries and transcriptions were then subjected to thematic analysis (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Braun and Clarke (2006: 79) define thematic analysis (TA) as ‘a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data’. After an initial coding scheme was drawn up by one of the researchers based on findings from existing literature, as well as the summaries and transcripts, we then extended and modified this scheme. We see TA as the most efficient way to build a more detailed picture of the mentors’ role in teacher educator video-based practices. We looked for patterns or commonalities in the teacher educator interview transcripts where emerging themes became the categories for analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

The team drew on guidance from BAAL and BERA (the BERA 4th Edition Guidelines 2018 and the BAAL guidelines for Applied Linguistics 2016) in securing permissions from teachers and mentors. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to interview and teachers gave permission for their videos, tagged comments and sessions with mentors to be recorded. We consciously developed a team approach where we were also reflective about such dynamic team processes in the process of making ‘meaning’ (Creese and Blackledge 2012).

The findings and discussion that follow are a jointly constructed version of what was prominent and significant to the authors in this research project. We undertook joint-interviewing and conducted thematic analysis of transcripts individually and as a group, through discussion, as well as shared use and development of mind mapping, figures, coding sheets and tables.

Analysis and discussion

Theme 1: Facilitating the process
This section looks at the role of mentors in facilitating this 3-visit cycle, specifically in terms of setting up the process and encouraging teacher contributions to it. It also touches on some broader issues around teacher motivation in this context.

1.1 Introducing concepts and realistic expectations
The first school visit was especially important in terms of introducing the concept of self-reflection itself, as well as allowing for unfamiliar technology to be demonstrated and set up. There was a general consensus among mentors that teachers had little understanding of what reflection was at the start of the process, a view supported by survey results (see Appendix 1). Mentors needed to be sensitive to where each teacher was in terms of their development (and enthusiasm) and adjust accordingly. One of the key messages of the first meeting was that the selected teachers would go on to mentor and help other teachers in their school. However, this was sometimes met with little enthusiasm. As one mentor put it:

it became very clear that (...) we had to tone it down a bit because it started to sound a bit fake (...) they're not happy about being mentored themselves, how will they go on to mentor other teachers?

Contrastingly, some teachers were more open to the possibility of taking on this role, allowing mentors to promote it as planned. For example, one teacher that was interviewed expressed her desire to be ‘a leader’ and to ‘help them [other teachers]’ by sharing her own videos. The ability to read the situation and identify of what was realistic or not for a given teacher was an important part of
the mentors’ role. It seems unlikely that they would have been able to feel around the possibilities as effectively without meeting teachers in person.

1.2 Encouraging teacher contributions to the process

The presence of mentors and school visits were seen as a fundamental motivator for any action taken by teachers. As one mentor stated, ‘I don’t imagine a lot of teachers would be as motivated to work online if there wasn’t that visit … if there wasn’t that face-to-face human touch’. Unsurprisingly, it was felt that this motivating relationship also benefited from time, with mentors noting that initial resistance from some teachers (those feeling ‘pressurised [sic] into it’ or simply ‘too shy to say no’) did tend to subside over the 10 weeks.

When mentors had a pre-existing trainer-trainee relationship with teachers, motivations both beneficial and problematic were evident. On the plus side, these mentors could contribute to the selection process themselves and then explain the process to teachers directly and in advance of their first visit. As one mentor recalled, ‘I called her personally, myself, to ask her and she was so enthusiastic’, in contrast to other teachers who were ‘just told somebody’s … coming to see you’ by a third party. However, another mentor and former trainer also highlighted the issue of having to shift from an existing trainer-trainee relationship, with some teachers viewing this new process as a ‘check up’ by their former trainer. This led to them performing a form of role-play ‘out of respect’ to ‘show us what you’ve trained us is still actually here’.

Mentor interviews point to the challenges of getting busy teachers to record, watch and reflect upon a full lesson in advance of school visits. The space for this reflection and discourse began online in the form of tagged comments and replies before culminating in face-to-face discussion. The number of online contributions varied significantly between teachers, with many prone to waiting for top-down ‘answers’ (see Figure 4). Knowing that their mentor would be visiting may also have encouraged them to put off discussion until in a more familiar, face-to-face environment.

Different forms of motivation seem to have worked for different teachers. One mentor recalled the motivating effect of peer pressure when a teacher getting off to a slow start was shown the work of an enthusiastic contributor:

‘He couldn’t understand why she had made such a long comment . . . He kind of got a wake up call, somehow, by seeing that and he really did make a bigger effort. He was the first one in with the cycle 2 video.’

Other motivations can be seen in contributions to online forums (encouraged during the second visit) which provided space for teachers to interact and share video clips with each other. There were some instances of them doing this, particularly where the mentor emphasised the teachers’ role as ‘leaders’ who could affect positive change (see Figure 4). Relating to the principles of cooperative learning (e.g. Slavin, et al. 2003), such sharing can be seen to rely on both social interdependence (a desire for social cohesion) and task motivation (in this case, the task being them taking on a leadership role) whilst also reflecting what Rodgers (2002: 857) describes as a sense of ‘responsibility toward others’. The content shows them publishing their ‘best practice’ rather than making an effort to elicit reflective discussion and this desire to present their best self could be another driving force. As one teacher pointed out, ‘some video I don’t show because it’s not perfect’.

Figure 4 - tendency to wait on mentor input
Theme 2: Using videos to prompt reflection

2.1 Access and evidence

Not surprisingly, video as a tool and artefact impacts on the nature of the interaction between a mentor and a mentee. Mentors noted that having a re-playable record of the lesson allowed easier access to events and more focus on particular incidents and moments (i.e. data-led). From a purely practical perspective, mentors no longer needed pages of notes with times ‘scribbled in the margin’ as this was all replaced digitally. It also allowed discussion around a lesson to take place at any time after the event, lessening or eliminating the need for memory of a lesson to be held by both parties.

One mentor also reported that using video meant a reduced need for ‘the meta-language you might normally use’ and that he had instead ‘been showing not telling’. Rather than having to label and refer to moments in the abstract, mentors could point to specific parts of the video and work from what was visible rather than described. Providing this more direct path to potential teaching points was seen as vital when working with teachers often new to this terminology and shorthand. The same mentor felt that this ability to ‘show rather than tell’ also allowed them to take more of a guided discovery or inductive approach, ‘practicing what I preach’ as a result. There were also examples of teachers guiding others to such moments (‘at the beginning, like, like, ah, in, ah, 39 seconds, she use ICQ . . . Second 39’), indicating that they were becoming more comfortable with using video evidence themselves. This budding autonomy is also glimpsed in forum-based video sharing (see Figure 4). Although it is difficult to determine how independent of the mentor’s feedback these selections were, this simple act of choosing suitable clips to share with other teachers suggests some level of reflective thought on the teachers’ part.
2.2 Teacher attitudes to video

Teachers also appreciated the video-based focus on the practical rather than the theoretical. Considering experiences of less practical training and discourse outside of this trial and ‘bootcamp’, one teacher explained:

We just come, sit, meeting, talk, eat and then go back, send a document. Nothing happens so, but this one just more, yeah, I have to do something else. I do it and make it [the video]. I make it myself, I, I love that way.

Less positively, there was a sense that some teachers did not see the lessons they were recording as ‘real’ because they had spent longer preparing for them and had taught differently. One teacher, referring to what would seem the sensible step of preparing mini whiteboards for her students before class said, ‘when I give them on mini whiteboard, I give them before class but the real situation you cannot . . . Different’. Similarly, teachers in group discussions sometimes criticised the teacher on video for preparing even slightly ahead of time (‘in reality, she shouldn’t be doing this’) or questioned the relevance to their own classes because of the students’ level (‘these students are very strong!’). This view, by some teachers, that the efforts on video were somehow inauthentic or unobtainable for them reduced their ability to fully engage with them. This emphasises that this featured 10-week process could only be a beginning rather than the end. For most, a shift in what is thought possible and likely in their everyday classes will take longer. Lastly, a demotivating factor for teachers in rural communities with lower connectivity was issues with uploading videos.

Nevertheless, there are indications that video does have the potential to break down the ‘dogma’ of both preceding training and teachers’ assumptions about the restrictions of their own context. For example, whilst teachers did tend to simply applaud the inclusion of ‘bootcamp’ techniques as ‘good’ or brand their absence as ‘bad’, there were also examples of them evaluating how well or suitably these were implemented (see Appendix 2). Some strongly held beliefs proved unsurprisingly hard to break down but there were signs of a progression, upon seeing video evidence, from broad rejection (e.g. Thai students can’t do this) to personal exception (e.g. my students can’t do this) and then qualified acceptance (e.g. my students did this but it required a special lesson).

Theme 3: Balancing reflection and direction

3.1 Balancing input and reflection

Mentors were aware that their role involved balancing advice and input (in most cases reinforcing ‘bootcamp’ content) and allowing space to focus on current teaching and materials. Mentors were conscious too of not dominating the interaction, speaking about being flexible with individuals and whether to take a directive role or allow more reflective space. One mentor spoke of ‘holding back’ as a deliberate strategy, another about using the video to ‘encourage them to relate their experience with the training they attended in the past’. This connection between what they are doing now, what developments can take place, and what changes can be implemented is at the heart of the matter in terms of encouraging a focus on current teaching. When a ‘more direct’ approach was required, it was considered more manageable when done face-to-face. As one mentor said:

their own understanding of the pedagogy itself is not, you know, at the level where they can really see what they’re looking for [but] if you sat down with them and took them through it, they can do it.

Although the videos did help teachers to reflect and some materials were developed to encourage reflective behaviours (see Appendices 3 and 4), mentors noted that remedial work was still often necessary. One mentioned how teachers ‘really needed more kind of input in terms of how to reflect’ and there was a consensus that teachers often struggled to fill the reflective spaces created for them without considerable scaffolding. However, this did mean that the process helped highlight these needs which could then be addressed. Such insights were not always clear during or after the three weeks of INSET. As one mentor observed, ‘I actually found out something that I didn’t know. I trained all ten of my teachers . . . and they aren’t as good at reflecting as I thought’.

3.2 Power and face

Mentors faced the challenge of working with teachers more familiar with top-down evaluation (often based on little or no actual classroom observation) than co-construction and negotiation on a more equal footing. Because of this, they were conscious of both the importance of giving emotional support and also reducing the power differential between mentor and mentee. One of the ways they did this was endorsing teachers’ contributions and focusing attention on the specifics of lessons (rather than overall generalisations).
Mentors were conscious of keeping things positive where possible. One talked of her overall goal being to 'encourage, explain and show positives'. Mentors also spoke of trying to include non-judgemental ways of engaging mentees and encouraging them to reflect more deeply on evidence. In this regard, mentors reported two main strategies; firstly, mirroring a mentee’s video on, 2004) -t Asian - on that - - - - - - - - - e implicit power dynamic online tasks (see Appendix 4).

Trust that teachers were staying on resolve this sensitively. As one explains: "Can you give me an example of that?" There is evidence of hedging and also indirect pedagogical suggestion (Strong & Baron, 2004) with mentors using modals like 'maybe' rather than more threatening ones like 'should' or 'must'.

In general terms, mentors were able to work with videos in a supportive atmosphere (Sherin & Han 2004). The process of reflecting back and asking for clarification was helpful in mitigating face issues during video-based spoken interaction. Access to video evidence also reduced the potential for a one-sided 'contest' between how a mentor and mentee recalled events from a lesson. In a non-video case, the implicit power dynamic would likely require a mentee to accept a mentor’s recollection of events. When discussing a moment visible to both, however, teachers could approach the evidence on a more equal footing.

3.3 Use of Thai

Two of the mentors speak Thai and for them there was a good deal of translanguaging. They were aware of shifting to Thai on occasions to help focus on video moments in one-to-one sessions. All six mentors displayed a willingness to step back and encourage teachers to communicate in Thai during group sessions, especially when there were signs of confusion or misunderstanding. There are a number of occasions in group meetings where this is explicit (‘You can speak in Thai, that’s fine’; ‘Can you translate in Thai? Maybe, that will be easier’) whilst on other occasions, and certainly at larger sessions with more than one group, teachers would code-switch as suited them, especially when the mentor was occupied elsewhere. Mentors demonstrated an awareness of the additional obstacle that language presented to teachers and they attempted to resolve this sensitively. As one explains:

If you’ve got A1, A2 [level] teachers, um, just their ability to reflect, you know, just linguistically is an issue, so, never mind (..) obviously, the next issue is that reflecting is new.

Non-Thai speaking mentors also needed to trust that teachers were staying on-task and, based on translated exchanges from video club events, this was mostly the case.

There was also a concerted effort to promote Thai in written online tasks (see Appendix 4). However, teachers seemed intent on using English even if it was a struggle, likely due to an implicit understanding that their mentor was ultimately overseeing all interactions and comments, irrespective of who the primary audience was. Giving an indication of the effort it took some to compose comments in English, one teacher said, 'If I comment right now, only short sentences (..) I cannot think very well in English, right?' and 'I pause and take a look and write in Thai first... after that, in English and then comment.' However, at least in some cases, this was seen as a developmental process.

Implications and recommendations

This section draws together our current thinking about the potential and also some of the drawbacks of encouraging a reflective way for mentors to work with teachers using videos. It then offers some more practical recommendations for teacher educators and mentors in operationalizing such an approach.

Taken as whole, this study indicates that video evidence from the teacher’s own context (their classroom or ones like it) can form the basis of reflection and useful exchanges with both a mentor and peers. The video-based 3-visit cycle allowed the mentors to build in opportunities for reflection, sharing and communication that ensured the INSET process was less of a one-off design (Lamb 1995; Wedell 2009). The study offers some evidence for the position that this kind of video-based work (with appropriate levels of support) is possible in a Southeast Asian emerging economy context. Lok et al (2018) suggested that video can be a powerful tool for preservice teachers in Cambodia, finding that teachers perceived themselves to have developed in terms of student-centered teaching methods. In our in-service context we found that video offered ‘greater access’ to moments in classrooms (Gaudin and Chaliès 2015: 42) and that video and time-tagging features promoted specific, contextualized and personalised talking points.

Our study also offers some confirmation that the video-based process enabled:

- Evaluations that were jointly constructed with focused evidence from videos that help shape future action and innovation (Sherin 2007).
Opportunities for scaffolding teacher learning (e.g. Brunvand & Fishman 2006), shifting the talk away from ‘telling’. Mentors were conscious of balancing a transmission approach with a more reflective approach likely to result in autonomous development (Hobson and Malderez 2013).

A bridge from new or previously disregarded theory, ideas and strategies to the teachers’ everyday classroom realities. Received knowledge (often from INSET or mentor input) can be personalized, depending on where the teacher is in terms of their development. This all offers a more dialogic and collaborative version of the relationship between theory and practice (Mercer et al 2017).

A more nuanced understanding of mantras or dogmatic beliefs from in-service training or the perceived restrictions of a teacher’s own context.

A more time-flexible space for discourse.

A power dynamic that is less reliant on metalinguage and the mentor’s recollection and evaluation of events alone, one which features a balance between description, interpretation, analysis and judgement (Lefstein and Snell 2013)

In the third phase (video-club sessions), teachers used the videos to discuss alternatives and options in a collaborative way, focusing particularly on what is feasible and suitable for learners at different levels. However, there was still a great deal of superficial negative evaluation of video clips, and mentors felt that extended work is needed to ensure a consistently constructive and positive experience (Moon 2001).

**Recommendations**

The seven recommendations below are written with this particular mentoring context in mind: mentors from outside the Thai public school context working for a finite period with dispersed, in-service teachers who speak English as their second language. However, the more general points also appear relevant to different teacher development contexts, positioned post-INSET or otherwise.

1. A period of six months or more would provide a realistic time frame to develop individual/group skills and self-sustaining practices.

2. Create space for face-to-face interactions between mentors and mentees, mentees and other teachers. This is motivational for teachers and allows mentors to better identify and address tensions between the project design and the reality on the ground.

3. Be aware of the impact of personal and cultural expectations regarding roles and power dynamics in a school setting or following on from INSET. For example, visits from a former trainer can increase motivation but may also be seen as performance related.

4. Mentors should be open to the use of the teacher’s first language. For mentors who do not speak the language, confidence and trust is required to sometimes step back and prioritise peer interactions that are not instantly accessible to them.

5. Online tasks should be practical and based around actual teaching practice where possible. If these don’t have a clear point of difference to the ‘task’ in face-to-face meetings (or very obviously build towards these), they are likely to be de-prioritised by participants. Examples include:
   - Sharing lesson videos with tagged questions or points of interest in preparation for face-to-face discourse. If and when more complete interactions start occurring online, face-to-face meetings would no longer be necessary, allowing for more meaningful online discourse from distance.
   - Discourse/sharing with a wider community of teachers than is available face-to-face (tasks that actively encourage socialization and build this community would also be required).
   - A less reflective focus, emphasising the teacher’s role as a leader or ‘change agent’, sharing new or best practice with others.

6. The audience for a teacher’s lesson videos should be controlled by the teacher and only extended in relation to their personal comfort (most likely to be themselves first, a trusted mentor second, followed by
trusted colleagues, then a broader pool of colleagues and teachers). This may help to counter:

- Undue stress and rejection of the process.
- A desire to only show ‘best practice’ which can limit constructive discourse.
- Inauthentic practice with teachers coaching students in advance or choosing unchallenging language points in order to make a lesson appear more ‘successful’.

7. Mentors receive training and induction that is grounded in the relevant context. This can benefit from the inclusion of:

- Video clips of context specific teaching to frame discussions on reflective practice and set realistic expectations.
- Transcript excerpts/recordings of mentor-teacher interactions to emphasise certain points (e.g. the benefits of taking a step back, letting teachers converse in their L1, when and how to take a lead and elicit from the mentee).

**Conclusion**

Our data highlights that video provides important additional scaffolding to discourse involving teachers still coming to grips with new approaches to teaching and professional development post-INSET. The easier access to evidence-based teachable moments allowed mentors to help such teachers reflect on their role and consider alternative approaches and options (Brophy, 2004) more collaboratively, both with a mentor and other teachers. The fact that video tasks involved practical application in classrooms also added personal relevance to the process. The time available clearly limited the opportunities for more significant development, as well as the potential for sustainability after the mentors had left. However, there is evidence here to suggest that such video-based, reflective approaches could take root in educational contexts where they are currently a novelty, if a first step similar to this one was followed up on.

**References**


Appendices

Appendix 1: Data sets

2.1 - Summary of survey results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of ability to reflect</th>
<th>Before the trial</th>
<th>After the trial</th>
<th>Increase</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers who feel their understanding of reflection is very good/excellent</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers who feel their ability to reflect on their teaching in the classroom is very good/excellent</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>53% (with video)</td>
<td>50% (with video)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers who feel their ability to improve their own teaching is very good/excellent</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers who feel their ability to help other teachers improve their teaching is very good/excellent</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of videos</th>
<th>Before the trial</th>
<th>Would like to in the future</th>
<th>Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers watching videos of themselves teaching often/always</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers watching videos of other teachers teaching often/always</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers that would like to share videos of their own teaching with other teachers often/always</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beliefs about videos &amp; professional development</th>
<th>Before the trial</th>
<th>After the trial</th>
<th>Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers who believe that watching videos of their own teaching by themselves helps them develop professionally a large/very large amount</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers who believe that discussing videos of their own teaching with mentors or other teachers face-to-face helps them develop professionally a large/very large amount</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 38 out of 57 responded. Although this data gives a positive indication of Thai teachers self-reported perceptions and engagement, there are a number of obvious caveats. The survey was delivered post programme and relies on participants’ ability to rate themselves retrospectively, recalling and rating their habits, perceptions, skills, and knowledge both pre- and post-programme. The teachers may also have wished to validate the efforts of themselves and their mentor.
### 2.2 - Full data set table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data set</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Video discussions                 | 3rd visit audio recordings and transcripts of:  
  - PLC 'video-club' discussions  
  - One-on-one discussions between a mentor and teacher about their own lesson video | 59 recordings in total  
  24 transcribed recordings:  
  - 10 group chats  
  - 6 1-on-1 about video clips  
  - 8 1-on-1 about own lesson video | 24 with transcriptions:  
  https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1Ek4ZahGhiry9adTgWDez3holehStUb?usp=sharing  
  Remaining recordings (not transcribed)  
  https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1Ek4ZahGhiry9adTgWDez3holehStUb?usp=sharing |
| Interviews                        | Recordings and transcripts of:  
  - Interviews with mentors (took place between 2nd and 3rd school visit)  
  - Interview with mentees (took place after 3rd school visit) | 11 recordings:  
  - 6 mentor interviews (0 transcribed)  
  - 5 mentee interviews (2 transcribed) | Mentors  
  https://www.dropbox.com/sh/f9jus9p4d5i8ps/AAC0vX2Os013LXwG5CxhrfXU0la7d?dl=0  
  Mentees  
  https://www.dropbox.com/sh/6i5mpcgezvy5kafe/AADDbf5HwY9mFyvkav3hBco7d?dl=0  
  https://drive.google.com/file/d/1Hk0Eodse3Nq-OVDWYKoNlywLeZO2A5u/view?usp=sharing |
| Mentor perceptions                | Mentor perceptions of process and suggestions for improvements written between the 2nd and 3rd school visits. | 2 | https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1dcY41nXGpR40noo2RsEMv00PT1xalx?usp=sharing |
| Questionnaire                     | Completed by teachers after the 3rd visit/completion of the trial  
  "Retrospective pre-test" model. Some questions ask teachers to recall/their perceptions/skills related to things before the process started. | 38 responses | Full question set & results on Survey Monkey:  
  https://www.surveymonkey.com/results/SM-P9MDCVHBL/  
  Summary – google drive:  
  https://drive.google.com/file/d/1ScIChrT47xMzDhXapm9qVLvP1d3ZZ2DQz/view?usp=sharing |
| Mentor feedback on cycle 1 videos (phase 1 trial) | Perceptions of what teachers were overusing, misusing, misunderstanding, not doing from the 3 week training. Given after observation and feedback on over 1000 video clips of teachers' classes after training. Indication of how teachers perceive 'bootcamp' style teaching. | NA | Final summary & action points  
  https://drive.google.com/open?id=1-pLdINJu-A4ae5w7u1-SRVV6bQEN  
  Original mentor’s observations  
  https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/10i-R2I77nB0wvFCxpmZnAeRMcj7uA7UcweCZ9Tms/edit?usp=sharing |
Appendix 2: Example of more nuanced reflection

M = mentor, T = teacher
01  T: and at the beginning, like, like, ah, in, ah, 39
02    seconds, she use ICQ (.).
03  M: okay (.). let's have a look at that (.). Sorry!
04  T: Second 39 (.).
05  M: ah (.). okay (.). brilliant (.). ((plays video))
06  T: I think it's easy (.). no need to (.). it's simple (.).
07    no need to check at this time because the thing
08    that she needs to check instruction should be
09    long instruction that she has to make it clear
10   (5.0) But I am not sure, if I were her, if, how
11   I give instruction at that time (.). counting A and
12   B also, I think it takes time (.). something
13   like 5 minutes (.).
14  M: how could it be done quicker (?)
15  T: because if I were her (.). if I were her in this
16   class (.). I would like (..) this side A and this
17   side B (.). Okay, I got A and B in few seconds

Teacher identifies and evaluates specific, learned approaches from the training and deems them unnecessary (line 7) and inefficient (line 12).

Appendix 3: Materials focused on reflection and promoting use of L1

3.1 - Handout excerpt focusing on personal reflection in Thai.

Stage 1 – reflect by yourself

1) Record your lesson as before. Watch it and think about what you and your students did, focusing on the area you chose (classroom management, meaning and use, student practice). Post comments about things you notice or find interesting.

Do this in Thai if you like (don’t worry about us understanding, this is for you)
3.2 - Handout excerpt focusing on examples* of online forum discussion in Thai.

* None of the names or pictures featured are those of actual participant teachers.

Appendix 4: Materials used during trial

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mentor notes, handouts, and materials for the 3-visit cycle</th>
<th>Visit 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="https://drive.google.com/open?id=1d5XJji9GSQpa-kMNxTfDc706wU50FE8QR">https://drive.google.com/open?id=1d5XJji9GSQpa-kMNxTfDc706wU50FE8QR</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visit 2</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visit 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="https://drive.google.com/open?id=1guFZ0PV_IGV-6AT_C0RcO8ey7qaJePv">https://drive.google.com/open?id=1guFZ0PV_IGV-6AT_C0RcO8ey7qaJePv</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>