Pre-service EFL teacher learning during the practicum:

A multiple case study in a context of systemic dissonance

Melike Bulut

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

University of Leeds

School of Education

July 2016

Intellectual Property and Publication Statements

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his/her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others.

Acknowledgments

I gratefully acknowledge the funding received towards my PhD from the Council of Higher Education, Turkey. I would also like to use this opportunity to extend my sincere gratitude and appreciation to those who helped me accomplish this research project.

I owe the greatest gratitude to my supervisors Professor Simon Borg, Dr Martin Wedell and Dr Judith Hanks for their guidance, encouragement and constructive feedback at every stage of this project. It has been a wonderful experience and privilege to work with them.

My gratitude is extended to my transfer and viva examiners Dr Martin Lamb, Dr Simon Green and Dr Richard Smith who invested their time and interest in my research project and offered intellectually stimulating discussions and insightful comments.

I would like to express my very great appreciation to the teachers, teacher educators and student teachers who voluntarily participated in this project and provided invaluable data and insights.

I would also like to thank postgraduate community at the School of Education. Special thanks to Loreto, Samyia, Tag, Gisela, Maria, Simon and Nicky. This long and arduous journey turned into an enjoyable experience with them.

Finally, I wish to thank my parents, my brother, and my husband for their love, unfailing support, patience and encouragement.

Abstract

This study examines the contribution of the practicum to student teacher learning and investigates the factors hindering or facilitating such learning in a pre-service English language teacher education context in Turkey. For the purposes of the study, student teacher learning is defined as a change in student teachers' stated cognitions and teaching practices. Adopting a sociocultural perspective to learning, it is assumed that any learning that takes place would be mediated by the socialisation of the student teachers into the practicum context. Qualitative longitudinal research was conducted into five cases of student teachers situated within their supervision triads through classroom observations, semi-structured and video stimulated interviews. Drawn from narrative and thematic analysis of the data, the findings show that during the practicum, the student teachers gained basic instructional skills, recognised tensions between the ideals promoted by the teacher education programme and the realities of the classrooms, strove mainly to survive the assessed practicum and to develop a perception of themselves as teachers. While the student teachers benefited from practising teaching in real language classrooms, the main factors impeding their learning were limited access to teaching, the absence of constructive feedback and the lack of communication among the partners who were involved in the organisation and implementation of the practicum. The opportunities created for student teacher learning were influenced not only by the local institutional factors but also wider social, cultural contextual factors. Further analysis of the data has led to the generation of a model of student teacher learning during the practicum. The major contribution of this study is to uncover the pivotal role of practicum context in affording opportunities for student teacher learning and to explicitly demonstrate the collective impact of the multidimensional factors on such learning. The findings of the study have direct implications for the design of English language teacher education practices, and also offer suggestions for further research into pre-service student teacher learning.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Purpose of the study

The research study presented in this thesis investigates English as a Foreign Language (EFL) student teacher learning during the practicum in a Bachelors' degree level English language teacher education programme at a state university in Turkey.

As the researcher, my interest in this topic comes from my own experience as an EFL student teacher and my later professional experience as a teacher educator and educational researcher in the Turkish language teacher education context. In Turkey, English language teacher education is standardised at the national level. This education takes four years and involves a variety of modules on English as a language and the theory of foreign language teaching such as linguistics, second language acquisition, and language teaching methodology. These theoretical modules are accompanied by two practical modules in the fourth year: the first one is for observation at schools and the second one is for practicing as an English language teacher under the supervision of an experienced teacher at school and a teacher educator from the university. The latter is called the practicum module and is the focus of the present study.

When I graduated from the teacher education programme, I was not quite convinced that I was ready to teach. All the knowledge and ideas I got from the modules I attended were floating in my mind but I did not have much clue about how to use them in my classrooms. The confusion I experienced aroused a curiosity about how English language teaching can be learnt, or taught; what knowledge and skills are required to be an English language teacher, a 'good' English language teacher. I taught English in various different contexts, for example, as a foreign language at kindergartens and state schools, and as a second language to adult immigrants. In every new context I felt like I learnt teaching English from the scratch. I never found answers to my questions but I never gave up wondering.

Later in my career, I got involved in English language teacher education. I was fascinated by observing how people responded to teacher education differently, how different student teachers interpreted the same module content in various ways. I realised that learning teaching is an ongoing journey and everyone takes her/his own path. However I was still bothered about the confusion I experienced as a novice teacher. From my informal conversations with colleagues I also knew I was not the only teacher struggling in the transition process from being a student teacher to becoming a teacher. To this end, I thought the practicum played a pivotal role by marking the first step of this transition. Therefore I decided to investigate student teacher experience of the practicum.

My literature review of the transition process of novices confirmed my initial thoughts about the struggles experienced by novice teachers (Farrell, 2012, 2016). The empirical research studies on the practicum experiences of student teachers were rather few and many among them defined the practicum as a problematic socialisation process for student teachers (Farrell, 2001, 2007; Johnson, 1996; Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011). Therefore, I devised my research study to answer the following research questions:

1) To what extent does the practicum contribute to student teacher learning?
2) What factors hinder or support student teacher learning during the practicum?

1.2 Overview of the chapters

Due to the university regulations regarding the final thesis document, I produced this document under certain page and word count limitations. In order to use my space efficiently, I aimed at keeping the initial chapters such as the literature review and methodology chapters short and precise, and devoting more space for reporting and discussing the findings to provide maximum depth and thickness. Therefore, this thesis has been purposefully written in a bottom-heavy structure. In other words, the chapters become longer as the thesis unfolds.

This introductory chapter informs the reader of the purpose of the study presented in this thesis. I introduced my personal motivation for undertaking this project, the gap in the literature that I hoped to address and the research questions.

The next and the second chapter of this thesis presents some introductory background information about the Turkish education system generally and specifically English language teacher education and the practicum as the context of this study.

The third chapter is devoted to the literature review. This chapter explains how student teacher learning is defined and researched in the language teacher education literature and identifies gaps for further inquiry. Based on that review, I propose a conceptual framework to define student teacher learning for the purposes of this current research study.

The fourth chapter describes the research methodology utilised in order to answer the research questions. In this chapter I outline the major methodological choices and decisions and I describe the processes of data generation and data analysis.

The fifth and sixth chapters report the findings of the research study. The fifth chapter presents the lived practicum experiences of each participating student teacher with a focus on their learning. The sixth chapter follows on that and reports the factors facilitating or impeding student teacher learning during the practicum from the accounts of cooperating teachers and the supervisors.

The seventh chapter brings all the findings together, takes the findings and initial interpretations to a theoretical level and discusses the findings in relation to the existing literature. This chapter also introduces a model of student teacher learning during the practicum based on the findings of this research study.

The eighth and the final chapter outlines the major findings of the study and highlights the study's contribution to the literature. This is followed by suggestions for future research studies and implications for teacher education practice.

Chapter 2. Background to the study

2.1 Introduction

This section describes the contextual background within which my research is situated. It provides a brief introduction to the Turkish education system with a special focus on English Language teaching (ELT). Then it moves on to describe pre-service teacher education and the practicum referring specifically to ELT. The section concludes with the rationale for my research based on this context.

2.2 Turkish education system

In Turkey, education is provided and supervised by the government. Basic education, which includes pre-school, primary school, secondary school and high school levels, is carried out by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE), and higher education is under the responsibility of the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). Educational institutions include state and private schools. Both state and private schools are affiliated to the government. That is to say, they all follow the syllabuses provided by the government and all students take government exams for placement to schools.

The Turkish educational system has undergone rapid structural changes since 1997 at the basic education level (See Table 2.1). Until 1997, education was organized in a 5+3+3 sequence. Children were enrolled in primary school at the age of seven, and their first five years of education were compulsory and free in state schools. However, three years of secondary education and another three of high school education were optional. The students were required to sit a national placement test between each level.

Then, the length of compulsory primary school education was extended to eight years in 1997[1]. High school education was still optional. With recent legislation

[1] 1997 act: İlköğretim Ve Eğitim Kanunu, Millî Eğitim Temel Kanunu, Çıraklık Ve Meslek Eğitimi Kanunu, Millî Eğitim Bakanlığının Teşkilat Ve Görevleri Hakkında Kanun İle 24.3.1988 Tarihli Ve 3418 Sayılı Kanunda Değişiklik Yapılması Ve Bazı Kağıt Ve İşlemlerden Eğitime Katkı Payı Alınması Hakkında Kanun (4306 Sayılı Kanun)", Resmi Gazete, 23084; 18 Ağustos 1997.
http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/126.html

in 2012[2], the educational system has been converted to a 4+4+4 sequence and the duration of compulsory education increased to twelve years including primary, secondary and high school levels.

Table 2.1 Structural changes in Turkish education system between 1997-2012

Year of Schooling/ Period	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	Higher Education
Until 1997	Primary School Level (Compulsory)					Secondary School Level (Optional)			High School Level (Optional)				(Optional)
1997-2012	Primary School Level (Compulsory)								High School Level (Optional)				(Optional)
2012-…	Primary School Level (Compulsory)					Secondary School Level (Compulsory)			High School Level (Compulsory)				(Optional)

At the end of the secondary school level, the students take a national placement test prepared by the MoNE and according to their test scores they are placed in one of the high schools that they chose. On completion of high school, the students take a national university entrance test administered once a year by the ÖSYM (Student Selection and Placement Center). Based on their test scores and the grade-point average of the high school level, students are then placed in higher education institutions.

2.3 ELT in Turkish education system

The major foreign language taught in Turkish education system today is English due to globalization and the spread of English as a *lingua franca* (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Kirkgöz, 2009). In Turkey, the growing need for learning English language essentially arises from international and national influences. At the international level, English is seen as a key to gain competitive power in world economy. Domestically, many Turkish people learn English language for instrumental reasons such as better education and employment. Proficiency in English enables students to study abroad, benefit from learning sources in English and receive education from English-medium schools, which are often thought to be more prestigious. In terms of employment, a good command of English has become one of the basic requirements for positions in public and private institutions and many

[2] 2012 act: İlköğretim Ve Eğitim Kanunu İle Bazi Kanunlarda Değişiklik Yapilmasina Dair Kanun Kanun No. 6287 Kabul Tarihi: 30/3/2012
http://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/eskiler/2012/04/20120411-8.htm

institutions provide an incentive language allowance (Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998; Kirkgöz, 2009).

In Turkey, as a fundamentally monolingual country, the language of instruction is mainly Turkish in public schools and English is taught as a foreign language and a compulsory subject in the school curriculum. Most Turkish people learn English in formal classroom settings since there are not many opportunities to practice English communication skills outside of schools (Dogancay-Aktuna, 1998). The teaching of English as a foreign language in the school curriculum has been affected by curriculum changes illustrated in Table 2.1. Until 1997, foreign language instruction was introduced in the sixth year of schooling and continued in each succeeding year. With the 1997 act, it moved to the fourth year of the primary level education, and finally in 2012 English language teaching started in the second year of schooling. Like all other lessons in the curriculum, English language lessons are implemented based on the curriculum and the course books decided by the MoNE in public schools throughout the country.

As with all other subjects in the curriculum, English language proficiency is assessed by multiple-choice item format national level exams in Turkey. All national English language proficiency exams designed by the ÖSYM (i.e. YDS [Foreign Language Exam], KPDS [Language Proficiency Exam for the State Personnel] and UDS [Inter-university Board Language Exam]), assess language skills such as reading, vocabulary, grammar and translation. Since most people study English to pass these exams and as these exams do not assess communicative skills, Turkish people often do not focus on communicative skills and struggle in everyday communication in English.

2.4 Pre-service ELT teacher education and the practicum

Until 1982, training teachers had been the responsibility of the MoNE in Turkey. After the university reform in 1981, the CoHE was established and since then pre-service teacher education has been provided by faculties of teacher education which are affiliated to universities and the CoHE. This education is now given at the level of Bachelor's degree. As for every higher education degree, students are admitted to faculties of education through a national exam administered by the ÖSYM. Faculties of education apply the national

curriculum developed by the CoHE which involves eight campus-based semesters in four years. Pre-service teacher education programmes include school-based practice teaching modules parallel to campus-based lecture modules.

The structure of pre-service teacher education programmes has undergone two major reforms in Turkey: first in 1997 and then between 2006 and 2007. These reforms introduced changes in the curriculum and the practice teaching components of the programmes. The curriculum of the pre-service ELT programmes has also been affected by these reforms. The ELT curriculum which was put into effect in 1998 (see Appendix I) was renewed in 2006 (see Appendix II). As can be seen in the curriculum, the student teachers receive theoretical instruction including subject matter, pedagogy and general culture instruction throughout the programme. The first year of the programme aims at developing student teachers' communication skills in English, ELT methodology modules are introduced gradually, and the practice teaching modules appear at the end.

With the new curriculum in 2006, methodology modules increased in number. Moreover, as English as a foreign language was starting to be taught in earlier stages in state schools, the Teaching English to Young Learners module was extended by one more semester. Another change reflecting the public needs is the introduction of Teaching Language Skills modules. As I previously mentioned, most English language learners in Turkey have poor communication skills due to excessive focus on grammar and vocabulary. Although this tendency is mainly an outcome of the language assessment tools employed nationally and the traditional views of 'learning' and 'knowledge' within the Turkish educational system, English language teachers have long been accused of being insufficiently trained to teach communicative skills to their students. Therefore, these modules aim to produce teachers who can better integrate communicative language teaching methods and techniques into their practice.

In terms of school-based teaching practice, the 1997 regulation put great emphasis on the school experience and the practicum modules of the teacher education programmes. Since most of the student teachers start the pre-service teacher education programme directly after high school and do not

have any previous teaching experience, the teaching practice component is of great importance in that it is often the first time for student teachers to teach in a real class. The 1997 reform was informed by the Pre-service Teacher Education Project managed cooperatively by the MoNE and the CoHE. Faculty of Education - Practice School Cooperation Programme was one of the activities within this project. The organization of school experience and practicum modules then began to be arranged in the light of the book published out of this project (YÖK, 1998) and the official directive issued by the MoNE and the CoHE[3].

The aim of this new programme was to provide development opportunities not only for student teachers, but also for schools and faculties of education. On the part of students, the programme aimed at providing student teachers with ample opportunities to practice the knowledge and skills they have learnt during their pre-service teacher education programme. On the other hand, the programme aimed at building permanent relations between schools and universities.

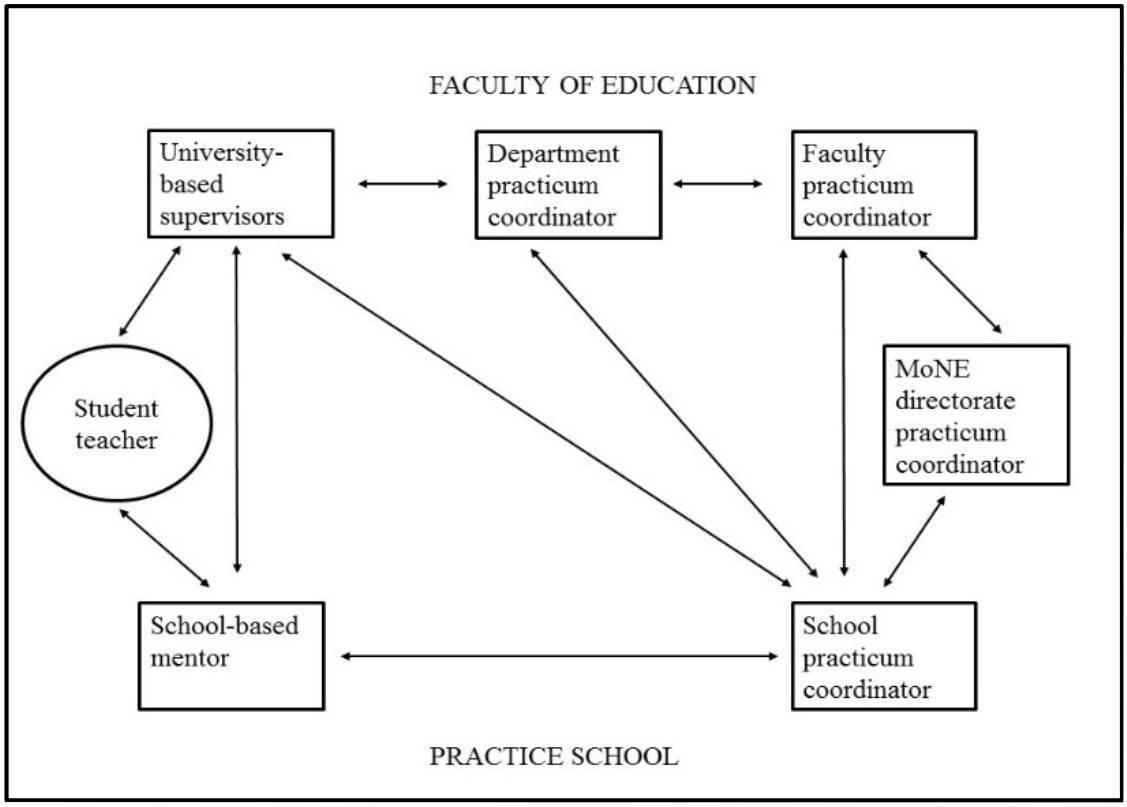
In doing so, faculties of education would familiarize themselves with what was happening in schools and consult experienced teachers' knowledge when necessary, and the schools would be able to keep abreast of all the latest developments in educational science and receive continuous in-service teacher education support. In order to achieve these goals, the communication network below was suggested by the faculty - school cooperation project (see Figure 2.1).

According to the new regulations, three field experience modules were placed in the curriculum: The first two of these modules mainly involve activities based on observation and were called School Experience I and II (one of which was placed in the second semester of the first year, and the other one was in the first semester of the fourth/last year of the programme), and the third one was the Practicum which was located in the last semester of the programme. Between 2006 and 2007, the School Experience I module was removed from the curriculum without any published explanation. Student teachers' field

[3] 1998 official directive: Öğretmen Adaylarinin Milli Eğitim Bakanliğina Bağli Eğitim Öğretim Kurumlarinda Yapacaklari Öğretmenlik Uygulamasina İlişkin Yönerge, Ekim 1998/2493 http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/102.html

experiences were limited to the last year of the teacher education programme with the School Experience module in the first semester of the fourth year, and the Practicum in the last semester of the same year.

Figure 2.1 Communication network of Faculty of Education – Practice School Cooperation Programme (YÖK, 2007, p. 46)



The aim of the School Experience module is to familiarize student teachers with the real school environment through observation. The student teachers observe a specific theme each week, produce weekly observation reports and then they are assessed by the university-based supervisor based on these observation reports. Assessment criteria for observation reports are not defined in the module guide. The weekly observation themes are as follows:

- exercises and question asking procedures,
- classroom management,
- evaluation of student work,
- use of coursebooks,
- group works (sic),
- preparation and use of worksheets,

- evaluation and record keeping,
- preparing, grading and analysing tests,
- use of simulations in teaching,
- planning activities and lesson plans.

The aim of the Practicum itself is to provide student teachers with opportunities to gain teaching skills in the classroom. Student teachers are expected to teach lessons based on the lesson plans they prepare themselves. During the practicum module, student teachers should spend one full day at school each week and teach at least 24 hours during the semester under the guidance of the school-based mentors (YÖK, 1998). It is essentially planned for student teachers to practice and improve their previously learnt knowledge and skills in a school environment, and begin to develop professional competence. Student teachers' performances are finally assessed by school-based mentors and university-based supervisors on the Practicum Evaluation Form (See Appendix III). Since the School Experience and the Practicum modules are designed by the CoHE for all departments at the faculties of education, the indicator statements in this form are expressed in general terms to fit any specialisation in teaching.

At the end of the practicum, student teachers are expected to have (YÖK[4]):

- developed teaching competencies by practicing teaching in different classes of the school at which they were appointed to,
- learned the teaching curriculum of their subject thoroughly, and be able to comment on coursebooks and learner assessment techniques,
- shared their teaching experiences with their peers and supervisors and developed their practices.

According to the CoHE practicum handbook, school-based mentors and university-based supervisors are responsible for giving immediate oral or written feedback on the student teachers' teaching performance. They are also expected to fill in the Practicum Evaluation Form and to give a copy of the form

[4] Aday Öğretmen Kılavuzu [Candidate Teacher Handbook] YÖK: http://www.yok.gov.tr/content/view/501/lang,tr/

to the student teacher at the end of each observed lesson. The student teacher is responsible for keeping a record of the practicum activities such as lesson plans, evaluation forms, and attendance sheets signed by the mentor and the supervisor, and any materials, worksheets prepared for the lessons. The practicum regulations determine the frequency of university-based supervisor visits to the classrooms as twice for each student teacher (YÖK, 1998), but due to the high number of supervisees and heavy workload at the university, the supervisors in the specific context of this study generally perform one visit to school for each student teacher. Student teachers are informed about this visit by the supervisor in advance.

After completing the programme, trainees are awarded a BA diploma and qualified as teachers. However, in order to be assigned to teaching posts in public schools as public employees, teachers need to take the KPSS (The Selection Examination for Professional Posts in Public Organizations) exam. As public employees, teachers gain a permanent contract with the government. The reason for such a competitive exam is the recent boom in the number of universities and consequently the number of faculties of education in Turkey. These faculties produce more teachers than employers such as the MoNE need. Public school ELT positions require relatively high scores on that exam. Therefore, in their last year at the university most pre-service ELT students often enrol on an additional course outside university to prepare for this exam.

The KPSS exam is conducted once a year. It is a multiple-choice item test and consists of two sections. The first session is taken by every candidate for a national post regardless of their specialisation involving the assessment of general knowledge and skills (Turkish, mathematics, history, etc.). The second is only for teachers and aimed at assessing their knowledge of educational sciences. This part of the test includes questions about educational psychology (developmental psychology, learning psychology, assessment and evaluation), curriculum development and teaching (curriculum development, teaching methods) and guidance. This test is administered to all branches of teaching and had not included any subject-specific section until 2013. Since then, a subject specific session has been included to the exam.

2.5 The Rationale for my research based on the context

In this section, I have described the Turkish education system. The main issue emerging from this discussion is that education in Turkey is based on a national education system and is excessively assessment oriented. The same issues apply to pre-service teacher education. The curricula of pre-service teacher education programmes are centrally defined by the CoHE. They are basically campus-based and include two modules for practice at schools, and these teaching practice modules are placed at the very end of the four-year teacher education programmes.

There are some opposing factors regarding the practicum in this context. On the one hand, the practicum is centrally defined with good intentions to promote teacher learning of the best kind and it is also considered as cooperation between the university and the practice school to provide development opportunities to both parties. On the other hand, this central design assumes that ‘one system fits all’ and ignores subject-specific issues in ELT. Moreover, in their last year in the programme, student teachers are busy preparing for the civil service exam, attending campus-based modules and teaching at practice schools at the same time, and passing the KPSS exam seems more important for their future than thinking about their teaching practice. Furthermore, due to the busy schedule of university-based supervisors, the student teachers are visited by the supervisors for assessment reasons only once during their practicum. The cooperating teachers who are not trained for mentoring do not assess student teachers regularly, either. Therefore, it is likely that student teachers get super-prepared for such a single final lesson within such an assessment-oriented education culture.

In conclusion, all these elements may have influence on how the practicum process is understood and experienced by student teachers, school-based mentors and university-based supervisors, and it is important to investigate how these factors interact in defining the kind of teacher learning that can happen during the practicum. In the next chapter I will review the literature on teacher learning and the practicum.

Chapter 3. Literature review

3.1 Introduction

In this section, I will define the key terms and concepts adopted in this study such as teacher learning, language teacher education and the practicum. Then, I will review the recent empirical research literature on teacher learning and the language teaching practicum. Finally, I will explain the rationale of my research study based on my literature review.

3.2 Teacher learning and language teacher education

Considering that the main aim of pre-service teacher education programmes is to support teacher learning, how such learning takes place has been a key research theme in the teacher education literature. The conceptualisation of teacher learning has undergone paradigmatic shifts in the educational literature following a movement from a positivist to an interpretative epistemological perspective (Kagan, 1992). Mirroring prevailing behaviourist views about learning, until 1980s teacher learning was thought to be the transmission of the knowledge of universally good teaching practice to teachers in the form of lectures or theoretical readings. Likewise, researchers were interested in the behavioural impacts of teacher education practices and therefore they generally employed experimental and quantitative methodologies. However, with the growing influence of cognitive psychology and constructivist epistemology in education, interest gradually moved to the cognitions and beliefs behind teacher behaviours and welcomed the use of naturalistic and qualitative methodologies. These qualitative studies has formed the "*learning-to-teach* literature" (Kagan, 1992:129) with their emphasis on the process of teacher learning.

The cumulative work in the learning-to-teach literature helped define teacher learning and distinguish it from other types of learning. In general education, Vermunt and Endedijk (2011, p. 300) state that student learning can be assessed by a knowledge test, but it is much harder to assess teacher learning in that it "may include different kinds of teaching practices, beliefs about learning and teaching, behavioural intentions, and affective states". Herein,

authors attempt to define teacher learning by comparing it to other kinds of learning, in this case student learning. Despite oversimplifying student learning to maintain the contrast, this statement well emphasizes the array of unobservable aspects of teacher learning. In the same vein, Hoekstra, Beijaard, Brekelmans, and Korthagen (2007, p. 190) define teacher learning as "being consciously or unconsciously involved in activities that lead to a change in behaviour and/or cognition. … these activities comprise simultaneously behavioural, cognitive, motivational and emotional aspects." Again with an emphasis on the influence of unobservable contents of teacher learning, this statement also points to the ongoingness of the process of learning. These two definitions recognize teacher learning as a complex process which involves interplay of observable and unobservable changes over time. The following citation from Spalding, Klecka, Lin, Wang, and Odell (2011, p. 3) confirms and elaborates the complexity of teacher learning:

> If teacher educators are in agreement on anything, it is that teacher learning is complicated (Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2002), not only because teachers learn to teach by drawing on a complex array of internal and external resources, which are difficult for researchers to disentangle and understand, but also because it occurs over time and is contextualized, unpredictable, and often idiosyncratic (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, & Bransford, 2005; Kennedy, 1999).

Contemporary appreciation of the complexity of teacher learning has been reached through incremental changes in conceptualizations over time. Therefore, there are various different conceptual orientations in teacher education reflecting different understandings of teaching, learning and teacher learning (Feiman-Nemser, 1990). Similarly, different theories of learning have had implications for language teacher education. Roberts (1998) documents the movement from a behaviouristic approach to a social constructivist approach, and how this movement led to a shift from knowledge-centred paradigms to person-centred paradigms in the approach to teacher education curriculum. Alternatively, Wallace (1991, p. 6) projects the development of ideas about language teacher education by examining three major teacher education models: the craft model, the applied science model, and the reflective model. While the craft model and the applied science model fall under the knowledge-centred paradigms in Roberts (1998)'s classification, the

reflective model represents person-centred paradigms. These models, approaches and paradigms with their underpinning conceptualizations of teacher learning appear respectively in the literature, but in practice some elements of them may exist together or these models can be used to describe the overall orientation of a teacher education programme. I will briefly summarize the changing ideas about teacher learning in language teacher education literature following the categorisation of Wallace (1991) as it explicitly includes the applied science model which has had an everlasting influence on theory and practice in language teacher education.

In the craft model, teacher learning is conceptualized as mastering teaching skill like a craft by imitating an expert teacher. Exemplifying the behaviourist views of learning, this model bases learning on imitation and assumes that the observed good teaching practice of an expert teacher can be effectively transmitted to other teaching contexts. Wallace (1991) criticises this model for being conservative and not satisfying the changing needs in education. Moreover, Roberts (1998) puts forth, objections to such model-based teacher education models are prone to the same criticisms for the behaviouristic paradigm in general in that they rely on imitation as a process of learning, and prescribed and decontextualized definitions of teaching.

The applied science model, on the other hand, emerged parallel to the development of TESOL as a new field of inquiry in 1960s. This field was based on the academic knowledge and theory borrowed from applied linguistics (J. C. Richards, 2008). Freeman (2002, p. 4) summarizes the long-lasting influences of this model in language teacher education as follows:

> In English and foreign language teaching, learning to teach has been largely viewed as a matter of mastering content on the linguistic and meta-linguistic levels, practicing classroom methodologies and technique, and learning theoretical rationales for them. This view, which derives from the process-product paradigm (see Chaudron 1988), is supported by a network of key assumptions about how to organize and teach language as knowledge.

As the quotation above suggests, this model was based on the transmission of theoretical knowledge of language and teaching, and the link between learning theories and practicing them in teaching was assumed to be causal. Schön (1983) defined this model of practice as “technical rationality” and argued that

such an understanding not only creates a gap between theory and practice but also results in a power imbalance between researchers and practitioners in the field. He rather suggested that teachers' theorization of their teaching practice through 'reflection in action' would be more relevant to practice. His work coincides with the emergence of Kolb (1984)'s experiential learning theory where he suggested a cycle of four steps for efficient learning: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. Herein, Kolb (1984, p. 26) opposed the process-product model of learning by stating "learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes".

The last teacher education model listed by Wallace (1991) mentioned above, the reflective model, emerged and strengthened with these new theories and perspectives in the field which attach growing importance to the knowledge based on real classroom practices. In language teacher education literature, among later criticisms of applied science model, Bartels (2005) reviewed a volume of research into the application of applied linguistics knowledge to classrooms and he concluded that such a transfer of knowledge into the teaching is not as straightforward as it is thought to be due to contextual constraints. Therefore, as an alternative, reflective model of teacher education aims to link theory and practice in language teacher education by taking the practice in the centre rather than the theory and assumes teacher learning as a lifelong activity. Echoing a similar perspective, Johnson (1999, pp. 56-57) argued that teachers link the theory and practice through "reasoning in action" and explains this process as a matter of beginning:

> … our exploration into the complexities of teachers' reasoning by examining what teachers think about as they teach (teacher decision making) and by investigating how teachers think about these things within their own instructional contexts (teachers' interpretations). Of course, these two aspects of teachers' reasoning do not operate in isolation from one another; instead, they are interrelated and interdependent.

The new privileged status of the practitioner knowledge, which is created in, from and for language teaching practice (Johnson, 2009b), posed a profound challenge to theory-driven one-size-fits-all practices that the applied science model of teacher education offers. These changes in the conceptualizations of

the knowledge base for the field had many remarkable results. First, it introduced the trend of questioning the applicability of language teaching methodology literature which Kumaravadivelu (2012) called postmethod perspective. He argued that theories developed around idealized concepts based on idealized contexts cannot serve the unpredictable real life classroom situations in diverse contexts. Therefore, he suggested that rather than looking for new methods, the field should seek to train teachers who can evaluate their own teaching contexts and decide on the best practice for student learning.

Wedell and Malderez (2013, p. 82) note that teachers already make decisions about their practices in the classrooms regardless of officially promoted teaching approaches or methods and “teachers’ decisions about which behaviours and practices they choose to make part of their methodology, are influenced by their own, largely invisible, approach”. Similarly Ur (2013) advocates the superiority of teacher decision-making over prescribed methods of language teaching. Her alternative is developing situated methodologies that involve not only the theories of linguistics and applied linguistics, but also general theories of learning and teaching. The point she makes addresses the need to recognise and prepare teachers as critical decision makers rather than method implementers, and to do this by drawing on general theories of learning and teaching as well as considering the specificity of language teaching and learning.

This re-examination of the fields of language teaching and language teacher education also paved the way for the development of practice-based inquires such as reflective practice, action research, exploratory practice and teacher research which have built a separate literature that I will not include in my discussion.

These trends in the field of language teaching and teacher education which call attention to the localized context of language classrooms and promote enhanced empowerment for teachers in deciding the best for their contexts demanded higher order thinking and analysing skills from teachers than before. The teachers were not only expected to master the content knowledge and methodology of teaching, but also to master the skills to transform this

knowledge into an appropriate learnable content in their immediate classroom contexts.

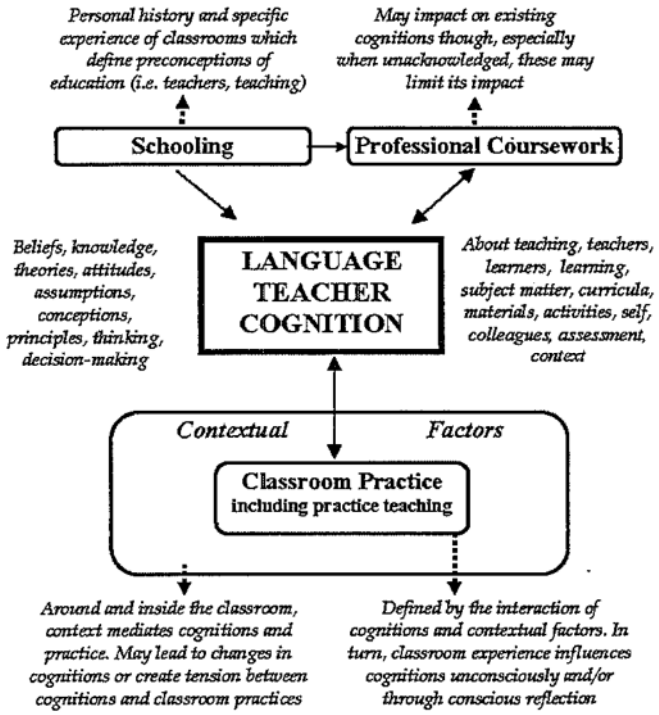
A conceptualisation of teacher knowledge has been proposed by Malderez and Wedell (2007, pp. 22-26) which consists of three major elements: knowing about, knowing how and knowing to. They explain ‘knowing about’ as the declarative knowledge of the subject, curriculum, methodology that can be learnt through memorisation. ‘Knowing how’, on the other hand, refers to the procedural knowledge in the sense of skills that teachers perform as part of their role such as lesson planning and assessing learning. The final element, ‘knowing to’, refers to the act of combining the declarative and procedural knowledge and making informed instant decisions in the classroom. They also note that ‘knowing to’ is the most important among those three elements and this can be learnt by developing noticing skills, teaching as much as possible and exploring intuitive actions.

Along with the changing understanding of teacher knowledge, the definition of teacher learning required reconceptualization considering how teachers think and make decisions. First in the general educational literature, and then in the language teacher education literature, this interest in the mental processes employed by teachers resulted in many parallel research studies and inevitably a number of new concepts and terms such as teacher beliefs, teacher principles, teacher thinking, etc. In his overview of studies in language teacher cognition Borg (2006, pp. 35) argued that “an overwhelming array of concepts” causes a confusion in the field since either some similar concepts are defined with different terms or some similar terms are interpreted in different ways. Multiplicity of terms within the field of inquiry may also pose challenges in locating the interactions among different concepts within teachers’ minds. Therefore he offered the use of language teacher cognition as an umbrella term which both embraces the complexities of the phenomena under study and provides an overall picture of our current understandings of teachers’ mental processes. He defines language teacher cognition as (Borg, 2006, p. 272):

> an inclusive term referring to the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work.

His schematic conceptualization of language teacher cognition (see Figure 3.1) illustrates how teachers' practices are not only informed by knowledge, but also by beliefs, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thinking and decision-making about every relevant aspect of their work. Echoing the influence of the "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975), he proposes that teachers' cognitions can be affected by their previous schooling experiences. These cognitions that are often affected by previous experiences as learners may influence how and what they learn during the teacher education programme.

Figure 3.1 Language teacher cognition (Borg, 2006, p. 283)



The two-way arrow between cognitions and practices in the diagram indicates the reciprocal relationship between them. The model also illustrates that context mediates the impact of cognitions on classroom practices. Therefore, cognitions do not necessarily directly translate into teaching practices. He highlighted the influential role of contextual factors on language teacher cognition as follows (Borg, 2003, p. 106):

> Greater understandings of the contextual factors – e.g., institutional, social, instructional, physical − which shape what language teachers do are central to deeper insights into relationships between cognition and practice. The study of cognition and practice without an awareness of

the contexts in which these occur will inevitably provide partial, if not flawed, characterisations of teachers and teaching.

Contradictions between what teachers say they think and/or believe and their actual teaching practices created interest for further inquiry and the findings further emphasized the pivotal role of context in influencing both cognitions and practices of language teachers (Basturkmen, 2012).

Borg's conceptualisation based on his review of research into language teacher cognition was widely acknowledged in the language teacher education literature and defined the field of language teacher cognition for almost a decade. It was critiqued for not involving teacher identity as part of teacher cognition (Miller, 2009). However, in one of his more recent works on language teacher cognition Borg (2012) also included identities and emotions in his discussion of the concept of language teacher cognition recognizing that first, they are parts of unobservable dimension of teaching and second, affect and cognition are inseparable concepts in terms of their role in how teachers think, believe, know and act.

Despite recognising the influence of contextual factors on classroom practice and, indirectly on cognitions, this conceptualization of language teacher cognition was grounded in an individualistic perspective of teacher cognition, (Burns, Freeman, & Edwards, 2015) and did not expand on the interactions among context, cognitions and practices. Researchers started to seek complimentary or alternative sociocultural frameworks to understand language teacher cognition and the process of teacher learning which marked the beginning what is commonly called the sociocultural turn (Johnson, 2006; J. C. Richards, 2008). Cross (2010, pp. 437-438), for instance, listed four conditions for a comprehensive conceptual framework to take teacher cognition research further:

1. There is a need for a more expansive psychological theory of cognition that recognizes the influence of the social relation to thought – that is a theory of cognition that extends its focus to include mental processes together with teachers' practice, and, increasingly, the contexts within which the interaction between thinking and practice takes place.
2. The framework must be able to recognize and account for cognition as being neither static nor fixed, but malleable and subject to change and further development across time and experience.

3. The framework must accommodate the tensions and contradictions that arise within cognition.
4. The conceptual framework should be commensurate with current empirical and methodological innovations in the field.

The researchers who adopted a sociocultural view of learning to their theoretical framework often drew on Vygotskian social development theory (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986), and situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger, 1991), or a combination of both. As a vigorous advocate of sociocultural perspective on second language teacher education Johnson (2009a, p. 13) combines both and argues that:

> Learning to teach, from a sociocultural perspective, is based on the assumption that knowing, thinking, and understanding come from participating in the social practices of learning and teaching in specific classroom and school situations. Teacher learning and the activities of teaching are understood as growing out of participation in the social practices in classrooms; and what teachers know and how they use that knowledge in classrooms is highly interpretative and contingent on knowledge of self, setting, students, curriculum, and community.

As the quotation suggests, teacher learning from a sociocultural learning perspective argues against the conventional understanding of learning as transmission of knowledge and assumes that knowledge is co-constructed in social interactions by participants. Researchers who are interested in examining those co-constructions borrowed concepts from Vygotskian sociocultural theory such as concept development, internalization and transformation, the zone of proximal development (ZPD), and mediation (Ahn, 2011; Cross, 2010; Johnson, 2009a; Johnson & Golombek, 2003). They also often advocated the use of Engeström's Activity Theory as a methodological lens in understanding teacher learning (Engeström, 1987, 1999).

Johnson's above statement also proposes that teacher learning is situated in the social practices that student teachers engage in. This, on the other hand, mirrors the situated learning theory perspective which brings along another particular interest into how language teachers come to build teacher identities in the "communities of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991) they begin to socialize in. Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 53) assert that learning "implies becoming a full participant, a member, a kind of person". If we adapt their learning theory to teacher learning, teachers begin learning teaching through legitimate peripheral participation in the community of language teaching (in the university course

room, practicing school, etc.) and their learning evolves along with their membership into the core of the community. Therefore, they suggest that "identity, knowing, and social membership entail one another" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 53).

Lave and Wenger's situated learning theory introduced a new trend in the language teacher education literature for investigating language teacher identity development. Singh and Richards (2006, p. 153) noted that "while sociocultural theories address limitations in prior LTE research … they must be complemented by understanding learning as identity construction". In this trend, Clarke (2008), in his research into a language teacher education programme in the United Arab Emirates, framed language teacher education as an evolving community of practice where student teachers form new identities as teachers. His conceptual framework when applied in a longitudinal exploration uncovered how student teachers' learning to teach took place in practice and social interactions with peers, and how their changes in discourse, identity and practice were influenced by the surrounding sociocultural contexts. Again, Kanno and Stuart (2011) drew on situated learning theory to examine two graduate teachers' identity development. They found an intertwined relationship between teachers' identity development and their changing teaching practices.

As the understanding of teacher learning developed into a more complex phenomena with the introduction of those new theoretical frameworks, the scope of second language teacher education also required reconsideration. Building on the aforementioned three teacher education models defined by Wallace (1991), Diaz-Maggioli (2012) compared and contrasted the implications of the proposed theoretical lenses on the design and processes of teacher education programmes (see Table 3.1).

Each complimentary theory adopted to understand language teacher cognitions has their strengths and limitations. Although the body of research so far has provided insights and showed productive pathways for further research, the field of language teacher education has not yet settled in an established framework to investigate language teacher cognition, and therefore, teacher learning (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). In a pursuit of a novel contribution to the field, some researchers choose to introduce completely new theoretical

frameworks (ie. Kiss, 2012, adopting complex systems theory) or some interpret the existing ones in a slightly different way (i.e. Freeman, 2016, proposing a language teacher education 'Design Theory' by combining Activity Theory and the concept of 'communities of practice').

Table 3.1 Four traditions in teaching teachers (Diaz-Maggioli, 2012, p. 13)

	Look and learn	**Read and learn**	**Think and learn**	**Participate and learn**
Professionally known as…	The craft tradition	The applied science tradition	The reflective tradition	The sociocultural tradition
Main role of educators	Model	Resource selector and model	Facilitator	Community member ("old-timer") and change agent
Main role of student teachers	Apprentice	Reader and applier of theory	Researcher and practitioner	Legitimate peripheral participant in the community
Primary source of knowledge	Handed down theoretical and empirical fixed body of knowledge.	Empirical and theoretical – research based fixed body of knowledge.	Personal experience + empirical and theoretical research.	Professional knowledge + personal knowledge + community knowledge + collective exploratory knowledge.
Primary goals of training/ education	Enhance knowledge of content through prescribed activities so that everyone knows the same.	Enhance knowledge of theory to guide practice.	Enhance reflection in /on action to inform practice.	Enhance participation in the community.
Expected outcomes	DO teaching	KNOW about teaching	THINK like a teacher	BECOME a teacher
Main orientation to training/ education	Focused on teaching methods, anchored in tradition of "what works". Uniform procedures.	Focussed on theory stemming from research. Prescribed ways of teaching.	Focus on research anchored on action and reflection.	Focussed on participation in the activities of the community and fostering the development of transformative intellectuals.
Main sources for training	Uniform set of methods, techniques, procedures and materials.	Sets of related research literature stemming from applied linguistics, psychology and pedagogy.	Personal action research projects derived from the experience of teaching.	Situated personal and collective experiences of the community of practice.
Theory – practice balance	Practice before theory	Theory before practice	Practice + theory	Theorizing practice and practicing theory.

In this section, I reviewed how the ideas about teacher learning have moved from simplistic to more complex conceptualizations in the language teacher education literature. The chronological listing of developing ideas in this section does not necessarily mean the latest model or conceptualization is the best or the most commonly used in practice. The overview of ideas listed here represents the theoretical development in the field of language teacher education but these theories may not be directly articulated in teacher education practices as systems may be fossilized in the earlier ideas.

As Johnson (2006, p. 77) explains “educational reform policies, high-stakes tests, and the norms of schooling embedded in instructional contexts are powerful macro-structures that affect the ways in which L2[5] teachers and their L2 students are positioned”. These macro structures are generally politically or economically oriented rather than theory-based. Moreover, although the literature identifies teachers as autonomous, empowered individuals with agency, most educational reforms appear in a top-down trend. Such top-down changes may result in conflicts between the official goals decided externally and the actual practice taking place in educational settings. They also bring along a mismatch between the academic world and school-classroom realities. Since my research is interested in how student teachers as products of applied science language teacher education model will sustain their learning to teach during a practicum module, in the next section I will narrow down my discussion of teacher learning to the teaching practice component of language teacher education programmes.

3.3 The Practicum

The practicum is recognized as a core component of language teacher education in the literature (Gebhard, 2009). The idea of the practicum dates back to the apprenticeship teacher training model where teacher training is based on the imitation of an experienced teacher (Guyton & McIntyre, 1990). Since then, the approaches to teacher education have evolved but the practicum remained as a major component of language teacher education curricula. West (1959), for instance, defined the practicum as “the part of the

[5] Second language

training course which affects the student-teacher more intimately and has the greatest effect upon his real efficiency in the classroom" (p. 154).

Although various terms are used to describe it (i.e. practice teaching, teaching practice, field experience, apprenticeship, internship, practical experience, school experience, etc.), the main idea behind the practicum is to provide student teachers with the opportunity to develop their professional practice in a real classroom, generally under the guidance of more experienced teachers (Wallace, 1991).

The language teacher education literature consists of a wide range of different designs for the practicum in terms of the length, organisation, and procedures (Atkinson et al., 2008; Richards & Crookes, 1988; Stoynoff, 1999). The practicum can be organized around various purposes in different programmes in the light of their approach to teacher learning as I reviewed in the previous section. Echoing the applied science model of language teacher education, it can be described as a chance for trainees to apply the knowledge of language teaching they gained through coursework and to acquire practical skills (Richards & Crookes, 1988; Richards & Nunan, 1990). Informed by the new understandings of teacher learning Richards and Farrell (2011, p. 15) define the practicum for their student teacher readers as "an opportunity for you to develop or improve your teaching skills through experiences provided by microteaching, by teaching in a second language classroom, and through reflecting on your teaching experience in discussions with your supervisor, fellow student teachers, and your cooperating teacher".

The shift in the understanding of what can be learned during the practicum is much more visible in the goals of practicum listed by these authors (see Table 3.2). As the difference between the goals set within two decades suggests, student teachers are no longer recognized as simply implementers of ready-to–use knowledge provided by teacher education programs, they are rather acknowledged as active learners responding to social context and accordingly developing new cognitions, identities, discourses, skills and practices.

Table 3.2 Projection of changing goals for the practicum

Richards and Crookes (1988, p. 11)	Richards and Farrell (2011, p. 26)
• To provide practical experience in classroom teaching • To apply instruction from theory courses • To provide opportunities to observe master teachers • To give feedback on teaching techniques • To develop increased awareness of personal teaching style • To develop lesson-planning skills • To develop ability to select/adapt materials • To become familiar with specific methods (e.g., the Silent Way)	• Develop the discourse skills of a language teacher • Develop the identity of a language teacher • Develop a repertoire of teaching skills • Learn how to apply professional knowledge • Develop an understanding of how learning is shaped by context • Develop the cognitive skills of a language teacher • Develop learner-focused teaching • Learn how to theorize from practice

Apart from the common goals mentioned in the lists above, other authors have articulated different purposes for the practicum. For instance, Gebhard (2009) suggests that the practicum contributes to student teachers' decision-making processes about their teaching through observation and exploration of their own and the others' practices; while Ong'ondo (2009, p. 55), echoing Johnson (1999), identifies developing "the skill of pedagogical reasoning" as one of the purposes of the practicum in English language teacher education. The chronological order of the new goals suggested for the practicum in the literature indicates the influence of changing views of teacher learning.

The practicum has always attracted scholarly attention and some researchers have called for further studies of how student teacher learning takes place during the practicum (Borg, 2010; Freeman, 1989; Gebhard, 2009; Johnson, 1996; Richards, 1987; Richards & Crookes, 1988). With the influence of current understandings of teacher learning it has become a much more important focus for research in language teacher education in recent years. However, despite its universal prevalence over the decades and this renewed interest in teacher learning and the practicum, there does not exist a theoretical framework that

would enable a systematic inquiry into student teacher learning during the practicum.

I believe, in the light of the new conceptualizations of language teacher learning reviewed in the previous section, the practicum in pre-service language teacher education programmes has become more significant in terms of providing contexts for student teachers to reflect on and learn from their teaching practices, and to engage in social interactions with other professionals where they can co-construct new knowledge and build identity as teachers. Thus, in this study, I conceptualise and problematize the practicum as a site for student teacher learning.

3.3.1 Practicum tasks

Whatever purpose it serves for and/or whatever teacher learning philosophy it draws on, the practicum, as Allwright and Hanks (2009, p. 70) note, is generally structured around three phases: lesson planning, classroom observation and feedback discussion. Student teachers are asked to prepare lesson plans prior to their actual practice teaching, they are observed during their teaching practice by an expert (a university-based supervisor and/or cooperating teacher), and they are provided with feedback on their teaching practice.

Lesson planning is always thought to be an important component of teaching practice both in teacher education and mainstream schools. Senior (2006, p. 43) outlines the significance of lesson planning in teacher education as follows:

> The importance of lesson planning is regularly stressed by teacher trainers, who may use the aphorism ‘failing to plan is planning to fail’ to impress upon trainees the importance of careful and detailed lesson planning, with a specific number of minutes allocated to each lesson segment. Learning how to develop and articulate lesson objectives, and then select and sequence tasks and activities that are likely to lead to the achievement of those objectives, is a fundamental part of learning to teach. … In the early stages of learning to teach, trainees find sticking to a lesson plan and actually teaching what is on the plan extremely challenging.

Implementation of the pre-planned lesson plan may not be straightforward due to the unpredictable instant contextual factors in the classroom. At this point teachers need to make immediate adjustments to their plan. These adjustments have been researched within teachers’ decision making framework

in language teacher cognition research (Bailey, 1996; Nunan, 1992b; Richards, 1998). Borg (2006, p. 93) suggests that teachers' departures from their original lesson plans "are the result of the constant interaction between teachers' pedagogical choices and their perceptions of the instructional context, particularly of the students, at any particular time". Similarly, in this study, the student teachers' departures from their lesson plans are monitored to gain insights into their perceptions.

For the classroom observation and feedback session components of the practicum, teacher education programmes often cooperate with schools. In general education literature, Buitink and Wouda (2001, cited in Maandag, Deinum, Hofman, & Buitink, 2007, pp. 153-154) identify five models of cooperation between schools and teacher education programmes: school as workplace (work placement model), school with a central supervisor (co-ordinator model), trainer in the school as a trainer of professional teachers (partner model), trainer in the school as the leader of a training team in the school (network model), and training by the school (training school model). The type of cooperation built between the practice schools and the teacher education programme in my study would best fit in the "school as workplace" model in which the training is done by the teacher education programme out of the school context and the practice school served as a work placement site. During the practicum, each student teacher was assigned to a university-based supervisor and a school-based cooperating teacher. The student teachers were then sent to schools either alone, or in pairs, or as a group of peers. I will briefly refer to the literature on supervisors, cooperating teachers and peer teaching in the following sub-sections.

Before proceeding further, I would like to make a terminological clarification. In the teacher education literature, since the practicum is designed in various ways, there is plenty of terminology associated with different models of student teacher supervision (mentoring, team teaching, etc.). Considering the distinctive features attributed to certain terminology in the literature and the characteristics of the roles taken by the participants in my study, I adopted a consistent conceptual separation between supervision and mentoring throughout the thesis. For the purposes of my study I referred to the literature on 'supervision' regarding the relationship between the student teacher and the

university-based teacher educator who supervises the student teacher during the practicum. Likewise, I referred to the ‘mentoring’ literature to characterize the relationship between the student teacher and the school-based cooperating teacher.

3.3.2 Supervision

In this study, each student teacher was supervised by a teacher educator from the teacher education programme during the practicum. In the language teacher education literature, Gebhard (1990, p. 2) suggests the basic definition of supervision as follows:

> At a fundamental level, language teacher supervision is an ongoing process of teacher education in which the supervisor observes what goes on in the teacher's classroom with an eye toward the goal of improved instruction.

As both the above statement and other relevant literature on language teacher supervision (Bailey, 2006, 2009) suggest, the main role of the supervisor is to observe the classroom practice of the (student) teacher and to give feedback. In doing so, supervisors adopt different approaches and styles depending on the personal or institutional understanding of teacher learning (see Table 3.3).

The role of supervision becomes problematic when it also requires the assessment of the observed (student) teacher because it is not straightforward to measure and evaluate the quality of teaching (Gebhard, 1990). In such scenarios, supervisors often attempt to measure the teaching performance against predetermined competencies. However, as Allwright and Hanks (2009, p. 77) note, such an approach might lead the supervisors:

> To focus on the concrete aspects of lessons, because they are the ones inexperienced teachers can most readily bring under conscious control, and because realistically, they will only be able to pass (or fail) their trainees on the mechanics of their practice lessons, not on more subtle considerations.

In the above quotation, Allwright and Hanks (2009) critique the type of supervision that is summative and that does not acknowledge the unobservable dimensions of teaching. The types of competency, standard or criterion based assessment are also known to limit the content of feedback conferences (Tang & Chow, 2007). Then, ideal supervision should be formative, should address

not only the observable dimensions of teaching but also the unobservable dimensions, should encourage articulation of the reasoning processes through reflection during the feedback conferences.

Table 3.3 Supervision styles (Soslau, 2012:771) [modified version of the original "Framework of Mentoring Styles" (Harrison, Lawson, and Wortley (2005, p. 273)]

Supervision style	Description
Telling	Supervisor offers tips, suggests areas for improvement, offers opinions and judgements.
Active coaching	Supervisor makes systematic interventions in the student teachers' reflections on practice, allows student teachers to articulate their experience and sifts out significant features, values and assumptions. Supervisor challenges student teachers' versions of events and examines alternative possibilities.
Guiding	Supervisor is a critical friend and focuses on pupils' learning rather than teaching performance. Questioning revolves around asking "why" rather than "how" or "what" of teaching performance. Supervisor drives the process by examining and challenging the planning and intentions of the student.
Inquiry	Supervisor and student teacher operate together, through co-inquiry, to investigate the causes or possible solutions and to look for new situations in which to test ideas. They both draw on the evidence from the classroom. Supervisor allows the student teacher to take the lead in the evaluation.
Reflecting	Supervisor probes, questions and, while providing a fund of relevant contextual knowledge and experiences of their own in relation to critical reflection, allows the student teacher to engage in reflection and reflect on conditions and contributing factors.

From this starting point, a new strand of research investigating supervision feedback conferences and their impact on student teacher learning developed and these studies often focused on the speech events and the discourses of post observation feedback sessions (Chick, 2015a, 2015b; Copland, 2012, 2015; Donaghue, 2015; Hunt, 2015; Kurtoglu-Hooton, 2016; Mann & Copland, 2010). These studies often point to the importance of dialogic interaction during the post-observation feedback sessions. Chick (2015a, p. 3) describes dialogic talk as

> talk which is characterized by features such as constructive engagement with each other's ideas, a spirit of enquiry and intellectual openness, and by an atmosphere of trust.

The studies suggest that dialogic interaction between student teacher and supervisor during post-observation feedback session promotes teacher learning by affording opportunities to reflect on cognitions and practices, to uncover tacit knowledge of teaching and to co-construct meanings of professional concepts in relation to specific teaching/learning contexts (Chick, 2015a; Copland, 2015; Mann & Copland, 2010).

The supervision practices of the supervisors participating in this study and their influence on student teacher learning during the practicum will be further explained and discussed in chapters 6 and 7.

3.3.3 Mentoring

Prominent authors in the literature on mentoring, Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, and Tomlinson (2009, p. 207) define the act of mentoring:

> as the one-to-one support of a novice or less experienced practitioner (mentee) by a more experienced practitioner (mentor), designed primarily to assist the development of the mentee's expertise and to facilitate their induction into the culture of the profession (in this case, teaching) and into the specific local context (here, the school or college).

However, there is a significant variance in the interpretation and implementation of the mentoring role (Wang & Odell, 2002). For instance, Cohen, Hoz, and Kaplan (2013, pp. 358-361), in their systematic analysis of 113 empirical studies conducted in various international practicum settings in general teacher education literature, identified thirty-nine types of mentor teacher roles and activities, and grouped these in four clusters:

> 1. Nurturing pre-service teachers and supporting them in becoming teachers,
> 2. Modelling, evaluating, and observing the preservice teachers,
> 3. Establishing and maintaining cooperation with teacher education,
> 4. Influencing the preservice teachers' personal-professional identity.

The authors also highlight a gradual shift throughout the four clusters in terms of how they define teacher learning for mentoring practices. For instance, while the first cluster mentoring activities aim to help student teachers to assimilate

into the school culture, the fourth cluster mentoring activities aim to encourage student teachers to develop their own teaching style and identity. It is worth noting that the majority of studies reviewed are listed in the first cluster.

Without doubt, different mentoring practices result in different opportunities for teacher learning. The teacher education literature suggests that conditions for effective mentoring are often not met (Hobson & Malderez, 2013), and incompetent mentoring might exert negative influence on student teacher learning (Canh, 2014; Yuan, 2016).

In the context of the present study, the mentors (the cooperating teachers) were the English language teachers who hosted the student teachers at the practice schools and temporarily lent their classrooms to student teachers to practice language teaching. Involvement of the cooperating teachers in the practicum and their roles as mentors are further discussed in chapters 6 and 7.

3.3.4 Paired or grouped placement

In the context of my study, the student teachers were often paired or grouped with peers while being assigned to the practice schools since the number of the practice schools and the numbers of the English language teachers at those schools were scarce. These student teachers carried out their practicum activities together in the same classrooms of the same cooperating teachers. When I conducted a literature review into team teaching during the practicum, I came up with studies often referring to peer coaching. Although peer coaching is a systematic strategy for training, and does not necessarily reflect the conditions of the practicum within the context of the present study, I reviewed these studies to gain insights into the potential influence of paired or grouped placement on student teacher learning.

Educational literature in general reports positive findings and satisfaction of participants for the use of peer coaching during teaching practice. For instance, in a review of eight empirical studies on peer coaching in pre-service teacher education contexts between 1997-2007 Lu (2010) concludes that peer coaching in pre-service teacher education contexts contributes to 1) promoting the practicum as a site for teacher education by supporting student teachers to learn to teach from each other, 2) improving professionalism among student

teachers by facilitating professional discourse, and 3) providing affective support by offering equality in status among participants and reducing the anxiety caused by traditional supervision models. However, the review sets peer coaching training for the participants and systematic support by the programme as prerequisites for successful peer coaching practices.

Goker (2006), in his experimental study with 32 TEFL student teachers in North Cyprus, found that those in the experimental group who were trained and encouraged for peer coaching during the practicum demonstrated a statistically significant difference in developing higher self-efficacy during the practicum than those in the control group who received traditional supervision. Similarly, Britton and Anderson (2010) in their study with four student teachers teaching different disciplines at a high school in United States reported that implementation of structured peer coaching cycle resulted in alteration of student teachers' current teaching practices and it was rated positively by student teachers. The researchers also reported that peer coaching reduced the level of anxiety during the teaching practice when compared to the formal assessment by experienced professionals in traditional supervision models. Their implementation of peer coaching started with training the participants and was structured at five levels (establishing trust, collaboration, conferencing, observations and data collection, analysis and reflection) to reach the final aim of affirmation and alteration of practices.

The group dynamics among the participants have also been reported to affect the success of peer collaboration. In their study of six triads (each consisted a cooperating teacher and two student teachers), Wilkinson et al. (2014) found that the triads which had mutuality, homophily (a term they borrowed from Social Network Theory which means 'compatibility'), triad cohesion and collaborative participants reported higher level of satisfaction with paired student teaching. They suggested that these dynamics can be provided by training prior to the placement.

In a more recent and comprehensive literature review of student team teaching studies, Baeten and Simons (2014) reviewed 33 studies investigating the perspectives of student teachers, mentors and the learners in the classroom on various team teaching models. They summarised the common advantages and

disadvantages of team teaching for each practicum participant in a table regardless of the coaching model used (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Overview of (dis)advantages of student teachers' team teaching (Baeten & Simons, 2014, p. 100)

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Student teachers • Increased emotional and professional support • Increased dialogue • Professional growth • Personal growth **Mentors** • Decreased workload • Learning gains • Increased collaboration at school **Learners** • Increased support • Rich and varied lessons • Learning gains	**Student teachers** • Lack of compatibility • Comparison • Difficulty of providing constructive feedback • Increased workload • Less individual teaching **Mentors** • Increased workload • Weaker relationships with student teachers **Learners** • Confusion

As the table above suggests, while team teaching could be facilitative of professional development, it could also be difficult to organise and maintain team relationships and division of labour. For mentors, while it could help decrease the workload as the student teachers also benefit from peer support but also could increase it because the mentor needs to deal with more student teachers. Similarly, team teaching has divergent impacts on the learners in the classrooms.

In this section I defined the practicum a significant component of pre-service language teacher education. I discussed how the objectives of the practicum have changed over time in accordance with the changing ideas about teacher learning. I outlined the generic structure of the practicum with reference to main actors involved, their specific roles, and their potential influence on student teacher learning. In the next section, I will review some major empirical research studies into the language teaching practicum.

3.4 Review of empirical research studies

In this section, I will review the empirical studies investigating student teacher learning and change during the practicum. In order to track the development of this particular research area, I will review the studies in chronological order, and I will refer to their focus and methodology.

The early examples of studies of the practicum focus on student teachers' concerns, and whether/how those concerns change over the course of the practicum. For instance, Holten and Brinton (Brinton & Holten, 1989; Holten & Brinton, 1995) made a set of investigations into the practicum experiences of graduate teachers completing a ten-week practicum as a part of the course requirements for the M.A. degree in TESL in the USA. In their first analysis (Brinton & Holten, 1989), they coded student teachers' entries to the dialogue journals (between the student teacher and the supervisor) into eight broad themes (student population, instructional setting, etc.), they divided the ten weeks practicum into three periods and they counted theme frequency in each period to measure the change in student teachers' perceptions quantitatively. Their analysis showed a shift in student teachers' focus throughout the practicum. Although they were concerned about their new identities and roles as teachers and student characteristics at the beginning, their comments on such issues decreased towards the last period. Student teachers were commenting on classroom matters such as lesson organisation, methods, techniques rather than contextual structures like curriculum and instructional setting.

Their following analysis in the same context (Holten & Brinton, 1995) was done on the same kind of data (dialogue journals), but qualitatively. They followed three student teachers' development and found out that student teachers were preoccupied with determining their lacks to be improved (the main theme of comments was on assessing students' abilities), classroom management, lesson organization and delivery. Another main theme appearing in the comments was their engagement in identifying themselves as teachers. However, in both publications, their analysis does not address the sources of student teachers' changing perceptions or preoccupations.

Similarly, Numrich (1996) attempted to identify common concerns and discoveries of 42 novice ESL teachers during a ten-week MA TESOL practicum in USA. Based on the analysis of student teachers' language learning histories and their reflective diaries, the researcher found out that student teachers were preoccupied with their own teaching (i.e. time management, giving instructions, etc.) and rarely mentioned student learning in the classroom. Different to the earlier studies mentioned above, Numrich referred to the influence of student teachers' language learning experiences on their concerns.

Cognitive dimension of teaching was addressed more explicitly by Johnson who conducted a set of investigations again in the TESOL MA context in USA (Johnson, 1992, 1994, 1996). Her first study explored how student teachers respond to student performance cues and what knowledge they used while making their interactive instructional decisions based on the data gathered from six pre-service ESL teachers through classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, and semi-structured reflective reports. While providing significant insights about pre-service teacher decision making, the study did not report the sources of the knowledge student teachers made use of and the changes over time during the practicum. The researcher's later consecutive studies addressed to this limitation.

She turned her focus to student teachers' beliefs and how these beliefs shaped their instructional decisions and their perceptions of themselves as teachers. Johnson (1994), making use of same data collection techniques plus the conceptual memos and field notes she produced, worked with four pre-service teachers in the same context. She found conflicts between student teachers beliefs about language teaching and learning and their actual classroom practices. Although the participants reflected dissatisfaction on their previous teacher-centred language learning experiences as students, they reported that they could not apply their idealized teaching practices as first, they did not have alternative models, and second they were preoccupied with classroom management.

Again in the same context and with the same methodology, Johnson (1996) further examined the initial teaching experiences of one pre-service teacher, Maya, in detail to explore the impact of this experience on her view of herself

as a teacher, of second language teaching, and of the TESOL practicum. The results revealed that Maya experienced tensions between her vision of second language teaching that she built based on her professional training and the classroom realities she faced during her initial teaching experience. Maya complained about her lack of knowledge about pupils, her lack of time to cover her planned activities while fighting against disruptive pupil behaviours and she criticized the practicum design as it did not provide ownership of the classroom due to the presence of the mentor teacher. She was more concerned with her own inner conflicts and behaviours rather than students' learning. The researcher reported that although her beliefs did not change substantially, she learnt how to cope with the classroom realities towards the end of the practicum.

The pattern of change in the focus of Johnson's studies somewhat reflects the change in her understandings of teacher learning. The latter study, despite not being explicitly articulated in the article, represents signs of sociocultural perspective of learning regarding its inclusion of the student teacher's response to wider contextual factors such as mentor teacher's existence and foreshadows her later commitment to that perspective (Johnson, 2009a).

As I have noted so far, early research studies about pre-service language teacher learning during the practicum started to emerge primarily in MA TESOL contexts in USA. The studies gradually directed their focus to teacher cognitions. There was also a transition from a quantitative to a qualitative approach in the early studies. In terms of their findings, the studies began to report consistent findings such as student teachers' preoccupation with their own image of themselves, their teaching and classroom management during the practicum. Language learning history as a learner was found to have an influence on student teacher cognitions. Student teachers were also found to hold idealized images of students and language teaching derived from their professional training; therefore they struggled with the classroom realities they met and mostly fossilized in their own language learning experiences as learners despite not approving. These themes were consistent with the findings in the general educational literature (Kagan, 1992). Parallel to the concurrent changes in conceptualizations of teacher learning in the second language teacher education, later studies began to include student teachers'

socializations during the practicum as a part of their learning. Furthermore, studies from different countries began to appear.

For instance, Farrell conducted a set of case studies into the practicum in Singapore. Farrell (2001) is a case study of an individual teacher trainee during a nine-week practicum exploring the socialization of the student teacher in the practicing school as a part of his learning process. The researcher, who is also the supervisor of the student teacher, found out that, apart from expressing common concerns reported in the literature such as being concerned about lesson planning and sticking to the plan, the student teacher could not build teacher identity since he was not given the access to socialize with other teachers in the school, and he was not supported by his cooperating teacher. The researcher interpreted it depending two main reasons: cooperating teachers were not trained for their mentoring roles and they see dealing with student teachers as a burden. The study recommended a better quality collaboration between the cooperating teacher, the supervisor and the student teacher.

In the same context, Farrell (2007) is a case study of a student teacher, Ho, who failed the practicum and had to take it again. Again parallel to his role as the supervisor, based on his analysis of Ho's teaching journal, his classroom observations and post-observation discussions, Farrell reported that Ho's failure was a result of her adherence to the way of teaching that she experienced as a learner, her determination to stick to her lesson plan whatever happens –which resulted in teacher-centred instruction, and her preoccupation with satisfying the observers while teaching –which resulted in teaching in a way that is irrelevant to her beliefs and student needs.

In another study in the same context, Farrell (2008) conducted questionnaires with 60 student teachers and had follow up interviews with eight of them to investigate their practicum experiences. The findings indicated that, student teachers attached great importance to lesson planning, and covering the lesson plan during the lesson. Despite being aware of student needs, they could not address them due to large classroom population. In terms of professional support, they rated their supervisor to be more helpful than the cooperating teachers and other experienced teachers at school.

In the meantime, some researchers explored the development of teacher efficacy adapting Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001:783) who described teacher efficacy as "a judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning". In Taiwan, Chiang (2008) administered the scale twice (before and after a one-year long methods course with a fieldwork component) along with structured self-report survey at the end and qualitative data derived from open-ended survey, semi-structured group interviews and reflective logs of 13 pre-service teachers. The results indicated that student teachers were disappointed with the traditional ways of teaching at the school which was in conflict with their language teaching beliefs. Furthermore, the student teachers were again primarily concerned with classroom management. Towards the end of the fieldwork, their awareness of real classroom setting and their self efficacy have increased. Other studies investigating student teachers' self efficacy reported from Turkey (Atay, 2007; Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, 2012) and they will be reviewed in the following section in detail.

Some researchers were particularly interested in the identity development of student teachers during the practicum. Although the previous studies articulated that student teachers are primarily occupied with their own images as teachers during the practicum, research into identity development during language teaching practicum was rather scarce. Liu and Fisher (2006) examined student teachers' developing conceptions of self during a 36-week PGCE programme in a UK university. Their study found a consistent pattern in identity development. They reported that while three student teachers did not see themselves as real teachers at the beginning, they did so gradually during the course by learning more about students in the classroom. Trent (2010) examined eight pre-service English language teachers' identity construction during the practicum in Hong Kong through in-depth interviews. The author concluded that the student teachers "constructed rigid divisions between different identities, which were underpinned by relations of antagonism" (p. 12) between the teacher education programme and the practice school. Kanno and Stuart (2011) conducted case studies with two MATESOL students. Consistent with the findings of Liu and Fisher (2006), they found out that identity construction and classroom practice shape each other mutually during teacher

learning process. Dang (2013) investigated identity formation of two EFL student teachers during a 15-week paired-placement practicum in Vietnam. She found that the contradictions and conflicts between the paired student teachers in negotiating identities created opportunities for identity development and teacher learning. However, conflicts were not always supportive. For instance, Yuan (2016) investigated identity construction of two pre-service language teachers through their interactions with school mentors and university supervisors during the 10-week practicum in China and the findings showed that identity development of the student teachers were negatively influenced by the school mentors.

Apart from the growing identity development during the practicum literature, as mentioned earlier in section 3.3.1, another strand of research studies emerged to investigate particularly the nature of supervision feedback and its influence on student teachers' learning. Mann and Copland (2010) explored how different discourse practices construct knowledge in different ways in the post-observation conferences during the teaching practice. They argued that dialogic talk offers a useful approach for trainers in feedback conferences to develop their trainees' reflective skills. Furthermore, Kurtoglu-Hooton (2010) examined the role of post-observation feedback as an instigator of teacher learning and change. Similarly, Hyland and Lo (2006) examined feedback conferences during a practicum in Hong Kong and found that student teachers' responses were affected by power relations in supervision group. Copland (2012, p. 18) conducted an exploration into the discourse of feedback conferences, and she concluded that such an analysis is necessary not only to understand the impact of supervisor feedback, but also to reveal "how messages about pedagogical practice are conveyed, particularly in multi-party contexts".

Ong'ondo and Borg (2011) investigated the impact of supervision on student teachers' learning during the 12-week practicum in Kenya. The researchers gathered qualitative data from six student teachers, six supervisors and five cooperating teachers. Their findings showed that due to the organizational problems and heavy workload imposed on supervisors during the practicum, there was a lack of communication between the supervisors and the student teachers, and a lack of support from cooperating teachers. The supervisors

(who were not necessarily specialists in ELT) had a tendency to give feedback based on general pedagogy rather than specialities of language teaching and their feedback was evaluative and directive in nature. As a result, student teachers were mainly worried about getting low marks from the supervisors and failing, so their teaching practices were primarily serving to please the supervisors. This setting limited student teachers' opportunities to learn from their practice and develop pedagogical reasoning skills.

From an explicit sociocultural perspective, Ahn (2011) used the activity theory framework to explore one student teacher's conceptual development during a four-week practicum in South Korea. Analysis of lesson plans, teaching journals, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews with the student teacher, records of team conferences, an interview with the mentor teacher and the researcher's own field notes pointed out that the student teacher's practices were influenced by her beliefs based on her own language learning experiences. However she needed to adjust her practices according to the contextual factors. For example, despite believing the importance of providing opportunities to use English in the classroom, she started to use students' mother tongue in the classroom to maintain student participance. Moreover, the student teacher acted in conflict with her beliefs at some points where she faced contradictions with the community surrounding her such as peers, mentor and supervisor.

Mak (2011) followed a post graduate student teacher, Lily, during two sets of four-week practica in Hong Kong. Analysis of interviews, belief-inventory questionnaire, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, and the researcher's own field notes revealed that the student teacher's instructional decisions were influenced by her beliefs and her response to contextual factors. Confirming previous studies, Lily was primarily concerned with surviving and adapting to the local teaching context. Although she believed the positive influence of communicative language teaching, she changed her practices towards her own traditional language teaching experiences blaming the contextual infeasibility of this method.

Kourieos (2012) examined the influence of supervision on student teachers' learning in a private university setting in Cyprus where the supervisors were not

necessarily specialists, as was the case in Ong'ondo and Borg (2011). The analysis of 14 student teachers' accounts on their practicum experiences indicated that student teachers could not receive adequate feedback from supervisors; they focused on performing what they think the supervisor wants to see during their observed teaching. Furthermore, they were confused with the gap between their ideal images of classrooms and realities and therefore they valued cooperating teachers' feedback as they were more acquainted with these realities in contrast to their supervisors who were preoccupied with theories.

In Taiwan, Liaw (2012) looked into four student teachers' learning to teach processes during a year-long practicum where students taught one lesson each week. Analysis of semi-structured interviews, teaching reflections, lesson plans and video-recorded classroom observations pointed out that although the student teachers showed variety in their learning processes, the general patterns were being influenced by previous language learning experiences, being preoccupied with classroom management and showing a shift in focus from their self as a teacher to the students during the practicum.

Gan (2013) conducted a research study of 16 pre-service ESL teachers' experiences of an eight-week practicum in Hong Kong. Based on interviews with student teachers and their reflective journals, the study concluded that although student teachers reported strong beliefs in innovative pedagogical practices, contextual factors (such as lack of time, pupils' low language proficiency) deterred them from using them. The student teachers were preoccupied with classroom teaching. They were also concerned with their lack of language proficiency to give clear instructions during lessons probably partly because they were assessed for their language use during the practicum. They were also dissatisfied by the limited socialization with other school staff.

Canh (2014) examined learning experiences of five Vietnamese student teachers' during a 6-week practicum through their diaries. The findings suggested that the student teachers preferred to align with their cooperating teachers' style of teaching rather than putting the theories they learnt in the teacher education programme into practice due to the pressure of assessment.

The studies from various different geographical contexts confirm the earlier examples regarding student teachers' preoccupation with classroom management, their fossilization into their own language learning experiences as students, and their initial focus on their own behaviours and image as a teacher in the classroom. On the other hand, research has begun to give place to the impact of socialisation on student teachers' learning during the practicum. Lack of communication, support and feedback from supervisors and cooperating teachers have been reported to limit student teachers' opportunities to learn during their initial classroom experiences. As the review suggests, the language teaching practicum literature is dominated by the negative experiences of student teachers.

The studies reporting positive student teacher learning experience are rather scarce. Among them, Birbirso (2012) conducted a practitioner inquiry research as a practicum supervisor in Ethiopian EFL teacher education context. As an intervention, he encouraged his ten supervisees to involve in reflective discussions with him and to write reflective journals and then analysed the data generated by those. He found that reflection on practices helped student teachers learn from their own teaching practices. However, the student teachers was not able to translate their learning to reform their teaching practices due to the restrictions of the context such as the need to cover the syllabus.

Gan and Lee (2015) analysed the reflective journals of thirteen EFL student teachers in Hong Kong drawing on activity theory as a theoretical lens. In contrast to the study above, the student teachers in this study managed to transform their learning to teaching practices. The authors explained that this was achieved in a cycle of three steps. First, the student teachers practiced teaching in the classrooms. Secondly, they reflected on the challenges and dilemmas through collaborative dialog with supervisors, cooperating teachers and peers. Third, they developed alternative practices, tried them in their classrooms. This cycle of reflective practice was repeated throughout the practicum. The authors highlighted the crucial role played in that process by the supportive practices of supervisors and cooperating teachers.

Yazan (2015b) conducted in-depth interviews with five ESOL student teachers in MA TESOL practicum context in USA and grounded his analysis of data on activity theory. The study found that teacher learning realised when student teachers reflect on their practicum experiences and "actively engage in the negotiation and construction of their own teacher knowledge" (p.193) in a supportive professional community.

The common characteristic of the three studies that report positive student teacher learning experiences during the practicum is the opportunity and support for reflection. However, in the study of Birbirso (2012), reflection on its own was not sufficient to promote a kind of learning which transforms the way the student teachers teach because they were constrained with the limitations of the teaching context. Although the evidence is yet limited to these studies, these findings might suggest that student teachers need not only a supportive environment for reflection but also autonomy and flexibility to introduce change and innovation in their contexts. Therefore the opportunities for learning during the practicum might be influenced by not only the immediate context of the practicum, but also the wider social, political and historical context. However, the studies so far have limited their focus to the immediate context of the practicum. Except for Ong'ondo and Borg (2011), studies did not explore the practicum form the perspectives of other stake holders such as supervisors and mentors. Therefore, the main gap identified by the review of empirical studies so far is the lack of nuanced understanding of the wider context of the practicum from perspectives of the different stake holders.

The empirical research studies I have reviewed so far projects the development of exploration into teacher learning during the practicum. In the next section I will narrow down my review to the specific context of my current study, Turkey.

3.4.1 Research on the EFL practicum in Turkey

Parallel to the international literature, the studies from Turkey begin to appear with a quantitative stance. For instance, Demirkol (2004) administered a questionnaire to investigate the expectations of the triad members, namely university supervisors, cooperating teachers and student teachers regarding their roles and responsibilities. Findings imply that, despite the efforts of the CoHE to clarify the roles and responsibilities of the members of the triad, they

do not seem to be well informed about their own roles and responsibilities and those of the other members of the triad.

Gürbüz (2006) surveyed the perceptions of six supervisors, 14 cooperating teachers and 30 student teachers about the strengths and weaknesses of the student teachers during the practicum through questionnaires. Quantitative analysis of questionnaires revealed that there was an agreement about the strengths of the student teachers between three parties. On the other hand, perceptions of the weaknesses indicated contradictions: the mentors and supervisors reported the student teachers' use of inaccurate pronunciation and grammar as a weakness whilst it was not mentioned by the student teachers themselves. Lack of classroom management skills were also reported as a weakness only by supervisors and mentors. This study points at a divergence of perceptions regarding the strengths and weaknesses of the student teachers among the participants during the practicum.

Similarly, Akcan and Tatar (2010) examined the nature of feedback given to student teachers by their school-based mentors and university-based supervisors during the practicum. The data of the study were gathered with 52 pre-service English Language student teachers, four university supervisors and 30 cooperating teachers. Analysing the data gathered from field notes of classroom observations, post-lesson conferences between both student teachers and university supervisors, and student teachers and cooperating teachers, written evaluation sheets and documents, the researchers found out that while university-based supervisors encouraged student teachers to critically reflect on their practices, the school-based mentors provided more practical feedback.

On the other hand, Merç (2010a) examined the problems and positive aspects reported by 99 student teachers in their written reflections during the practicum. The study revealed that the student teachers experience many problems related to supervision, the syllabus of the practicum, and their own practice during the practicum. While the frequency of some of these problems decreased by the end of the practicum, some others remained to concern the student teachers all through the practicum. However, the study does not provide the sources and resolution processes of these problems.

Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez and Eröz-Tuğa (Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez & Eröz-Tuğa, 2012a, 2012b) investigated the tensions between the expectations and experiences of student teachers, cooperating teachers and supervisors during the practicum. Drawing on the data collected through semi-structured interviews with the university supervisors, cooperating teachers and pre-service teachers, and the weekly reflective journals of the pre-service teachers they found miscommunication and disconnection between the cooperating teachers and the student teachers throughout the practicum. These results signal again that the communication channels illustrated in Figure 2.1 are locked, and that the overall communication network may be an idealised vision rather than reality.

Atay (2007) explored the changes of efficacy of student teachers during the practicum. The results indicated that the student teachers efficacy scores for instructional strategies decreased significantly level at the end of the practicum while their classroom management and student engagement efficacy scores increased. Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez (2012) continued the inquiry with an exploratory case study into the pre-service EFL teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs and perceptions of mentoring practices during the practicum. In her mixed method case study, she utilized scales, student teachers weekly reflective journals, semi-structured interviews and an open-ended survey. She concluded that the dimensions of pre-service teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs did not develop significantly during the practicum. On the contrary, sense of efficacy beliefs regarding classroom management beliefs of the participant pre-service teachers significantly decreased at the end of the practice teaching. She concluded that the role of mentoring practices and the organization of the practice teaching course had an important influence on the sense of efficacy beliefs of the student teachers.

As summarized above, most of the studies in Turkey approached the language teaching practicum as a problematic area where expectations do not meet, communication cannot be built, and the self-efficacy cannot be increased. These findings diagnose a gap between the regulations set by the CoHE and the real practices especially in terms of the communication between stakeholders. This suggests that aforementioned Communication Network of Faculty of Education-Practice School Programme (Figure 2.1) may be an

idealistic picture of what happens in practice. Furthermore, I have not located any studies investigating the process and nature of student teacher learning during the practicum in Turkish language teacher education context.

3.5 Rationale for my research based on the literature review

As I concluded in my review of teacher learning and language teacher education, views of teacher learning have changed. In simplest terms, current understanding of teacher learning is that it is a process of change in teachers' cognitions and practices, and identity development as a teacher that is mediated by professional socialisation. However, the changing views of teacher learning have not been directly translated into new practices in language teacher education programmes. As my review of empirical studies about language teacher learning during the practicum reveals, teacher education programmes with an applied science notion of learning may cause a gap on the part of student teachers –between the theory they learnt at the university and the reality they face in the classroom- during the practicum. The context of this research study can be an example since on the one hand, the goals of language teacher education as defined in central guidelines are informed by constructivist and reflective views of learning; on the other hand, the curriculum and real practices reflect an applied science model of teacher education. Therefore, this research study will investigate the impact of such dissonances between goals and practices on teacher learning, and the theory and practice of language teaching during the practicum.

This present study examines student teacher learning during the practicum component of a teacher education programme. Although the practicum is a core component of language teacher education universally, the notion of student learning during the practicum is still under-researched. In this study I approach the practicum as a universal phenomenon and I explore student teacher learning during the practicum to potentially develop new perspectives and frameworks that are informed by the theories of language teacher education and grounded in the empirical research.

For the purposes of this study, I define teacher learning as changes in language teacher cognitions and teaching practices over time. For doing so, I

draw on Borg's (2006) conceptualisation of language teacher cognition as it enables me to investigate both observable and unobservable processes a teacher experience while learning. In order to address the aforementioned limitation of this conceptualisation in accounting for the influences of context on cognitions and practices, I aim to situate cognitions and practices of student teachers within the immediate and wider contexts they operate in during the practicum. Thus, I define my unit of analysis as the supervision triad (as will be further explained in Chapter 4) which consists of a student teacher, a school-based cooperating teacher and a university-based supervisor.

For the analysis of teacher socialisation I do not align myself with a particular theoretical perspective since I detected certain conceptual mismatches with my research design. For instance, activity theory focuses on the perspective of only one subject as the point of view for analysis. However, I aim to capture the practicum from different subjects' accounts since I am more interested in the interplay of different perspectives and multiple cognitions meeting in the context of the practicum. Similarly, the concept of communities of practice takes one community at a time for investigation and tries to explain the journey of a newcomer to this community from the periphery to the centre with the support of old-timers. However, the old-timers in my unit of analysis (school-based cooperating teachers and university-based supervisors) were located in different communities (school vs university), and therefore the journey of the student teacher in this case would start first between the communities before moving to the centre of the new community. Therefore, for the data analysis in terms of teacher socialisation, I adopt a holistic perspective informed by my review of the literature and tried to keep my mind open for my inductive analysis in terms of student teacher socialisation during the practicum.

The next chapter will present the research questions and design that will guide the process of this study.

Chapter 4. Methodology

This chapter provides a detailed account of the design of the research study. In this chapter, I will first present the research questions, and explain the epistemological, ontological and methodological decisions underlying the research design. Then I present the research methods, participants and data generation tools. The section proceeds with the description of the pilot study, the data analysis process, the explanation of the strategies that I employed to maximize the quality of my research, and a discussion of ethical considerations.

4.1 Research questions

Informed by the issues that emerged in my review of the Turkish context and the literature on language teacher learning, my main purpose is to conduct a deep investigation into the student teachers' learning processes during the practicum to contribute to the developing theoretical knowledge base on the language teacher learning processes and to identify implications for practice and further research. Therefore, the research study presented in this thesis addresses the following research questions within the context of a fifteen-week pre-service language teacher practicum at a state university in Turkey:

1) To what extent does the practicum contribute to student teacher learning?
2) What factors hinder or support student teacher learning during the practicum?

Before explaining my research design to seek answers to these questions, I will touch upon the philosophical rationale underpinning my approach in this research study. Pring (2004, p. 90) states that without a philosophical background "researchers may remain innocently unaware of the deeper meaning and commitments of what they say and how they conduct their research". On those grounds, it is necessary to explain the ontological and epistemological principles which underpin the decisions I have made about how to investigate my research questions.

4.2 Philosophical perspectives

I made my philosophical and methodological decisions considering how best I can gain knowledge into the nature of the phenomenon that I am interested in as a researcher. Thinking about my research questions, I decided that approaching the participants through interviews and observations is going to be appropriate. Therefore I reached the conclusion that the kind of issues that I am interested in can be best explored qualitatively. After reading Pring (2004) I realized that research studies should be conducted within a consistent framework based on the understandings of the nature of social reality and ways of knowing and creating knowledge, and, as a researcher, I should be aware of the deeper ideas that comprise a basis for my research design. Therefore I read about different philosophical positions.

I found out that the main philosophical ideas which may influence research decisions are drawn from ontology (the nature of reality) and epistemology (nature of knowledge). In terms of ontology, while realism looks for singular objective reality, social constructionism claims that there are multiple socially constructed subjective realities (Burr, 1995). Denscombe (2010, pp. 132-3) states that qualitative paradigm “emphasizes the ways in which human activity creates meaning and generates the social order that characterizes the world in which we live … therefore, the paradigm favours a constructionist ontology and an interpretivist epistemology”. Cunliffe (2008, p. 127) describes the subjective orientation to social constructionism as “taking a subjective approach to reality assume that reality is negotiated by individuals within social settings, each of whom has their own perception, meanings and ways of making sense within a broader social context”.

In this research study, I investigate a contemporary social phenomenon (student teacher learning) in its natural context (the practicum) without any control over the events. In doing so, I want to explore the participants’ individual experiences and the meanings and perspectives they attach to these experiences. Thus, for the study I undertook a social constructionist view of reality and so an interpretivist epistemology. Since this stance imply subjectivity for the conduct of research, I devote the following section to position myself as the researcher.

4.3 The researcher

Before explaining the research design and introducing the data generation tools that I will employ in my study, it is necessary to acknowledge my role at each phase of the research as a researcher, data generator and interpreter. As Ritchie and Lewis (2003, p. 17) suggest in their discussion of key epistemological stances, in an interpretivist stance “the researcher and the social world impact on each other”. As I subscribe to interpretivist epistemology, I will inevitably become a research instrument in data generation and analysis processes and the data of the study will be generated by the participants and the researcher collaboratively. As Duff (2008, pp.130-131) maintains, elucidating the position and the role of the researcher within the research study “helps contextualize the research and also helps readers understand the researcher’s personal investment in the case, or perhaps intimate familiarity with the context or participants”.

In the qualitative research literature, the position of the researcher is often described by binary concepts such as insider-outsider, emic-etic, or participant-nonparticipant. However, these binary and mutually exclusive concepts cannot always capture the ongoing familiarity of the researcher with the context and the participants, and the emerging socially-constructed perspectives. For instance, Ergun and Erdemir (2009, p. 34), in their self-reflexive accounts of field experiences, found that their identities as researchers during the fieldwork were rather “fluid, nonstatic, permeable, and dialectic”. Explaining my position and perspective drawing on those binary concepts is not straightforward, either.

In terms of my familiarity with the context and the participants during my fieldwork, I was an outsider visitor who came from England and conducted a research project for a PhD degree. However my previous experiences in the context and familiarity with some of the participants also gave me the perspective of an insider. Therefore, my perspective could be counted as both insider and outsider during the fieldwork. To take it from the beginning, I grew up, received schooling and English language teacher education in Turkey like my participants. Then I was employed as a research assistant by an English language teacher education programme at a state university. My personal involvement in Turkish general education and English language teacher

education contexts provided me in-depth understanding of the culture and politics of those contexts. Based on my experience as a student teacher, teacher educator and a novice researcher I developed a growing interest in how English language teachers learn to teach and how teacher education programmes can best prepare student teachers for their future teaching career. Later in my career, I moved to England to pursue my PhD degree. I chose to conduct research on student teacher learning during the practicum in Turkish context. After approximately two years, I went back to Turkey for fieldwork as a visitor. During my visit, I was not involved in any other roles other than being the researcher at the teacher education programme. In other words, despite being a former participant in this context, I was a non-participant researcher during the fieldwork. Going back to Turkey as a visiting researcher, and bringing the data back to England and talking about it to my supervisors who were completely outsiders to the Turkish context provided me a certain degree of distance to the context which then helped me in zooming out to better understand the whole picture of the context.

In terms of the perspective from which I seek to understand the issues under study, in accordance with the interpretivist stance I embrace, I align myself with emic perspective (defined as “the insider’s view of reality” by Given (2008:249)). I aim to understand the participants’ experiences from their own perspectives. In order to acknowledge the effect of my perspective, as the researcher, created on the nature of the research I adopted a reflexive approach (see Section 4.6 for further details). In the next section, I will describe the design of the research methodology.

4.4 Research design

Case study is a common form of research in social science and educational research. It is also prominently used for research in applied linguistics and language teacher education fields. Therefore research textbooks in those fields often discuss case studies in a separate chapter (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005; Nunan, 1992a; Richards, 2003; van Lier, 2005) and there even exists a whole book on the use of case study research in applied linguistics (Duff, 2008).

However, as Gomm, Hammersley, and Foster (2000:1) and Richards (2003, p. 20) state, different authors propose different definitions of case study. Whilst some authors identify it as an approach to qualitative research (Mabry, 2008; Stake, 2003; Wellington, 2000) others argue it can also be used to conduct quantitative research (Duff, 2008; Gerring, 2007; Yin, 2009). On the other hand, Creswell (2012, p. 465), defines the case study as a type of ethnography. There are also some contrasts that are stemmed from the authors' different epistemological stances. For instance, as Yazan (2015a) notes, among the seminal case study methodologists, Yin (2009) subscribes to positivist epistemology in contrast to Stake (1995) and Merriam (1988) who commit to a constructivist perspective which results in fundamental differences in how they define the scope and processes of case study research.

Despite differences in the conceptualization of what a case study is, there are common features emphasized by different authors. Duff (2008, p. 22) summarizes these features as "the "bounded," singular nature of the case, the importance of context, the availability of multiple sources of information or perspectives on observations, and the in-depth nature of analysis". Articulated as one of the common features, boundaries and boundedness of cases are common concerns in many sources on case study research. van Lier (2005, p. 196) attempts to clarify the meaning of boundaries of a case referring to Merriam (1988) and Miles and Huberman (1994), and concludes that a case is a unit of analysis but drawing rigid boundaries round a case may isolate it from its context.

In my study, I will use case study as a research design within which different data collection methods and tools can be used to conduct qualitative research and I will take the technical definition of case studies by Merriam (2009, p. x) below as a working definition for my case study method:

> Qualitative case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon such as a program, an institution, a person, a process, or a social unit.

This research study will attempt to make an in-depth investigation into student teacher learning during the practicum. For this purpose, I defined the unit of analysis as the supervision triad considering it to be the micro level

representation of the practicum. I will aim to understand student teacher learning during the practicum through examination of multiple supervision triads. The purpose of this study could be classified either as instrumental case study or multiple case study according to Stake (2005). Stake (2005:445-446) identifies three types of case study research:

> I call a study an *intrinsic case study* if it is undertaken because, first and last, one wants better understanding of this particular case. It is not undertaken primarily because the case represents other cases or because it illustrates a particular trait or problem, but because, in all its peculiarity *and* ordinariness, this case itself is of interest.
>
> … I use the term *instrumental case study* if a particular case is examined mainly to provide insight into an issue or to redraw a generalization. The case is of secondary interest, it plays a supporting role, and it facilitates our understanding of something else. The case is still looked at in depth, its contexts scrutinized, and its ordinary activities detailed, but all because this helps us pursue the external interest.
>
> …When there is even less interest in one particular case, a number of cases may be studied jointly in order to investigate a phenomenon, population, or general condition. I call this *multiple case study* or *collective case study*. (Original italics)

The research presented here is a multiple case study of the practicum experiences of student teachers which will be used instrumentally to understand teacher learning during the language teacher practicum. The study involves multiple cases since “illustration of how a phenomenon occurs in the circumstances of several exemplars can provide valued and trustworthy knowledge” (Stake, 2005, pp. 458-459).

Case study was particularly suitable for my research purposes both in terms of the proximity it provides between the researcher and the researched, and the flexibility in data generation it affords the researcher (Flyvbjerg, 2006). In terms of gathering data, the qualitative case study design differs from quantitative studies in that while the former often has an emergent design, the latter employs predetermined variables and data collection points. The emergent design of the case study enables the researcher to be open to unanticipated data sources and have the flexibility to use multiple data generation tools. This research study will employ multiple data sources for triangulation in the sense of “a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning” (Stake, 2005, p. 454).

Moreover, case study was chosen in this research design in that it was one of the methods which would enable longitudinal research. In order to examine the process of change in cognitions and practices, the design of the current research was spread over the fifteen-week practicum to track student teacher learning. I examined student teacher learning during the EFL practicum over time and similarly the analysis was done by going continuously back and forth in time. Duff (2008, p. 40) explains the iterative nature of longitudinal research as follows:

> Besides conducting research that documents learners' knowledge, abilities, or performance at one point in time, researchers can analyze their behavior synchronically (at one time) and then compare it with behavior observed at one or more subsequent or previous points in time (diachronically).

To conclude, this study explores the experiences of student teachers during the practicum within a qualitative case study design. In the following section, I will define the unit of analysis in my study, and then I will explain the decisions about the number of cases and the criteria for selecting participants.

4.4.1 Participants

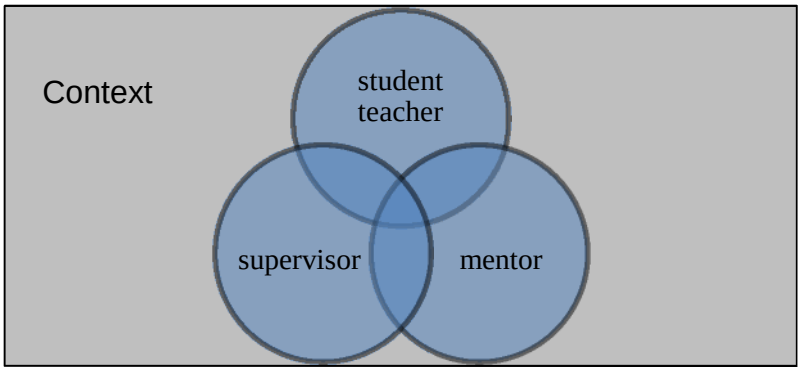
So far, I have explained the reasons for choosing case study as a research method and I defined 'the case' in my research design. The next step is to determine the main sources of information in the study. Yin (2009, p. 32) expresses the importance and logic of this process as follows:

> Once the general definition of the case has been established, other clarifications in the unit of analysis become important. If the unit of analysis is a small group, for instance, the persons to be included within the group (immediate topic of the case study) must be distinguished from those who are outside it (the context for the study).

As I have explained in the literature review, I took a sociocultural perspective to understand student teacher learning during the practicum. So doing, I assumed that any learning would be affected by the physical and social contexts in which the practicum takes place. Therefore I was particularly interested in how student teacher learning is influenced by the context and the relationships during the practicum.

As I mentioned in Chapter 2, the practicum in this context is defined as a faculty of education – practice school cooperation (YÖK, 2007). Within this framework, the participants who are involved in direct interactions with student teachers were university-based supervisors and school-based mentors. Therefore, the units of analysis for the cases were designed to include mainly the interactions between student teacher, university-based supervisor and school-based mentor which will be referred to as 'supervision triad' hereafter. The relationships among the participants are illustrated in Figure 4.1**.**

Figure 4.1 Supervision triad as the unit of analysis



The multiple case study set out to involve six embedded units of analysis like the one illustrated above. The number of cases required in multiple case studies is a problematic issue in the research methods literature. Going beyond the case study design, Patton (2002, p. 244) argues that "(t)here are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what's at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with available time and resources". From the outset, I decided to involve six cases considering various factors such as the feasibility of the research study within the suggested timeline for a PhD project and possible dropouts of the participants. I aimed to keep the number of the cases high enough to explore variety in experiences in the cross-case analysis and low enough to enable in-depth understanding of the complexity within a single case. As I anticipated, one of the cases had to be excluded during the fieldwork due to inactivity because the student teacher who was placed in a private school was never allowed to teach during the practicum. Therefore, the number of cases presented in this thesis is five.

Once the unit of analysis and the number of the cases were defined, the next decision was the selection and recruitment of the participants. Mabry (2008, p. 223) explains sampling issues is case studies as follows:

> The basis for making selections of cases and human subjects is consequently purposeful or *purposive*, since random selection might easily fail to yield the most informative sites or samples of human subjects, skewing findings because of sampling bias.

The selection of participants in this research project was based on purposive sampling. The purpose was to reach maximum variation (Patton, 2002; Seidman, 2006) in the given context. I aimed at recruiting supervision triads which consisted of entirely different people to understand whether different social actors have different influences on student teacher learning. In doing so, I aimed at reaching maximum richness and diversity within six cases. Patton (2002) describes maximum variation as a purposeful heterogeneity sampling and explains the logic as follows:

> Any common patterns that emerge from great variation are of particular interest and value in capturing the core experiences and central, shared dimensions of a setting or phenomenon (p. 235).

Particularly for case study designs, according to Flyvbjerg (2006, p. 230), the purpose of maximum variation cases is “to obtain information about the significance of various circumstances for case process and outcome”. Likewise, I was not only interested in fine details of each particular case, but also interested in the shared themes across them.

Considering both the fastest way to come up with a supervision triad and the implicit hierarchical order in Turkish culture, I first approached the university-based supervisors. In that semester, seven teacher educators at the teacher education programme took the role of supervision for the practicum and each had 10 to 20 student teachers to supervise. When a supervisor gave consent to participate in the research, I asked them to introduce me and my research project to the student teachers they supervised. In order to do that I was often invited to the first visit to the practice school. When a student teacher agreed to take part in the research, I identified their cooperating teacher at the practice school and finally approached the cooperating teacher to introduce my study and to invite them to participate in the project.

As soon as the participants in the cases were identified, the data generation process started. The biographic information of the participants will be presented along with the findings in the Chapters 5 and 6. In the following section, I explain the types of data generation strategies I used for this study.

4.4.2 Data generation

The fieldwork of the study took place during the spring semester of 2014. During the fieldwork, I benefited from the flexibility of the case study design by adopting multiple data generation strategies to seek answers to my research questions. As can be seen in Table 4.1 below, throughout the study, the main data generation tools I used were observations, interviews and documents.

4.4.2.1 Observations

As Duff (2008, p. 138) maintains “observational work can help researchers understand the physical, social/cultural, and linguistic contexts in which language is used, and also collect relevant linguistic and interactional data for later analysis”. During the fieldwork, I used three different types of observation. Regardless of the type they could all be defined as naturalist, unstructured, non-participant observations (Borg, 2006; Dörnyei, 2007; Duff, 2008). In other words, I observed the participants while they were engaged in their daily activities without any structured criteria to observe and avoiding intrusion. However, again as Duff (2008, p. 138) highlights I was aware that “the researcher inevitably becomes an unofficial participant in the speech event by her mere presence” and exerts influence on the natural setting. This influence is often explained as the observer’s paradox which accounts for the participants unnatural behaviours in the presence of an observer (Humphries & Gebhard, 2012). Despite this limitation, observation is a fundamental research tool in providing access to rich and contextualised data that complements self-reported accounts. In the following sub-sections I will explain the three types of observation I employed during the fieldwork.

Table 4.1 Data generation timeline

Stage	Research Tools	Source	Number	Focus
Initial interviews (January)	Documentation	Official practicum guideline	1	To gather relevant contextual information about the practicum design
	Preliminary semi-structured interviews	University-based Supervisors and School-based Mentors	10	Professional biography and the role in the practicum
	Preliminary semi-structured interviews	Student teachers	5	Professional biography and baseline data (experiences and thoughts about teaching and learning a foreign language)
During the Practicum (February – June)	Classroom observation & VSR interview pattern	Student teachers (two to three times for each student teacher)	12 observation 12 VSR interview	-Changes in student teachers' cognitions and practices -Evaluation of the factors hindering or supporting learning during the practicum
	Feedback session observation	Student teachers, University-based Supervisors and School-based Mentors	4	-Evaluation of the factors hindering or supporting learning during the practicum
	Documentation	Researcher fieldnotes	39 entries	Providing contextual details
After the practicum (June)	Documentation	Student teacher portfolios	5	-Changes in student teachers' cognitions and practices -Evaluation of the factors hindering or supporting learning during the practicum

4.4.2.1.1 Classroom observation

I used classroom observation as a complementary tool for the stimulated recall interviews. Gass and Mackey (2000, p. 17) describe stimulated recall as an introspective method which can be “used to prompt participants to recall thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event.” Referring to language teacher cognition research, Borg (2006, p. 219) states that stimulated recall is used “as the basis of concrete discussions of what the teachers were doing, their interpretations of the events represented in the stimuli and of their reasons for the instructional decisions they were taking”. In the same vein, I used video recorded classroom observations as direct evidence of student teachers’ teaching practices and as stimuli for the stimulated recall activities.

When a student teacher planned a lesson to teach at a practice school, s/he invited me for observation as we agreed at the beginning of the semester. Before the fieldwork, I planned to have three classroom observations for each student teacher. However, during the fieldwork I was able to conduct three observations with only two student teachers, and two observations with the rest since often they were not given access to classroom teaching as I anticipated. In total I conducted twelve classroom observations all of which were video recorded with the consent of the participants.

For each observation, I took a seat at the back of the classroom and placed the video recording device facing the blackboard and the teacher with the widest possible angle to capture the classroom setting. The video records of classroom observations were not transcribed. They were used as stimuli during the stimulated recall interviews. However, I re-constructed lesson vignettes based on these classroom observations and cited from these vignettes in the case study findings to provide further contextual insights to the readers.

4.4.2.1.2 Feedback session observation

I also observed the feedback sessions of the student teachers with their cooperating teachers and supervisors. These observations were not pre-planned. I only had access to these sessions when I happened to be present in

the context, most often straight after the assessed lesson of the student teachers. I observed four feedback sessions in total. These sessions were audio recorded with the permission of the participants and were transcribed.

4.4.2.1.3 Field observation

Apart from the activity-based observations I explained above, I also observed the whole practicum context during my prolonged involvement in the field. I tried to be attentive to any detail I could notice. I observed the interactions of the cooperating teachers and the student teachers out of the classroom, in the teachers' room; I also observed the student teachers while they were interacting with the pupils during the lesson breaks. I kept record of my field observations in the form of researcher field notes which will be mentioned again in section 4.4.2.4.

4.4.2.2 Interviews

Interviews are commonly used in qualitative research. Kvale (1996, p. 105) states that "interviews are particularly suited for studying people's understanding of the meanings in their lived world, describing their experiences and self-understanding, and clarifying and elaborating their own perspective on their lived world". In relation to language teacher cognition research, Borg (2006) recommends semi-structured or non-structured interviews for interpretative research as they have greater potential to provide deeper and more natural conversation. Comparing various structural options in conducting interviews Borg (2006, p. 190) defines semi-structured interview as "directed by a set of general themes, rather than specific questions, and researchers have a great deal of flexibility in the manner in which they encourage the interviewee to talk about these themes". During the fieldwork, I conducted two different types of interviews.

4.4.2.2.1 Preliminary semi-structured interviews

Preliminary semi-structured interviews are the first interviews I had with each participant. These interviews aimed at building trust and rapport, and collecting baseline biographic data about the participants, their thoughts and experiences about learning and teaching a foreign language. I asked a few questions about

their professional background (education, teaching/supervising/mentoring experience, role in the practicum etc.) to create participant profiles. The interview questions for student teachers, supervisors and cooperating teachers can be seen at Appendix IV, V and VI respectively. The interviews were conducted in a conversational manner and I did not follow the sequence of questions as they are listed.

I did fifteen preliminary interviews. They were all audio recorded with the consent of the participant. The interviews took place either at the university or in the practice school. Given that Turkish was the mother tongue of all the participants and the researcher, the participants were given the choice of doing the interview either in English or in Turkish. All five cooperating teachers, two supervisors and one student teacher chose to conduct the interview in Turkish. All the interviews were transcribed in the original language.

4.4.2.2.2 Video Stimulated Recall (VSR) Interviews

Stimulated recall interviews are often categorised among retrospective research tools to tap into the participants cognitions while they are prompted to re-live a previous experience by a stimulus (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Ryan & Gass, 2012). However, the logic behind the use of VSR in this study was consistent with the interpretation of Borg (2015, p. 493):

> This strategy provides a concrete context for the elicitation of teacher beliefs and ensures that these are grounded in actual observed events rather than abstractions. While it is sometimes assumed that VSR can retrospectively capture the thinking that teachers were engaged in during the videotaped events, this is debateable; stimulated recall is best conceived of as an elicitational strategy for enabling teachers to talk, in concrete and situated ways, about the beliefs (and other factors) that underpin their teaching.

In this study, the observed and video recorded classroom practices of the student teachers were used as stimulus for the VSR interviews. I watched the video recorded lesson carefully before the VSR interview in order to find out whether the student teachers' teaching practices were consistent with their stated cognitions in our earlier interview(s). I made note of any conflict I noticed between their stated cognitions and teaching practices considering that might signal a change in the kind of teacher learning. I asked questions regarding

those moments only if the student teacher did not refer to them while they were watching the video with me. The VSR interviews were semi-structured. At the beginning of each interview I asked the student teacher to update me about her/his latest practicum experiences. Then we watched the lesson video together. I asked the student teachers to stop the video when they want to talk about certain teaching practices or decisions they made while teaching. The VSR interviews were audio recorded with the participants' permission. When the student teachers commented on the video, I stopped the video and articulated the timing on the video clip to be saved in the audio record for maintaining the link between the two files. When student teachers did not comment on the video, I prompted them by asking questions about the conflict moments I mentioned above.

I completed twelve VSR interviews with five student teachers. I paid special attention to conduct the interview as soon as possible after the classroom observation. Two of the interviews were conducted on the same day of the observation, six of them were done on the next day, two of them were done after two days, and two of them were done within a week. The interviews took approximately one hour. The audio recorded interviews were then transcribed.

4.4.2.3 Documentation

Patton (2002, p. 307) argues that document analysis "provides a behind-the-scenes look at the program that may not be directly observable and about which the interviewer might not ask appropriate questions without the leads provided through the documents" and notes that when combined with observations and interviews, each data generation tool compensates for the weaknesses and limitations of the other. As part of this research project, I collected and also generated several forms of documentation during the practicum.

4.4.2.3.1 Official guidelines

I located the official guidelines regarding the practicum on the government web pages before the practicum. To start with they helped me to understand the logic of the design of the practicum in the Turkish national context and informed my initial interviews with the participants. During the fieldwork, I observed many

deviations from the official guidelines which helped me to locate the breaking points for the communication channels between institutions and incongruence of the official guidelines to the realities of those institutions.

4.4.2.3.2 Student teacher portfolios

I also had the opportunity to get a copy of the portfolios the student teachers submitted to their supervisors at the end of the practicum. These portfolios consisted of the plans of the lesson they taught, sometimes some materials they used and their reflections on the practicum experience. These portfolios were assessed and the grade given by the supervisor for the portfolio informed the final practicum grade along with their assessed lesson. I saved and linked the student teacher portfolios to their data file in Nvivo to be analysed along with their interviews.

4.4.2.4 Researcher field notes

During the field work, I tried to record any additional data that I noticed and thought relevant. I made notes of my experiences, questions, and reflections before, during and after the actual data generation sessions. I also recorded the date, time, and setting details of those data generation sessions. I had thirty-nine entries by the end of the fieldwork. I saved these field notes as ‘memos’ on Nvivo and linked them to the relevant data file.

4.4.3 Pilot study

Nunan (1992a, pp. 151-152) states that “it is important for all elicitation instruments to be thoroughly piloted before being used for research”. I conducted a pilot study for interviews to assess the clarity of interview questions, the extent to which the questions elicit relevant data, and my own interviewing skills. Two student teachers and a university-based supervisor participated in the pilot study. The student teachers were senior students at the department where the main research study was done. The interviews were done one week after they completed their practicum module. The interviews were done on Skype, recorded with permission of the student teachers and then transcribed. On the other hand, the university-based supervisor was purposefully chosen from another state university in Turkey as the supervisors

at the university where the main study would take place would participate in the main study. The university-based supervisor participant preferred answering the questions via e-mail as we could not arrange an online interview due to technical problems. Therefore, the pilot interview with the university-based supervisor did not help me assess my interviewing skills but gave me feedback on the clarity of the questions.

The main issues that emerged from the pilot study are listed below:

- My interview questions proved to be clear and generate a sufficient volume of relevant data.
- I noticed that one participant had a tendency to give much more details about the events and experiences than the other. When the interviewee did not provide enough information, I had to ask for clarification or more detail. On the other hand, when the interviewee dwelled on an issue or digressed, I had to interrupt politely to focus on the relevant subjects. I became aware that sometimes I might need to use prompts to get more information and at other times I might need strategies to keep the respondent on topic.
- I also learnt that transcribing is time consuming. As I was planning to analyse the data along with data generation process to inform the next set of interviews during the fieldwork, I realized I would need software support to enable faster transcription.

4.4.4 Data storage and transcription

For confidentiality reasons, all the data gathered during the fieldwork was saved on the M:\ (Home Directory) and N:\ (Shared Area) drives at the University of Leeds cloud as agreed with AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee at the University of Leeds. For organisational purposes, I stored and organised all the data of my research project using QSR Nvivo 10. Nvivo allowed relevant sources to be linked to each other electronically which increased efficiency in accessing the data throughout the study.

In order to prepare the data for analysis, I decided to transcribe the audio recorded interviews and feedback sessions. For transcribing the data, I used

Express Scribe Pro Transcription Software accompanied with Infinity USB Foot Control device. As classroom observation was used as a supplementary tool for stimulated recall interviews, I did not transcribe the video recorded classroom interaction. Instead, I watched the videos many times and wrote a vignette of each lesson to provide rich contextual background for the readers along with interview data in the case reports.

As mentioned earlier, the interviews were conducted both in Turkish and English. At the transcription stage, the data was kept in the original language in order to avoid meaning loss during the analysis stage. It was only at the reporting stage that the data that was in Turkish and was to be directly quoted in the report was translated to English.

In total, I transcribed 15 preliminary semi-structured interviews, 12 VSR interviews, 4 feedback session records, and I also wrote lesson vignettes for 12 observed lessons. The transcription was done in an interview script format, with punctuation to make it easy to read and with explanations of some non-verbal cues or translations in square brackets […]. All transcriptions were linked to the original media and stored in Nvivo (see Appendix VII for transcription conventions and a sample interview transcript).

Transcription was a long and painstaking but equally a rewarding process. Mann (2016, p. 205) lists the benefits of producing transcripts mentioned in the literature as follows: “prompting initial analysis, encouraging close attention, noticing the ‘small things’, considering what is said and what is not said, ensuring reliability and transparency, offering to the interviewee for validation purposes, inducing further comments and revisiting the data at a later date”. Likewise, I benefited from transcribing in getting familiar with the data and developing my preliminary ideas about the possible themes across the cases. Therefore, although the data analysis started along with the data generation informally, transcription marked the beginning of the formal data analysis process. In the next section, I will explain the details of the data analysis process.

4.5 Data analysis and presentation of findings

The data generated during this study was analysed qualitatively. Although there is no single path or recipe for qualitative data analysis, Duff (2008, p. 159) states that “qualitative case studies are increasingly associated with *iterative*, *cyclical*, or *inductive* data analysis, terms that are interrelated”. In this study, data analysis was iterative and cyclical since each analysis step informed the following data generation. It was also inductive since I derived the themes from the data rather than defining them in advance. According to Patton (2002, p. 56) “[t]he strategy of inductive designs is to allow the important analysis dimensions to emerge from patterns found in the cases under study without presupposing in advance what the important dimensions will be”. Similarly, for the presented qualitative multiple-case study design, data analysis was initially guided by the research questions that I posed. Later decisions about data analysis were made formatively, once the data generation began. As I begin to develop an understanding of the data, I also started thinking how best I could approach the analysis and present it to the reader.

In relation to the first research question, I investigated student teacher learning during the practicum. In order to answer this question I decided to employ a longitudinal methodology to capture the ongoing changes in student teachers’ cognitions and practices. Following the student teachers during the practicum also shed light on the major factors hindering and supporting their learning which partly answered the second research question. However, it was the interviews with the cooperating teachers and the supervisors which provided deeper insights for understanding the underlying reasons behind those factors. Therefore I divided the data in two sets according to the sources: on the one hand was the data of the student teachers and on the other hand was the data of the cooperating teachers and supervisors. I analysed and presented these two data sets differently and separately but also aimed to maintain the links between them. This had two major advantages: first, it helped me reduce the scale of data set to manageable proportions, and secondly it also helped to present the findings in a more comprehensible form with minimum data reduction. For the first data set of student teachers I used a combination of narrative analysis and thematic analysis, and for the second data set I only

used thematic analysis. I will describe these data analysis procedures respectively.

4.5.1 Narrative inquiry

As I have noted earlier, my purpose behind choosing case study design for this research study was to facilitate the investigation of student teacher learning longitudinally and in its natural context. In doing so, I was more interested in the process of the practicum than the outcomes. Therefore, during the analysis I aimed to keep the data in the form of meaningful lived experiences captured in its context. Having that in mind while approaching the student teachers' practicum experiences, I had to eliminate some widely used qualitative analysis methods such as content, thematic and template analysis which would require me to decontextualize the data to a certain extent, to categorise it into patterns and to summarise the findings. In his counter argument against criticisms for case studies for they do not provide summarizable and generalizable outcomes, Flyvbjerg (2006) maintained:

> It is correct that summarizing case studies is often difficult, especially as concerns case process. It is less correct as regards case outcomes. The problems in summarizing case studies, however, are due more often to the properties of the reality studied than to the case study as a research method. Often it is not desirable to summarize and generalize case studies. Good studies should be read as narratives in their entirety. (p. 241)

For these reasons, I decided keep the data in the form of narratives for both analysis and presentation purposes because it was the narrative itself that was answering my research question (Benson, 2013). In the research literature, the data analysis method corresponding my purposes was narrative inquiry. In simplest terms, Barkhuizen (2015) defines narrative inquiry as follows:

> Experiences become narratives when we tell them to an audience and the narratives become part of narrative inquiry when they are investigated for research purposes (pp. 169-170)

De Fina and Georgakopoulou (2012, p. 19) describe narrative inquiry as "a particular way of constructing knowledge". Connelly and Clandinin (2006, p. 477) refer to it as "the study of experience as a story". 'Story' here, does not suggest stories in the literary meaning, it rather stands for a cohesive line of lived experiences that are told in reference to time, place and characters which provides exceptional richness in terms of contextualising the data. Riessman

(2008, p. 105) similarly uses the metaphor of ‘story’ to describe narratives and highlights the significance of context by asserting that “stories don’t fall from the sky (or emerge from the innermost “self”); they are composed and received in contexts – interactional, historical, institutional, and discursive – to name a few.” Therefore, in this study, the context was key to understand, interpret and present the statements and performances of the student teachers as evidence for learning. Apart from the power of contextualisation, Bell (2002, p. 209) lists three major advantages of narrative inquiry in his own research into L2 literacy:

- Narrative allows researchers to understand experience.
- Narrative lets researchers get at information that people do not consciously know themselves.
- Narrative illuminates the temporal notion of experience, recognizing that one’s understanding of people and events changes.

To conduct narrative inquiry in this study, as the researcher, I re-constructed the lived experiences of the student teachers by merging all the different forms of data generated simultaneously and then unifying all these sequenced data in the chronological order in order to capture the entirety of the experience. I analysed the cases one by one. For each case, I approached the data chronologically and made direct links between the events, context and people. I structured the data presentation based on the same thinking. While writing separate case reports, I started with the biographical information of the participants, then reported the preliminary interview findings to set the background for the cognitions of the participants. Then I inserted the vignette of the lesson taught by the student teacher which formed the basis of our VSR interview. The interview findings were then reported within this context. I referred to long rich extracts from interview data, and some data from feedback sessions and student teacher portfolios to provide the reader maximum closeness to the lived experience of the student teacher. As Riessman (2008, p. 112) maintains “using direct (often called reported or reconstructed) speech builds credibility and pulls the listener into the narrated moment”. The findings regarding student teacher learning during the practicum are presented at Chapter 5 (Sections 1-5 for each case). However, I also wanted to see the shared experiences, commonalities among the student teachers’ experiences. For that, I conducted a separate method of analysis, thematic analysis, which will be explained in the next sub-section.

4.5.2 Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis is a method for identifying and categorising the patterns in qualitative data. In this study, I used thematic analysis on two occasions: first, for the dataset of student teachers to conduct cross-case analysis (findings of which are presented in Section 5.7); and secondly, for the dataset of the accounts of cooperating teachers and the supervisors (findings of which are presented in Chapter 6). In both occasions, in order to structure my thematic analysis I followed the six steps suggested by Braun & Clarke (2006, p. 87):

1) *Familiarising yourself with your data*: This stage started with the generation and the transcription of the data. During the fieldwork and while doing the transcriptions I took notes of my initial thoughts of the data, and preliminary ideas about the potential themes. I saved and organised all the data on an Nvivo project. It was also at this step that I decided to divide the data corpus into two datasets.
2) *Generating initial codes*: In my early readings of the data, the coding I did was more on the semantic level. In other words, I was inclined to code the semantic units explicitly articulated by the participants. For instance, when a student teacher talked about the problems s/he faced regarding classroom management, I coded this as 'classroom management'.
3) *Searching for themes*: Once I had coded all the dataset, I zoomed out from the data to see the potential themes across my codes.
4) *Reviewing themes*: I started the second round of coding with the reference list of themes generated in the first round. Some themes were collated at this step, some were excluded for not being relevant any more. Up to that stage, I did all the coding manually on the printed copies of the transcribed texts by underlining the texts with coloured markers and making notes on the sides of the papers. My coding at this stage was more on the latent level. According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 84),

> latent level goes beyond the semantic content of the data, and starts to identify or examine the *underlying* ideas, assumptions, and conceptualisations –and ideologies- that are theorised as shaping or informing the semantic content of the data.

Likewise, I started to make meanings of the data which were beyond what was said. I also started merging some relevant themes or started creating umbrella themes for relevant ones. For instance, ‘classroom management’ theme was included in an umbrella theme called ‘classroom mechanics’.

5) *Defining and naming themes*: I did the third round of coding electronically on the Nvivo project. At this step, I transferred all the codes done manually to the electronic project using the themes as nodes. Nvivo enabled me to retrieve all the coded text with the same theme (node) more efficiently.
6) *Producing the report*: I kept reading the transcriptions over and over again. My analysis and interpretation process was going on while producing the findings reports, even while writing the discussions. For example, the umbrella theme called ‘classroom mechanics’ was changed into ‘basic instructional skills’ for added clarity of meaning at this stage.

In brief, this sub-section explained the process of and approaches to data analysis taken in this research study. During the data analysis, I employed rigorous procedures to ensure the trustworthiness and ethics of the study which I will elaborate on in the following two sections.

4.6 Trustworthiness

Traditionally, in a positivist paradigm, the quality of a research study has been measured by validity, reliability and generalisability of the findings. However, these concepts are not completely compatible with social constructionist epistemology due to the conflicting assumptions they make about the nature of truth and reality. As an alternative measure for naturalistic research studies, Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed the concept of trustworthiness to be assessed by four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability as alternatives to internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity respectively. Richards (2003) summarises these concepts as follows:

> *Credibility* [internal validity] depends on evidence of long-term exposure to the context being studied and the adequacy of data collected (use of different methods, etc.)
>
> *Transferability* [external validity] depends on a richness of description and interpretation that makes a particular case interesting and relevant to those in other situations.
>
> Dependability [reliability] and confirmability [objectivity] are to be assessed in terms of the documentation of research design, data, analysis, reflection, and so on, so that the researcher's decisions are open to others. (p.286)

As K. Richards (2003, p. 284) notes, "as with so much else in qualitative inquiry, the waters are muddied by the confluence of positivist concepts and naturalistic concerns", and there is not yet a consensus among qualitative methodologists for a set of criteria to judge the rigor and worth of qualitative research studies (Rolfe, 2006). In this study, I have employed various measures to ensure the trustworthiness of the research process and the findings.

I addressed the credibility criterion via prolonged engagement in the field and triangulation of data sources. (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). I used triangulation to clarify meanings across data sources and to add variety to the data. Patton (2002, p. 546) supports this position by stating that "(s)ocial construction, constructivist, and "interpretivist" perspectives …triangulate to capture and report multiple perspective rather than seek a singular truth". Therefore, for instance, in order to investigate the relationships and cooperation between triad members I asked for the perspectives of student teachers, mentors and supervisors on the same instances to triangulate the sources of data. Moreover, I conducted observations, stimulated recall interviews, and collected documents such as portfolios to triangulate the data generation tools.

In relation to transferability, I provided thick descriptions of the context, direct excerpts from the data and transparency in the methodologic processes employed during the research process. I also adopted a reflexive and reflective approach at each stage of the study. Wellington (2000, p. 42) defines reflexivity as "reflecting on the self, the researcher, the person who did it, the me or the I". I tried to keep an eye on the impact of my 'self' as the researcher on the decisions made in relation to the research study, on the relationships I built

during the fieldwork, on my interpretations of what I have heard and saw in the fieldwork. I tried to monitor the implications of my subjective involvement at each stage of the study, from posing the research questions to preparing the final draft of this thesis. I explicitly positioned myself in my narrative throughout the thesis so as to inform the readers of how my identity, perspective, assumptions, thinking processes affected my decisions and interpretations.

4.7 Ethical considerations

Throughout the research study I committed to professional integrity and ethical practice. Kubanyiova (2008) distinguishes between macro ethics and micro ethics in research practice. She defines former as the procedural and often institutional guidelines for ethics, and the latter as “on-the-spot decisions and actions of the researcher in relation to the research participants that warrants a consideration of ethics that is situated rather than general and abstract” (Kubanyiova, 2008, p. 506).

In terms of macro ethics, the proposed research was reviewed by three different institutional ethical review boards to gain access to the field. It was first reviewed by the University of Leeds Research Ethics Committee and approved (see Appendix VIII). Then in order to gain access to the field, it was also reviewed and approved by the Faculty of Education at the university where the student teacher education and supervision took place and by the Provincial Directorate for National Education in the region where the practice schools were located.

After gaining access to the field, I paid attention to comply with the micro ethics of the specific context of my study. I approached the participants that I hoped to involve in the research study as explained in Section 4.4.1. The participants were provided with an informed consent form (see Appendix IX) which explains the aims of the research study, and the activities the participants were invited to engage in. The informed consent form was prepared in two formats: as a printed hard copy to be handed to the participants and as an online document, in order to give enough time to participants and to reduce the pressure to respond without thinking. The form also included contact information of the researcher for questions from the participants. However, all of the participants

agreed to participate on our first encounter and preferred to give consent on the hard copy format.

Participation was completely voluntary and the participants were allowed to withdraw at any stage of the study without giving a reason. There were not any disadvantages or risks of participating in this research study for the participants except the use of their time, and the researcher was highly attentive to the efficient use of time. Although I was not able to promise to provide immediate benefits with the participants, it was hoped that their participation would help them reflect on their experiences during the practicum and contribute to their professional development. Such contributions were acknowledged especially by the student teachers throughout the study.

The gathered data was kept strictly confidential and was used only for research purposes. Only I, as the researcher, had access to the raw data and I shared the data reports only with my supervisors during the research process.

The raw data was anonymised by replacing the names of the participants with pseudonyms and was kept safe from unauthorised access. Anonymising the names of the institutions was negotiated during the review processes. Although the institutions gave permission for the use the original names of the institutions in research reports, I decided to keep them anonymous to protect the anonymity of the individual participants. Anonymization of the participants might be inadequate in case studies to provide confidentiality due to the extensive details about the individual (Duff, 2008; Guenther, 2009). Duff (2008, p. 59) further notes "…researchers may sometimes change or withhold information that might compromise the confidentiality of the case in order to honor agreements about participants' right to privacy." Therefore, when necessary, I protected the privacy of the participants by omitting or changing some minor details about the participants. I showed ultimate attention to wellbeing, safety and privacy of the participants at each stage of the study.

4.8 Conclusions

Having explained 'why' further investigation into EFL student teacher learning during the practicum is needed in the literature review chapter, in this chapter I

attempted to explain ‘how’ I will set about such investigation. To this end, I have formulated my research questions and outlined the design and methodology of my research study. In the following two chapters, I will report the findings of the study with reference to the research questions.

Chapter 5. Learning to teach during the practicum: five cases

5.1 Introduction

In order to understand the nature of student teacher learning and the factors facilitating or impeding such learning during the practicum, I have conducted five case studies of student teachers. The findings presented in this chapter draw on the data gathered from different sources at different stages during the practicum. The table below summarizes the types, sources and quantities of the data and indicates the codes with which the specific data sets will be referenced throughout the chapter.

Table 5.1 Description of the data

Type of Data	Data Source	Quantity	Codes
Initial interviews (audio recorded and transcribed)	Student Teacher	5	Ceren: CI Defne: DI Erdem: EI Oylum: OI Zeynep: ZI
Classroom observations (video recorded)	Student teacher	12	Ceren: CO1, CO2* Defne: DO1, DO2, DO3 Erdem: EO1, EO2 Oylum: OO1, OO2, OO3 Zeynep: ZO1, ZO2
Post-observation interview (audio recorded and transcribed)	Student Teacher	12	Ceren: CPO1, CPO2* Defne: DPO1, DPO2, DPO3 Erdem: EPO1, EPO2 Oylum: OPO1, OPO2, OPO3 Zeynep: ZPO1, ZPO2
Feedback session (audio recorded and transcribed)	Student Teacher + Supervisor (+ Cooperating teacher/Peer)	4	Ceren: CF Erdem: EF Oylum: OF Zeynep: ZF
Portfolio	Student Teacher	5	Ceren: CP Defne: DP Erdem: EP Oylum: OP Zeynep: ZP

*Numbers represent chronologic order.
Note: Throughout the text, the suffix "*t*" when attached to the above codes, indicates that the relevant quotation has been translated from Turkish to English (i.e. ZI*t*).

The chapter includes six sections: five sections for five individual accounts of case studies and a sixth section summarising the common elements across the cases and the identifiable emerging themes. Since the data for the cases were gathered synchronically, the cases are presented in alphabetic order of the participants' pseudonyms for organisational purposes. Each case section is then structured fairly similarly following the chronological order of events. As the variation of the number of pages devoted to each case study section implies, the data gathered and analysed for each case was not equally meaty. There were two reasons for this. First of all, the type and amount of data gathered through the interviews, especially the stimulated-recall interviews was dependent on the participants' forwardness in verbalizing their cognitions and practices and this varied by the participant. Secondly, the cases did not contain the same amount of data sets. During the fieldwork, I was aiming at observing classroom practice of each student teacher at least three times and following those conducting at least three post-observation interviews during the semester. However, this plan could not be realised with three student teachers either because they did not have access to teaching more than twice or their teaching was planned on the spot and did not allow enough time for them to invite me as a researcher to their classrooms.

The first five sections present the individual case findings. Each section starts with a brief introduction of the student teacher and the other people involved in her/his practicum experience such as the supervisor, the cooperating teacher, and the peer student teacher(s). Then the story of the student teacher's practicum experience is told in a chronological order in order to elicit changes in the stated cognitions and the teaching practices during the practicum. Each lesson taught by the student teachers is summarized based on the classroom observation by the researcher in the format of a vignette to give a vivid picture of the classroom events and contextualise the following data from the post-observation interviews. Data from the feedback sessions and portfolios are also utilized in order to represent the whole practicum experience of the student teachers.

5.2 Ceren: “Only he enjoys it, no one else in the classroom does”

Ceren was a female student teacher at the English language teacher education programme. Prior to the practicum, she did not have any formal teaching experience. As her unique teaching experience, she recalled tutoring a younger student for his English language exam when she was a high school student. For the practicum she was placed in a 9th grade class in a state high school. During the practicum she went to the practice school three times with her peer, Figen and each time they attended two consecutive English lessons. Her first visit was for observation. On the second visit she taught two lessons and was observed by her cooperating teacher, her peer and the researcher. She taught one lesson after her peer on the third visit and was observed by the researcher, the supervisor, her peer and the cooperating teacher. She said she was not able to attend on the other weeks as there were holidays on that day and once she was absent due to personal reasons.

Ayhan was Ceren’s cooperating teacher at the practice school and Tolga was her supervisor at the teacher education programme. With a BA degree in English language teaching, Ayhan had seventeen years of teaching experience in state schools and seven years’ experience in mentoring student teachers. During that term he was teaching around twenty five hours a week and mentoring two student teachers. Like the other cooperating teachers, he had not received any training for his role as a cooperating teacher. Tolga, on the other hand, had BA and MA degrees in English language teaching. He had been teaching student teachers for six years and supervising practicum for four years. That semester he was teaching fourteen hours per week at the university and supervising seventeen student teachers for the practicum module in two different practice schools. Similarly, he had not received any training for his role as a supervisor.

During our initial interview, Ceren articulated her understanding of teacher’s role as a guide to stimulate communication among the pupils in English. Her understanding seemed to emerge from the methodology courses she had taken at the university as she followed up explaining:

> For example while we are teaching something… Actually I don't even want to use the word 'teaching', not 'teaching', 'to be guide'! That's the point for me. […] You know while I was in high school, primary school, they just give us guided practice, a bit grammar and just prescriptive text you know and I saw something can be different [at the university] – in the name of interaction, communicative language I mean. When I saw that and I like searching really. I really like searching and when I saw that I can do something and my students can talk and I can be guide for them. (CI)

However, when I asked her about her attainment from the teacher education programme, she evaluated her overall experience as fruitless in terms of preparing her for teaching.

> Actually, I didn't learn so much thing. Really, right now I am honest. Maybe because of my teachers, maybe because of me. I don't know the exact reason but when I am looking for example now, I will finish the class but I cannot see so much thing on my background. (CI)

She criticized the teacher education programme in terms of loading too much theory without displaying any practical applications and she admitted that she would try to compensate this during the practicum by watching sample classroom videos on YouTube:

> For example now I went to the school and I am the teacher right now, for example. Honestly I will watch some videos, funny videos for example, how funny teaching for example. […] sometimes I am getting angry with my teachers, 'why didn't you say us something like …' because it's so easy, I just go YouTube, TPR and lots of things, lots of teaching methods and how they are… They [teachers at the university] just tell us 'OK, TPR, that's TPR' for example, but not in practice. […] For example for approaches and methods, I spent two years but in the theory maybe I know something, but just for my exam. After the exam I forget everything like all students. You know the psychology of a student. But in the practice I don't know anything but after my lessons I searched from videos on how they are doing that and they are perfect! (CI)

As the quotation above suggests, Ceren favoured teaching English with fun activities which was a common concern for the student teachers in the study as we shall see in the following sections. This shared desire to teach with fun activities was often a reaction of the student teachers to their own language learning experience. Another commonality with other student teachers was criticising the traditional grammar translation method used by teachers in the practice schools. Ceren was disappointed by the teaching methods her

cooperating teacher adopted during the school observation module in the first term:

> I really didn't like my teacher. […] She uses grammar translation method. Even when she wrote to the blackboard! For example purple, mor [means purple in Turkish]. Everything finished for me when I saw that. I was even getting bored in the class and I cannot think the students. (CI)

When I asked her expectations from the practicum she complained about the small amount of time and energy she could spend on getting prepared for her practice teaching due to her other commitments like university courses and preparing for the national teacher selection exam. Therefore she minimized her expectations:

> At least I will see the real environment. This is the first thing and the last thing. I don't know why I am so honest today. If I prepare in a good way, it will be good. It is valid for everybody. If I have a plan, at least a corridor planning -and corridor planning is not good for us now because we don't have any experiences. If you have a good plan at least, if you watched something … […] When I go home I will watch some videos, what can I do for high school, for example I will have past tense and I will look activities and I will ask my teachers here [at the university] 'what can I do?' and it is so simple. I will just take my five minutes to watch a video. But I don't know of course, in the process I will see what will happen but honestly now I am studying KPSS [public personnel selection exam], you know and ALES [Academic Postgraduate Education Exam], you know and YDS [Foreign Language exam] and IELTS [International English Language Testing System] and my lessons here… Lots of things actually. […] If I just focus on this project [the practicum], I think it is valid for all the students, it will be better and better because the only thing in our minds will be about how can I teach – not teach, I don't like that word!- how can we guide in the class, how can we supply the interaction in the class. (CI)

This rich quote provides us invaluable insights into Ceren's initial impressions of the practicum. First, it suggests that Ceren is aware of her lack of practical ideas for practice teaching and that she needs to do research and preparation prior to her classes as she does not have the experience to perform improvisational teaching. The quote also suggests that the practicum was least of her worries among the other responsibilities she had in that semester such as the high stakes tests and campus-based university modules which seemed to have priority over the practicum. Therefore, the practicum seemed to be a mere formality she had to perform.

Ceren taught her first lesson on the fifth week of the term. As she expected, she came to her first teaching session without a written lesson plan. Below is the vignette of her first teaching experience in her practice school. I wrote the vignette based on my classroom observation notes to provide reader a vivid picture of the context for the post-observation interview.

1st Lesson Vignette (CO1)

Ceren taught a block of two English lessons as the first lesson on a Monday morning. Ceren, her peer, her cooperating teacher and the researcher walked in the classroom. The researcher sat at the back of the classroom. Ceren and her peer went next to the teacher's desk. The cooperating teacher greeted the class and made an introduction to the lesson by asking the pupils what they did on the weekend. Then he handed over the lesson to the student teachers by saying "Today we have guests. They came last week and this time I am watching you and they are teaching. Are you ready?" A couple of pupils grumbled "No!". Ceren greeted the class. She told the class that she does not know about them much and asked them to introduce themselves with an adjective. The pupils seemed shy to answer. Ceren tried to encourage them telling that it was a safe environment to talk in English, she was once a pupil like them and they should not worry about making mistakes. The cooperating teacher raised his hand like a pupil and said "I am bossy." to initiate pupil participation. The pupils started to give answers. Ceren was continuously giving positive reinforcement by saying "very good!" after each student response. She first picked the pupils who raised their hands, and then she asked everyone in turn. Then she moved on another activity. She introduced a toilet paper roll to the class, picked a pupil from each four rows of desks and asked them to give a piece of toilet paper to each pupil in their row. She asked the pupils to write down an interesting word on their piece of toilet paper. She was speaking in English all the time. The pupils were speaking in Turkish but even when she was asked a question in Turkish she replied in English. While waiting for pupils to write down their words Ceren and her peer –who had been sitting by the teacher's desk so far- walked around the class to help pupils. She picked a student to collect the papers. Once she got the bag, she asked for a volunteer to come to the board, pick a paper and try to tell the word written on the paper with body gestures so that the others would guess it. This game took around twenty minutes. On the last ten minutes of the lesson, she divided the class

into three groups, gave an object to each group and asked them to write a simple story about that object. Forming the groups created a chaos in the classroom which gave the impression that they were not very familiar with group work, and the bell rang before they could start in groups.

Ceren started the second lesson by checking if everyone knows their group and letting pupils give a name to their group. Then pupils came together in groups to work on their stories. Ceren and her peer were visiting groups to monitor their work and to help. The cooperating teacher came to the classroom around ten minutes late. He sat on a front desk and observed the class while they were working in groups. The plan of the activity was to write a story about the objects and then to act the story as a group in front of the class. One of the pupils suggested Ceren that one group member could read the story aloud when the others are acting it. Ceren was impressed by this idea and accepted. Then she came to me (the researcher) to tell that she changed her activity with a suggestion from students and she was happy to get this suggestion. The pupils worked in groups around twenty-five minutes and in the last ten minutes the groups came in front of the class in turn, one of the pupils read the story and the rest acted. After the activity there was a silence in the class and Ceren said “The bell should have rung by now” but there were still two-three minutes to the break. She tried to fill that gap by kind of counselling the pupils and trying to motivate them to speak in English.

Despite her overall positive teaching experience, the time management issue she had at the end of the lesson marked Ceren’s reaction to her lesson during our post observation interview. While watching the video recording of the lesson she was explaining how she struggled in making instant decisions to fill the time:

> I hesitated at that point. “What was I going to do?!” My activities finished and I didn’t know the break time. I mean lots of things were running through my mind. (CPO1*t*)

Frustrated by the timing problem she experienced at the end of her lesson, Ceren regretted not having a lesson plan during our post observation interview:

> [The lesson plan] was in my mind. I know this is really wrong and I certainly do not approve it. This is so wrong, I mean really wrong. Especially I am a very inexperienced person. I should not have done that. […] I might at least have an outline, I did not even have that. This was really … an irresponsible behaviour. (CPO1*t*)

When I asked if there were any specific reason for not having a lesson plan she put forward lack of time as an excuse and she also stated that her confidence in specific techniques deterred her from preparing one.

> My daily life and you know on the other hand I am preparing for the KPSS [public personnel selection exam]. I had multiple tests and I had not been able to study for a while. Then I postponed continuously. Then it was 12 pm and I said to myself at least I better write a draft [lesson plan] but my mind went blank! Recently it happens so often. And then perhaps I trusted in the drama activity. I thought much or less I can do something. Because I think we have received good drama training on the third grade. What's more… Why I didn't prepare a lesson plan… because I gave all the responsibility to the pupils. Even if I had prepared, the pupils would do everything. Moreover I told many times to my friends what I am going to do, how I am going to do. I envisaged it. That's it. (CPO1*t*)

Later during our interview she also expressed that the existence of the cooperating teacher in the classroom let her and her peer plan their lessons more flexible as he could interfere when necessary.

> I thought we could do drama activity in the second lesson and finish it even if the lesson did not finish. We could hand over the class to the teacher again. I thought like that but it didn't happen. I mean the time was sufficient. (CPO1*t*)

She also later mentioned that another reason for not preparing a lesson plan could be the lack of assessment for that specific session. This implies that she did not count her cooperating teacher's observation as assessment.

> Of course I have mistakes, I am an inexperienced person, I went unprepared. That's a big thing. Perhaps I relied on the fact that there would not be anyone to give me a grade! I mean I could have done that, psychology of a student. (CPO1*t*)

Similar to many other student teachers in the study, Ceren was disappointed by the cooperating teacher's taking over the class in her lesson before handing the lesson over to herself:

> I didn't approve that [the cooperating teacher's interference at the beginning of the lesson]. I want to say this. I even told Figen [her peer] at that moment. I said 'if only he didn't do that'. Well, I think it was not necessary. […] We already had met, we could have entered straightaway. Yes, we could have made a start. The kids were like … it was as if we are playing a game. Maybe we are guests and the teacher could have handed over to us directly. Not a big deal but I think it was

> not necessary. I don't think the teacher had bad intentions. Of course he did with good intentions. I think he did to draw the attention to me. Even so, there was no need for that. I will not say anything. Ultimately, the class is not mine. Therefore I respect our teacher, his way of doing things. In the end we managed to hold down the job, and that was the important bit. (CPO1*t*)

Ceren was also disturbed by her peer's interference in her class. Her peer was sitting in teacher's desk most of the time but she helped organizing the groups during the drama activity:

> During the lesson… Honestly I don't like being interfered because it is confusing for the pupils, too. They can't figure out at whom they should concentrate. Therefore we said "I will teach two hours one week, and you will teach the next week." because it really makes it complicated for the pupils to concentrate on someone. But of course she tried to offer help –hoping my lesson will go well. But normally I am against that. When two or three people teach a lesson, that's really bad! (CPO1*t*)

For her, being observed, and especially interference from others impeded the natural flow of the lesson. Lack of reality of the practice teaching and her lack of ownership of the class were recurrent themes during our interview.

> Normally, if I were the teacher really I would do something like that to learn everyone's names because it is really important to learn the pupils' names. (CPO1*t*)

> For example, normally, if it was my own class I would definitely asked them to bring dictionaries. (CPO1*t*)

> My weakness was… I did not know the time. I think certainly I was not able to manage it because before the last two minutes I said "the bell should have rung by now". I was too transparent there; I don't know why I did like that. I tried a bit to fill the time. Like some model teachers I said like "You are very successful, you can speak [in English]" so on. But I made up all [laughs], really I was whistling in the dark. I didn't plan that, I was thinking how I am going to finish that time. Maybe if you weren't there, or the cooperating teacher wasn't there, if there was not anyone [observing] I would have done something in my own way. As it would be more private, it would be one-to-one with the pupils. We could even have talked in Turkish. In order to learn more about them … (CPO1*t*)

As the above excerpts suggest, Ceren's teaching practices were strongly influenced by the superficiality of the teaching practice and her perception of the observers. Despite those, she tried to transfer her beliefs about good teaching into practice during the practicum. Her beliefs about teaching seemed to be rooted either in the teacher education programme, or in her own language

learning history. As part of her teacher education programme, she did a module on German language and she said her experience helped her to understand the psychology of a language learner:

> I am a student, too. I understand everything, what they think, what they have in their minds. I understand their hesitations, fears because I had the same. Believe me, learning German helped me a lot. I mean I did not learn anything but for the first time in my life I understood how a child feels while learning a language. (CPO1*t*)

Although Ceren stated her dissatisfaction of her attainment from the teacher education programme during our initial interview, she referred to her university courses quite frequently while she was explaining the reasons of certain teaching techniques during our stimulated recall interview:

> [on the video she gives instructions for the next activity] We learnt that from our Kerem teacher [a lecturer of the programme]. He said we should give simple and very clear instructions, everything should be clear. I tried to apply that. (CPO1*t*)

> [on the video she picks a student to distribute the lesson handouts to the class] I did that during one of my presentations [micro teaching] and I did again because our teacher liked that. She gave me positive feedback about that. She [the lecturer at the university] said you better not do anything, ask pupils to do everything. (CPO1*t*)

> Here [on the video] I give lots of instant positive feedback. The reason of that is.. I mean the more positive feedback you give on the first lesson, the better it is. It was written in teacher education books for the Principles of Teaching module. They say, give lots of positive feedback at first. But for example I will not give that much feedback in my later lessons or I am not sure as I will not see them every day. But normally, a teacher should give more feedback at first, less the later. Because do you know what will happen? If you give positive feedback to a person all the time, it will eventually become something ordinary. (CPO1*t*)

Later in our conversation it was unfolded that her dissatisfaction of the teacher education programme had actually arisen from the teacher educators who made distinctions between what would work in ideal or real settings. She explained her ambition to apply the methods and techniques she learnt during the programme to the real classrooms with her own interpretation:

> I am trying to succeed in myself. I have a struggle with myself. Because they [unknown] told us that you learn everything like that here [at the university] but when you go to a primary school or a state school, things will not happen in the same way. I am offended with that! I mean, I don’t

> want to believe in this! Some of our teachers… many of our teachers said that. They said we are teaching here like that but it will not work, such and such. I didn't want to believe in that. Here [referring to the video] I have my own fight against that. Like, it does not necessarily be like that… Therefore I have my own struggle with myself. (CPO1*t*)
>
> Our teachers [at the university] always say you can't use drama in a classroom with 30 pupils; there should be maximum ten students so on so forth. This is wrong! Even at a simple level – and mine was not that simple- but the pupils succeeded in it. I mean it is not impossible. (CPO1*t*)

I asked her how she would pursue her desire to teach with her preferred techniques in her own classroom in the future considering her constant distinction between her class and the cooperating teacher's class. She expressed determination to apply communicative teaching methods even under the pressure of strict and exam-oriented design of state school curricula:

> I would keep it [teaching] on the basis of interaction. I mean really, despite everything. Even if the inspector does not approve, I don't care. I would keep it this way. Even if the pupils cannot prepare for the exam, I would do that. I would only not do it in 3rd and 4th grade language classes… I mean I would still base it on interaction but there is a big responsibility [for the students university entrance exam], but the others are not important at all. (CPO1*t*)

She taught her second lesson on the thirteenth week of the term, seven weeks after her first teaching and she did not go to the practice school during that time due to some holidays, exams coinciding the day of the lesson and once she was out of the city. This lesson was her exam lesson to be assessed by her university-based supervisor. She prepared a lesson plan and gave it to her supervisor before the lesson.

2nd Lesson Vignette (CO2)

This was the second part of the two consecutive English lessons. Ceren's peer taught the first lesson, and Ceren took over the class for the second one. Ceren, her peer, the cooperating teacher, the supervisor and the researcher were in the class. The class was going to have a geometry exam after that lesson and some pupils had their geometry book open on their desks. Ceren greeted the class and started the lesson with an icebreaker activity. She asked the pupils to stand up, show their fingers and produce two five-word sentences about their best friends, one positive and one negative

such as “My best friend likes running” and “My best friend isn’t talkative.” The activity took around ten minutes. During the activity some pupils asked English meanings of some Turkish words to the cooperating teacher who was standing up at the back of the classroom. For the next activity, Ceren gave handouts with a reading text, and asked the pupils to read the text silently in five minutes. The number of handouts was less than the number of pupils in the classroom, she asked some pupils to share the handout with a peer. After waiting for five minutes, she asked the main theme of the text. A pupil answered. Then she gave the instruction for the new exercise. She was going to read the text aloud and when she raised her voice pitch while reading a word, the pupils were supposed to underline that word. The text was in present simple tense and she raised her voice pitch while reading the verbs and time expressions in the text. While reading the text she hesitated while reading “7:30 am” in the text and turned to pupils to get answers as if she was checking their knowledge. Then there was another time indicator in the text, 8:30, and she read it as “eight half past” and continued reading. Later again, there was again 8:10 in the text, and she asked pupils “how can I say that?”, a pupil answered. She continued reading and made three more mistakes while reading time indicators by the end. Then she asked the pupils to tell the words that they underlined. A pupil answered. Then she asked them to guess why she asked them to underline those words. A pupil said “daily routines”, she approved. Then she started asking comprehension check questions based on each paragraph. While answering the questions one of the pupils read the time doing the same mistake that she did while reading but she gave positive feedback to the overall answer. Then she distributed new handouts of a word puzzle. She gave five minutes to the pupils to answer the questions and then she asked their answers by picking pupils calling their names. She was continuously checking her watch during the second half of the lesson. After getting all the answers for the puzzle, she summarized the lesson. A couple of pupils asked Ceren if they could study geometry and the number of pupils opening their geometry books were increasing. She allowed the pupils to study for the geometry exam for the last five minutes of the lesson.

For this lesson, the cooperating teacher asked Ceren to teach “present simple tense” as he was falling behind the syllabus. During our interview, she said she felt restricted by his choice of subject and she basically tried to satisfy him instead of doing what she would normally do:

> Let me put it like that: I was satisfied with the first lesson because everything was in the way I like, no one told me to teach this or that. I was pretty happy in the first one. But here, it was as if they put something… I was not satisfied at all. Especially during the while activity, I think I didn't teach much. But anyway I complied with it, better than nothing. What can I say… (CPO2*t*)

> Ayhan teacher [the cooperating teacher] rather liked our teaching. He was fully concentrated, as it was grammar. Only he enjoys it, no one else in the classroom does. We are aware of that. (CPO2*t*)

She was also trying to please the supervisor during the lesson by using techniques he suggested on university lectures despite she was not completely convinced by the rationale behind them:

> [She gave the instruction for the reading text: "read it silently, you have five minutes"] Tolga teacher [the supervisor] wants those, I don't know why. He says "give a time limit". But a friend of mine is in another supervision group and their supervisor advised them not to tell the minutes. I said "Tolga teacher pays attention to them, why?" She said when you give a time limit, the pupil might not finish on time and might result in anxiety. She thinks like that. […] I think time limit should be given, or honestly I am not very sure. We are not totally in the job… but maybe they will take it slow. I mean the faster… reading faster is better. But it may depend on the activity. I don't know. (CPO2*t*)

During her lesson, her focus was on pleasing her observers rather than learning to teach in the way she believed:

> They [the cooperating teacher and the supervisor] liked my teaching but I was not satisfied with it because how I want to teach is not something like that. (CPO2*t*)

> I moved on to the comprehension questions but they [the pupils] still didn't understand. One of the pupils told the words she underlined. I figured out that I messed up mixing everything. And at that moment I was thinking if it is better not to ask the questions. I asked them to do something [underlining the words] but I am asking something else. They were right. I didn't really like that part. […] I moved on to the comprehension questions suddenly, the pupil was right, believe me, was right. I confused them. What's more, I found out that you [general] cannot easily do a job that you don't like. Honestly, I don't like grammar teaching much. It is obvious that I don't take it serious. (CPO2*t*)

I asked her whether her efforts to please her cooperating teacher and supervisor were affected by the assessed nature of this lesson. She noted that she did not take the assessment very seriously as she was quite confident that she would get a pass mark. For her, assessment was only a formality:

> I don’t care [the assessment], I really don’t care. I say to myself “anyhow he will give a pass mark”. I really did not take it much serious. If I did, I would not let the pupils study for their maths exam; or if I did I would do the while activity in another way. I would not try out new things. I thought I don’t want to lose time. Why should I try new things on my own pupils, I can try it here. Yes, honestly I did not care. (CPO2*t*)

Considering that she had said she did not prepare a lesson plan for her first lesson due to lack of assessment and that she planned one for this assessment, it was actually questionable that she did not take the assessment seriously. However, I thought behind her reaction was her overall perception of the practicum as a formality she had to perform instead of a fruitful learning experience. Her later statements provided more evidence for her carefree attitude towards the practicum which she thought also resulted from her lack of time and motivation:

> Actually we learnt from a lecturer that we can tack the reading text on the wall to attract attention of the pupils. In fact it is a very good technique. But then, I didn’t want to make much effort because I lost a week when I went to İstanbul, I am losing too much time. I said I might better not mess with it that much. I don’t know why I did so. Besides I will get a mark out of it. But I didn’t feel like. (CPO2*t*)

However, during her lessons Ceren kept trying out the techniques and methods she learnt at her university courses. Lacking the practical experience about those techniques and methods, her attempts were rarely successful.

> [explains why she chose that underlining activity] I was curious about that. My intention was not bad. I wondered whether it will work, or not because we got the training of it. I wanted to try out myself to see if it happens. It didn’t. Never mind, what can I do? [laughs] (CPO2*t*)

> [On the video she is reading the text aloud] We learnt that from Kerem teacher [a lecturer at university]. A noticing activity. Actually it can be good for the sake of grammar. I mean pupils really notice the structure but trust me I was too distressed while reading it, I can’t imagine how the pupils felt because it was too long. I hadn’t considered that. For example they were supposed to underline and I was pausing when they should underline… as if obviously telling them where to underline! That was notably bad, I didn’t like it. But it is good that I tried that. At least I won’t do it again in the same way if I manage to be assigned to a real school. (CPO2*t*)

As the last sentence of the above excerpt suggest Ceren learnt from her trial that she cannot adopt the activities she learnt at the university without adapting

them to the classroom context. However, during the practicum she did not have enough time to get to know the classroom context.

During her assessed lesson, she tried to stick to her lesson plan. She said she only changed the warm-up activity as she observed the class while her peer was teaching on the first lesson and during the break she decided that the pupils were sleepy and she should have tried to wake them up.

> For example according to my lesson plan, I was not going to ask them to stand up but I was observing the class while Figen was teaching and everyone in the class were sleeping because it is the first lesson on a Monday morning. I looked at Tolga teacher [supervisor], he was yawning. I thought if he feels like that the class should be worse. Therefore I asked them to stand up in order to perk up the class. (CPO2*t*)

As another change to her lesson plan, she left the pupils to study their Maths exam on the last five minutes of the lesson. However she recognized that as a time-filler activity as she had already finished her activities:

> The reason for me to allow them to study maths… when I first entered the classroom a pupil from the front row said “teacher, may I study Maths, we have an exam?”. Later the others opened their books after the puzzle activity. I figured out that they were nervous and I thought why should I bother, I have already finished the lesson. I could have made them speak; we could have had a chit-chat. But I thought there was no need. Therefore I allowed them for five minutes. (CPO2*t*)

> [Watching herself on the video] I am just fooling around here because I have finished my activities. Thanks God they had an exam [laughs]. But I would do the same if I was the real teacher and if my lesson finished. Because I know how it is stressful. If this is our education system, what can I do? (CPO2*t*)

During the lesson, she was continuously monitoring her teaching and the pupils’ responses. At points, she noticed that some certain activities she planned did not work as she expected. However instead of making changes on the spot she kept doing them even though she thought they didn’t work, or were not efficient. The reasons behind that for her were the impact of being observed and the fear of falling behind the time:

> [On the video she is reading the text aloud] While reading it, I got so bored. I was thinking if I got so bored, I can’t imagine the pupils. I don’t know. I felt sad there. I asked myself why I did like that. Perhaps I would do something else if there wasn’t anyone [observing] in the classroom. I would say “OK class, let’s leave this, I got bored”. I would be honest and

> say I was trying to this and that. But I don't know. Normally I can be honest, if I got bored, I can tell. But I couldn't [this time]. (CPO2*t*)
>
> While doing the puzzle activity I was thinking I was short of time but actually I had plenty of minutes. At that moment I recalled something. Once our teacher said that "You tell the answers but are you sure the pupils write them down correctly?". So, they could have been written on the board because maybe they didn't understand the pronunciation. You cannot know they got it right. I remembered all at that moment but I did not do. I was worrying about covering the lesson plan in time. (CPO2*t*)

In her second teaching practice, Ceren was addressing most of the pupils with their names and seemed aware of the sociological classroom dynamics:

> [On the video she gave the instruction for the reading text and then asked a pupil to repeat it] Do you know why I am asking to this pupil? Because I know he understood and I want the class to understand. He is kind of a leader in the class. […] you know, there is always a type of pupil who doesn't listen to the lesson and the teacher asks him but the actual aim is to offend him, trying to say "you are not listening". But I didn't do with that purpose, I asked him because I knew he understood and I knew his leader position in the class and I wanted the rest of class to understand. (CPO2t)

However, she still felt unable to evaluate overall pupil uptake and she kept drawing on her own experiences as a learner to understand the pupils:

> I really didn't like it [the lesson she taught]. Especially the while part – and probably it was the most important part. When you ask me what they have learnt how can I answer? They didn't learn anything. Perhaps they read, hopefully they read. See, this is another thing; I did the same when I was a student. Teacher asks to read and if I don't feel like I never read but I can perfectly pretend reading. (CPO2*t*)

Ceren found it unfair to be assessed only by her last teaching session. She wished she was observed by her supervisor during her first teaching as she felt more satisfied with it. She also wished that she could do video-based post-lesson interviews with her supervisor so she could have got feedback on her practice:

> What an absurd thing this is! For example Ayhan teacher [the cooperating teacher] liked the first one, too. I am more satisfied with the first one, the first presentation [she means the 'lesson'] I made. There should have been at least three chances because our teacher [refers to the supervisor] goes to other schools, too and may be busy. But some time can be devoted for that. And they could have video-recorded our practice. Ultimately our teachers are here for this [to support their learning]. Really, if we had watched the videos together and reviewed in

> the same way, trust me it could be better… I am glad I participated in this [research study]. […] I mean I believe this contributed to my development for sure. I think we should take this system directly to our practicum module, sincerely speaking. (CPO2*t*)

As the excerpt above suggests, she was frustrated by the lack of feedback and support during the practicum. After her second and last lesson, I, Ceren, her peer and her supervisor left the school altogether and on the way to the university, in the car, they all briefly commented on the lesson. Ceren and her peer were sighing about things that they planned and did not work in their lessons. Their supervisor gave an overall informal positive feedback by acknowledging that he already recognizes them as teachers considering that they would graduate in a couple of weeks' time.

At the end of the semester Ceren submitted her portfolio involving the two lesson plans that she taught during the practicum and one final reflective self-assessment report. Although she had not had a plan for her first lesson on the day, providing a lesson plan for that session pointed out once again she took the assessment seriously. On her reflective self-assessment report, instead of the disappointments and struggles she shared with me during the practicum, Ceren focused on her gains and achievements. As we shall see, this was a common trend among the student teachers perhaps because the portfolio was a part of the final assessment, too:

> What I lived this term, was really a difficult term for me. I lived so much difficulty in overcoming everything at the same time. To be perfectly honest, I am so tired generally I need a long rest unfortunately it was impossible right now. But what's good to me I learned a lot. I had never learned so much for the real life. What means being a teacher what means being a professional one even while you do not feel good you are on duty you have responsibility. There are 40 students in the class and they wait something from you voluntarily involuntarily but they wait something. You feel that when enter the class. You are not student anymore, you are not child, you are the big, adult one. First time I feel this, which makes me more mature.
>
> Everything in the class is like a therapy for me honestly like a therapy I forget everything. Everything my exams, my school, my social life, life outside. That was good sometimes. Briefly a good experience. No[w] what's waiting for me I don't know but I believe that with time I will understand my students in real sense so that I will be a good guide to them. If people put their hearts into it impossible is nothing. Thank you for everything sir [addressing to the supervisor] and goodbye :) (CF)

Although the semester did not finish, as the assessment had been done and as she said they felt unwanted by their cooperating teacher, Ceren and her peer never went to the practice school again. She passed the practicum module and graduated after that semester.

In a nutshell, Ceren stated that her cognitions about language teaching and learning have changed during the teacher education programme. She learnt –in contrast to her own experience as a language learner in a teacher centred classroom- English language can be taught in a student-centred way by guiding the students in their discovery of the language. However, she criticized the teacher education programme for not providing real classroom applications of various communicative teaching methodologies. During the practicum she aimed at living up to her beliefs in her classroom but the cooperating teachers' expectations and lack of supervisor support appeared as barriers for her learning. She felt somehow forced to teach in the way she thought her cooperating teacher and supervisor wanted her to teach. Thus, during her practicum experience Ceren experienced contrasts between:

- her idealised versions of self, teacher, teaching and the messy realities she faced,
- what she wanted to do and what her cooperating teacher/supervisor wanted her to do,
- what she did for assessment and what she would do otherwise.

5.3 Defne: "I don't want to do anything because she can do"

Defne was a female student teacher at the English language teacher education department. She had prior teaching experience while teaching English to primary school 2nd grade pupils two hours per week voluntarily as a part of a project they did on the third year for Community Service module. Then she taught English as a foreign language part time at a summer school. In the fourth year she started to work again as a part-time English teacher in a private language school. For the Practicum she was placed in a 5th grade class in a primary state school with her peers Jale and Selin. They attended the lessons altogether and when they taught, they split the two 40 minute lessons in three parts and each student teacher taught her own part. They tried to fit their 25

minute teaching sessions in a PPP (presentation, practice, production) lesson structure to create a meaningful unit. Once they decided on the subject of the lesson and shared the parts of the lesson, they all prepared their activity individually. During the Practicum Defne taught four times and each time she was observed by her peers and her cooperating teacher. I observed three of her teaching practices as a researcher. She was the only student teacher in the study who was never observed by the supervisor.

Gamze was Defne's cooperating teacher and Kerem was Defne's supervisor. Gamze had a BA degree and fourteen years of teaching experience in English language teaching. She was teaching twenty-one hours per week and was mentoring three student teachers that semester. It was her second year in mentoring and she reported not having any training on mentoring student teachers. Kerem had BA and MA degrees in English language teaching. He had taught student teachers for the last seven years. He was teaching thirty-five hours per week that semester and supervising ten student teachers. He had not received any training for his supervision role but he said he read the literature about mentoring and supervising as a part of his studies.

I had my initial interview with Defne before she started teaching at the practice school. Similar to Ceren, during our interview she occasionally reported that she thinks language learning should be enjoyable for pupils. She was inspired by her first English language teacher to become an English language teacher herself as she was attracted by her enjoyable teaching style:

> She was so energetic while she was teaching and she gave many examples of being teacher, not only English teacher. […] like games and beneficial games while teaching. Then yes, games. (DI)

Her second English language teacher was similar to the first which eventually created a sense of contrast with other school subjects in terms of potential for enjoyability:

> She was old but she was the same as the other English teacher in the primary school and I understood that all English teachers are like energetic and they give lessons in an enjoyable way. (DI)

This belief of ‘English learning and teaching should be enjoyable’ which was based on her experiences as a pupil was reinforced during the teacher education programme:

> We take some classes about grammar teaching. For example we saw that… for example videos are useful. Videos or cartoons. Cartoons for children or teenagers. And they are important because they can see them, the enjoyable side of learning English. (DI)

Most probably based on the ideas above, she attempted to use videos as teaching materials in her first teaching practice during the practicum but she was not able to do so because of the technical problems she faced. She reported spending most of her teaching time trying to solve the technical problems and ending up with no result. I went to observe her second teaching practice. She attempted to use videos again and she faced the same problem.

1st Lesson Vignette (DO1)

Defne, her cooperating teacher, her peers Jale and Selin and I entered the classroom. We all sat in the back desks and Defne went to the teacher’s desk to prepare the video materials she wanted use during the lesson in order to present the “Present Continuous Tense” but the projector in the class did not work. The cooperating teacher tried to help but she could not sort it out. Then the cooperating teacher went to ask another teacher for help. The teacher came to the class, spent around five minutes to turn off and turn on the projector again, but it did not work. Then the cooperating teacher asked the teacher of the next classroom to swap classrooms. Around the twentieth minute of the 40 minute lesson we all moved to the next class. This resulted in chaos among the pupils; they were talking among themselves and were detached from the lesson. The cooperating teacher warned the pupils to be quiet and listen to their teacher and Defne was able to start teaching around the twenty-fifth minute of the lesson. She started the lesson with a review of the use of Simple Present Tense in Turkish. Then she introduced the videos to the class as “the actions at the speaking time” both in English and Turkish and played the videos. In the first video Simpson characters were doing some actions and it was subtitled with the present continuous sentences. They watched the video twice, and Defne wrote some of the example sentences on the board and translated them to Turkish orally. Then she played the second video for once. It was another English subtitled cartoon movie where a boy knocks on his friends’

doors to meet but all of his friends are busy and when he asks what his friend is doing the parents give different answers in present continuous tense. Defne wrote some example sentences on the board again and the bell rang.

In the second lesson she played the second video once more. She wrote a couple of more sentences on the board and asked the pupils to translate them. Then she emphasized the structure of the tense by underlining am-is-are and "–ing" in the sentences. She asked the pupils to copy the sentences on the board to their notebooks with the title of Present Continuous Tense. She spared around five minutes for copying the sentences. Defne was walking among the desks and checking what they wrote. When the pupils began whispering among each other or start making noise, the cooperating teacher warned them. Defne then left the class to her peer Jale who introduced a miming game to the pupils to practice the new tense.

Although she believed videos are favourable materials for teaching as they make the content more enjoyable, after this lesson she decided not to use videos due to the practical and technical problems she had twice. While these issues impinged on her teaching behaviour, her beliefs about the benefits of videos as teaching materials did not change:

> The videos are visual things…like… if they are funny, it is more useful… like… both visual and funny and enjoyable. That's why I use videos for teaching but I will change my techniques because of these problems. (DPO1)

Another issue raised during our interview was her use of Turkish in the classroom. During the lesson she explained almost everything in Turkish. Even when she gave short instructions in English, she translated them to Turkish immediately after. In my observation, the common trend among the student teachers was to prefer English as the classroom language and to restrict the use of mother tongue. This often seemed to be influenced by the communicative language teaching methodologies promoted during the teacher education programme. As she differed from this trend, I was curious about the underlying reasons and prompted her thinking as follows:

> Researcher: (on the video she is translating the continuous tense sentences to Turkish) What was your purpose here?

> Defne: checking their… the words, meaning of the words and also giving the translation of the grammar like ‘”he is swimming” means “o yüzüyor” in Turkish.
>
> Researcher: Why do you think giving this is important?
>
> Defne: Maybe they don’t… I think maybe they don’t understand the rules, the rule and the meaning because maybe some of the students are not motivated for the class, for the topic and I wanted to explain it.
>
> Researcher: Why do you think knowing the rule is important?
>
> Defne: because after these topics the mentor [the cooperating teacher] told us, we will compare the present simple and present continuous tense. That’s why I was, I wanted to make them aware of grammatical rules of this topic. (DPO1)

As the excerpt above suggests, the main reason behind her translation was that she did not know the pupils, what they already knew, nor what and how they like to learn. Once she was given the task of teaching Present Continuous Tense, in a way to compare it to Simple Present Tense, she exclusively focused on getting across the grammatical rule by taking the line of perhaps least resistance: translation. However, she was not pleased with her constant use of Turkish. Later during the interview when I asked her the weaknesses and strengths of her teaching performance she revisited her use of Turkish as the classroom language as a weakness of her teaching:

> My weakness is speaking Turkish I think. Because I think, OK I gave examples in English but explanation of the topic was Turkish… so maybe I could give some English explanations… could be better I think. (DOP1)

This was a puzzling moment for her. She experienced conflicts between her belief in the use of English as the classroom language and the circumstances which she thought did not allow her to perform that. I thought that would be a very fruitful discussion if it had been done with the supervisor but she did not have any supervision meeting. In the end, she decided to try out using English more for the next teaching sessions.

The third major theme of the interview was about classroom management. During our initial interview Defne reported that she generally feels confident in the classroom but she feels the need to practice classroom management skills more:

> For example we had classes here for classroom management, we learnt many things but I didn't, I couldn't practice them actually. (DI)

The practicum could have been an opportunity for her to experience classroom management as part of the whole multifaceted, complex process of teaching. However, during her lesson she couldn't practice her classroom management skills as the cooperating teacher was in the classroom and she was interfering when there was any classroom noise or problem. This put off Defne in practicing her classroom management skills and made her feel nervous during her practice:

> In the class, yes of course there are some spoiled or naughty children, students… but when she [the cooperating teacher] comes to the class… like I don't want to do anything because she can do, she can manage the class, she can make them quiet. So that's why I felt a bit nervous. (DPO1)

2nd Lesson Vignette (DO2)

Defne again shared two lesson hours with her peers to teach. This week they were responsible for doing the revision exercises on the workbook and they shared the pages of the workbook. Jale and Selin did the exercises on "have got/has got" structure. Defne took over the lesson in the tenth minute of the second lesson to do the exercises about adjectives and prepositions. First she revised some adjectives with their antonyms. She wrote them on the board and translated to Turkish orally. Then the pupils started doing the exercises and Defne wrote the correct answers on the board. For the next exercise she revised the use of prepositions and wrote examples on the board. Once they started doing the exercises, the pupils raised their hands to answer the questions and Defne again wrote the correct answers on the board. Then Defne asked the pupils to copy the sentences on the board to their notebooks for the last five minutes and the bell rang.

Although she decided to use English more during out last interview, Defne kept teaching in Turkish and translating. Her reason was again lack of knowledge of pupil's background knowledge in English:

> There is a fear of… I don't know but if I speak [in English], on my own behalf, I worry if the pupils will understand me, or not. I mean I suspect if I could give instructions in their level. (DPO2*t*)

As the excerpt suggests she was not confident in her knowledge of the pupils and thus her skills to adapt her teaching to their level. Lack of knowledge of what the pupils already knew also appeared as a problem while she was revising the prepositions. She drew two cars on the board, one was yellow and the other one was blue, and then she asked the pupils where the blue car is. The answer she expected was “in front of” but when the pupils couldn’t translate it she accepted “near” as the correct answer.

> Well, there I wanted to say “in front of”. Actually I didn’t understand what preposition I wanted to teach (laughs). As I said I followed the exercises [on the book]. It was “in front of”, wasn’t it? In the exercise there was a ball in front of the bulldozer. I was torn between near or in front of, which one they can tell. When I looked at the exercise they were all acceptable, and then I thought they may answer “near” as well. (DPO2*t*)

This incident indicated Defne’s disconnection with what is being taught in the classroom on the days when she did not attend and her lack of communication with the cooperating teacher. She was revising a lesson that she had not taught and therefore she did not know what the pupils had learnt previously.

3rd Lesson Vignette (DO3)

Defne and her peers again shared two lessons. On that day, the supervisor came to the school for the first lesson to observe the student teachers but he had to leave before the second lesson. Defne took over the class on the twenty-third minute of the second lesson after Jale and Selin taught nationalities. Therefore, Defne was not observed by her supervisor. They again structured the lesson in PPP sequence. Defne’s part was the production. She introduced a role-play to the pupils to practice nationalities. She gave small cards to students on which there were flags of countries. Then the pupils came to the board in peers to ask “where are you from, which nationality are you?” questions and answer in turn. She was standing next to the pupils and giving support to pupils when they had difficulty.

Within her 17 minute teaching session, Defne kept using Turkish as the classroom language however this time she did not comment on her use of Turkish during the interview. It seemed she stopped puzzling about that and stuck to the way she found easy and safe. The same thing happened for her puzzles about classroom management. The cooperating teacher was sitting at

a back desk in the classroom and was giving instructions to the pupils such as “be quiet”, “sit down” where she felt necessary.

Although Defne taught four times during the practicum, since she shared the lessons with her peers, the actual contact she had with the pupils was less than two lesson hours. Despite this limited experience, after her last lesson she reported feeling more confident in the class:

> In the first times as I didn’t know the pupils… I was like… I mean I didn’t know how they will react, whether they know, or not. I didn’t know anything about them and I was shy. But as I taught, I can tell I got used to. (DPO3*t*)

During our interview I revisited her beliefs about language teaching and she again stated that teaching more enjoyable, creative lessons which are relevant to the interests of the pupils attracts pupils’ attention and results in better learning. However, when I asked her to what extent she could reflect her beliefs in her practice she said she couldn’t:

> I don’t think I performed my ideas in my teaching during the practicum. Let me put it this way, because there is a limited time, within the limited time… for example early on we shared a lesson as two student teachers and all we did was to do the exercises on the book. We didn’t do anything, only “we will do this exercise, who will do it?” kind of thing. It was simple. But when played the video while teaching present continuous tense… for example it was a remarkable activity. I think I reflected my ideas there. That’s it. I don’t think I was able to do much. (DPO3*t*)

As the excerpt suggests, the circumstances prevented her from putting her beliefs into practice during the practicum. When I asked her to evaluate her learning during the practicum she reported learning how to teach large classrooms and feeling like a teacher more than before:

> Defne: I mean I saw how I have to teach in a crowded classroom, frankly. This, and I feel like I am getting more into the teacher mood. (DPO3*t*)

She also pointed out that her stimulated recall interviews with me were beneficial in her understanding of her own practice:

> This study [our interviews], from my view was a reflection because while teaching I cannot understand what I am doing there. It is helpful to have

> someone else observing me and it is more helpful to watch the record of my teaching. Therefore, it was a very good study. (DPO3*t*)

In brief, Defne had very limited access to teaching during the practicum. She taught short sections of lessons for four times. She did not have any supervision meeting during the practicum and was not observed by her supervisor at any point. The main change she experienced during the practicum was her abandonment of using videos as teaching materials due to the technical problems she faced in her initial attempts. She still favoured their use but decided not to use considering the time she loses. Another major issue was her confusion about whether to use Turkish or English as the classroom language. She wanted to use English in the classroom but she consistently used Turkish for classroom communication. She was also concerned about the limited opportunities for practicing classroom management. Although she wanted to practice her skills, the cooperating teacher was still in charge for managing the classroom and Defne never had the opportunity to take over the class fully. She experienced conflicts between:

- her desire to integrate technology and fun (e.g. by using videos) into her teaching and the realities she faced in terms of classroom facilities and technological problems,
- beliefs about using L2 in the classroom and the need she felt to translate into L1 for various reasons (i.e. lack of knowledge of the pupils' proficiency level and background knowledge, desire to get across the rules of tenses to align with the cooperating teacher's teaching style),
- desire to experience teaching as a whole involving classroom management and the interferences of the cooperating teacher for behaviour management during her lessons.

5.4 Erdem: "When Leyla teacher came and it became more serious"

Erdem was a male student teacher at the English language teacher education programme. He taught English as a foreign language voluntarily in a kindergarten once a week for a year as a part of his Teaching English to Young Learners module last year and he taught one lesson voluntarily during the School Observation module in the first semester. During the practicum he was placed in a 5th grade class at a primary state school and attended to practice school lessons for four times. He observed the cooperating teachers' teaching

in the first week, and he taught the same pupils three times. He was observed by the cooperating teacher during all three teaching sessions and twice by the researcher. He was observed once in his last teaching session by his supervisor which was followed by a feedback meeting in the teachers' room at the school.

His supervisor was Leyla, and his cooperating teacher was Hakan. His supervisor Leyla who holds BA and MA degrees in English language teaching, was a lecturer at the university with twenty one years of experience in English Language Teacher education and around fifteen years of experience in student teacher supervision. She said she attended to a seminar on supervising student teachers in 1997 which was presented by the Ministry of National Education and addressed to the whole faculty of education staff regardless of their subject matter specialization. She told they were introduced to the curriculum design of the practice modules but the design has changed afterwards. This semester she had twenty supervisees in two different practice schools. She was teaching around thirty hours a week at the university and undertaking the supervisor role for the practicum. There were two hours per week allocated for her supervision role in her official timetable.

His cooperating teacher, Hakan was an English language teacher with a BA degree, had seven years of English language teaching experience in state schools, but no experience of mentoring foreign language student teachers. He previously mentored student teachers of Turkish language for one semester while he was teaching Turkish. He reported not being informed of any training on mentoring. This semester he was teaching twenty two hours per week and had three student teachers to mentor.

Erdem was initially involved in a group of three student teachers to attend the same cooperating teacher's classes, but he requested his cooperating teacher to attend the classes alone and then they arranged another timetable for his practice teaching without any peers. Teaching without peers was an unusual case during the practicum. During our interviews he stated that the reason behind his special request was his previous unpleasant experience of working in groups. He also wanted to maximise the opportunity to experience teaching and to be the centre of the pupils' attention when he teaches:

> [He is talking about his own English language learning history] I learnt in school. I cannot say I learn English with my friends. I don't want to work in group work. I want to always… I want to [be] responsible for everything. I want to focus on everything. Just I want to do it, so I don't like group work. So I did everything individually. (EI)

> [He is talking about his previous teaching experience in the Kindergarten] [There were] one partner more in my class. I wanted to be alone but our supervisor said "No!". […] I said, I want to think what to do, everything by myself. I don't want to any friends help because I always see their lackness. I don't want to make up for their lackness. I want to be responsible for everything. (EI)

> [He is evaluating his practicum experience] I was alone [without any peer teachers]. I mean we were three but I wanted to leave. It is not fruitful when are all together. When we are three in the classroom, the pupils' attention is diverted. Therefore I wanted to be alone, so the others were two. (EPO2*t*)

During the practicum Erdem taught three times in the practice school. We had our initial interview before he started teaching and then I was able to observe his second lesson on the seventh week of the practicum and his third lesson on the fourteenth week of the practicum. I couldn't observe the first one as it was decided spontaneously with his cooperating teacher on that day so he did not have time to invite me. My each observation was followed by an interview either on the same day of the observation or the next day.

During our initial interview we talked about his English language learning history, his overall experience of language teacher education programme and his expectations from the practicum module. Throughout our conversation he seemed to attach importance to communicative approaches to language teaching, and consider student motivation as a core element for language learning. In the following excerpt he expresses his understanding of a good English lesson:

> A good English lesson should be… should motivate students. A teacher doesn't do that … show[ing] the input on the projection, on technology. A teacher should be a model. A teacher should be like that, after this lesson a student wants to come that teacher's lesson. If his or her lesson were boring, another lesson how can I want to be a student of this class. […] First of all, teachers [should] enforce students to feel themselves confident. Students also -how can I say, should not [be] afraid to make mistakes because [when the] students [are] afraid of making mistakes he cannot do something. So it should be a comfortable atmosphere so that students can always tell his or her ideas. (EI)

As the extract above suggests he seemed to believe that a supportive classroom atmosphere is essential for student learning. However, the contrast of expressions in ‘enforcing the students’ ‘to feel themselves confident’ created a sense of conflict in his statement.

He also told of his desire to teach communicative lessons to integrate four language skills in his teaching instead of grammar-based traditional lessons which he thought does not facilitate active student involvement:

> I feel myself closer to communicative language teaching. Yes, grammar translation or audio lingual [method] is important but they make students –how can I say- confined. They confine the students for example. But communicative language teaching is a whole. Am I wrong? [Asks for a confirmation from the researcher, and she replies “No, it is fine”] It is a whole I think. It consists of speaking, listening… Speaking is the most important. […] But in the GTM [Grammar Translation Method] for example, speaking and listening is not important. (EI)

Similar to other student teachers he wished to use English as classroom language. However, he was aware of possible obstacles he might face in doing that:

> I always choose English [as the classroom language] but sometimes I cannot take answers so I have to use Turkish. (EI)

His awareness was raised by his previous teaching experience. He said he taught a lesson voluntarily in another practice school in the first semester during the School Observation module. He video-recorded his teaching and he was disappointed seeing himself using too much Turkish when he watched it.

> while I was watching myself, I see that, I saw that I full of … I spoke Turkish. Why I didn’t speak English, I ask me …if….I can’t remember, I couldn’t remember speaking in English. Mostly I spoke … I had spoken Turkish and it was experience after that I should be careful, speak more in English. (EI)

As our conversation unfolded, he also mentioned his beliefs about error correction. He said the teacher should avoid error corrections for the sake of supportive learning atmosphere unless it is crucial to the teaching objectives of the lesson:

> He [the teacher] should avoid [error corrections] but not always. […] For example, in speaking lessons interaction is important grammar is not important. (EI)

However, during his practice teaching his practices in the classroom rather conflicted with his statements. He was occupied with the aim of controlling the pupils and he kept correcting their grammar and pronunciation mistakes nearly in each occurrence.

When I asked him to what extent he feels ready to teach in the practice school his answer again included conflicting statements. He expressed being highly confident but also being aware of possible weaknesses especially about his own language use:

> Confidence is always high but there is some … there can be some … how can it be? Disadvantages! For example, I want to talk, I want to use a word I cannot remember that word, I want to use an alternative one and I can also not remember that one. Some problems like [that] happen and also pronunciation, some words even if I know I cannot use or sometimes it is a word [that] for the first time I faced with it. Some like a problems may happen. (EI)

The whole picture created by his statements was full of contrasts. He believed he should use English as the classroom language but he noticed he did not use it in his previous practice teaching. He decided to use more English in his classes. However, he was feeling weak in terms of language use both because of his concerns of his language proficiency and his recognition that he may not be able to perform as well as he would like to in the stress of the classroom moment. I wondered how these conflicts would unfold during the practicum.

During our interview, I could tell that he was very excited for his practice teaching and his expectations from the practicum module were higher than his peers in the study. He aimed to use the theoretical knowledge he learnt during the teacher education programme at the university:

> My expectations are… when the school is finished I should be ready for a good teacher. I want this practicum help me to use my skills or to use my methods effectively in my real teaching life. (EI)

However, his excitement and motivation started to fade away on his first visit to the practice school. The following extract is taken from his observation report included in his practicum portfolio shows his initial disappointment with the school on his first visit:

> Today was my first day in the XXX School. I was a bit excited. Students were energetic and they always spoke with each other. I want to write my real observations about the class, students and school. Although the school is in the centre of the city, it has not a good condition. The school is very old and there isn't a projector in most of the classes. For example, the listening skill cannot be done. Education of the school is also not very good, students are not interested in the lessons. If I were teacher in such a school, I would not be happy. The school, class atmosphere is important for a good education. (EP)

The next week he went to the school again, observed the first lesson of the cooperating teacher and asked the cooperating teacher's permission to teach the second lesson although he didn't prepare for that. His reflection was as follows:

> Today is my second day in the XXX School. I observed the students and teacher in the first lesson. I learnt students' names and I spoke with them. Some of them said that they don't like school, it is boring. It was an unexpected answer.
>
> In the second lesson I said to the teacher that I want to have lesson and he accepted it. The subject [topic of the lesson] was "Physical Education". It was a spontaneous lesson, it was not planned. So, I did not have a lesson plan. It was a good lesson. (EP)

For this lesson he did not prepare for the lesson, and simply followed the exercises on the course book. In his reflection he did not comment on what he meant by a 'good lesson' but apparently he was satisfied with his performance. I observed his next teaching in the class and the following vignette tells the story of Erdem's second teaching practice.

1st Lesson Vignette (EO1)

Erdem, his cooperating teacher and the researcher entered the classroom. The cooperating teacher and the researcher took seats at the back desks. Erdem greeted the class in English. The pupils were asking questions to the cooperating teacher, and the cooperating teacher warned them not to ask him questions during the class. Erdem delivered the handouts that he prepared with the same exercises in the coursebook by simply changing places of the exercises. Later he told me that he thought they were not in a meaningful sequence. He introduced the topic of the lesson 'fitness'. He wrote it on the board and asked pupils to tell the words they knew relevant to fitness. After a couple of answers he moved on the first exercise on the

handout. He was giving the instructions in English first, and then translating to Turkish. The first exercise was a word puzzle. He gave three minutes to pupils to solve it individually and said “let’s see who will finish first!” which made the pupils think it was a competition. Therefore at the end of the first minute pupils started to yell as they finished. He warned them not to yell and but to lean back in their desks when they finished. On the second minute he asked if everyone finished but there were pupils who hadn’t finished yet. After a while he announced they have fifteen seconds. Then he projected the puzzle on the board and asked pupils to come to the board to show the word they found on the puzzle. Once they finished the words, he displayed these words with their visual images on the board and asked the pupils to tell their meaning in Turkish. The second exercise was a writing activity. He asked the pupils to choose one of six pictures about different sports and write a short description of it as displayed in the sample answer. He gave five minutes for that exercise. The pupils kept asking questions about the sports in Turkish such as how many players are required for basketball, where handball is played, etc. Once Erdem was not sure about the answer and looked at the cooperating teacher to get support. Then, the cooperating teacher explained the details to the class. Erdem wrote another sample answer on the board leaving certain parts blank as they may vary according to the picture they chose. He then walked around the desks to help pupils. Then he picked six pupils among volunteering ones to come to the board to read their texts. He corrected nearly all pronunciation and grammar mistakes immediately while they were reading. The third exercise was a matching activity. Erdem gave two minutes to the pupils to match the pictures with the words on the handout. He again got the answers from the pupils. Then he asked pupils which of those sports they like and do not like and asked them to write down their answers in sentences to read in the next lesson. He thought the lesson was about to finish but the cooperating teacher motioned him to go on. Erdem went next to him and found out he has ten minutes more before the break. So, he continued asking pupils to read their sentences. This took five minutes and then he said they would continue in the next lesson. The pupils thought they could go out. The cooperating teacher interfered to say “if you have any question you can now ask”. The pupils started asking questions to Erdem regarding his name, age, his favourite lesson. He started to look nervous and looked at the cooperating teacher as if he sought for help. The teacher said the bell would ring soon. Then he went to the teacher’s desk next to Erdem and they talked together looking at the handout. The pupils were talking among themselves. When there was too much noise the

cooperating teacher warned them. The bell rang.

As the vignette suggests, like other student teachers, Erdem struggled with time management:

> [when he finished all his planned activities and there were still time] I always looked at my phone. 'Why isn't it ringing? Where is the bell?!' [pointing at himself on the video] I always looked. He [the cooperating teacher] said "go on!". I said "there are three minutes. How can I go on" because when I go on I should follow. I hope you cut it [the remaining idle class time from the video record]. (EPO1)

Contrary to other student teachers in the study, Erdem was not intimidated by the cooperating teacher's interference in his lesson. In contrast to others, his cooperating teacher was a passive observer in the classroom and he did not respond to classroom events unless he received a call for help from Erdem. Therefore, Erdem recognized the cooperating teacher's cue about time as a supportive gesture:

> I felt relaxed because he helped me. (EPO1)

This meant that, different to Defne's, his cooperating teacher left him alone in dealing with pupil misbehaviour. Erdem spent quite long time to maintain classroom management. In our post observation interview, he expressed his disappointment with students' noise and carelessness to the classroom activities.

> [I feel] a bit angry because I want to explain something, they always say "what is this? Teacher, can I do it?" They don't wait me! (EPO1)

He was tired of shouting in the classroom to be heard:

> Some problems in my throat […] I always talked "be quiet, be quiet, be quiet!" (EPO1)

He compared his teaching to his kindergarten teaching experience in terms of classroom management:

> When I compare, I choose kindergarten. […] They are more energetic. They are... When I say "be quite please", they don't speak. And they learn fast. I think they are good when you compare with them [the current class]. These [the current pupils] are more naughty. (EPO1)

While watching the video he stopped the video and pointed at a student who was talking to other students and said he sent him out of the class in the next lesson as a punishment. When I questioned the roots of his beliefs about punishment he referred to his own experience as a learner:

> …students are different from ... when we compare with us. Because we listened to our teachers and when he or she said something, we did that. But this today's students are not like that. […] I don't say we will fight them but sometimes maybe an ear [twisting/pulling] or like that maybe OK. Am I right or…? (EPO1)

His initial beliefs to provide a supportive and motivating atmosphere for students seemed to be challenged when facing student misbehaviour. As the excerpt above suggests, his cognitions regarding classroom management and punishment were actually strongly influenced by his own experiences as a pupil.

Another conflict between his initial expressions and his practices was his way of approaching error correction. Although earlier he said error corrections should be avoided unless they are relevant to the objectives of the lesson, he tried to correct every grammar and pronunciation mistake during his lesson. While watching the video I asked why he corrected a student's pronouncing picture as /ˈpɪʃtə(r)/ and he answered:

> Erdem: He always said /ˈpɪʃtə(r)/ last week. I said… I used a sentence with "can't". I said for example "I can't /kɑːnt/ blab la bla" they said that "not can't /kɑːnt/, can't /kænt/". I said "the right one is can't /kɑːnt/ , I can, I can't, I cannot.." they said that "but we learnt can't /kænt/". Yes, I said that "it's right but the important one is can't /kɑːnt/" so I want to make their mistakes - their errors I think, not mistakes.. their errors edited.
>
> Researcher: So do you think that the errors should be corrected at the time?
>
> Erdem: Yes. Is it a problem?
>
> (EPO1)

In the situation above, he approached the choice of accent (British versus American) as a pronunciation error and acted as if the pupils mislearnt the pronunciation. It is worth noting that neither the teacher education programme nor the Ministry of National Education in Turkey promoted a specific accent over another for English language teaching. However, Erdem corrected

mistakes with the presupposition that the British accent is the only correct accent for teaching instead of negotiating the cooperating teacher's choice of accent in the classroom.

Although he reported his lack of confidence in his own pronunciation and made a couple of pronunciation mistakes himself during his lesson, he kept correcting the pronunciation mistakes during the lesson. However, he was not pretty sure about his approach as he asked confirmation from me, the researcher. Considering that earlier he sought reassurance about his beliefs for punishment which were influenced by his experiences as a learner but contradicting what the teacher education programme encourages, this might suggest a similar conflict. I thought he experienced tensions between his beliefs based on his own experience as a learner (apprenticeship of observation) and on his exposure to the teacher education programme. Perhaps he needed to test his conflicting beliefs in the classroom context, however, his limited access to the classroom did not allow him to observe the results of his practice on pupil learning. He commented further on error correction referring to the impacts of his temporary teaching position in the classroom:

> If I were their real teacher from the beginning maybe it will be better but now… I saw that they learnt some errors like can't / kænt /, there is, there are. For example she said that "this is the pictures of tennis". I repeated the correct one to show her. […] I can't do everything. The teacher also should … because I am there just for two hours and the teacher is always here. He should do something I think. If I try to do something but after when I leave there, if the teacher didn't do the same thing, I think it won't work. (EPO1)

He did a pronunciation mistake himself and asked the correct pronunciation to the cooperating teacher. However, he didn't correct his mistake explicitly in the classroom.

> It is chin-up /ˈtʃɪnˌʌp/ but I always said /ˈtʃaɪnˌʌp/. I asked Hakan teacher, he said /ˈtʃɪnˌʌp/ and in the second lesson I did it, I corrected it. I said /ˈtʃɪnˌʌp/. I didn't say /ˈtʃaɪnˌʌp/ is wrong, /ˈtʃɪnˌʌp/ is correct one. I just used a sentence with /ˈtʃɪnˌʌp/ and I hope they took the message. (EPO1)

Having witnessed his exertions to control the pupils, to create an authority figure as a teacher in the classroom and to manipulate his own correct answers in his attempts for error correction, I interpreted his avoidance of admitting his

mistake publicly and correcting it directly as a fear of losing his authority and credibility in front of the pupils.

After all, when I asked him to comment on his lesson, he seemed satisfied with his teaching after watching the video.

> I think it was a good lesson. I can … I managed it. When I became a teacher I think I am going to be a good teacher. (EPO1)

As his above statement “I managed it” suggests, he related the success of the lesson to his own achievement instead of referring to pupil learning or achievement during the lesson. This suggests that he was occupied with his own self-esteem and performance rather than pupil response to his teaching.

He taught the next lesson after seven weeks. He was planning to teach it on the sixth week, invited his supervisor and the researcher but the cooperating teacher was on leave on that day due to illness. The pupils were in the class without a teacher, he could have gone to the class and taught but he said he didn’t want to waste his preparation for assessment and refused to teach which I thought was a significant evidence for the dominating impact of assessment on student teachers. The supervisor and the researcher came again on the next week when the cooperating teacher was back.

2nd Lesson Vignette (EO2)

Erdem, his cooperating teacher, his supervisor and the researcher came to the classroom. Erdem went in front of the board; the others took seats at back desks. To create more space for the guests the cooperating teacher gave instructions to the pupils to move their desks and he asked them to listen to the lesson carefully. Erdem greeted the class and delivered handouts and introduced the subject of the lesson, ‘animals’. The handout included a mix of exercises from the course book and some internet resources. He asked pupils the animals they like, where they live as a warm up activity. Different from his first teaching he rarely translated his instructions or questions to Turkish. He divided the class in four groups for the next activity. He needed to change the places of some pupils to form groups and a couple of pupils were reluctant to do so but in the end they moved to the place he pointed at rather grumbling. He named the groups as

Group A, B, C, and D. Then he invited a member from each group and asked them to pick one of four pieces of paper on which there where numbers from 1 to 4. So the groups were renamed with numbers. Then he gave an animal name to each group to work on. He displayed the names and visual images of the animals on the board and asked the pupils to repeat the name of the animal after him twice. Then he moved to another slide on the projector. This time there were some new vocabulary under the picture of the animal such as big, roar, land, zoo, other animals for lion; neck, grass, zoo for giraffe; reptile sea, land, small animals for crocodile; and pet, speak, sing a song, grass for parrot. Under the pictures and the relevant vocabulary about the animals, he divided the board into four parts and numbered from 1 to 4. He asked one member from each group to come to the board to write a sentence about the animal of their group using those new words. The pupils were confused. They complained that they didn't understand what they were supposed to do and weren't given a sample sentence. Then he picked a pupil from the Group 1 and invited to the board. He asked her to write "It is a lion". Another member of the same group then came to the board and, again with his prompts, wrote "It roars." As he didn't go through the vocabulary before the activity, he explained the meanings of the new words on spot while the sentence was being written. The pupils in Group 1 came to the board in turn, pick and wrote a relevant sentence to their animal with Erdem's cues. The same procedure was repeated for each group. During this activity he switched to Turkish more frequently. After every group wrote the sentences on the board, he went through the vocabulary on the projection again and the pupils repeated after him. Then he moved to a matching activity on the handout. The activity consisted of six pictures of animals, six animal names and six sentences describing the pictures with blanks in them left for the animal name. The pupils were expected to match the sentences with animal pictures and fill in the sentences with animal names. The pupils looked confused and asked for clarification many times. He sat different time limits at different stages for the same activity (24:31: you have five minutes; 25:02: you have three minutes; 27:13 last 20 seconds; 27:34 last ten seconds). Erdem asked pupils to tell their answers one by one. As the pupils read their answers he was translating the sentences in Turkish and teaching the new vocabulary about animals as the pupils seemed not familiar with them. When they finished the activity, the bell was rung and the pupils started to stand up to go out. Erdem asked them to sit down, then he said "ok, the lesson has finished, you can go now".

Erdem received his feedback right after his teaching. The supervisor, the cooperating teacher, Erdem and I sat together in the teachers' room of the practice school. The supervisor was moderating the discussion and was critical of Erdem's certain practices such as some pronunciation mistakes and instructions. The cooperating teacher on the other hand was always very supportive of Erdem. He was as if defending him whenever the supervisor criticised something. Below is an excerpt from the feedback session:

> Supervisor: For instance, at the beginning of the lesson you said "where do animals live?", you started like that and the pupils did not know the verb 'live'…
>
> Cooperating teacher: They know, they know but they are used to see it in a written format. The kids have problems in spoken. They can't recognize it in a spoken interaction. If they saw it written, they would remember.
>
> Supervisor: Then, should he have written on the board?
>
> Cooperating teacher: Yes teacher, they would have understood if it was written. (EF*t*)

We had our second post-observation interview after his third teaching and the following feedback session. I asked him how it felt when the supervisor and the cooperating teacher commented on his teaching:

> I feel good because they told me my faults, my lacks, I think it was good. […] they told me things that I am not aware of it. I think it was useful, feedback was useful. (EPO2)

Having heard the feedback of his supervisor and the cooperating teacher, I thought he was more focused on his own teaching mistakes during the stimulated recall interview since he frequently commented on the parts criticized by his supervisor while watching the video. For instance, his supervisor criticized him for not finalizing the while activity and jumping to the post activity without linking it to the rest. Therefore he regretted adding the last exercise to his lesson plan:

> I said [to himself] I wish I had not put the last activity. I left the last ten minutes for it. It finished in time but I wish I had not included it. Remember we wrote on the board, small paragraphs. I wish I continued working on them more. (EPO2*t*)

Considering that he rejected to use his lesson plan last time when the cooperating teacher was absent, I thought he organised this lesson as superficially ideal for his last assessed performance during the practicum. My opinion was strengthen when he told me that the pupils in the classroom were told to behave when the supervisor comes to the classroom:

> I said –before the lesson started- my teachers will come. I mean … "don't bring shame on me" I said. (EPO2*t*)

Erdem tried his best to perform an ideal teaching session. He told that he noticed doing some mistakes during his lesson but he avoided making spontaneous adjustments in his teaching and tried to stick to the lesson plan in order to not to fail in the assessment:

> I did a mistake, teacher [to the researcher]. There, when I gave worksheets, teacher… I mean the visual on the projector was also on the worksheet. There was no need for them to guess. I had already written on the worksheet which animal is the first. I had to give it [the worksheet] later. The actual plan was that but […] I guess I forgot it, teacher. I realized but in order not to fail… [the practicum] (EPO2*t*)

Erdem seemed and expressed being self-confident in the classroom and although he noticed some mistakes in his teaching, he was satisfied with the overall lesson in his first and second teaching. However, in his third teaching when the supervisor came to observe and assess him, he felt discomfort:

> It is as if I was better when you watched me before, teacher [to the researcher]. There I felt myself better. This time, maybe partly when Leyla teacher came and it became more serious. I feel as if my performance decreased a little bit more. (EPO2*t*)

His statement suggests that being observed by the supervisor put more pressure on him than being observed by the researcher and the cooperating teacher perhaps because he knew it was the supervisor who would decide on his final grade. Thus, during our stimulated recall interview, Erdem especially focused on the incidents criticized by his supervisor and talked less about the conflicts recurred in the two previous interviews such as his sense of control and error correction. Therefore, I will describe my observations of these issues in his classroom practice in comparison to the previous lesson.

As seen in the vignette, on his last teaching session Erdem again displayed his desire to exert power over the pupils. When the bell rang, the pupils started to stand up and talk to each other. Erdem asked them to sit down and let them go when he gives permission.

However, contrary to his approach to error correction in his previous lesson, Erdem did not make as many error corrections during this lesson, partly because he did not leave much space for the pupils to make mistakes during the last lesson. Below is a classroom excerpt as an example of Erdem's constant prompting:

(Erdem picked a student to come to the board to label the animal picture on the board)

Erdem: What is your animal?

Student : ….

Erdem: It is…

Student: It is…

Erdem: a …

Student: a li…

Erdem: A lion. Ok write it, "It is a lion." (EO2)

The above excerpt was representative of most student-teacher communication during the lesson. Erdem gave the answers to the questions he asked perhaps to fit his lesson plan into the lesson time, and to have a perfectly flowing lesson in front of his supervisor.

This assessed lesson was Erdem's last lesson in the practice school. Therefore I did not have the opportunity to observe and discuss the evidence for the long-term learning impact of the feedback he got from his supervisor and the cooperating teacher. When I asked him to evaluate his general practicum experience he complained about the limited time he spent in the practice school:

> Only four weeks I came there because the other four weeks ... our exams, their exams, the food fair [an event took place at the practice

> school] ... some problems happened. I think I did not get too much experience because of.. due to the time. (EPO2*t*)

In his reflection report which went into the portfolio, Erdem preferred to comment on his positive learning experience during the practicum even though it was not often reflecting his actual practicum experiences:

> …School experience has an important meaning for me, as I had the chance to review and use my knowledge from my classes in the faculty. I came across methods which I took in my lessons. I've used Special Teaching Techniques, Material Development, Classroom Management … in my observations.
>
> According to school experience, I should be systematic and approach to teaching in a systematic way. I gained necessary experience for my profession. I also gained broader knowledge about different subjects related to teaching such as: how to give instructions, teaching methods, how to make use of the blackboard, classroom management, how to prepare and use worksheets, questioning strategies, etc.
>
> Furthermore I gained experience about how to organize and control the students, how to communicate with them and how to get them involved in the lesson actively. I saw that my theoretical knowledge can be applied in real classroom atmosphere. (EP)

Considering that the portfolio was a part of his assessment, Erdem, similar to Ceren, probably aimed to please the supervisor by reporting what he thought his supervisor would expect him to gain, rather than the reality he faced.

In brief, Erdem, similar other student teachers, had limited access to classroom teaching despite not having a peer. His last assessed teaching was a superficially designed lesson to satisfy the supervisor and to pass the practicum module. He had conflicting beliefs and practices about language teaching and these were not addressed and resolved during the practicum. The contrasts he faced were between:

- the rhetoric of learner-centred, communicative language teaching at the university and the reality of a messy classroom where he needed to deal with pupil misbehaviour. In order to address that he revisited his experience as a learner and his classroom management practices (i.e. authority, controlling the pupils, punishment) conflicted with the cognitions he stated at the beginning of the practicum,

- his desire to encourage pupil communication in English and his perception of correct pronunciation and accent (British versus American),
- his beliefs about error and mistake, and how to address them.

5.5 Oylum: “I feel like I am an obstacle in her way”

Oylum was a female student teacher at the English language teacher education programme. Prior to the practicum, she taught English in a private language school part time for a year when she was on her second year at the programme. She also reported having teaching experiences through personal English tutoring. For the practicum she was placed in a 6th grade class in a primary state school. During the practicum she attended the classes two hours a week with a peer student teacher, Burak. She taught four full lessons in total. The first lesson was observed by her cooperating teacher, her peer and the researcher; the second lesson was not observed; the third lesson was observed by the researcher, her peer and partly by the cooperating teacher; and the fourth lesson was observed by the researcher, the supervisor, her peer and partly by the cooperating teacher. For the rest of the semester when she attended the two consecutive English lessons, she observed either her cooperating teacher’s or her peer student teacher’s teaching in the practice school.

Melis was Oylum’s cooperating teacher at the practice school and Nermin was Oylum’s supervisor at the teacher education programme. With a BA degree in English language teaching, Melis had ten years of teaching experience in state schools and three years’ experience in mentoring student teachers. During that term she was teaching twenty four hours a week and mentoring three student teachers. She had not received any training for her role as a cooperating teacher and she mentors the student teachers relying on her own experiences as a student teacher. Nermin held BA and MA degrees in English language teaching. That semester she was teaching eighteen hours per week at the university and supervising ten student teachers for the practicum module. She had not received any training for student teacher supervision. She reported that she maintains her supervision role based on her own experiences as a student

teacher and on the official guidelines provided by the Council of Higher Education in Turkey (explained in section 2.4).

Before the practicum module, Oylum took the school observation module in the first semester at which student teachers attend school lessons to observe English language teachers' teaching. She was placed in a 6th grade primary private school English language class. When we did our first interview she had already started the practicum module and observed a lesson taught by her cooperating teacher in the state school. Comparing her experiences in that private school and the current state school, she described her disappointment with her initial observation experience while she was telling how ready she was feeling for teaching:

> I don't know, I can't say… I just feel I was really ready last year but this year I saw many things in the school, in the private school and the state school and that's why I think that I can't make it because I just thought that I learnt lots of things in here [at the university]. […] I learnt so many things and, but when I see a lesson in the state school, it was just a disaster for me. It was just a disappointment. […] Our teacher in the state school always say that "you have to be fast, you have to be fast, we have to finish this book at the end of the semester" and I just say that I feel like that I am an obstacle in her way as an internship student because probably she is thinking that she can't finish because of us. That's why probably I will learn how to be an English teacher in a state school, how to teach fast and that's all I think. (OI)

During our conversation she elaborated on her disappointment. She was mainly dissatisfied with the coursebook, the cooperating teacher's hurry to cover all the subjects in the book and the pupils' low proficiency level. Similar concerns were brought forward during my interview with her cooperating teacher. Her cooperating teacher Melis reported feeling somehow obliged to cover all the units in the books as the pupils sit a national exam at the eighth grade which covers all the subjects in the books. This situation affected her mentoring practices in terms of the frequency and flexibility in handing over her lessons to the student teachers. Therefore, during the semester Oylum taught four times and she was only allowed to cover the workbook exercises for the first three sessions. By the last session the cooperating teacher had finished the coursebook and the workbook and she offered four grammar topics to Oylum to choose one to teach. I observed three of her classroom practices and each observation was followed by an interview. Before each teaching session

Oylum negotiated the teaching subject with the cooperating teacher. She taught her first lesson after observing the cooperating teacher for two weeks. Below is the vignette of the classroom events during her teaching:

1st Lesson Vignette (OO1)

Oylum, her peer Burak, the cooperating teacher and the researcher entered the classroom. The cooperating teacher greeted the class, asked them to tidy their desks and get ready for the lesson and then handed over the lesson to Oylum. The cooperating teacher sat in the teacher's desk while the peer student teacher and the researcher sat in the back row. The subject was the traffic lights. Oylum started with the first exercise on the book. It was a sentence completion drill. She was reading the first half aloud and the students were expected to complete her sentence. The mentor interfered to ask her to write the answers on the whiteboard. There was limited student involvement. Only one pupil kept raising her hand, Oylum waited for other pupils to volunteer to respond for a while. The cooperating teacher interfered to ask pupils to raise their hands. The next exercise was a matching exercise. Again she read the first part aloud and the pupils raised their hands to complete the sentences. Then Oylum asked the class if they remember "imperative sentences", she got an answer neither in English nor in Turkish. She wrote an example on the board and asked the pupils to point at the parts of speech in the sentence. There was silence. The cooperating teacher said "SVO [Subject-Verb-Object]" and pupils started to tell the parts of speech. She explained the grammatical structure of imperative sentences in Turkish. Then she moved to another exercise where pupils were expected to form imperative sentences under relevant pictures. Then she asked pupils to close their books, showed them a picture, asked them to describe the picture and guess the story behind it. When she could not get student respond, she asked them to answer in Turkish. Then, they opened the workbooks again. Oylum read a reading passage aloud about the picture she showed, and asked the pupils to underline unknown vocabulary. She gave instructions first in English, then in Turkish. Then she asked the unknown vocabulary, she tried to explain them through the picture she previously used, when she heard the Turkish meaning from the pupils, she repeated it to the class. Then she set out to ask comprehension questions but pupils wanted to read the passage themselves aloud and she accepted. Students read in turn. Then she started to ask comprehension questions. She accepted answers both in

English and Turkish. The bell rang while asking the second question.

During our interview her main concerns about her lesson were pupil non-involvement and long waiting time for student responses which eventually caused time management problems, and constant interventions of the cooperating teacher.

Oylum found pupil non-involvement very frustrating. While watching the video of her lesson she regretted her waiting time for pupil response. She could not develop alternative strategies to direct the pupils to the right answer or to encourage them to raise their hands. Throughout the lesson, she read the exercises aloud and kept waiting pupils to volunteer to answer. She recalled her thoughts during those waiting times:

> Here [on the video] only one pupil raised her hand and at that time I was thinking "what should I do?". Obviously they can do the activity; it was very simple for them because as I said their book was focused on it but they didn't raise hands, maybe they were shy as it was their first time with me. I didn't know their names. We had such a disconnection. (OPO1*t*)

Her main strategy was switching to Turkish when she could not get pupil response. She spent considerable time on waiting for responses.

> Of course here my aim was to let them speak in English but we cannot receive any feedback. We had such a problem. I mean, they don't answer. Therefore I switched to Turkish, at least to make them speak, involve. I suppose then the involvement peaked. (OPO1*t*)

As the excerpt suggests, when she switched to Turkish, she seemed to receive more involvement. Sometimes when she could not get the answer from the pupils, she gave the answer herself. However she kept thinking of alternative strategies for handling classroom silence for her future classes:

> Here I say "or" and keep silent… If I hadn't kept silent I would have said for example "make an imperative sentence". I said "now your turn, or…" and kept silent. The pupils can't know my expectations. (OPO1*t*)

She compared her real classroom teaching experience to her micro teaching experiences at the teacher education programme:

> Well, I did not plan those [silence moments]. And we are used to get the correct answers with correct pronunciations in our presentations [microteaching sessions at the university]. It also had an impact. Yes, here… I should not have waited; I might have done … for example… I would have given feedback like "It is so easy. See, there are signboards." Or I would have directed them somehow. I didn't; I waited. I suppose I felt anxious there. And when no one involved, my motivation depleted. And such a thing has happened; I said to myself "oh, let this activity finish right away". (OPO1*t*)

Later in the interview she regretted not getting prepared for such situations in advance and taking student involvement for granted.

> But yes, you cannot trust students. I understood that –as I said- I will definitely have a backup plan explaining what I will do in case they don't answer. (OPO1*t*)

As the two excerpts above suggest, Oylum realised that the real classroom dynamics are different to her micro teaching classes where so called pupils who are actually her peers and proficient users of English promptly answer the questions posed by the teacher. She also realised that fictionalising a lesson on a lesson plan does not guarantee the fluent flow of activities and that she needs to develop practical skills to address instantaneous incidents like pupil non-involvement.

Another dilemma for her was about teaching grammar. Although she said she intended teaching grammar subjects implicitly as it was suggested at university courses, she ended up teaching them explicitly. Her reasons for changing her technique were lack of student involvement, cooperating teacher interference, and lack of time:

> Here I tried to explain the imperative sentence structure. Normally I asked the parts of speech in a normal sentence. When they didn't answer in English, I asked in Turkish. Then it went like subject, verb… The cooperating teacher also called "SVO". When they recalled, it went on. Of course they should have said this; it was like that in my lesson plan. First I should have heard this sentence from the students. But it was a matter of time, time, time… [she laughs]. If I had focused on this more, I would not have done my reading exercise. (OPO1*t*)

As can be seen along her lines, during her lesson she was concerned by many things: her lesson plan, timing, student comprehension, and the cooperating teacher. Based on her lesson plan, she hoped to get the parts of speech from the pupils. When she did not get the expected response, the cooperating

teacher intervened and cued the pupils by saying “SVO”. Although she was not very happy about the cooperating teacher interference, as we shall see in the following excerpt, she kept going as she was worried about her timing.

It became clear in her later remarks that she perceived the cooperating teacher’s interferences as a threat for establishing her authority in the classroom. She mentioned how she was demotivated by her interventions on several occasions during the interview. Then I directly asked how the cooperating teacher’s existence in the class affected her and she explained her feelings as follows:

> At first I did not feel much, as if she wasn’t there, as if she was one of the students but when she said “write on the board”, and then I suppose she interfered again… well these interventions depleted my motivation. They were not only contrary to my lesson plan but also wasted my time. Writing the exercises on the board again, they wasted my time. When she interfered I felt like –I tried not to show and I hope I didn’t- … OK, I am a student there, I am still a student now, but at that time I was the teacher of that classroom. I would prefer not to be interfered. This could have made a negative impression on pupils, as if she [herself] can’t do; she doesn’t know how to be a teacher. I don’t know their [pupils’] ideas, I didn’t ask them but I felt like that. Therefore, this depleted my motivation. (OPO1*t*)

I asked whether she received any feedback on her teaching practice from her cooperating teacher or her peer. She found her peer’s feedback more constructive as he articulated her unfavourable practices contrary to the cooperating teacher’s completely positive feedback:

> She [the cooperating teacher] marked positive [on the assessment form]. And she wrote feedback at the end “teacher candidate came to the class well-prepared. She managed to keep the pupils’ attention throughout the lesson with her affectionate manner.” […] Apart from this, at the end –as I said- she said she liked the activity with the visual material. […] I said “the timing was problematic”, she said “don’t worry, it is your first attempt. These will settle gradually”. Quite simply, she didn’t say anything negative. But Burak said something, too. For example he made negative criticism. Of course it was better for me, I saw my mistakes. (OPO1*t*)

She told me that her peer mainly commented on her long waiting time without giving further support to pupils. While watching the video-record of her teaching practice with me, she located those silent moments and referred to her peer’s comments.

After my observation she taught another lesson which was again based on workbook exercises. She reported that the cooperating teacher left the class to her during that lesson, that she felt much more confident and they had more fun with the pupils. My second observation was Oylum's third teaching practice at the school. The cooperating teacher asked her to teach the workbook but when she examined the exercises she found them easy and irrelevant and asked the cooperating teacher to offer alternatives. Melis allowed her to teach the difference between "will" and "be going to" instead.

2nd Lesson Vignette (OO2)

Oylum, her peer Burak, the cooperating teaching and the researcher entered the classroom. The cooperating teacher greeted the class, asked them to be quiet during the lesson and then handed over the lesson to Oylum and she left the classroom. Oylum greeted the class again and started to ask questions about pupils' future plans in Turkish. Then she asked in which tense in English they can express their future plans. Students told many tense names, she accepted 'simple future tense' as the correct answer. She asked the difference between "will" and "be going to". One student answered. Then she showed some pictures and asked the pupils to form appropriate future sentences. The classroom language was still in Turkish but she got the answers she expected and wrote them on the board. Then she delivered worksheets. They did some fill in the gaps exercises about the uses of "will" and "be going to", and the correct form of "be going to". After the exercises she introduced a game. She divided the class into seven groups. She asked each group to create a situation sentence which gives a clue about a future result so that another group would guess the future result and earn points. The pupils had difficulty in understanding what they were supposed to do. They kept talking among themselves. Oylum got nervous and threaten the pupils to turn back to the exercises in the workbook. Then some groups created situations with her translation help. The activity took around seventeen minutes. They were able to produce five sentences by the end and three of them were done by the same group. When the bell rang they were still working on the game.

As the cooperating teacher left the classroom during this lesson, I asked her if it made any difference to her.

> When you or my supervisor comes, I am not affected. I recognize you as if one of my pupils even if we do not communicate during the lesson because you don't have a tendency to interfere. If I compare it to my first lesson … Melis teacher warned "be quiet!", or she interfered "skip this, skip that, time is passing". Those made me nervous but I was much more confident in my second and third lessons. I had the control; I did the lessons in my way. And we had fun, both the pupils and me. Therefore it feels better when she is not in the classroom; I don't feel pressure on myself. (OPO2*t*)

Based on her experience from her first lesson, Oylum chose to use Turkish as the classroom language to overcome student silence right from the beginning of the lesson.

> My aim was encouraging them to speak in their mother tongue because when I insist on English they suddenly shy away from the lesson. I didn't want to take that risk. Therefore I planned my warmup in Turkish and asked questions in Turkish. I got nice responses. My aim was to break the ice; I wanted all of them to volunteer to answer –even if it makes a clamour I would not mind as long as they speak. Because if I can manage to involve them at the beginning, it goes on; but if I can't, they get disconnected. (OPO2*t*)

Although she managed to increase student involvement by using Turkish, she kept struggling with directing the pupils to the correct answers. She reported that she worked on the language drills to anticipate lack of response and planned how to give cues in such moments but she experienced one of those again:

> For example, here [in the video] I don't know what to do. I am asking which tense is that, they say simple present, simple past, they tell every tense they know but I don't know what to do until I get the correct answer [future tense]. Nothing comes to my mind apart from saying "not this, not that". How I can direct them… In fact one should consider all those while planning the lesson but you can't anticipate at that time that something like that may happen. […] then they said "present future tense", as I heard 'future' I accepted and it passed unnoticed. (OPO2*t*)

Another transition in her teaching practice was about writing the correct answers on the board. In her first lesson, she was told by her cooperating teacher to write the correct answers on the board for the students to copy on their notebooks. Although she was disturbed by the cooperating teacher's interference at the time and perceived writing the answers of the exercises on the board as a waste of time in our first post-observation interview, she kept

doing it during her lesson to follow the cooperating teacher's routine even when the cooperating teacher was not in the classroom.

> As this exercise requires writing I asked them if they want me to write [the answers on board]. Because they make spelling mistakes and Melis teacher accustomed them to do so. For example when there is an activity in the students' book or the workbook, she certainly writes the answers on the board. It wasn't pre-planned. It came to my mind at that time. Although I know that, I didn't plan. When it came to my mind, I thought I may better write. (OPO2*t*)

Time management again appeared as an issue. As she could not complete her planned lesson in her previous teaching, she planned fewer activities for that lesson. This time she ran out of activities before time. She was thinking of how to manage her time during the lesson:

> The exercises in the worksheet finished very quickly, quicker than I estimated. In fact, I started to explain the sentences to take it longer, to leave less time for the game. (OPO2*t*)

However the biggest struggle for her was managing the game activity during this lesson. She told me that she found the game on the internet while searching for activities. She was inspired by a classroom video record of Spanish learners of English playing the game fluently and successfully. However, it did not went so smooth in her classroom. Her feeling of failure led her to question her instructional skills and contextual differences between her class and the class in the video she watched.

> The game part was awful to me. I went home and I gulped back my tears. (OPO2*t*)

> Probably I could not explain clearly in the beginning, I mean how it will be like… because they kept asking questions and each group was asking different questions. The things started to get out of control there. (OPO2*t*)

> I wish I had turned back to the workbook, I mean I wish I had left the game, given it up… I wish I had said "It's no go" and continued to the workbook. It would have been more productive, I mean for me. I would have gained control over. (OPO2*t*)

> In my dream –I don't know if it was because of the videos I watched- everyone would tell the situation, give the answer, tell the situation, give the answer … in an order. This was the situation in my dream. But -as I said- contextual factors like students' avoidance of participation… […]

> and the groups were not balanced, best ones were all in the same group. (OPO2*t*)

As the excerpts above show, during our interview she reacted to her experience highly emotionally. She recognised it as a failure and got the feeling of inadequacy as a teacher. Since the game activity did not work as it had in the video of Spanish learners' classroom, she started to question the contextual differences between the two classes:

> When I went home I watched the video [the classroom video record of Spanish learners on internet] again to see where I did the mistake. Well, the students' motivation to learn, the number of students and their motivation make the difference … because they [the Spanish students] really want to learn, to use, to speak. Our education system is not skills-based. They have separate speaking classes, listening classes, reading classes, grammar classes, all separate and they care about each. But it is only grammar-focused here and speaking is underestimated. Our students have hesitation. […] They don't have self-confidence [to speak]. (OPO2*t*)

> And then I thought I could have written the situations myself, they would have drawn them one by one. I would have made differences in the game. Letting groups draw a situation and I would have given points to who gave the correct answer. This might have been managed easier. This has just come to my mind. (OPO2*t*)

During our interview she also articulated a change in her ideas about teaching at a state school. Her initial pessimism seemed to change towards more positive perceptions of state schools.

> I told you before that I don't want to teach at state schools but as I teach I change my mind… as I warm towards the pupils, as I get to know them better it started to change slightly and I begin open myself to the idea. In the first place, this [teaching] is an amazing feeling. There are people in front of you and they hang on your words. (OPO2*t*)

By Oylum's last lesson the cooperating teacher had finished the coursebook and the workbook and she provided some flexibility with Oylum to choose one of four grammar subjects to teach her practice teaching. They were "can, must, should and if". Oylum chose "if clauses".

3rd Lesson Vignette (OO3)

Oylum, her peer Burak, the supervisor and the researcher entered the

classroom. The supervisor greeted the class, and then Oylum took over the class. The others took seats at the back row. Oylum started the lesson with showing a picture to the class and asking questions about the picture. She used English as the medium of instruction and rarely switched to Turkish. She added some more pictures and tacked them on the board. She started to teach if clause sentence structure base on a story she made up through those pictures. She asked the pupils repeat if clause sentences after her. Then she tacked the sentences written on coloured cards on the board. She explained the use of if clauses in Turkish and handed out worksheets. The cooperating teacher came to the class, sat in the teacher's desk. She told Oylum that the pupils have not learnt if clauses before. Then Oylum went over the sample sentences on the board again and explained the grammatical structure of the clause to students explicitly. They moved on to the exercises in the worksheet. She wrote the correct answers on the board. Suddenly two pupils scuffled and Oylum asked one of them to swap places with her peer student teacher who was sitting on another desk near them. She continued the exercises. The bell rang when they finished the last exercise in the worksheet but before she did her last activity in her lesson plan.

In the previous two lessons, it was always the cooperating teacher who greeted the classroom first and then she handed over to the lesson to Oylum. Oylum perceived these as one the interferences of the cooperating teacher that demotivated her to feel like the real teacher of the classroom. In this lesson Oylum reported a similar discomfort when the supervisor greeted the class before her. Apparently, establishing her authority in the class from the beginning was significant for her.

> In the beginning I had difficulty when Nermin teacher came and greeted the class. Then I had to repeat two or three times "Let's start children!". They couldn't pull themselves together. (OPO3*t*)

During this last lesson Oylum was observed by her supervisor and assessed. The most significant incident for Oylum was switching grammar teaching from implicit to explicit. As happened in her previous sessions although she planned to present the grammatical structure implicitly and attempted to do so, then she felt the necessity to explain it explicitly. In this instance, the cooperating teacher told her for the first time during the lesson that the pupils have not learnt if

clause structure before. On top of this, a pupil said that he did not understand the structure. Then she explained the structure explicitly again.

> I had to explain that if clauses are used to form conditional sentences, first part comes in present simple tense and the second part takes 'will'. The first reason of this was Melis teacher; she said "we haven't covered them before". The second reason was Ahmet [pseudonym of the pupil who did not understand the structure]. Now I say I wish I hadn't given this explanation. I wish we had examined the sentences together. If they had tried to analyse, it [their learning] would be more permanent. […] I panicked with the fear of not being able to continue the lesson because immediately after that I had exercises and I thought what if they can't do them. I had to explain like that but alternatively I could have done as I just told, that would be better. When I panicked I returned to the traditional method [she laughs], I had to say this is this, that is that… (OPO3*t*)

> [while watching that part in the video] Please let's skip that part, I don't want to see. Even at that time I was saying to myself "What are you doing Oylum? Shut up!" [she laughs]. You see, when someone interferes I get confused because you go there with a plan and you want to apply it and time goes… You plan your words, how long they will take. When I left that plan I thought "I lost my production activity". (OPO3*t*)

Although Oylum stated her belief in the strength of teaching grammar implicitly throughout the study, she was not able to translate it into her practices during the practicum when faced with unexpected problems. Another belief she was trying to put into practice was giving instant supportive feedback to pupils' responses. Occasionally during our interviews she reported intending to giving supportive feedback to pupils however she forgot to do so in her actual practice.

> Here I try to give feedback like "Yes, very good", sometimes I forget and then I say to myself "you didn't give feedback to others, what if they resented?" I mean, during the lesson many things like that flash through my mind because I sometimes give, sometimes not. (OPO3*t*)

As the excerpt suggest, during the lesson her mind was busy with lots of details to attend to. Although she said she hadn't felt anxious until her cooperative teacher's interference, there were times where she felt lack of self-awareness and self-control in the classroom.

> Here for example I said "how is she doing?" [instead of 'How was she feeling?],and I noticed it but I kept saying it, it was kind of unconscious. I mean, at that moment I was unable to get my tongue around the word, I don't know why. (OPO3*t*)

> I didn't even notice Burak passing by me. I can't remember but I see now. I take myself off with all these things [later she explains it as the students and their comprehension] and I can't notice what goes on around me. (OPO3*t*)

Besides all these, when the cooperating teacher warned her about the pupils' lack of background knowledge about "if clause", she got nervous as her mind was totally occupied thinking how to survive and complete her activities in her lesson plan.

> Here I flushed notably, I don't know if you noticed but my cheeks were burning. Unconsciously I started to touch my cheeks as my hands were colder. Because I got anxious suddenly when the teacher said we didn't do them [if clause structures]. Actually it was not important if they did, or not since I had already presented but when she said like that at that moment I felt bad. She said as if 'we didn't do them so they can't answer'. […] I felt the same last time when I was doing the game activity. (OPO3*t*)

Despite having some emotionally hard times during her lessons, Oylum concluded that she improved her teaching skills during the practicum. She noticed that as she got to know the pupils and their proficiency level, she was getting better in tailoring her teaching.

> I realized that my activities went well both in my previous lesson and here. I mean the pupils were able to do them. It means that I use the right materials. I was evaluating that on my own. When you first came, my first exercise put strain on them. Then I thought whether I set the proficiency level high. We decided on the elementary level with the cooperating teacher, I wondered if I mixed them with pre-intermediate. Then here and the previous lesson, they all went fluent. (OPO3*t*)

Immediately after her last lesson, she received oral and written feedback from her supervisor. Nermin firstly told her satisfaction with Oylum's practice and then she commented on how her lesson would be improved with small changes. She made some corrections and notes on her lesson plan and gave it back to Oylum to correct them before she submits them in her final portfolio. I couldn't follow up if the supervisor's comments had any impact on her practice because Oylum didn't teach again.

In terms of what she learnt during the practicum, she restated that she learnt not to take student responses granted while planning lesson and to prepare for such situations in advance. She also reported being motivated become a

teacher, even in state schools which she said she wouldn't like to work in initial interview.

> Of course the practicum taught me to be more precautious. Especially – as I said in the matter of trust in students, I have learnt that I shouldn't trust in students' [capabilities] that much. As I said, now I go to the lesson better prepared, I have examples, I don't leave it all to them instead of leaving them to do and then checking. Apart from that, I was distant… I didn't want [to teach in state schools] but I became reconciled to it. (OPO3*t*)

She mentioned similar issues in her final evaluation report in her portfolio. Similar to Ceren and Erdem, Oylum preferred focusing on her positive experiences in her report, too:

> In those lessons I have learnt many things such dealing with unexpected situations, classroom management or setting up a time limit for an activity. The more I spent time with them, the more I learnt things about them and this was very effective for my lessons. Thanks to my background information about the students which I gained from observations, I could choose more effective activities or I could take my precautions for potential problems that I might face during the lesson. Towards the end of the term, I could even predict the words that they knew or they did not know.
>
> Giving lecture as a teacher changed my feeling about working in public schools. At the beginning of this term, I had a negative idea about being a teacher in there because of its systems. But working with those lovely students made me think otherwise as they are all very smart students as well as good and well-behaved. (OP)

During our last interview, I also asked whether she observed any impact of the interviews we had on her practicum experience. Her following respond showed that watching the video-records of her own teaching and talking about them helped her raise awareness of her practices.

> For example, if I hadn't been involved in this study, I wouldn't have understood that I should be precautious [about possible student non-involvement] because most of the time I watched the video and I commented on it saying I wish I had done this here, it would be better. They were all things which came to my mind at those moments. After leaving the classroom, you may think of a couple of things to improve for the next time but when I sit with you and watch the videos… I think it is something that all students should do. (OPO3*t*)

In short, Oylum, like other student teachers, had limited opportunities to practice teaching during the practicum. The supervision triad provided hardly

any support for her learning. On the contrary, she perceived the cooperating teacher's interventions as a threat to her authority in the classroom. During the practicum, Oylum was generally concerned about time management, how to present grammar rules effectively and how to respond to instant classroom situations like lack of student participation or cooperating teacher's interferences. The major contrasts she faced were between:

- her beliefs about how language is best taught and her practices in the face of unexpected classroom events (i.e. believing that she should teach grammar implicitly but ending up explaining the grammatical structure explicitly either because of the cooperating teacher's interruptions, or lack of pupil comprehension; believing that English should be the language used in the classroom but ending up using Turkish due to lack of pupil involvement),
- the image of ideal classroom, and the messy realities of real classrooms (i.e. lack of pupil involvement, failure of the game activity adopted from Spanish context without adapting),
- her beliefs about teacher authority in the classroom, and the space left to her by her cooperating teacher and supervisor to perform her authority.

5.6 Zeynep: "If it was up to me, I would not ask them to read aloud"

Zeynep was a female student teacher at the English language teacher education programme. She had not had any teaching experience prior to the practicum except for the microteaching sessions they had at the university. For the practicum she was placed in a 9th grade class in a state high school. The English lesson that she was assigned to was a selective course for the pupils. The pupils came together from different classes at the same grade across the school for this two hours selective course. The cooperating teacher was following a syllabus based on a reading text book and movies in English. The exams were based on those, too. During the practicum Zeynep attended these classes two hours a week with a peer, Ruya. She taught four full lessons during the semester. The first one was observed by her cooperating teacher, her peer and the researcher; the second and the third ones were observed by her

cooperating teacher and her peer; and the fourth one was observed by the researcher, her peer, her cooperating teacher and her supervisor. Her lessons were cancelled many times during the semester due to events at school along with other lessons in the school. She had to go back in such cases. For the rest of the semester when she did not teach and when the lesson was not cancelled, she observed either her cooperating teacher's or her peer student teacher's teaching in the practice school, or she watched the movies with pupils.

Pınar was Zeynep's cooperating teacher at the practice school and Yeliz was Zeynep's supervisor at the teacher education programme. Pınar had a BA degree in Chemistry (taught in English), but she had sixteen years of English language teaching experience in state schools and twelve years' experience in mentoring student teachers. During that term she was teaching twenty five hours a week and mentoring two student teachers. She had not received any training for her role as a cooperating teacher. Yeliz held BA and MA degrees in English language teaching. She had been teaching and supervising student teachers at the university for seventeen years. That semester she was teaching twenty two hours per week at the university and supervising twelve student teachers for the practicum module. She had not received any training for student teacher supervision.

During our initial interview Zeynep's main concern for the practicum was her classroom stage fright. She told me that as a shy person she feels anxious about addressing to a crowd and she has lack of confidence as she hasn't had such an experience before. This suggests it was not addressed during the teacher education programme:

> I am normally a very anxious person, maybe I told you many times and maybe you got bored. I tremble from nervousness. I am like that. You will see while I teach. (ZI*t*)

The only teaching experience she had was the micro-teaching sessions she did at the university. However she wasn't satisfied with these sessions as she thought they were superficial. Like Oylum, she was critiquing micro teaching sessions for not reflecting the real language classrooms:

> They [the pupils in microteaching sessions who are actually her classmates] participate in the lesson to save us. For example, they give the correct answers. Just to save the moment, to help our friend. There was always keen participation. But I am sure this will not be the same in a real classroom setting. Maybe no one will raise hand. Maybe I will stand there with my bare face hanging out. Maybe I will try but cannot get any answers. I mean, you cannot know. It [micro-teaching] was so superficial. (ZI*t*)

Her main expectation from the practicum was to gain confidence to teach. Zeynep and her peer were advised by their supervisor to observe the class for two weeks before starting teaching. They went to the practice school every week but each time their lesson was cancelled either because of an event or an exam taking place at the school. Despite her supervisor's advice, she taught her first lesson on the seventh week of the semester without observing or meeting the pupils in advance. Of the two consecutive English lessons with the same class, she taught the first one and her peer taught the second separately but they observed each other.

1st Lesson Vignette (ZO1)

Zeynep, her peer Ruya, the cooperating teacher and the researcher entered the classroom. The others sat on the back desks and Zeynep started the lesson by greeting the pupils. The pupils' initial reaction to seeing the student teachers in the classroom was quite negative. They were mumbling "Interns, again?!!". The lesson was planned as a reading lesson based on a text from the coursebook that the cooperating teacher followed. She started the lesson with an energizer activity. The aim was to make the sound of rain. She divided the class into three groups and assigned certain hand gestures to groups. Then she directed the groups like a conductor to produce the sound. She started the lesson speaking in English but while giving instructions for the game every time she switched to Turkish for translation. After the energizer, she moved to a warm-up activity. The reading text was about climbers and she tacked a mountain picture on the board and asked the pupils to tell words to describe a mountain and she wrote the words on the board. Then she delivered the lesson hand-outs. At the meantime, one of the pupils asked the cooperating teacher when the next exam was. The lesson was distracted for a couple of minutes before Zeynep took the floor again. In the hand-out, the first exercise was for vocabulary check. There were words with their meanings to be matched. She explained the meaning of each word

by projecting some visuals on the board and by translating. They also made two repetitions for the pronunciation of each word. Then she skipped the matching and gave five minutes to pupils to read the text. Later during the interview, she told me that she forgot about that exercise and noticed that while the pupils were reading. Therefore, after five minutes reading she turned back to the vocabulary exercise to match the words. Then she again gave time to read the text and answer the comprehension questions. They continued answering the questions on the hand-out. She asked pupils how they find the text and the story and she moved to the post-reading activity. She tacked another picture on the board and asked the pupils to describe it. The classroom language was Turkish. Their chat took around ten minutes until when she looked at the cooperating teacher and told she run out of activities by gestures. The cooperating teacher then suggested reading the text aloud and translating. After all those she thanked the pupils for their participation, took her belongings from the teacher's desk and came to sit one of the back desks. The cooperating teacher didn't change her place but from there she took attendance. Then the bell rang.

Zeynep and her peer were both given a unit from the coursebook by their cooperating teacher to cover during the lesson. Each unit consisted of a vocabulary exercise, a reading text and comprehensions questions about the text. Zeynep expressed feeling restricted by the coursebook while preparing the lesson plan.

> As our teacher [the cooperating teacher] said you should stick to that we couldn't have done many activities. We could have only added activities at the beginning and at the end because they [the pupils] were responsible for those [exercises in the book] in the exam. Therefore we had to follow the paper. (ZPO1*t*)

During the post observation interview she said she had difficulties in time management, gaining pupil involvement and maintaining English as the classroom language.

> To me, time was a problem. I had talked to Ruya [her peer] before the lesson, we omitted activities as we thought we would not have enough time. So, as you would recognize, mine ended earlier, quite earlier. And English… At first I started in English, everyone was staring at me. As I told you before I am anxious personally, on top of it, when I could not get feedback I directly switched to Turkish. Then it went on in Turkish. I tried

> to give the instructions in English as much as possible. I didn't want to do like that but it happened. Me, myself, if you ask me whether I am satisfied with my performance, I am not. Because I couldn't do anything that I wanted to do. (ZPO1*t*)

According to her, the reason behind her timing problem and the conflicts in L1 use was that she hadn't observed the class before and didn't know the students.

> We have never seen her [the cooperating teacher] teaching. If it was up to me I wouldn't have asked the pupils to read aloud. If I had known I would have left so much time I would rather find more activities. I don't know, I don't find reading aloud so beneficial. Of course it is good, important for pronunciation but I don't know, I don't know. (ZPO1*t*)

She recalled how lack of knowledge of pupils affected her decisions while she was teaching vocabulary:

> I thought they wouldn't know the words, but they did know almost all the words. While I was teaching vocabulary they had already done the matching. We didn't know the proficiency level of the pupils and how these reading texts are used in the class. Because we were taught that before a reading text, we should teach vocabulary, maximum five words. I looked at the exercise, there were lots of words. I guessed they would know a couple of them. I was planning to teach the rest. I even prepared PowerPoint slides as to support visually but they had known. The thing I have done was silly in a way, I re-taught something they had already known but if I had not done, the lesson would have finished earlier. (ZPO1*t*)

Prior to the lesson, she prepared her plan in accordance to what they learnt about how to teach reading texts at the teacher education programme. However, her plan failed as the pupils had already known the vocabulary. This caused a panic for Zeynep. During the stimulated recall interview, she paused the video at the moment when she forgot the matching activity and moved to the next instruction to explain her thoughts at that time in detail:

> I realized what happened; I bent my head regretting what I have done. I was shocked with what I have said, even myself, I was shocked with my instruction. Maybe because I had thought the pupils wouldn't know the words and I planned I would teach them. But they knew, they said. Perhaps because of this I thought they must have done the matching and I skipped. I swear I don't know why I did such a thing. Actually I had planned everything. (ZPO1*t*)

By the end of our interview, she was critical of her overall performance and she concluded that she would survive the practicum lessons only if she follows the cooperating teacher's advice.

> I mixed the places of the activities, I spoke in Turkish, I had insufficient activities. […] I finished the activities but I couldn't finish the time, I had long time left. If I had made the pupils read… For instance my peer saw during my lesson how time is going, she made them read and translate sentence by sentence and finished on the dot. So it means that I should have done in this way. I will do like that from now on. (ZPO1*t*)

As the excerpt suggests, the main concern for Zeynep was to survive the practicum by teaching a tidy lesson and filling the time. Although she did not believe in the value of reading aloud and translating, it was tempting for her to follow the cooperating teacher's advice for her future lessons as she observed how her peer succeeded filling the lesson time.

2nd Lesson Vignette (ZO2)

Zeynep, her peer Ruya, the cooperating teacher, the supervisor and the researcher entered the classroom. The lesson was again a reading lesson. The text was about fashion. She greeted the pupils and moved to her warm-up activity by asking the students if they could help her to choose a graduation dress for her. She showed some dress pictures on the board and asked pupils to rate them. Then she delivered the lesson hand-outs. Following the exercise on the handout she started with the vocabulary check exercise. She taught the words through visuals. She rarely switched to Turkish only to give the translation of the word. She gave two minutes to pupils to match the words with their meanings and the pupils read their answers aloud in turn to check the answers. Then she gave time to read the text and played the audio record of the text afterwards. She asked a couple of pupils to read the text aloud in turn too. The pupils also translated the text sentence by sentence in turn. Then they answered the comprehension questions on the hand-outs. This was followed by a silent motion game where the pupils picked words about clothes and fashion from a box and tried to mime it to the rest of the class. She predominantly used English during this lesson. She didn't translate her instructions.

As she decided in our first post observation interview, Zeynep followed what her cooperating teacher suggested for the last lesson. As she stated she did

not believe in the benefits of reading aloud and translating during our previous interview, I asked her what her thinking was behind using translation during her lesson:

> Pinar teacher was doing in this way. I mean, we… Actually the class didn't fully belong to us. I mean, we followed Pinar teacher's routine. And we didn't want to violate the pupils' rights since they were going to sit an exam including those texts. In order not to create an unusual order, we had to do in this way. If it was up to me… That's why I had difficulties during my first lesson. She [the cooperating teacher] said "ask them to read, why didn't you do translations?". You must remember, too. She said like that to me. I mean, if it was up to me, I would not ask them to translate because when I asked, you must have noticed- they made it straight away. It was simple, they understand. However, as Pinar teacher said like that, we had to. (ZPO2*t*)

Her comments above show similarity to the other student teacher's struggles during the practicum such as feeling lack of ownership of the class, the restrictive impact created by the syllabus and the cooperating teacher's teaching style, and ending up using techniques they do not believe to be useful. However, in Zeynep's case this resulted in a negative criticism from her supervisor. Straight after the lesson, Zeynep, her supervisor and her cooperating teacher met in the teachers' room for immediate feedback. Her supervisor's ideas about translation conflicted with her cooperating teacher's advice. However she was not in a position to express her beliefs about translation and the reasons for using it during this conversion in the presence of the cooperating teacher.

> Yeliz (The supervisor): Listening to the audio record was good but was it really necessary to translate? Because it was too simple for them. If it was a harder text, they would have been challenged. They translated very well. That's to say, it was not actually necessary to make this in such a successful state. (ZF*t*)

The translation practice that her supervisor criticised was not actually a technique that Zeynep used willingly, it was rather an instruction she got from her cooperating teacher. However, as her cooperating teacher was present in the session, there was no way of explaining that to her supervisor. She was held accountable for a practice which was not rooted in her cognitions.

When I asked her to evaluate her whole experience of the practicum, she expressed it helped her to gain confidence as she got to know more about the pupils:

> I was anxious again but not as much as I was in my first session. I believe for sure that the last two weeks contributed. I don't know how you observed but I became quite comfortable. I acquainted myself with the pupils. My first lesson, the one you observed…. We rushed headlong into it. I mean we had not had observed the pupils by any chance. As I told, my vocabulary exercise turned to dust. I didn't know then, but now I can predict much or less the words they would know, or not. During this lesson, you might have noticed, they didn't know the words that I predicted, that I got prepared for teaching with visuals. I can predict those now in the classroom as I know the class profile, pupil profile. But for sure, it was not the same with the first lesson. Maybe the techniques were the same but what I felt was different. It was not like how I felt in the while I taught the first lesson. I was more confident, maybe because I know the pupils and they know me. Well, I was more comfortable. (ZPO2*t*)

During the practicum Zeynep found it hard to apply what she had learnt at the university. When she tried in her first lesson, she failed in keeping up with time and creating meaningful learning experience for the pupils. Therefore she chose to follow the cooperating teacher's routines to survive the practicum. In her portfolio, she concluded that the theoretical knowledge fell short for her needs in actual teaching practice and she predicted that she would develop as a teacher only with more teaching experience.

> Lastly, I want to say that becoming a teacher is not like what is written in the books. It is actually a tabula rasa and we fill it with our experiences, I think… (ZP)

To sum up, Zeynep taught four lessons during the practicum. She had weekly meetings with her supervisor where the student teachers reported the problems they face at practice schools. Initially she was concerned about her anxiety. She reported overcoming her anxiety to a large extent by the fourth lesson as she got to know the pupils and the cooperating teacher's lesson routines. Her learning during the practicum was marked by the following contrasts she experienced between:

- what she wanted to do and what the lesson syllabus required her to do,
- what she wanted to do and what her cooperating teacher/supervisor wanted her to do,

- what she did for assessment and what she would do otherwise.

5.7 Key issues

In this chapter, I aimed to present the lived practicum experiences of five student teachers with a specific focus on their learning to teach. Throughout the cases, the opportunities for learning to teach were limited by various reasons. Under these limiting circumstances, the student teachers mainly focused on developing their basic instructional skills, understanding of real classroom settings, and an identity as a teacher.

This chapter also shed light on the factors limited the opportunities for student teacher learning. Three main factors as emerging from the data were: lack of access to teaching, unpreparedness for real classrooms and lack of support.

5.7.1 Lack of access to teaching

The practicum was a fourteen weeks module. However, as we have seen in individual case sections, the student teacher participants of the study had limited access to teaching. Their opportunities to actually teach varied between two to four lessons during the practicum. Table 5.2 shows the timeline for the student teachers' first school visits and teaching sessions observed by the researcher.

Table 5.2 Timeline of student teachers' teaching

	First school visit for meeting	**1st teaching**	**2nd teaching**	**3rd teaching**
Ceren	28 Feb (3rd week)	10 March (5th week)	28 April 12th week)	-
Defne	27 Feb (3rd week)	3 April (8th week)	15 May (14th week)	22 May (15th week*)
Erdem	4 March (4th week)	24 March (7th week)	12 May (14th week)	-
Oylum	21 Feb (2nd week)	10 March (5th week)	21 April (11th week)	12 May (14th week)
Zeynep	27 Feb (2nd week)	24 March (7th week)	28 April (12th week)	-
*exceeding the official module timeline				

As the dates for the first school visits show, 2 to 4 weeks had already passed before they were introduced to the cooperating teachers and started their practicum. The first week of the practicum was spent on the official paperwork among the faculty, the Ministry of Education and the practice schools. Then the supervisors started to take the groups of student teachers to their practice schools. Some of the supervisors asked the student teachers to observe the cooperating teacher's teaching at least once before taking over the teaching. Then they also had to negotiate access to teaching with their cooperating teachers so as not to interfere in their routine teaching. The student teachers started teaching around the fifth week of the practicum.

This minimal contact with the classes often resulted in a lack of knowledge of pupils which led to struggles in understanding learner needs, identifying appropriate materials and activities, and giving comprehensible instructions.

5.7.2 Unpreparedness for real classrooms

The student teachers brought some cognitions which were influenced by their own language learning experiences and the teacher education programme. The impact of teacher education programme was mainly observed on stated cognitions regarding the use of communicative language teaching methods, English as the classroom language to maximise language input, constructive and discovery learning methods instead of transmission methods. However, these cognitions were not grounded in any practical experience. For instance, Oylum and Zeynep noted that the only opportunity to practice what they learnt at the teacher education programme were the micro teaching sessions, and they were by no means representative of a real language classroom. Therefore, once in the real classroom, the student teachers' practices were often guided by more powerful factors such as the established practices of their cooperating teachers, and their desire to survive the practicum. Under these circumstances the cognitions influenced by the teacher education programme were rather shallow and vulnerable, and were often abandoned quickly. Thus, the transfer of the theoretical knowledge into the teaching practice was not as straightforward as the applied science model of teacher education deemed. These tensions between their cognitions and the factors constraining them to

certain practices resulted in conflicts between their stated cognitions and teaching practices throughout the practicum.

5.7.3 Lack of professional support

Each student teacher was assigned to a university-based supervisor and a school-based mentor to receive support during the practicum. However, those more experienced others did not provide efficient support for learning to teach, they rather often restricted the student teachers' learning opportunities.

On the one hand, the cooperating teachers were often criticised by the student teachers for their interferences in their teaching practice. There is strong evidence in data that the interferences by the cooperating teachers had direct impact on student teachers' practices. In some cases (i.e. Oylum), the student teacher perceived the cooperating teacher as a threat to feel ownership of the classroom and to build authority as a teacher. For the student teachers, the cooperating teachers were teachers from whom they borrowed a classroom and pupils to practice their teaching. They did not recognize the cooperating teachers as a source of knowledge or experience or in a mentor role.

On the other hand, supervision role was almost completely limited to the assessment of the student teachers. The content and frequency of the supervision that the student teachers received varied during the practicum. While Defne never had the opportunity to have a supervision meeting, or being observed by her supervision, Zeynep had regular group supervision meetings with her supervisor and received oral feedback from her supervisor right after her teaching. The supervisors with their appearance on the final lesson as an evaluator represented the assessment bit of the practicum in this study. The assessment created a tension on student teachers to prepare perfect model lessons instead of opportunities to reflect on and learn from their practice.

The cooperating teacher exerted power on the student teachers as the real owners of the classrooms they taught. Similarly the supervisors exerted power as the evaluators who decide their final grade for the practicum module. Consequently, the student teachers had to conform and please their observers by their teaching. They tried to plan and teach tidy lessons to pass the module

and they avoided challenging the established practices at schools even though they were critical of them.

The findings regarding student teacher learning will be further interpreted and discussed in section 7.1. In the next chapter, I will go deeper in my investigation of the factors that affected the student teachers' learning opportunities during the practicum by reporting on the accounts of supervisors and cooperating teachers.

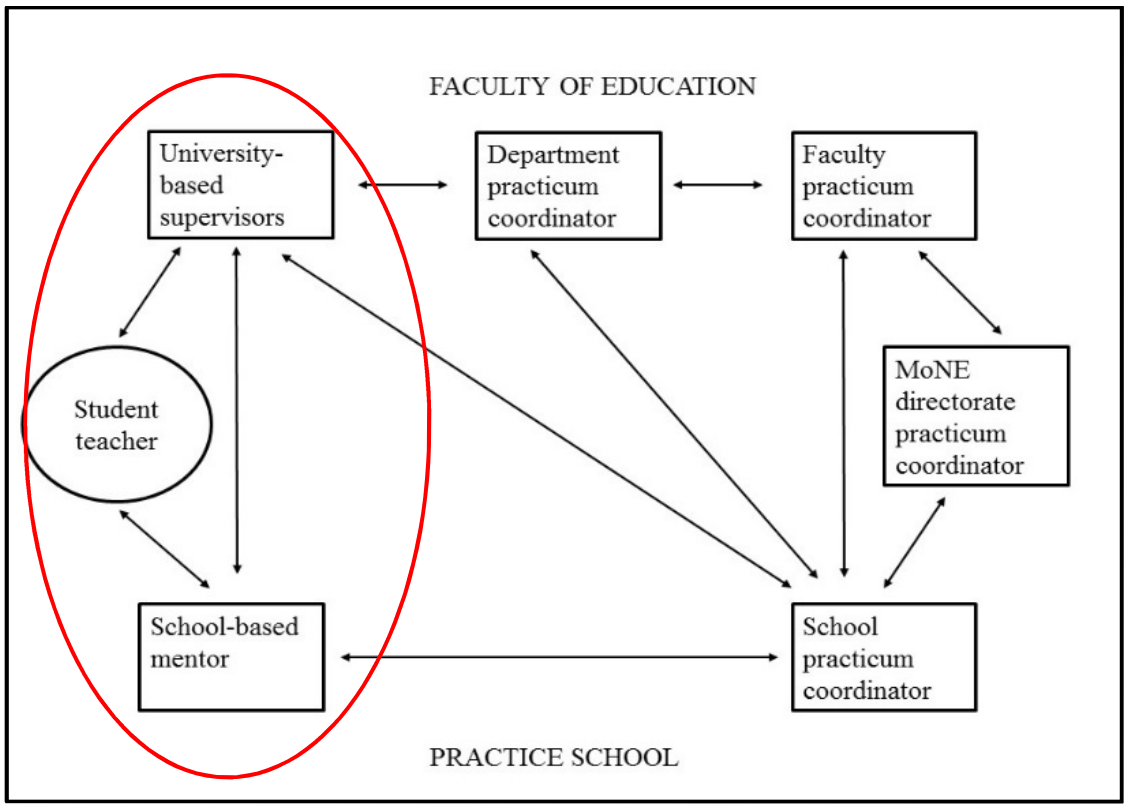
Chapter 6. Practicum as a context for student teacher learning: Voices of the cooperating teachers and the supervisors

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the cases of student teachers' practicum experiences to address the first research question which examines student teacher learning during the practicum. Building on the previous chapter, this chapter presents the voices of the cooperating teachers and the supervisors to reach a broader understanding of the factors influencing the opportunities for student teacher learning during the practicum and aims to answer the second research question posed regarding the factors hindering or supporting student teacher learning during the practicum.

As discussed in the literature review, the language teacher practicum is generally facilitated by mentoring in order to enable student teachers to learn from and with more experienced colleagues and teacher educators. The practicum, in the context of my research study similarly aimed at supporting student teachers through regular contact with school-based cooperating teachers and university-based teacher educator supervisors. Figure 6.1 below is the design for the practicum proposed by the Council of Higher Education and claimed as the basis for the practicum provision by the faculty where this study took place. For the purposes of my research study I focused on the participants who have immediate contact with the student teachers as highlighted within the red circle. As the evidence from the student teachers individual cases presented in the previous chapter shows, the type of support they receive did not facilitate teacher learning; rather, it was restrictive in providing student teachers with opportunities to try out and reflect on their teaching practices. My overall fieldwork experience also showed that the actual practicum design in the context studied did not match the one portrayed by the Council of Higher Education (as in Figure 6.1 above).

Figure 6.1 Communication network of Faculty of Education – Practice School Cooperation Programme (YÖK, 2007 :46) [The red circle added for highlighting].



The practicum experiences of the student teachers were shaped by numerous social and contextual factors. Therefore this chapter explores the underlying reasons for the mentoring and supervision practices of the cooperating teachers and the supervisors based on their own accounts. Table 6.1 displays the supervision triads and summarises the key information about the cooperating teachers and supervisors who were the key informants of the data presented in this chapter. The demographic information of the participants provided on the table will be referred to later in the relevant sections to their roles.

Before proceeding further, I would like to remind a terminological clarification made earlier (3.3). Throughout the thesis, I refer to the role of the university-based supervisors as ‘supervision’ and the role of the cooperating teachers as ‘mentoring’ following the literature. However, the distinction between these two terms were not very clear in the field context. The participants either used the Turkish term ‘danışman’ which corresponds to both, or used these terms interchangeably in English.

I would also like to note that this chapter presents participants' accounts of their own professional practices. Such data was crucial in understanding the factors playing role in organizing and carrying out the practicum. Although some of the observations and interpretations in this chapter may come across as negative, my intention was neither to assess nor to criticise the participants' professional practices, but to reach a better understanding of the practicum.

Table 6.1 Participants

Student teacher	Cooperating teacher	Supervisor
Oylum	**Melis*** 15 years ELT experience 1 year mentoring experience Teaching 24hrs pw Mentoring 3 STs	**Nermin** 12 years ELT experience 12 years supervising experience Teaching 18 hrs pw Supervising 10 STs
Ercan	**Hakan** 10 years ELT experience No mentoring experience Teaching 22 hrs pw Mentoring 3 STs	**Leyla** 27 years ELT experience 21 years supervising experience Teaching 30-35 hrs pw Supervising 20 STs
Zeynep	**Pinar** 16 years ELT experience 12 years mentoring experience Teaching 25 hrs pw Mentoring 2 STs	**Yeliz** 28 years ELT experience 17 years supervising experience Teaching 35 hrs pw Supervising 10 STs
Defne	**Gamze** 14 years ELT experience 1 year mentoring experience Teaching 21 hrs pw Mentoring 3 STs	**Kerem** 10 years ELT experience 7 years supervising experience Teaching 35 hrs pw Supervising 10 STs
Ceren	**Ayhan** 17 years ELT experience 8 years mentoring experience Teaching 20-25 hrs pw Mentoring 2 STs	**Tolga** 16 years ELT experience 6 years supervising experience Teaching 14 hrs pw Supervising 17 STs
***Cooperating teachers and supervisors are referred to in the interview excerpts with their initials followed by 'I' for 'initial interview' and '*t*' for translation if their statements were translated from Turkish to English (e.g. Kerem: KI, Melis: MI*t*)		

That said, the next sub-sections will present the accounts of and the web of communication between the school-based cooperating teachers and the

university-based supervisors respectively as the main actors in the design and implementation of the practicum.

6.2 School-based cooperating teachers

Within the supervision triad, the cooperating teachers were the student teachers' primary contacts in the practice schools. As Table 6.1 above shows the cooperating teacher participants were all experienced English language teachers. They were all teaching at state schools: three in primary level and two in high school level and they all had pretty heavy workloads –which is common at state schools in Turkey. They were all using the coursebook prescribed by the Ministry of Education and were responsible for covering the units of the book by the end of the semester within their limited lesson hours with each class. They were all under pressure to cover the syllabus:

> Our time is too limited; there are units within units [in the coursebook]. Grammar topics are already a handicap for pupils. This puts the kids off. Would not I like to teach my kids with colourful materials, with spoken interaction, you know, watching cartoons, movies… acting dialogs. But no time. The Ministry of National Education says to me, "My friend, you've got to finish my book." At the end of the year we account for that: why we were behind, why we did not cover. We have to report these all in detail. We are working as a coterie, four five teachers teaching English, we need to act together, we ask the same questions in the exam. So what? I cannot do what I want to do or I need to do. (MI*t*)

> For example, last year I had four English lessons a week with each class. We devoted an hour to games. We had videos, songs. You know the children were looking forward to finishing the tasks and moving to the song. Visuals were involved, there were games. But this year it has been decreased to three hours [by the MoNE]. I had already had difficulties in covering the topics. Sometimes you get sick, something happens, you need to compensate for your absence because when they [inspectors] come to you they don't ask what a child get from the lesson, they ask whether you covered the syllabus, or not. As long as your concern is covering the syllabus, I do not think it could be taught, especially with this three hour syllabus. (GI*t*)

As the excerpts above suggest the teachers were working under pressure to cover the syllabus as they had to account for the topics they did not teach. They were strictly monitored by the authorities both at the school level and at the national level. Apart from the decreased number of weekly lesson hours

and the overloaded curriculum, Pinar noted that preparation and administration of regular exams took much of her classroom time:

> While trying to keep up with the exams we cannot have enough time for the topics, for new activities. The system has come to a point that each month there is an exam, after four weeks there is an exam. You need to teach the topic within four weeks, you need to do reading, do a little bit activities, do stuff, speaking. So we skip them a bit and try to do sample tasks that we will ask in the exam. Maybe this makes the lesson a little bit monotonous. We don't have time for extra fun or activity, our lesson hours are four hours. Too many exams. So nothing much left really. (PI*t*)

Teachers' statements about their teaching practices indicate that they were not involved in the decision-making for the hours, content and materials of their lessons. Their passive position in the system constrained them from teaching what they think it is necessary for their learners in a way they believe to be successful. The desire to achieve systemic coherence at the national level drastically limited the autonomy of individual language teachers.

Their involvement in the practicum was yet another responsibility assigned to the cooperating teachers. Their experience in working as a cooperating teacher was varied between no experiences to twelve years' experience. None of them had ever received training for their mentoring role and they did not have clear understanding of their role as cooperating teachers:

> No, no, I never even heard about such training. I do not know. There was not any in-service training neither by the Ministry of National Education or by the university where they tell student teachers will come, these should be done, this is how to do it. We do improvisation; we're trying to work with something called the master-apprentice relationship (AI*t*)

> There is no any such in-service training course. No such a thing. We have not received anything like that. […] For the second time I am doing that [mentoring] so I do not know exactly what to do, frankly. (HI*t*)

There was also lack of clarity both from the university and the MoNE about what responsibilities and tasks their role as mentor requires. The nature of the explanations done by the university-based supervisors were rather vague and generic:

> No, nothing like that [training] anyway. So, no training. So what will they teach? There is not anything that the faculty do, neither. Nothing. They

> [supervisors] bring students [student teachers] here, they say “They are now your students, guide them” [laughs] (PI*t*)

> I do not know what we can provide as the school. I do not know what can be done for the practicum, neither. I mean, if someone had told me that you will do like that, they will be under your training, you will pay attention to these and these, then I would be able to comment on what should be done as I would know what I am talking about. But now I'm neutral. They said, “Teacher, this [the student teacher] is yours, train it”. So our mission is to first sit in the back and observe and then direct them. (GI*t*)

As they did not know the description and responsibilities of their role as cooperating teachers, they relied on their own past experiences as student teachers to empathize with the student teachers. Their mentoring practices were therefore limited to passing on how they were trained themselves and what they have always done in their classrooms which was not always similar to what the student teachers had encountered during teacher education programme. Now, I will look into the relationships that the cooperating teachers built and sustained during the practicum.

6.2.1 Cooperating teacher & supervisor

The envisaged design of the practicum proposed cooperation between the cooperating teachers and the supervisors. However, they came together only twice during the practicum. The first was at the beginning of the semester when the supervisors brought the student teachers to the practice school to introduce them to the teachers and to ensure every student teacher is assigned to a cooperating teacher. The second one was when the supervisor came to observe the student teacher for assessment. Gamze met the supervisor only once as he never came again for observation. When a cooperating teacher and a supervisor met, their interactions were limited:

> Honestly we do not have any contact, any comment exchange apart from his visit for observation. [...] Until now, we never had something like sitting and commenting on a student teacher together. But we also have our own evaluation form [of the student teachers’ teaching practice] sent by the students, I suppose they [supervisors] consider what we write and the grades we give. (AI*t*)

> There are the lecturers who come from the university, they contact us, they come here to observe their lessons. First they bring the students, introduce them. They arrange their programme, like who will work with

> whom. Then, once they come here to observe if they [the student teachers] teach. Then sometimes they do things with us. We fill in forms; they ask questions about the student teachers. They ask for our comments. [...] If they ask for our opinion we can tell, we do not say if we are not asked. Only if asked… Some do not ask. They are their students; they deal with their student by themselves. They give some advice to them. Sometimes you know, they do not ask us. (PI*t*)

The above excerpt from the interview with Pınar shows that she did not feel ownership in the mentoring practice. Her comments about the opportunities to state her ideas in the supervision triad signalled a power imbalance within the group members. Despite this power imbalance and lack of professional cooperation, the university supervisors were still the only information source about the practicum as the cooperating teachers did not have any other links with the university:

> I suppose if I have any difficulty I will get in touch with the lecturer at the university. I find it more efficient to contact the course leader [the supervisor]. Because in the body of Ministry of National Education, there isn't not any person informed about the practicum. Because this is not our field. Lecturers come from the university. Therefore I would definitely contact course leader if I struggle… (HI*t*)

Having so limited contact with the supervisors as the only representatives from the teacher education department, the cooperating teachers did not know the general structure and the content of the teacher education programme.

> Well, I don't know what has changed since my graduation. How we learnt, what we had... First, we had British literature, we had material development, I suppose we had some pedagogical lessons. It's been so long that I suddenly felt I'm old now (laughs). […] I suppose the practicum is longer now, they go for a year. (GI*t*)

The cooperating teachers, therefore, were uninformed about the content and the nature of the education the student teachers receive at the teacher education programme. They again relied on their own past experiences and assumptions.

6.2.2 Cooperating teacher & wider school community

The cooperation within the school was similarly minimal. In the school community, their communication about the practicum was limited to the division of labour and going through the official formalities.

> In our own school, there is a vice manager who is dealing with the student teachers. We get in touch with that vice manager, they give us the forms, the names. Then we fill in the forms and give them back. (PI*t*)
>
> Our own school, as you [the researcher] have also witnessed, these [the official paperwork for the practicum] come to school administration first. They do the planning; then we share them [the student teachers] in our coterie. (AI*t*)

6.2.3 Cooperating teacher & student teacher

Not sure about their responsibilities during the practicum, the cooperating teachers improvised in their mentoring role. Although the official guideline stipulated twenty four hours of teaching for each student teacher during a semester (MEB, 1998) it was not made clear to the cooperating teachers. Not being sure about how many times a student teacher is supposed to teach during the semester, the cooperating teachers struggled to fit teaching practice into their teaching timetables. As they were under pressure to cover the syllabus, handing over their lessons to student teachers was considered loss of time:

> Well, to my understanding they want to teach every week. We, I mean I can only let them teach once every two weeks, only for the workbook exercises because on the first week I teach the students' book and then on the second week I teach the workbook. … Don't get me wrong, if I was a reckless teacher I would give them all and I would drink my tea in the teachers' room. But I don't even want to attend the seminars not to fall behind the lessons because we are worried. They [the units to be covered] are very important for us. Because there are three lessons a week, […] the book is weighty and there are too many topics. If I let them [the student teachers] teach, this will be a disadvantage for me, I will fall behind. (MI*t*)
>
> As far as I know, their teachers [supervisor] observe them once. Once she observes and gives grade. Probably the rest [of their teaching] is optional, depends on our willingness. For example, if I give them a task, or they come and ask me, "Teacher, could we teach this topic, we want to improve ourselves?" I say to them, "of course, you can". But as far as I know there is no certain number of teaching hours. [...] Sometimes, we have lots of exams, we are too busy and we cannot let them teach because we lose a lesson. When a student teacher teaches, we have to teach it over. (PI*t*)

As the above excerpts show there was a serious lack of knowledge of what was supposed to happen during the practicum. One common dilemma for the cooperating teachers was whether to leave the student teachers alone in the

classroom or attend class with them. Ayhan, for instance preferred staying in the classroom and monitoring the student teachers' teaching until he fully trusted in their practices.

> I'm not in favour of leaving them alone at first because our first responsibility is the pupils that we are teaching. The second responsibility, maybe the fifth, the sixth is the student teachers. I mean, you might not know much about their personalities, and a teacher has to have a certain character in front of the pupils. From the political vision to dressing, attitude, behaviours… Therefore I do not leave them alone. But if she gained my confidence, if she also wants to try that, we left them alone, too. (AI*t*)

His statement reiterates the priority the cooperating teachers placed on their regular teaching responsibilities over their mentoring roles. Even when they handed over the class to the student teachers they still felt in charge of teaching and classroom management. Therefore the cooperating teachers preferred staying in the classroom during student teachers' practice teaching:

> In terms of classroom management, they [the student teachers] cannot perform as a teacher because the pupils know that they do not have the power of sanction and they are student teachers. If I am not in the classroom they [the pupils] relax and become more reckless. (MI*t*)

In the same vein with the statement by Melis above, the cooperating teachers were concerned that the student teachers' temporary teaching position would not be taken seriously by the pupils in the classroom and might cause pupil misbehaviour. In order to create a better context for student teachers to practice they considered it necessary to stay in the classroom, introduce student teachers and monitor and moderate classroom events. Although cooperating teacher interference came across as a factor impeding student teacher learning and identity development in the previous chapter, from the perspective of the cooperating teachers it was a responsible and supportive behaviour.

> I prefer staying in the classroom at first. But not very active, at the back row. So now I'll define as follows. For example I thought like that. For example, there's a child in the back, let's say he is not very successful or he will ask me a question and I need to help him. I will sit in there as if I have to help him and I will ask the student teacher to teach instead of me. I know those children, it is their habit… They will try not to show the respect and attention they show to a teacher. It is not necessary to leave them [the student teachers] alone at first. I have to stay in the classroom.

> As a mechanism, as a control, so they [the pupils] feel I am there. Once they get accustomed to, and they teach more, frankly I do not plan staying there all the time. (HI*t*)

> Last year I left the student teachers alone, they taught alone as they wanted to be on their own and told me that they are shy from me. [...] This year, as I liked it a lot, I want to be in the classroom all the time. I am thinking of participating in the whole thing. Although sometimes you know, I tell myself “sit in the back, do not say a word, leave the classroom management to the girls [the student teachers]”. But poor girls… the pupils make many things as they teach for the first time. Especially Selin [another student teacher], she said "I am sorry teacher; I was not able to manage the classroom”. But it was a new activity for them. She made them play a balloon game, about can and can’t, they were all in a mess. Like or not, you [herself] have to say “be quiet” to the pupils. The pupils are aware that you are the teacher; the others [the student teachers] are temporary. So, there are situations you have to interfere. However, in time I am planning not to manage, and to sit silent. (GI*t*)

As Gamze regretfully recalls above, once the cooperating teachers stayed in the classroom, they felt the urge to intervene in the student teachers’ teaching mainly for classroom or time management. Among the cooperating teachers, Melis was an extreme example regarding interfering in student teacher’s classroom practices. In the quote below, Melis remembers a similar incident in her classroom but she was not sure about the appropriateness of her mentoring practices as she sought for approval from me, the researcher. As a researcher, I was not in a position to involve myself in any discussion regarding their role and responsibilities. However, her query was evidence of how desperate the cooperating teachers were to be informed about the expected mentoring practices.

> Honestly, I haven’t received enough information on how to observe but I approach student teachers considering my internship experience, I mean I try to empathize. For example I can understand their anxiety; I can understand their struggles with time management. […] I don’t want to interfere. Yesterday when she was teaching I made like this [pointing at her watch] to warn her not to focus too long on it. I interfered but I don’t know… you should know better … if you could warn us about what we are supposed to do… (MI*t*)

Pinar, on the other hand, from an ethical stance thought interference is necessary in case of errors:

> Sometimes, for example, I have to interfere in certain things. Things can be done or said wrong with anxiety. I need to fix it. Because they [the

> pupils] copy it as it is to their notebooks. Then I might forget it and it will remain [incorrect]. I mean sometimes I correct mistakes if any, just not to remain like that because if I forget it will remain as is. Because they are excited, the student teachers. (PI*t*)

As I have noted in the previous chapter, the cooperating teachers' interference during the practice teaching was one of the prominent factors limiting student teacher learning. As the quotes above suggest the cooperating teachers had their own justified reasons for interfering in student teachers' teaching. Although they felt empathy with the student teachers recalling their own past experiences as student teachers and aspired to approach them with good intentions to create a safe and supportive environment for their practice teaching, their perception of their paramount duty as the real class teacher deterred them from maintaining their mentoring role in the classroom. Outside the classroom, they preferred conveying their supportive attitude by being positive while giving feedback and assessing the student teachers.

They were in favour of giving positive feedback to the student teachers even when things did not go well in the classroom. They all recognised the practicum as an induction to the profession and aimed at being emotionally supportive of student teachers to encourage them for their future career:

> I try to give encouraging feedback such as "Yes, well done. It was very good. You prepared well. Very nice." When they say "Teacher, I was panicked" I reply "No, no. no. You didn't show it, it was very good, you will be better."[…] I didn't say anything negative because I realized that when I comment positively, they show two times better behaviours the next week. I mean I didn't want to discourage them. As I said, they will learn by experience. (MI*t*)

> As far as I know, of course first of all we are in the stage of guidance. I guess now the student teachers observe to see the practice … they come to see the practice, not the theory…of course we should show the nice parts of this job first, we should not discourage them. Because when you look from the outside… When we were student teachers we had the same. (HI*t*)

The relationship between the cooperating teachers and the student teachers also involved assessment. However, assessment was another dilemma for the cooperating teachers. First of all they all had their own additional personal criteria while grading the student teachers apart from the practicum observation

checklist form (see Appendix III) sent by the faculty. Attendance and enthusiasm were important factors in their assessment.

> For example, sometimes some student teachers show enthusiasm, they come and ask questions or they want to teach; they show more interest. [...] I, for instance what do I do for a student like that, I appreciate their efforts by giving them some more points by distributing points among other criteria in the checklist to make their grade higher than the others. Some put more effort, they come to the school, ask questions, show interest. Sometimes there are those who show no presence, they do not come. Some do not call in advance if they will not show up, they do not come. Or, some call me to tell that she won't be able to make it, she asks me to postpone it to another day, informs me. These are very important in assessment, to report, to inform the teacher. I wait on that day for the student teacher to come, I plan accordingly, as she would teach, I give her the topic. When it does not happen, all my plans fail. My lesson is interrupted; I need to do something else instead. (PI*t*)

They also had the tendency to give high grades to all student teachers regardless of the quality of their teaching performance. Turning up on the day and teaching a reasonable class were enough for getting notably high grades from the cooperating teachers and this was a common practice among their colleagues:

> The supervisors do not affect us in any way in grading. Neither do we. All in all they see when I already gave the children [the student teachers] 90 or 100, my grade is that, certainly. Nadide teacher did in the same way, likewise Sedat teacher and Sabri teacher, too. We decided like that. Well, but, if the child [the student teacher] exceed her right for absenteeism, if she did not teach at all, if she did not fulfil any responsibility, of course not. But as I said, if they come to the lesson, prepare, teach, dress accordingly, do not display such remarkable obvious negative behaviours, these [90s, 100s] are the grades we give. (MI*t*)

> I do not think it's a real assessment frankly. I have never given anyone a grade under 90 in that checklist form. They all taught. Perhaps by chance, I have not met a lot of bad examples. (AI*t*)

They did not also know to what extent the marks they give have an impact on the overall assessment of the student teacher which again provided more evidence to the power imbalance between the cooperating teachers and the supervisors:

> Here we have a classic [standard] form that comes every year. We assess them according to that form. There are things like lesson preparation, dressing, how was the preparation, the continuation, lots of

> items like these. The grading system is between 1 and 20, we grade according to that. Then we get the sum, let's say 85, we type it there. We do that for each student teacher individually and give the forms to the administration, and they send them to the university. Then their supervisors grade them, too. I do not know to what extent the grades we give are valid, are considered. I mean, I am not sure if they involve them in assessment, I do not know what they do. I have no idea about that. (PI*t*)

We will see what eventually happened to the cooperating teachers' grades in 6.3.1. So far, I have reported the analysis of how the cooperating teachers interpreted and carried out their role in the practicum and how they positioned themselves in the social network of the practicum context. Now I will move on to the other key actors in the supervision triad, the supervisors.

6.3 University-based supervisor

The supervisors were the lecturers at the teacher education programme who were also assigned to plan and manage the student teachers' practicum module at the practice schools. As Table 6.1 showed the supervisors who participated in that study all had over ten years of experience in teacher education and over five years' experience in supervising student teachers during the practicum. They had their teaching experience in higher education contexts and had hardly any experience in teaching English at state schools except for one of them who served in different state schools for ten years. Their teaching workload varied between 14 and 35 hours per week and the number of supervisees they had varied between 10 and 20. They were teaching different modules in the teacher education programme and they all had different interest areas within ELT from teaching English to young learners to teaching academic writing skills. None of them had had training for their supervision role. Only one of them attended a seminar where the new practicum design was introduced in the faculty in 1998. This seminar was addressed to all academic staff in the faculty regardless of their subject field and provided introductory information on the two applied modules in the teacher education programme: the School Observation and the Practicum.

The only official guide for their supervision role was a booklet shared on the faculty's webpage. This booklet was designed for all teacher education programmes run at the faculty from Primary Education to Science Education.

Therefore the supervisors thought the content of the booklet and the observation checklist provided in it did not serve the purpose for the specificities of English language teaching programme:

> There is a guideline on the internet but it is for all departments in the faculty, it is not specific to the ELT department. I don't like the system. Also we should get some – how can I say- training on how to supervise the students. […] I have read maybe I know something but I don't have any time to apply. So if the whole department applies the system and it will get better, but not just one teacher. […] No one says that you are supervisor and you should do things one one one... There is nothing told about that. […] So every teacher or every supervisor has its own… [way of doing it] (KI)

Without any training on supervision, a comprehensive guide for their role, enough time allocated for supervision in their timetable, and cooperation and agreement within the department the supervisors individually tried their best to make a working plan for the practicum. Tolga, for instance, preferred using a guideline prepared for ELT practicums by another state university in Turkey:

> There is a kind of guide on the internet, on the web page but that's for the primary school teachers and that's why I found a special guide for ELT guide in [X] university. I am using it and I am giving some materials from this guide book to my students which [are] about the theories and practice, school practicum and observation. This really works. The one at our webpage is adapted to primary school teachers and teaching and some of the parts are not meeting ELT department's needs. (TI)

Echoing the applied-science model of teacher education, as explained in the literature review chapter, all the supervisors thought the practicum was a context for student teachers to apply the theoretical knowledge they learn at the teacher education programme to the real classrooms in practice schools. However, they recognized that the link between the theory and practice of English language teaching was not straightforward and they were critical of the fossilized teaching practices in state schools. During my interview with Tolga, he critiqued the English language teaching at state schools:

> Tolga: Well, the theory doesn't contribute much because they [the student teachers] cannot relate the theory into practice. These students are going to practicum schools but when they observe experienced teachers they see that the theory they had learnt does not match with the observed given mentor teacher. They are somehow sometimes frustrated, they say "We learn about communicative role models, interactive teaching, constructive teaching but what we usually observe

> is grammar translation model, method" let's say. But well, it is not a criticism. Maybe the teacher who is in the given state school has no way out to do another different approach or methodology in his teaching but our students, in theory, they learn a lot but they cannot find the matching practice of theory in real life classrooms, that's the problem. They [student teachers] go to schools with expectations, they want to observe an interactive communicative classroom and most of the time they are frustrated.
>
> Researcher: So there is a mismatch between what is taught here [at the university] and what they face?
>
> Tolga: Probably the mismatch is in the application of the teachers who are teaching in those state schools. Maybe our students when they start teaching, they will be using the theory, they will benefit from the theoretical knowledge they had learnt and they will be much more professionals in teaching communicative skills. (TI)

As the interview excerpt above implies, Tolga was aware of the contextual factors surrounding the teachers at the state schools. However, he still believed in the superiority of theory and held the teachers responsible for applying the theory under any circumstances. He was aware that the student teachers were not able to make links between the theory and the practice. Inconsistent with that, he maintained that they will use the theory once they go into the classrooms. Nermin made a similar point by criticising the teachers for teaching for high-stakes exams and excluding communicative activities from their classroom activities:

> She [the cooperating teacher] says "I eliminated listening activities because I teach exam-oriented". This is a bit taking the easy way out by saying it is a waste of time. All these activities are language studies, they are not loss. You can still study grammar; you can still work on tests but half an hour game, listening… We are talking about language teaching without listening and speaking. What is the language is for? Why do we teach language? To use! But they neither listen nor talk. Regardless of what we tell here, the theory we teach when they go to the schools, student teachers cannot apply most of them. But, well, I don't know if the system changes, what should be done for it to change… Because there can be reasons beyond our control. (NI*t*)

Nermin brought her criticism to the education system level. The mismatch the supervisors perceived between the theories they teach at the university and the practice taking place at schools limited the value of the practicum. The supervisors hoped the practicum would offer opportunities for student teachers to transfer the theory learnt at the teacher education programme to their

practice, and had little sense of recognising influences of contexts. However, restricted by the established practices at the state schools they were aware that the practicum could not and would not provide such opportunities. As they did not feel themselves empowered to make any change, they carried out their supervision duty as if fulfilling an official obligation.

Their role in the practicum involved introducing the student teachers to the teachers at the practice school, ensuring they were all assigned to a cooperating teacher, setting supervision meetings with student teachers, observing each student teacher's teaching practice at least once for grading and giving oral feedback, collecting the portfolios (which involved the attendance sheet, taught lessons' lesson plans and a final reflection report) prepared by the student teachers and giving the final grade by calculating the mean of the grade given by the cooperating teacher and themselves. However, not all of these tasks were accomplished by all of the supervisors due to various reasons such as the time limitations caused by their heavy workload or their perceptions of the practice schools and the practicum. I will now move on to investigate their communication and cooperation with the others while fulfilling their supervision role.

6.3.1 Supervisor & cooperating teacher

At the beginning of the semester the supervisors arranged a meeting with the school practicum coordinator (this could be the school manager, vice manager, or an English language teacher) at the practice school and met the cooperating teachers present at school on that day. The English language teachers gave their weekly timetable to the student teachers and the student teachers decided the days and lessons they will attend. After this initial meeting, the supervisors and mentors did not have contact until the supervisor went back to the school to observe the student teachers' teaching. Kerem expressed the lack of connection he felt with the cooperating teachers and the practice school:

> We don't know, in fact we don't know anything because we are not going to the schools that the students are doing their practicums. So we don't observe how it is going. We don't know I think. Yes, we go there at the beginning of the semester, the term, we introduce the students to the mentors and mentors ask some questions to us –what we will be doing during the term- and yes we go there especially to the end of the

> semester, the term to observe each of the students and give some mark. (KI)

Yeliz, on the other hand, thought she was accessible to the cooperating teachers when she paid visits to the school for observation.

> I go for observation. If there are ten students, it makes three, four weeks maybe even five weeks. I'm at school almost every week. Therefore, somehow we meet in the teachers' room. After observing the student, three of us come together. First we get the comments of our teacher [the cooperating teacher], how she found it, her criticisms or first how the student felt herself, then the teacher and then I speak. In this way we have something, a co-ordination for every student. (YI*t*)

As the excerpt suggests Yeliz's understanding of being accessible was being physically present in the teachers' room. However, Yeliz did not expand on whether she talked to the cooperating teachers if/when they met in the teachers' room or the content of their conversations. Out of five supervisors in the study four had post-observation feedback session. Among them only Yeliz and Leyla invited the cooperating teacher to the post-observation feedback session and asked for their comments on the student teachers' performance. However, all of them sought for stronger cooperation with the cooperating teachers. Tolga is expressing the obstacles he faced in his efforts to build a connection with them:

> Well, I think school mentors should cooperate with the supervisors at the universities, so the supervisors' interaction, communication should be directed with the school mentors and probably I should -as a supervisor- first we have a meeting with those mentors. But the school director doesn't give me that chance, I can't say "well, ask your teachers to come here and I am going to talk to them." Because some of them are older than me and it is quite weird to me just to ask or to tell them what to do to people who have more experience than me. So in that perspective, we need more cooperation with those people, mentors and probably it is going to be good idea to send mentors these guidebooks and to make them aware what is needed from those students. In that way those mentors will have the awareness to lead, to guide not just leaving the classes to them and asking them to teach something but the mentor should at the same time be able to give any feedback at any time. […] They just let our students to do the teaching, they are not giving them enough materials, enough support, they just leave the classroom "ok, next week come, this is your topic, teach", this is not mentorship. (TI)

The above excerpt suggests that the communication channel of the supervisors and the cooperating teachers were blocked in two levels. First of all the parties

lacked the opportunities to meet in person and discuss the practicum. The initial meeting was based on allocating the people and timetables with no reference to the roles and responsibilities. The second barrier was the lack of shared professional principles about the practicum. Tolga later elaborated on the communication breakdown during the feedback sessions relating it to the lack of shared professional language with the cooperating teachers:

> Well, especially the final week I go to monitor the students they [the cooperating teachers] avoid discussing the performance of the student with me. They say “it was ok, no problem”. I am asking the student to come and to give him immediate feedback so we make a meeting: I, the mentor and the student and I am giving [feedback] “well, this was good, this was not efficient, you could do this in that way..” and the mentor teacher is rarely intervening in the process. So I can see that he doesn’t like talking about the methodology about the technique about the materials. […] Actually the younger ones are not bad, they are familiar with the theory and they try to do their best but ones who are.. The age over 40-45, since there had been long years ago in the university they probably had forgotten a lot about the theory. And they are aware that students know a lot, they are fresh with the theory and that’s why they avoid discussing about it probably. And I think that’s the problem. Our students are sometimes.. Some of them are better teachers than those who are teaching at the schools… some of them- not all of them! (TI)

As I mentioned in the previous section about the cooperating teachers, they were abstaining from becoming involved in feedback and assessment firstly because they avoided discouraging the student teachers and secondly they did not feel the ownership the student teachers as their students. However, this was interpreted as a lack of professionalism by the supervisors. Especially while assessing the student teachers, as the cooperating teachers anticipated, the supervisors did not count the assessment of the cooperating teachers as valid. According to the official guideline, the final grade of the student teacher is calculated by the average of grades given by the mentor and the supervisor. However, as we shall see below, all of the supervisors thought their assessment was superior to the mentors. As the accounts of the participants implied so far, the miscommunications and power imbalances between the partners were rooted in deeper cultural norms, and protocol, hierarchy issues.

For instance, Kerem’s perception of cooperating teachers were influenced by past education policies for hiring English teachers. He was concerned about some of the cooperating teachers’ lack of educational background in ELT field.

In 1990s when the Anatolian High Schools which offered intensive foreign language lessons became widespread across the country, a need for more English language teachers arose and it was quite common for MoNE to employ English language teachers holding any BA degrees taught in English. Although it is not a common practice anymore, the teachers who were employed at that time are still teaching at schools. Today, apart from the graduates of ELT departments, the graduates of English language related programmes such as English Language and Literature, American Language and Literature, English Linguistics can gain access to teaching jobs by taking one year Teaching Formation course, which is similar to PGCE but focused on general pedagogy instead of subject specific training. Within this study only one cooperating teacher, Pinar, did not have a Bachelor's degree in English language teaching. Her Bachelor's degree was in Science taught in English. Kerem is telling below how the cooperating teachers' professional subject knowledge plays an important role during the practicum:

> Also the mentors are expected to assess them but they don't know. […] In fact the supervisor should deal with them or support them with some guidelines to assess the student [teachers] but the mentors are not qualified so they got their maybe … they don't have any certificate of teaching English. Maybe they graduate from literature department, English literature department. So they don't have any qualification like ours. So how can you expect if I am non-English teacher... So the mentors I think should be graduated from ELT department and should know some teaching skills especially professionally then they can observe or assess the students. It is not possible. So the teacher doesn't know anything about observing, anything about methodology, so how can he observe or assess the student. I think it is fatal error. So that's why I am not dealing with mentors' grades. (KI)

Assessment seemed to be what the supervisors got most interested in during the practicum perhaps because it was the only real role they played during the practicum. All participating supervisors were suspicious of the validity and reliability of the grades given by the cooperating teachers mostly because they always give high grades and do not use the same criteria for assessment:

> Grading is usually done by me. Of course I ask for the mentors grade but unfortunately they usually grade 95 out of hundred so they give quite high marks which are not mostly reliable. So actually I give the final decision, so sometimes in some cases the mentor's mark…. The mentor's grade is quite objective, I take it serious but sometimes…. Because they don't observe like me, I have an observation chart, I am

> observing classroom management, fluency, task achievement, how to deal with problems, I am observing lots of things at the same time but he is just watching and taking some notes … That's not enough! (TI)

The assessment practice portrayed by Tolga suggests that his conception of 'learning teaching' was observable in the behaviours of the student teachers and could be assessed against some kind of institutionally or universally agreed set of criteria. He considered his assessment superior to the cooperating teacher's since he thought he addressed a wider set of criteria during observation.

The supervisors also considered their own assessment as more comprehensive since it involved the assessment of the portfolio and the lesson plans:

> There are the assessment criteria. Actually I do not think they [cooperating teachers] assess according to them because they all give 100. All 100 but they [the student teachers] do not submit the portfolio to them, and perhaps they [the cooperating teachers] do not look at the lesson plan. (NI*t*)

As she thought the grades coming from the cooperating teachers were not objective and reliable, Yeliz felt it necessary to manipulate the final mark by decreasing her own mark:

> A mark comes from there [the school], and we have our mark. Of course the average of the two must be taken. I, frankly, as in that case it results high… I give a grade when I observe, then, when I calculate the average of it with 100, it again results in a high mark. Thinking that, for example, that student did not show a performance to deserve 95 while teaching …However I don't know whether I am doing right because this is the value when I observe, I cannot know if s/he performed worth 100 with the other teacher. I am very sceptical. Well, if I give 70, honestly I don't think s/he showed a performance worth 100. Therefore, sometimes I calculate the average, sometimes I decrease it a little bit, a mark comes out like that. (YI*t*)

As the extracts show, they were quite critical of the assessment approaches adopted by the cooperating teachers. The next subsection will present further evidence on the flawed approaches to assessment including the supervisors' own assessment practices.

6.3.2 Supervisor & student teacher

To recap briefly, the supervisors main duties were to match student teachers to cooperating teachers at the beginning of the semester, to arrange supervision meetings with student teachers, and to observe each student teacher's teaching practice during the semester, and to collect the portfolios and to assess the student teachers to give a grade at the end of the semester. In sum, they were responsible for planning and carrying out the practicum tasks.

As was the case for the cooperating teachers, deciding the number of lessons taught by the student teachers was a dilemma for the supervisors, too. Although the official guideline stipulated teaching every week, the supervisors thought that it was impractical considering the number of student teachers allocated to each cooperating teacher:

> Well, the guideline says at least one hour each week [her knowledge does not align with the official guideline], but as it is not possible, I tell [to the student teachers], 'try to teach at least four times a semester if possible under difficult circumstances'. 'For example, let's say, once teach on your own or let a peer observe you, in the second time let your cooperating teacher observe you and give feedback, then I will come on the third and observe and you will teach for the fourth and last time in a good way by considering all the criticism'. Only to the ones for whom it is possible. Some of them do more than that but some of them cannot even do this much. I mean in a school where five student teacher works with one cooperating teacher [as some schools have few English teachers], those student teachers unfortunately will not be able to teach four times. (YI*t*)

The supervisors were also aware of the fact that some cooperating teachers were not willing to hand over their classrooms to the student teachers. They advised the student teachers to express their enthusiasm for practicing teaching to the cooperating teachers in such cases. There were occasions where student teachers cannot teach for the whole semester as happened in a sixth case in this research study which was excluded due to lack of data. In contrast, there were examples where the cooperating teacher asked the student teachers to teach every week but the student teachers complained about that as when they compared to their peers they were undertaking more responsibility and committing more time:

> Two years ago, students complained that they are working intensively before the KPSS and the mentor asked them to teach every week because they were quite good students, successful students. And the teacher liked their teaching and he made a kind of plan for teaching every week. That was something good for the students, first I told them "well, you will benefit from that because the more you teach, the better you get adapted to the profession" but they said "no, we have to study, so but that prohibits our studying that limits our time, so could you please go and talk to the teacher, not to give us every week but at least once in two weeks. Actually I went to the school, but I couldn't find the mentor teacher and left him a message but later I decided not to intervene because normally they have to teach every week. They compared themselves with other groups, so in the other groups they were teaching once in three weeks, they said "we have to teach every week, we are so overloaded with that stuff" and later I told to them, "well, I went to the teacher, I couldn't meet him but don't worry I am going to speak to him" but in the time they get used , they get used to teaching and in the final week when I went to observe them they were the best because they did the most of the teaching. So they benefited even though they complained they are teaching too intensively. [TI]

As Tolga's previous experience shows, the supervisors were at times in a position where they had to moderate the officially recommended guidelines, the communication with the cooperating teacher and the equality of workload on the student teachers. Furthermore, based on his experience, he acknowledged that despite not always being feasible, more practice opportunities are desirable for student teachers.

Again according to the official guidelines, the supervisors had to organise weekly supervision meetings with the student teachers. However, quite unrealistically, only two hours per week was allocated to the practicum tasks in the supervisors' weekly timetable both for supervision meetings and observation of the student teachers. For practical reasons, their practices again had to differ from the guidelines. As a solution, two supervisors asked their student teachers to drop by their office whenever they want to discuss something related to the practicum:

> Actually I don't have a schedule they can come any time to me, so when I am available they can just knock the door and come in… (TI)

> Normally we should get some meetings every week […] but we don't. But if there is a problem, they come. (KI)

Leyla, on the other hand, complained that even if she organizes meetings, the student teachers do not show up by stating reasons about their other commitments:

> They don't attend. "ok teacher, we study for KPSS [the teacher selection exam] so we have courses, we attend a course so we couldn't come, sorry teacher' but…" So they have a lot of reasons not to come. (LI)

Nermin and Yeliz tried to set particular day and time for weekly group meetings:

> [We meet as a] group because otherwise it does not happen. My schedule and their schedule –as they also have tasks out of the university- … Well, if I set an hour according to the programme they will say "teacher, I have my course [for KPSS], I've got the practicum". My free time does not does not comply with them. We meet as a group when they are most at the university, when they come for a lesson. You know, it is not a detailed look, of course a quick look [at the lesson plans] but when they submit them we check them in detail and make the final decision. (NI*t*)

> With my own group we definitely arrange a meeting every week at a certain time. This could be after a lesson if we have a lesson together, or before a lesson. Half an hour, or forty minutes, it could sometimes take longer but we definitely meet. What they do there… I first listen to everyone about what they do in the school, then if our interference is required; if they have any complaints we try to solve them. Then we talk about what they will do for the next week. For the school observation module it was based on the tasks but in the practicum we talk about when they will teach, whether the cooperating teacher will observe, whether their peers will observe, if the peer will observe what they should do, if the cooperating teacher will observe what they should do, what I will do when I visit. In a way, we plan the next week. (YI*t*)

Despite unrealistic workload, the supervisors tried to do their best to spare some time to support the student teachers. As Yeliz explains briefly in the above excerpt, the theme of the supervision meetings in general was the problems the student teachers face at the practice school such as whether they get access to practicing teaching, whether they are supported by their cooperating teachers, whether they are welcomed at the school, in the teachers' room. Sometimes the student teachers asked for help for the topics their cooperating teachers wanted them to teach. They asked supervisors' suggestions for how to teach a particular topic to a particular class, or sometimes they asked for coursebooks or other materials they can benefit from while preparing the lesson.

The supervisors' role also included observing the student teachers' classroom performances. Once the student teachers agreed on a date with their cooperating teachers for a teaching session, they invited their supervisor to the school. Teaching full-time at the university, the supervisors had difficulty in fitting these school visits in their daily programme. Although the official guideline required two observations, they hardly managed to visit each student teacher once a semester. They thought, under these circumstances, a second observation could be required only when they are not satisfied with the student teacher's teaching performance:

> Actually in the booklet as a mentor [supervisor] you must observe students at least twice. […] Twenty students, we don't have so much time to observe twice. So only once, but if I need or think that "no, this is not a good class. Ok, she must prepare again and she must pay attention to some points in her class because these points are very important in teaching" so I say "ok, you are again preparing something, a new class, a new lesson and then I will observe again". (LI)

> Well, it depends how many students you have but this term I have 17 students and probably I will go once for each but normally in the guidebook it says at least two times but it won't be possible ... That makes more than 35 times, that's impossible, 35 days! But usually when I don't like the whole process I ask the student to prepare for the second time and sometimes it's twice. (TI)

> Because I have ten students so … it is too difficult for me to observe them more than once (KI)

The main aim of the observation was to assess the student teachers' teaching practice and to give feedback and a grade. I have already mentioned the power issues between the cooperating teachers and the supervisors in giving grades to student teachers. The supervisors perceived their role in grading superior to the cooperating teachers not only because they did not find their grades reliable and they use more comprehensive criteria for assessment, but also because they additionally assess the lesson plans and the portfolio submitted by the student teachers. Nermin explains how she construes assessment during the practicum:

> The grading is not done only by the observation, there is the process. There are lesson plans in the file [the portfolio]. I also want their peers to fill in the observation checklists, and the cooperating teachers. Their own reflections are also important of course. It is not grading out of 100 on the observation day. Their cooperating teachers give a grade, too. I

> mean, it is not based on the last lesson; rather we give the grade based on the behaviours and attitudes during the semester, their relationships with the pupils. I mean, it is not the product, it is the process. (NI*t*)

As the observation checklist in the official guideline was not specifically designed for an English language lesson, they took their initiative and all used different criteria for assessment. Tolga, as I mentioned earlier, borrowed a checklist from another university. The others did not have written criteria but all expressed having various key points reflecting the courses in the teacher education programme to observe during a teaching practice such as creative materials use, addressing language subskills, maintaining continuity between different activities. A common factor which was very effective for every supervisor was their previous knowledge of the student teacher:

> I know their background because I am teaching also teaching language skills, so I know how the person can behave or how he or she is background. So since I know it is easy for me. I can see the development of the person as a teacher. Maybe one, maybe if, maybe when he or she was taking the course, he or she was not so good, he can behave much better at the school, at the practicum. [KI]

> It effects actually, when you know the student, you know because you have known him or her for four years or five years. So there is an idea, a clear idea in your mind that “yes, he is OK, or she is OK” sometimes but sometimes you can be disappointed by the class given by a brilliant student. Yes, sometimes. Sometimes vice versa. Generally speaking, if you know the student, yes, what you expect, you can see it in the classroom setting. It doesn’t change. (LI)

> As we have already known the student teacher from the third class and the fourth class, we know to what extent s/he can, his/her capacity. (NI*t*)

Parallel to the accounts of the cooperating teachers, whatever criteria the supervisors used, it was very rare for a student teacher to fail the practicum. As long as they can prove that they attended to the classes in the practice school by the signatures on the attendance sheet, and as long as they submit an acceptable portfolio at the end of the semester all the student teachers were eligible for getting a pass mark for the practicum. Tolga is explaining below his only memory of a failing student teacher:

> I had seen [a failing student teacher] but that was because of not attending the practicum, not because failing by teaching. Because you [a student teacher] have to be at least seventy percent of the schedule at school, they need to get the signatures from the school. (TI)

Wider political, cultural factors were decisive in their grades as well. Even when they think a student teacher should fail the practicum, the faculty authorities intervene in their grading:

> I have never witnessed something like that [a failing student teacher] but actually the problematic ones should fail. But when they fail, they lose a year as there is no make-up exam for the practicum; they get extension for a year. Then the system in Turkey comes into play: the deans, vice deans request us to pass because the student goes and talks to them. (NI*t*)

Like the cooperating teachers, the supervisors were not entrusted with full authority for their role in the practicum. Therefore, although they believed the practicum was a very important component of the teacher education programme, they were tolerant when the practicum was not taken seriously by the student teachers emphasizing with their current focus on the KPSS exam:

> They don't attach importance to the practicum or the courses at the ELT department. Their major aim is to pass the KPSS exam. They just think that. And we don't know if they are attending the whole practicum because the signature sheet comes to us at the end of the term and maybe they have dealt [conspired] with the mentor. (KI)

> Especially since when this KPSS turmoil started they [the student teachers] have become completely focused on the KPSS. Actually they have to focus completely on practice. […] With the impact of the system, they have classes, responsibilities, homework at the university; they have a set of tests and the race against time in their KPSS course; on top of that they have the practicum. Within dichotomy, they shuttle among three roles. They complain about being busy but they certainly express gains [of the practicum]. (NI*t*)

6.3.3 Supervisor & wider faculty community

As the overall picture so far has already given hints, there was no planned and continuous cooperation among supervisors on the teacher education programme. Supervising was a lonely experience in general:

> I don't cooperate in my institution. (KI)

> Sometimes I am alone, every supervisor or mentor is alone. They are with the students, actually teacher candidates are together. They plan everything together but as previously I said, I direct the students according to the curriculum or content. So, but if I need of course I ask the coordinator, the other colleagues. (LI)

They had informal chats with their colleagues about the most noticeable events, or problems during the practicum. They also shared their opinions for the selection of practice schools based on the student teachers' experiences during the previous semester. However, they did not come together to agree on a certain way of supervising which eventually resulted in variations in practice and inequality of experiences for the student teachers.

> We have never specifically come together. Perhaps this could be done in order to be in agreement. So that everyone will act in a similar way. Or … to decide what to pay attention, to have common assessment criteria. Because many differences arise. (YI*t*)

6.4 Key issues

This chapter aimed at reaching a deeper understanding of the factors fostering and/or inhibiting student teacher learning during the practicum. The student teachers' experiences during the practicum in this research study indicated that the contextual factors mostly played a restrictive rather than a supportive role. For this reason I aimed to investigate the sources of those contextual factors. The analysis of the practicum context from the accounts of the supervisors and the cooperating teachers showed that the practicum organisation was incoherent due to multiple reasons.

First of all, each participant was primarily concerned with their responsibilities in their own specific context and they all acted to satisfy these requirements. Moreover, their practicum roles were not incorporated coherently and consistently into their workload. The communication channels between the participants were also blocked. Therefore, the practicum has to some extent become an inconvenient obligation which has to meet national specifications. All of the above meant that the practicum has become a less valuable experience for the student teachers.

The practicum was a complication for both the cooperating teachers and the supervisors for various reasons. To start with the cooperating teachers, first of all, they were primarily responsible for teaching the syllabus and their mentoring role was subordinated to that role. Secondly, no credit was given for the time their pupils were taught by the student teachers. Thirdly, they were not informed about supportive mentoring practices. They also did not have

sustainable professional cooperation with the university-based supervisors, and within their relationship they were not considered equal partners.

On the other side of the coin, the supervisors had their own hurdles. First, they were not allocated reasonable time in their schedule to carry out the supervision tasks they were given. Secondly, they were not provided with preparation for their supervision role. Thirdly, the place of the practicum in the teacher education programme and the stress they perceived on the student teachers as a result of preparing for the KPSS exam depreciated the value of the practicum. Fourthly, due to their lack of communication with the cooperating teachers and lack of familiarity with their working conditions they did not recognize the cooperating teachers as peers in training and assessing the student teachers during the practicum, and this led to a power imbalance between parties in supervision triad.

Eventually, this incoherent and unfeasible organisation of the practicum resulted in breaches of the official guideline and variations and inequality in terms of the learning and teaching practice experiences each student teacher went through during the practicum. However, I would like to acknowledge once again, my intention in investigating the cooperating teachers' and supervisors' practicum practices was not to evaluate or criticise their professional competencies but to search for the deeper reasons behind the lack of support the student teachers got during their field experiences. All of the participants were aware of the value of the practicum and were critical of the inadequacies of their current practices. However, as the findings have already indicated, they were all surrounded by various wider factors impeding their preferred mentoring and supervising practices. The overall system in which they were operating was not supportive of any better practices. Therefore, the findings showed that even though the official guidelines reflect what is considered to be good practice in the literature, trying to apply them without considering local realities failed to provide desirable outcomes. In the next chapter, I will interpret and discuss the findings in relation to the literature.

Chapter 7. Discussion

This chapter will present the overview and the discussion of key findings in relation to the research questions and the language teacher education and general teacher education literature. My overarching aim in this study was to explore what learning, if any, takes place during the practicum in the particular context of my study. In order to investigate learning I developed a conceptual framework based on language teacher cognition research and a sociocultural perspective on learning. Based on the literature on language teacher cognition (Borg, 2003, 2006, 2012; Freeman, 2002), I defined learning as a change in the student teachers' stated cognitions and teaching practices. Besides, recognising the paradigm shift in language teacher cognition and education literature towards sociocultural theories of learning (Johnson, 2009a; Johnson & Golombek, 2011), I adopted a sociocultural perspective in my definition of student teacher learning. Therefore I assumed that student teacher learning would be influenced by the physical and social contexts in which the practicum takes place. As I structure this chapter broadly in reference to the research questions, it is worth recalling what these research questions were:

1) To what extent does the practicum contribute to student teacher learning?
2) What factors hinder or support student teacher learning during the practicum?

In order to try to reach a deep and comprehensive understanding of the nature of student teacher learning that took place during the practicum, I have divided this chapter into three sections. The first section will address the first research question. Based on the evidence in the findings chapters, I will discuss what learning, if any, was possible in the given context, and to what extent the potential was achieved. The second section will discuss the extent to which the physical and social context hindered or supported student teacher learning and will point to the factors which, directly or indirectly, affected student teacher learning during the practicum. This section will address the second research question. In the third section then I will combine the findings and propose the model of teacher learning that emerged from the context of this study.

7.1 Learning during the practicum

In this section I will discuss what learning - in line with my definition of teacher learning - if any, occurred during the practicum. In order to do that, I will refer to the general overview of the common themes emerging from all five cases of student teachers which were reported in Chapter 5. I will also revisit the literature of empirical studies on learning during the practicum to review what potential for learning is thought to exist and to what extent my findings corresponded to the existing literature.

Before proceeding further, I wish to acknowledge my approach to the analysis of learning. To reiterate, for the purpose of this study I defined learning as a change in student teachers' stated cognitions and teaching practices over time. In line with that, in order to identify learning I was not only looking for changes in cognitions and practices, but also for the discrepancies between the stated cognitions and teaching practices as they might also suggest a change. In general teacher education, Buehl and Beck (2015, p. 79) maintain "when teachers' beliefs are in flux there are unique opportunities to study the development of teachers' beliefs". Therefore, I also aimed to understand the underlying reasons when there was a mismatch between what the student teachers stated during our interviews and did in their classrooms.

However, based on the insights gained during my literature review and my field experiences, first, I was aware that it would be unrealistic to expect dramatic changes in student teachers' stated cognitions and teaching practices considering their lack of access to teaching and all the other failings of the practicum in relation to logistics and structure that I have already mentioned in the findings chapters. Secondly, I was cautious in interpreting changes as evidence of learning. In his review of research studies investigating teacher cognition in pre-service language teacher education contexts, Borg (2006, p. 72) concludes that:

> … behavioural change does not imply cognitive change, and the latter (because of contextual influences on what teachers do) does not guarantee changes in behaviour either. Even where evidence of cognitive and/or behavioural change is found, caution must be exercised in interpreting such findings if they were obtained in the context of programmes which are assessed on the basis of trainees' abilities to

> conform to particular ways of thinking and behaving. In such cases, the changes discovered may reflect trainees' understandings of what is required for them to pass their course rather than any real change.

Having that in mind, I paid maximum attention to my interpretations of any reported or observed changes in student teachers' cognitions and teaching practices. Hertz (1997, p. viii) maintains a reflexive researcher "does not simply report 'facts' or 'truths' but actively constructs interpretations of his or her experiences in the field, and then questions how those interpretations came about". Along the lines of that remark, I have taken a highly reflexive approach in interpreting findings as evidence for learning.

Turning back to the discussion of my findings, in this section I will first discuss the evidence of learning in terms of changes in student teachers' cognitions and practices during the practicum; then I will conclude this section by summarising the main issues emerging in the discussion of student teacher learning during the practicum.

Although the opportunities to gain teaching experience were limited, the student teachers seemed to benefit from experiencing teaching in real language classrooms and to gain insights into the complex and multifaceted nature of teaching and learning. During the analysis of data it was challenging to organise the evidence of change into themes demonstrating learning not only because of the complexity of interpreting change as learning, but also because of the intricate and interrelated nature of the themes. I will organise my discussion into four main themes according to the frequency and depth of evidence provided in data and the correspondence to the existing literature. The four themes are respectively: gaining basic instructional skills, recognising the tensions between teacher education ideals and classroom realities, surviving the practicum, and developing a perception of self as teacher.

7.1.1 Gaining basic instructional skills

I use 'basic instructional skills' as an umbrella concept to include all the basic teaching skills that language teachers need such as giving instructions, planning and delivering a lesson, correcting student errors, maintaining classroom management, etc. Kanno and Stuart (2011, p. 245) maintain that "having sufficient competence in basic teaching skills so as not to make

obvious blunders in front of students is a necessary condition for one's claim as a legitimate teacher". They also suggest that teachers need to gain adequate competence and automatization in basic instructional skills before they can shift their attention to more abstract and higher order questions regarding their teaching (Kanno & Stuart, 2011, pp. 245-246). Elsewhere, Tsui (2003, p. 269) explained this shift as "the reinvestment of mental resources freed up by experience".

In the language teacher education literature it is well-established that student teachers are most often concerned about basic instructional skills such as time management, classroom management, lesson organisation and delivery during the practicum (Atay, 2007; Brinton & Holten, 1989; Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2001, 2007, 2008; Flowerdew, 1999; Gan, 2013; Holten & Brinton, 1995; Johnson, 1996; Liaw, 2012; Numrich, 1996; Vanci Osam & Balbay, 2004). Basic instructional skills similarly kept the student teachers occupied during the practicum in my study. Hence, I will discuss the basic instructional skills in which the student teachers engaged during the practicum.

Classroom management is one of the basic instructional skills and has been noted as one of the skills to be developed during the practicum in the language teacher education literature (Atay, 2007). Classroom management is a complex and demanding task which requires teachers to attend to various events taking place in the classroom while they try to create learning opportunities for their pupils. Wright (2005, pp. 16-18) defines the core elements of classroom management in language education as the management of time, space, engagement, and participation. He also maintains that it is a "means of behaviour management in the service of learning" (Wright, 2005, p. 123).

In my study, the student teachers had little opportunity to perform classroom management. While the student teachers were teaching, often their cooperating teachers were still on duty in managing pupil behaviour in the classroom. The cooperating teachers most often made a short introduction to the lesson before handing over to the student teachers, ensured the pupils were settled and ready for the student teacher, and they also intervened in incidents such as student misbehaviour and student non-participation in the activities during the lessons. While this might look like a positive support, this

had at least three consequences in terms of student teacher learning: first, the student teachers had limited opportunities to experience classroom management; secondly, this inference caused anxiety among student teachers as it did for the student teachers in Merç (2010b); thirdly and perhaps most strikingly, the cooperating teacher interferences affected their identity development as teachers in the classrooms negatively. In his study with five student teachers in general teaching context, Pellegrino (2010) claimed that establishing a learning environment through personal authority in a classroom is one of the major concerns for student teachers. Similarly, it was of most importance for the student teachers in my study to be given the whole lesson without any interference to develop their authority to feel the ownership of the class and to 'feel like a real teacher'. However, the practicum in the context of my research did not provide adequate opportunities for student teacher learning in relation to classroom management.

As part of classroom management, the student teachers in my study struggled the most with time management. The student teachers were all experimenting with time management except for Defne who had relatively limited opportunities as she was sharing two lesson hours with two other peers and therefore she had less control over her use of time. Oylum's adjustments in time management were the most explicit both in my classroom observations and interviews with her. For her first lesson she planned so many activities in her lesson plan that she could not finish in time. For the following session she planned fewer activities but this time the activities finished too early which left her no other choice than extending a game activity that she knew did not work well in the classroom. In her third lesson, she planned more activities again but by the end of the lesson she was short of time once more and ended disappointed about not having time for the last activity in her lesson plan which she thought would be the best part of her lesson. Erdem, Ceren and Zeynep had similar trial and error attempts with time management which were important evidence of their learning how to manage time as part of basic instructional skills. However, since their access to teaching was limited to 2-4 lessons, during the practicum, time management issues were not resolved.

Their time management problems were also affected by the nature of their lesson planning. All student teachers prepared lesson plans for the lessons they taught and submitted these plans to their supervisors in their portfolio file at the end of the semester. The student teachers paid considerable attention to their lesson plans as their supervisors assessed their teaching performance against their lesson plans when they came to observe them. The structure they followed for their lesson plans was suggested by the teacher education programme. For each lesson the file they prepared always had a cover page to describe the details of the class such as number, age and linguistic level of the pupils, and lesson objectives. The lesson plans often involved a warm-up activity to start with and always consisted of three stages. How these stages were labelled varied among the student teachers. Erdem simply called them Part 1, Part 2 and Part 3 while Zeynep called them Pre-reading, While-reading, and post-reading for her reading lessons; and Defne called them Presentation, Practice and Production following the traditional and sometimes controversial lesson structure in the field of language teaching. This suggests that the language teacher education programme did not stipulate a pre-determined template for lesson plans. On the other hand, there were some commonalities among the lesson plans influenced by the teacher education programme. The lesson plans were often detailed and always involved the exact number of minutes they plan to devote to each activity. Especially during the assessed lessons, the student teachers were more concerned with going through each activity as it appeared on the lesson plan then with the coherence of the lesson or pupil learning. Therefore, their strict dependence on their lesson plans not only caused time management problems but also weakened the coherent flow of the lesson.

Rather than altering, adjusting or skipping some activities on the spot during the lesson, the student teachers most often adhered to the lesson plan at any cost even if they noticed it did not work. This finding echoes the previous findings of Farrell (2007) in his case with a single student teacher Ho in Singapore. According to the author, Ho's strict dependence on her lesson plans was caused by her desire to teach a complete lesson especially in the presence of her supervisor and mentor. Likewise, Senior (2006, p. 52) explains rigid reliance on lesson plans as a "characteristic of novice teachers … [which

is] related to the perception that good teaching has to do with the flawless delivery of lessons".

While the student teachers' tendencies to follow their lesson plans strictly could be explained as a means of saving face and probably grades in front of observers, I could perhaps argue this finding also points at the student teachers' lack of experience in 'reasoning in action' (Johnson, 1999). Some of the student teachers wrote even the instructions they will give for each activity in their lesson plans. The lesson plans therefore could be said to have helped the inexperienced and most often insecure student teachers feel safe during their lessons. However, during the practicum they said they realized that they might need to be more flexible in lesson planning due to the unpredictability of pupil response to the activities, and this realisation was more evidence for their learning of basic instructional skills.

Apart from time management and lesson organisation, student teacher learning related to lesson delivery was also evident in the data. Despite the limited access to classroom teaching, the practicum provided the student teachers with rich contexts to test their existing beliefs and assumptions about how language is learnt and taught which, at times, caused the student teachers to experience conflicts between their cognitions and practices. The main concerns that seemed to influence their approach to lesson delivery were setting fun atmosphere in the classroom, approaching error correction, deciding on the classroom language, teaching grammar and translation.

All of the student teachers shared a common belief that language teaching should be fun for learners regardless of the age group of their target learners. This belief was most often rooted in their personal language learning history. Sometimes it appeared as a reaction against the traditional teaching methods they experienced as learners (as for Erdem), or sometimes it was inspired by an English language teacher they were once taught by and who they adopted as a teaching model (as for Defne). All the student teachers made efforts to introduce some fun to their lessons in the forms of games, icebreakers, and multimedia materials. However, they faced problems in translating their beliefs into teaching practices in real language classrooms due to factors such as lack of background knowledge of pupils, lack of pupil involvement in the activities,

lack of sources available in the context, and/or incompatibility with the established classroom practices. When they failed to successfully apply their cognitions to teaching practices they often stopped drawing on these cognitions for future lessons even if they stated that they still held them. This has two possible explanations: either the cognitions they stated were not as strong as they stated they were during the interviews, or the student teachers made strategic decisions for their practices considering the contextual factors. I will now describe the student teachers' departures form their stated cognitions through examples.

Erdem, for instance, diverged from his early statements due to conflicting beliefs. During our initial interview he said he believed a teacher should avoid error correction to create a safe and supportive environment to encourage pupils' speaking, and he thought speaking is the most important skill of all. However, once he started teaching, he corrected almost every single pupil mistake whether related to the teaching focus of the day, or not. His later statements in our following interviews also showed that he reframed his belief about error correction saying that 'A teacher should correct errors but not necessarily mistakes'. However, this reframed belief was conflicted with his initially stated belief about creating a safe and supportive environment for speaking as he constantly corrected every student mistake. It is difficult to speculate on the reasons behind Erdem's cognitive and behavioural change as, in comparison to other student teachers, he was more reticent and did not open up in that respect to give me explicit evidence to draw on, or perhaps I could not pose the right questions to prompt his thinking. However, I would argue learning was evident in the elaboration of the reframed belief. First, he learned to differentiate the concepts of language errors and mistakes. Secondly, he learnt that in the event of conflicting beliefs, he needs to make decisions on what takes precedence in his language classroom. As another possible interpretation, it could be said that his initial belief was not grounded in practical experience and therefore in real classroom setting it was too shallow to influence his classroom practices.

On the other hand, Defne, shifted from her stated cognitions due to technical and contextual limitations. Beginning from our initial interview, she expressed

her belief in the benefits of using videos in young learner classrooms to motivate pupils and to provide rich language input. She planned every lesson in a way that she presented the new language items through a cartoon movie. However, her first two attempts failed due to technical problems with the projector in the classroom and caused substantial time loss. She gave up using videos as teaching materials for the rest of the practicum. Following the established practice in the classroom, she started teaching through the coursebook. Her change in teaching practice did not result from a cognitive change and did not result in a cognitive change regarding the benefits of video, either. The change in her practice rather showed that she learned that it was easier to conform rather than to persist in the face of challenges especially in an assessed practicum setting where she needed to get things right to pass the module.

Similar to the examples above, during the practicum all of the student teachers experienced mismatches between their stated beliefs and actual teaching practices to some extent. For example, Oylum experienced conflicts between her beliefs and practices about deciding on the classroom language, while Ceren and Zeynep had to abandon their beliefs about grammar teaching and translation when confronted with challenges from their cooperating teachers. I will discuss the details of their experiences later in the subsection 7.1.3 as their decisions were affected by the factors beyond the classroom context. However, germane to all, the conflicts between cognitions and practices were particularly important during the practicum as they could have possibly created opportunities for learning because we know that the relationship between cognitions and practices is intertwined and both might exert influence on the other (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001). However, we also know that these conflicts can only turn into opportunities for learning when teachers consciously reflect on them. Referring to Freeman, Farrell and Ives (2014, p. 14) describe the collective nature of learning from conflicts as follows:

> ‘productive tension’ (Freeman, personal communication) between stated beliefs and actual classroom practices provides teachers with the opportunity to systematically look at their practice so that they can deepen their understanding of what they do and thus come to new insights about their students, their teaching, and themselves.

So the remaining questions are what were the sources of these conflicts and how were these conflicts dealt with during the practicum? Basturkmen (2012, pp. 286-287), in her review, found that across the empirical research studies investigating the correspondence between language teachers' beliefs and practices, less experienced teachers displayed more conflicts between their beliefs and practices than the more experienced teachers; and contextual constraints inhibited teachers' translation of their beliefs into teaching practices. The student teachers in my study were both inexperienced in teaching, in other words they did not have a repertoire of tested teaching practices to draw on, and they also reported feeling pressured by the contextual factors, therefore their practices were most often not reflective of their stated beliefs.

Moreover, as I noted earlier, in some cases their stated beliefs were based on ideal positions promoted during the teacher education programme (i.e. avoiding error corrections, using English as the classroom language) and these beliefs were too shallow and vulnerable to influence their practices in the context of real classrooms. The student teachers were not supported, or more precisely, often not allowed to make their cognitions explicit and translated to teaching practices. This suggests that the learning opportunities created for them during the practicum were strongly mediated by the constraints posed by the contextual factors, rather than the objectives of the teacher education programme. The student teachers were therefore questioning the relevance of the teacher education programme to their teaching situations, a point which will be discussed in the next sub-section.

7.1.2 Recognising the tensions between teacher education ideals and classroom realities

Student teachers' realisation of the mismatch between what they were taught in the teacher education programme and what they experienced in the real classrooms has been defined as "reality shock" by many researchers both in the language teacher education literature (Atay, 2007; Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2015; Gan, 2013; Johnson, 1996), and in the general teacher education literature (Caires, Almeida, & Martins, 2009; Kagan, 1992; Veenman, 1984). Echoing the previous findings, the student teachers in my study were struggling

to adapt what they learnt during the teacher education programme to their classroom realities.

The student teachers were all critical of the established traditional way of English language teaching in schools which they associated with grammar teaching and the use of translation. They started the practicum with a desire to apply the fresh and inspiring ideas they received mainly from the teacher education programme or external professional events such as seminars or, English language teaching conferences they attended. However, their attempts to apply those ideas were rarely successful.

First of all, the student teachers soon realized that the teacher education programme equipped them with theory but did not prepare them for translating these theories into practice. Referring to the conceptualisation of teacher knowledge proposed by Malderez and Wedell (2007), as I mentioned earlier in the literature chapter, this could be explained as the student teachers realized they *knew about* language teaching, but did not *know how* to use this knowledge in classrooms and actually they did not *know to* teach. Zeynep's last statement in her portfolio, "… becoming a teacher is not like what is written in the books. It [becoming a teacher] is actually a tabula rasa and we fill it with our experiences…" was a strong evidence for the cognitive shift she had. As her statement suggests, she reckoned that what she was taught at the teacher education programme was difficult to put into practice without adaptation. Therefore she thought she did not know how to teach and she could only learn it through practicing it. Arguably, then the student teachers during the practicum realized that the theoretical knowledge of teaching is insufficient to become a competent teacher unless it is combined with the experience of teaching.

Despite that, the student teachers were often very enthusiastic to bring innovation to the classrooms. Oylum attempted to get teaching ideas from other teachers' lessons. On the internet, she watched a video of a class taught in Spain and she was inspired by the game activity used in that classroom. She used the game but it did not work in her classroom as well as it did on the video she watched. She started questioning the contextual differences between the two classrooms and also her own basic instructional skills. Zeynep, likewise, tried to use the template lesson plans that she learnt at the teacher education

programme for teaching reading skills. She wanted to start her lesson by teaching the unknown vocabulary for the reading text but the vocabulary she taught turned out to be known by the pupils. In both cases, the student teachers realized that they were lacking the necessary background knowledge of the context and pupils to adapt the activities they picked to their own teaching context. Wedell and Malderez (2013) maintain that the success of any change introduced to classrooms is subject to the thorough understanding of the context where it will be implemented. In the same vein, those student teachers in my study learnt that they need the knowledge of context and pupil to effect any change in their classrooms.

Apart from the lack of procedural knowledge (or *know how*) for teaching and insufficient background knowledge of pupils and context, another difficulty the student teachers faced in their attempts to apply the knowledge from the teacher education programme was the resistance of the cooperating teachers. The cooperating teachers, who were the owners of the classrooms and were present during their teaching often asked the student teachers to teach the topics they chose in the way they wanted. The student teachers followed the requests done by the cooperating teachers even when they disagreed. I will discuss the impact of cooperating teachers on student teacher learning at greater length in the next sub-section, surviving the practicum. Here I would like to draw attention to the incompatibility of practice school and teacher education regarding their approach to language teaching.

In the language teacher education literature in Turkish context Seferoğlu (2006, p. 372) found that “a close connection between the course materials and practical application in real classrooms was sometimes absent” during the practicum; and Atay (2007) found a similar unfavourable impact of cooperating teachers on student teachers’ by forcing them to teach in certain ways in her focus group interviews with twenty-two student teachers during the practicum in Turkey. These lines, along with my findings suggests that practice schools and teacher education programmes have different cultures and therefore practices in relation to teaching and learning. This is actually neither new, nor unique to the Turkish context.

The gap between the theory and practice of teaching has long been evident both in the language teaching literature (i.e. Block, 2000) and the general education literature (i.e. McIntyre, 2005). This gap mainly arises from the hierarchy and relative status of these institutions regarding their position in knowledge production for the field. In other words, traditionally, universities are associated with conducting research into teaching, generating the theories and knowledge of teaching, whereas schools are perceived as the passive users of this knowledge. Although this separation has not been productive and has fortunately started to be challenged by the introduction of practitioner research, the longstanding gap remains. The practicum is, therefore, an exceptional opportunity for these institutions to actually come together and cooperate. In their comprehensive review of empirical studies into teacher education programmes in general teacher education, Cochran-Smith et al. (2015, p. 111) examined studies done into the practicums and concluded as follows:

> Most of the studies in this cluster shared a sobering understanding of the many challenges teacher candidates experience when they try to transfer ideas learned in campus classes to their work with students in schools, particularly when those ideas run counter to standard school practices. Broadly speaking, then, the studies in this cluster constructed the research problem as one of dissonance between universities and schools regarding educational goals, with universities generally promoting contemporary views of teaching that support constructivist views of learning while schools are typically organized in ways that promote traditional transmission teaching.

As mentioned above, in my context there was a similar discrepancy between the ideals of the teacher education programme and the established language teaching practices at schools. As it was evident in Ceren's recalling teacher educators who sabotaged what they taught by claiming it would not work in real classrooms, the gap between the two institutions was actually recognised by the participants of my study, too. This gap, or discrepancy could perhaps be addressed and minimised if the teacher education programme and the practice school actually cooperated to set common objectives for the practicum. However, without such a consensus, once the student teachers were in the practice schools, the context of the practice school took precedence and the theoretical, methodological, pedagogical influences of the teacher education programme were somehow downgraded or even forgotten about during the practicum. Facing the challenges of real classrooms and the practicum setting,

the student teachers unwillingly had to shift to traditional way of teaching English which they strongly criticized.

In the language teaching literature, studies which found evidence for student teachers going back to teach in the traditional way often interpreted that as the impact of their own language learning history (Farrell, 2007; Liaw, 2012). Although student teachers' personal learning history is known to have impact on their cognitions and is frequently referred to as the 'apprenticeship of observation' coined by Lortie (1975), my findings suggest that student teachers' shifts to traditional teaching methods might also represent a strategic, or more precisely, compulsory reverse assimilation to the school context. By the term reverse assimilation I refer to the student teachers' adaptation to the dominant culture in the practice school. Considering they were possibly assimilated into the discourse of pedagogic ideals introduced in the teacher education programme, they could then also be reverse assimilated into the school culture where the traditional teaching methods are still dominant. By offering that alternative interpretation, I would like to emphasize that the changes in the student teachers' practices were not necessarily suggesting changes in their cognitions. These changes rather represented a temporary suspension of existing cognitions in the light of immediate needs. The teaching practices of the student teachers were strongly shaped by the culture and politics of the contexts they operated in especially because their practices were under constant inspection and assessment during the practicum. These discrepancies between institutions created an incoherent context for student teacher learning. The student teachers, therefore, learnt to practice strategically even when their practices conflicted with their cognitions for the sake of surviving the practicum. In the next sub-section, therefore, I will elaborate the discussion on the student teachers' struggles to survive the practicum.

7.1.3 Surviving the practicum

The literature on language teaching practicum suggests that student teachers are mainly concerned with passing the practicum module, or 'surviving' as it is most often expressed in the literature, when the practicum is assessed (Brandt, 2006; Farrell, 2007; Kourieos, 2012; Mak, 2011; Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011). Therefore it is expected that student teachers' experiences would be powerfully

shaped by the assessment, supervision and mentoring practices. In most cases, student teachers prioritise performing to please the observer rather than experimenting by transforming their cognitions to practices or by challenging the established practices (Ahn, 2011; Atay, 2007; Farrell, 2007; Kourieos, 2012; Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011).

In the context of my study, the student teachers were assessed by their supervisors and cooperating teachers jointly. However, as we have seen in the findings chapters, in reality it was the supervisor who decided on the final grade. The student teachers were well aware of the power relations between them, hence the concerns regarding the assessment appeared mainly in relation to their lesson observed by their supervisors. Passing the module was understandably a common objective among the student teachers. They seemed to prepare and present their ideal lesson on the day when their supervisors came to observe and assess their performance. Erdem, for instance, refused to teach using the lesson plan he specially prepared for the assessment day when the assessment was cancelled. He also admitted that he warned his pupils in advance to behave well when his supervisor comes to the classroom.

This special preparation for assessment often made the exam lessons rather superficial and caused the student teachers to act in ways they perhaps would not otherwise. A vivid example of that was observed in the case of Oylum. She began her practicum with the belief that an English language teacher should use English as the classroom language. This belief was compatible with the dominant discourse at the teacher education programme. Experiencing lack of pupil response in her first lesson, she switched to using Turkish as the classroom language in her second lesson and increased pupil participation. However, having her university-based supervisor as an observer and assessor in her third lesson, she turned back to the use of English as the classroom language perhaps thinking her supervisor would expect her to do so. Apparently, Oylum was experimenting with her choice of language as a medium for language teaching. She transformed her initial belief into teaching practice in her first teaching but received contradictory feedback from the pupils which resulted in revisiting her belief and changing her practice. Her new

practice was actually proved to be successful in her second attempt. She learnt that she can actually benefit from using the mother tongue in the classroom to encourage student participation. Earlier, Flowerdew (1999:143) reported that “appreciation of the respective roles of the mother tongue and the L2” appeared as an awareness student teachers develop during the teaching practice. Nevertheless, in her third teaching session, an external factor - her perception of the supervisor and the criteria for assessment - came into the play and made Oylum revert to the dominant discourse of the teacher education programme, I would say, strategically. To my observation, the change in her practice was influenced by her perception of the target audience and was evidence for learning how to please the observer.

The student teacher, Bohee, in the study of Ahn (2011) in South Korea, had similar contradictions between her beliefs and practices in terms of L2 use. While she believed in the importance of use of English as L2 not only between pupils and the teacher, but also among the pupils, not receiving enough participation from the pupils, she started allowing the pupils to respond in Korean as well. However, when she was asked to teach a model lesson, she went back to her exclusive use of English to show her commitment to curricular reforms. Similar to Bohee in Ahn’s study, the decision made by Oylum in my study was strategic and stemmed from the ultimate desire to pass the practicum module.

Confirming the existing literature, it was evident in my data that the supervisors and assessment had considerable influence on student teachers’ practices and on the opportunities for learning to teach. Nevertheless, more overtly evident in my findings was the influence of the cooperating teachers as the owner of the classrooms and representatives of the established practices. The cooperating teachers were not directly associated with assessment in my study in that the student teachers gave priority to the assessment done by the supervisor and the marks given by the cooperating teachers were ultimately ignored by the supervisors. Despite that, the cooperating teachers exerted their power on the student teachers by being the ultimate owner of the classes they teach. Surviving the practicum for the student teachers, therefore, required not only

getting a pass grade during the assessment but also complying with their cooperating teachers' expectations.

For instance, Ceren started her practicum with a strong opposition to traditional language teaching methods which she associated with explicit grammar teaching and translation; and with a strong desire to try out the communicative language teaching activities she learnt at the teacher education programme. She incorporated games and drama activity in her first teaching to practice communication and she was satisfied with her lesson. However, following her cooperating teacher's advice in her second teaching, she switched to explicit grammar teaching without being convinced about the rationale behind it. She thought she pleased her cooperating teacher but felt restricted and dissatisfied with her second teaching practice. There was an obvious deviation from her stated belief, but the change in her teaching practice was strategic and was strongly mediated by the impact of the cooperating teacher. Similarly, Zeynep had to add reading aloud and translation activities to her second and third lesson to fill the lesson time taking her cooperating teacher's advice despite totally disagreeing about their use in language classrooms. Her diversion was then again reluctant and strategic.

Cooperating teachers' influence on the student teachers teaching practices has been noted in language teaching literature. Farrell (2008, p. 234) interviewed eight student teachers during their practicum in Singapore and all of them mentioned that the cooperating teachers "strongly encouraged the learner teachers to 'rigidly follow' their way of teaching". Brandt (2006, p. 358) in her mixed method research with 95 participants in 9 countries listed the critical issues raised by the participants regarding the practicum and one of them was that "trainees had particular difficulty complying with tutors' expectations when the latter were counter-intuitive". It is worth pointing out that in both studies the cooperating teachers were responsible for the assessment of the student teachers. Therefore these studies interpret the impact of the cooperating teachers with the impact of assessment.

There are further examples of cooperating teachers coercing student teachers in language teaching literature. Gan (2014, p. 134) interviewed 17 student teachers in an ELT department at a state university in Hong Kong during their

practicum and identified that “supporting teachers were a source of pressure as they still possessed the power to decide what to teach and how to teach on the student teacher’s class”. Similar findings have been reported in Turkish contexts, as well. For instance, Atay (2007) found that some cooperating teachers forced the student teachers to teach in certain ways in her focus group interviews with twenty-two student teachers during the practicum. In the same vein, Vanci Osam and Balbay (2004, p. 755) in their research into decision making skills during the practicum found that the student teachers “had to obey the suggestions of the cooperating teachers” since the class was not their own class but borrowed from the cooperating teachers. However, these three studies give details neither on the power relationship between student teachers and cooperating teachers nor on the nature of assessment both of which could possibly be important determinant factors regarding their impact. Notwithstanding, these findings along with mine show once more how practicum experiences can force students to adapt to the established practices in schools and act as a catalyst for reverse assimilation into the school culture instead of providing opportunities for learning through collaboration. In other words, the findings show that the established practices advocated by the cooperating teachers actually stifled opportunities for student teacher learning, and therefore the student teachers were left to learn how to perform strategically to survive in this new context.

The shifts in the student teachers’ practices also raise the question about the depth of their cognitions considering how quickly they abandoned or suspended them. In general teacher education, Rozelle and Wilson (2012) in their ethnographic study of six student teachers during a year-long internship in the United States observed that the student teachers were strongly influenced by their cooperating teachers’ practices, and more strikingly if the student teachers felt successful when they repeated their cooperating teachers’ practices, they eventually shifted their cognitions to match their cooperating teachers’ cognitions as well. In language teacher education literature, Pennington and Urmston (1998) and Mak (2011) similarly observed the overruling impact of local teaching cultures on novice teachers’ cognitions. Considering the ideals it promotes, if the goal of the teacher education programme is to bring innovation and improve existing language teaching

practices, then, student teacher's tendency to follow the established practices at the practice schools could pose a risk for the impact of teacher education programmes in the long term and create a fossilisation of established teaching practices.

I could then argue that in my study the student teachers, who lacked the competence and experience to put their cognitions into practice and the opportunity and power to negotiate them with their cooperating teachers and supervisors, eventually learnt that in order to survive the practicum they might need to compromise on their cognitions and adapt their teaching practices strategically to the context they are in. This could be interpreted first, as negative learning especially when the contextual needs or requirements run counter to the philosophy of the teacher education programme or contradict what is called good practice in the language teaching literature. Alternatively, it could be seen as shifting identities to adapt to the culture and politics of their immediate context. In the next sub-section I will discuss how those aforementioned issues such as competence, experience, opportunities and power relationships influenced their process of developing their identities as a teacher.

7.1.4 Developing a perception of self as teacher

Although initially excluded from the scope of language teacher cognition, emotion and identity have recently begun to be considered as part of the construct (Borg, 2012; Golombek, 2015; Golombek & Doran, 2014; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). The limited existing empirical evidence in the language teaching literature provides insight into how identity development and learning to teach are closely connected not only during the pre-service teacher education (M. Clarke, 2008), but also in the early years of teaching (Kanno & Stuart, 2011; Liu & Fisher, 2006) and the career-long professional development of language teachers (Tsui, 2007). However, there is a paucity of empirical studies into first, identity development during the practicum, and second the influence of affective factors on teacher learning.

Earlier studies into the practicum found that student teachers are often occupied with evaluating their own performances as teachers rather than

assessing pupil learning in the classroom (Farrell, 2001; Numrich, 1996). This is consistent with the developmental stages of teachers' concerns proposed by Fuller (1969). The same studies also touched rather vaguely on the affective side of teacher learning. For instance, Numrich (1996) labelled some of the student teacher experiences as "frustrations" throughout the work and Farrell (2001) mentions the disappointment the student teacher experienced when not accepted by the school community. However neither study interpreted and discussed the content of those emotional constructs and their impacts on student teachers' cognitions and practices. Despite the limited access to teaching during the practicum in my study, it was evident that the student teachers were developing perceptions of themselves as teachers and this experience was emotional. Therefore I will discuss identity and emotions in tandem.

First, the student teachers in my study most often perceived the practicum as a very superficial setting where they needed to act as if they were a teacher while not being recognized as a teacher and this perception eventually affected their practices. As noted in Chapter 5, during our interviews they made multiple statements starting "If I was the real teacher, …" and "if it was my real class, …". Moreover, Oylum for instance, used the word 'presentation' (reminding me of the micro-teaching sessions they do at the teacher education programmes) instead of 'lesson' to refer to the lessons she taught at the practice school during our interviews. They were in between being a student and being a teacher. This perception of themselves as being kept in limbo was triggered by many factors. First and foremost by the cooperating teachers' status as the real owner of the classes and their over-control on the student teachers' teaching practices. Moreover, the student teachers were lacking knowledge of pupils and the context which somehow prevented them from developing the feeling of belonging to the classroom. They spent a considerable amount of their limited teaching time trying to get to know the pupils and to be accepted by them as a teacher. Although they could not solve the tensions caused by the cooperating teachers, getting used to the pupils promoted their self-confidence substantially. Therefore, it could be said that although the student teachers struggled to develop a professional identity as a teacher during the practicum,

they gradually became more confident acting as a teacher, or presenting content in front of real students.

Secondly, the access to teaching real students provided the student teachers with opportunities to think and reflect on their strengths and weaknesses in teaching. Similar findings have been reported in other language teaching practicum studies in the literature (Atay, 2007; Chiang, 2008). Nevertheless, my data further showed that while student teachers found it rewarding to realize their strengths, they were more inclined to focus on their weaknesses and they were harshly self-critical which made the practicum experience emotionally destructive. In general teacher education, Gill and Hardin (2015) argue that teachers' emotions, especially negative ones, exert influence on teachers' beliefs and classroom practices and vice versa. These strong emotions were markedly evident in Oylum's statements when she thought the game activity she planned did not work in her classroom, "The game part was awful to me. I went home and I gulped back my tears" and when the pupils in Zeynep's class turned out to know the vocabulary she aimed to teach, "The thing I have done was silly in a way, I re-taught something they had already known". Therefore, the practicum was highly emotional experience for most of the student teachers and all felt insecure and vulnerable at times especially when they faced challenges that they were not ready to cope with. As they did not receive affective support on such occasions, their negative emotional experiences turned into negative learning experiences where they decided to abandon the use of problematic techniques during the practicum.

To sum up, my findings confirmed Kanno and Stuart (2011, p. 245) in claiming identity and practices are "mutually constitutive" since during the practicum how the student teachers felt and perceived themselves as teachers shaped their teaching practices, and vice versa. In addition to that, the student teachers' perceptions of themselves were also strongly mediated by the social factors surrounding them. Not being given autonomy as a teacher, full membership of the profession, right and voice to negotiate meanings in the context, affective support in cases of emotional breakdowns, the student teachers were left detached and alone both by the teacher education programme and the practice school communities. Echoing the findings of Yuan (2016, p. 188) who

combined self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and possible-selves theory (Markus, 1986) to understand student teachers' identity formation through socialisation during the practicum in China, the negative social circumstances in my study hindered the student teachers' identity formation by discrediting their ideal identities developed during the teacher education programme, compelling them to take on their feared (i.e. traditional teacher) identities.

7.1.5 Summary

Despite very limited teaching practice, there was still scope for learning. The student teachers began to gain basic instructional skills such as time management, lesson planning, and error correction; they recognized the contextual differences between practice schools and the ideal classrooms portrayed during the teacher education programme; they learnt that they need to adapt to the culture and politics of the context to survive the practicum; they started developing their own repertoire of teaching activities based on positive and negative teaching experiences and, even though limited, they started developing a perception of themselves as teachers. As the discussion has so far identified, any learning that took place during the practicum was actually strongly mediated and most often limited by the opportunities provided by the other people acting in that context. The next section, therefore, will take the discussion one step further and discuss the social and contextual factors that promoted and/or impeded their learning.

7.2 Factors hindering or supporting student teacher learning during the practicum

As I have already mentioned in the contextual background chapter (Chapter 2), in 1997 the Faculty of Education – Practice School Cooperation Programme was integrated into teacher education programmes in Turkey with the aim of providing ample teaching practice to student teachers and building continuous communication between schools and universities. This programme introduced a communication network model between the practice school and the teacher education programme (see Section 2.4). However this network model did not work efficiently in my context. The way the practicum was organised and carried out resulted in student teachers having limited access to teaching and

receiving insufficient feedback, and caused bottlenecks in cooperation among partners. I will discuss these further below.

7.2.1 Limited access to teaching

The practicum was a fourteen week module. According to the official directive issued jointly by the Ministry of National Education and the Council of Higher Education (1998)[6] student teachers are supposed to attend practice schools one full day or two half days a week and to spend a minimum 24 hours of that time teaching in classrooms. However, as we have seen in the individual case sections, the student teacher participants of the study had between two to four teaching times during the entire practicum. I intentionally chose the word 'times' since the student teachers did not always teach a whole lesson. Defne, for example, shared two lesson hours with two peers and taught a maximum of twenty minutes each time she went to the practice school. This caused a marked variety among student teachers in their access to teaching experience.

The findings also showed that the implementation of the suggested communication network caused delays and substantial loss of time in giving the student teachers access to the classrooms since it required a lot of negotiations and paperwork among the partners. Considering that the practicum practice had been carried out for at least fifteen years by the teacher education programme, having this timing issue unresolved signals that the practicum is organized as an established tradition of practice without questioning, and how insignificant the effective allocation of schools and/or the practicum itself seems to be to the teacher education programme. This furthermore suggests that there had been limited systematic review of how effectively the practicum was organised.

In the language teacher education literature, there is an ongoing debate about the length of the practicum with no consensus so far (i.e. J. C. Richards & Crookes, 1988; Yan & He, 2010). However, my study showed that, the length of the practicum on its own is not representative of the amount of experience

---

[6] 1998 Official Directive: ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ MİLLİ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞINA BAĞLI EĞİTİM ÖĞRETİM KURUMLARINDA YAPACAKLARI ÖĞRETMENLİK UYGULAMASINA İLİŞKİN YÖNERGE, Ekim 1998/2493 http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/102.html

the student teachers get during the practicum. As my study showed there was a substantial difference between the official length and the actual length. Then, what really matters is the extent to which the student teachers are given access to the classroom teaching, and most importantly the quality of the support they are provided with through supervision and mentoring. Limited access to teaching was one of the major failures of the practicum organisation in my context. Now, I will turn the discussion to the quality aspect of the practicum by referring to the nature of support the student teachers received from their partners during the practicum.

7.2.2 Absence of feedback

As mentioned in my literature review, feedback sessions are seen as integral parts of supervised teaching practice. In an ideal supervision setting it is in the feedback session where the student teachers' beliefs become explicit and are reflected on and fed back to their future practices. In my study, the student teachers received feedback on their practices only on their last assessed teaching session, except for Defne who was never observed by her supervisor. Therefore, the impact of supervisor feedback on student teachers' cognitions and teaching practices remained unknown in the context of my study. The cooperating teachers, on the other hand, often abstained from giving feedback to the student teachers. Even when they did, they kept their comments short and positive. I will discuss the reasons behind the supervisors' and the cooperating teachers' approaches to feedback in the subsections 7.2.3.1 and 7.2.3.2 respectively. However, under these circumstances the student teachers went through the practicum without getting feedback from either their supervisors or their cooperating teachers until their last exam lesson which also marked the end of the practicum. There were times they were unsure about their knowledge of subject matter, or language teaching pedagogy that they attempted to check with the researcher, myself as it was the only setting for them to talk about their teaching practices. Regarding my position as a researcher, I intentionally avoid giving any type of feedback to the student teachers, however I thought these queries could have well been addressed if regular feedback sessions had taken place.

7.2.3 Lack of cooperation among partners

According to the school-university partnership communication network model, the main actors in the immediate social environment of the student teachers were their university-based supervisors and their school-based cooperating teachers. However, the student teachers in my study were allocated to practice schools with peers and their peers emerged as another cooperation partner during their practicum. Therefore I add the peers to my discussion below.

Before proceeding further I would like to remind readers of a terminological clarification I made earlier in the literature review chapter. For consistency throughout the thesis, I referred to the literature on 'supervision' regarding the relationship between the student teacher and the university-based teacher educator and to the 'mentoring' literature to characterize the relationship between the student teacher and the school-based cooperating teacher. I will now discuss the particular roles of supervisors and cooperating teachers in my study respectively at greater length.

1.2.3.1. Supervisor

According to the official directive issued jointly by the Ministry of National Education and the Council of Higher Education (1998)[7], the university-based supervisor:

1. prepares the student teachers for their practice teaching activities,

2. plans activities for student teachers' practice teaching in cooperation with the practice school coordinator and the cooperating teacher,

3. regularly observes and inspects the practices of student teachers in cooperation with the cooperating teacher,

4. provides the necessary guidance and supervision with the student teacher at the every stage of the practicum,

5. assesses the student teachers' teaching practices in cooperation with the cooperating teacher, submits the results in grades to the faculty administration at the end of the practicum.

---

[7] 1998 Official Directive: ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ MİLLİ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞINA BAĞLI EĞİTİM ÖĞRETİM KURUMLARINDA YAPACAKLARI ÖĞRETMENLİK UYGULAMASINA İLİŞKİN YÖNERGE, Ekim 1998/2493 http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/102.html

These role descriptors are quite generic. Neither these descriptors nor any other published guideline for the practicum explain the amount and nature of the supervision tasks that supervisors were supposed to undertake. Nevertheless, despite all the supervisors appearing to be experienced (experience varied between 6 and 21 years), the supervisors had not received any training for their supervision role. Except for Leyla, who recalled attending an introductory seminar on the administration of School-University Partnership in 1998, none of the other supervisors were informed of either the administrative or supportive tasks they are expected to perform. This finding provide further evidence for the claims that training for language teacher supervision is under-explored and often neglected in language teacher education (Bailey, 2006, 2009).

Another issue about the work of supervisors was the lack of recognition of this role in their paid work. For each group of roughly ten student teachers, only one hour was allocated in the supervisors' weekly timetable. While Nermin, Yeliz and Kerem had one supervision group, Leyla and Tolga had two groups which meant having two hours per week to supervise approximately twenty student teachers. Considering that they were expected to observe each student teacher's teaching practice at least once for grading purposes, this time allocation was unreasonable.

Given the generic role description, lack of training for the role and the limited time allocated for their role, the supervisors who participated in this study preferred following what had been done by everyone so far, in other words the established culture of supervision practice in the department and undertook mainly three tasks: first, taking their supervision group to the practice school to ensure that each student teacher is assigned to a cooperating teacher and informed of the procedures of the practicum at the beginning of the semester; secondly organising supervision meetings with the student teachers (although some supervisors never met student teachers during the practicum), and thirdly, observing the student teachers' teaching practice once towards the end of the practicum to assess and grade their performance which was followed by a post-observation feedback session (excluding Defne).

As even this short summary reveals, the supervision practices were conducted unevenly by the supervisors. The content and frequency of the supervision that the student teachers received varied during the practicum. For example, Defne never had the opportunity to have a supervision meeting, and was never observed by her supervisor; in contrast, Zeynep had regular group supervision meetings with her supervisor and received oral feedback from her supervisor following her teaching. Although I did not have access to all supervision meetings, according to the accounts of the supervisors and the student teachers, these meetings were group meetings where practical issues like access to teaching in the practice school, the relationship with the cooperating teacher, and the topics they were asked to teach were discussed, instead of issues connected to the theoretical and pedagogical underpinnings of their teaching practices. The student teachers, therefore did not receive individual feedback on their teaching practice until, if ever, they were observed and assessed by their supervisors.

The supervisors paid, at best, one visit to each student teacher's classes towards the end of the semester mainly for assessment purposes. This observed teaching practice was unique due to two opportunities it provided: first, for the student teachers to be involved in one-to-one contact with their supervisor, and secondly for the supervisors to cooperate with the cooperating teachers. Therefore, I will focus on that particular occasion for the discussion in relation to both aspects, starting with the former.

As said, the observed practice was an opportunity to bring the student teachers and the supervisors together. It had another dual role in that setting. It was both the only setting where the supervisors and student teachers' came together to talk about the teaching practice which would potentially create an opportunity for learning to teach according to the literature; and the only setting for assessment where the supervisors evaluated the student teachers' teaching performance. In the language teacher education literature, there is substantial evidence that these two tasks are not compatible as the latter most often overwhelms the former especially when the nature of assessment is summative (Brandt, 2006; Farrell, 2007; Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011; Tang, 2003).

As I have explained in the first section on student teacher learning, in my study the appearance of the supervisor in the final lesson as an observer and an evaluator overshadowed the opportunity for the occasion to contribute to their learning to teach. The student teachers were primarily concerned with passing the practicum module. Therefore, for the sake of being safe, they aimed at presenting a tidy and coherent lesson rather than trying out innovative methods and techniques. Similarly, during the post-observation feedback sessions, the student teachers were not self-reflective or critical of their teaching performance perhaps because it was part of the assessment. Hence, I could argue that the assessment focus of the supervisors' visit resulted in student teachers preparing perfect model lessons instead of providing opportunities to reflect on and learn from their practice with the support of their supervisors.

Another way in which supervisors affected the student teachers' learning was the nature of the feedback given by the supervisors. In the literature the post-lesson feedback session is noted as an important opportunity for student teacher learning. For instance Allwright and Hanks (2009, p. 77) provide a description of an ideal feedback session as follows:

> It is precisely during feedback discussions, however, that we might expect beliefs about learners to emerge. Powerfully, from trainers and trainees alike given the immediacy of the preceding classroom experience. It is a key opportunity in trainees' professional lives for their developing ideas to be analysed and accepted, adapted or rejected and for trainers to suggest their own pedagogic ideas and their own view of learners…

Chick (2015a) also notes that dialogic interaction and exploratory talk between teacher educators and trainee language teachers during post-lesson feedback sessions help trainees develop skills in noticing the complexity of pedagogic practice. The actual feedback sessions in the context of my study were very different. To recap, Defne was never observed by her supervisor and therefore she never had a feedback session. Oylum and Ceren received their feedback straight after the observation. Ceren's supervisor gave her feedback on the way back to university and Oylum's gave it in the classroom during the break. Ercan and Zeynep had a chance to have a feedback meeting after the lesson with both the supervisor and the cooperating teacher. The supervisor was the facilitator of the feedback talk in any combination. In other words, it was always

the supervisor who initiated and moderated the talk during the post-lesson feedback sessions.

One common feature of these feedback sessions was that the student teachers were not encouraged to reflect on their teaching practices. Only Leyla and Yeliz asked the student teachers to evaluate their own performances shortly before giving their feedback. The feedback given by the supervisors was related to the mechanics of teaching such as classroom management, time management, sequence and coherence of the activities. As subject-specific feedback, Leyla gave language focused feedback for Erdem's mispronunciation of a word during his lesson. None of the feedback given by the supervisors made explicit connections to the theory of language teaching taught at the teacher education programme.

Another key finding emerging from my study regarding the nature of feedback was the use of evaluative feedback by the supervisors. The supervisors were in the position of an authority and their critical feedback was most often prescriptive, and mostly expressed by a "you could have done…" structure. In the language teacher education literature, the type of feedback is associated with styles of supervision, and this type of feedback falls under the definition of "supervisory approach" by Freeman (1982), "directive model" by Gebhard (1984), "prescriptive approach" by Wallace (1991), the "telling" supervision style in the classification made by Soslau (2012, p. 771) (see Table 3.3) all of which are seen to be restrictive rather than facilitative of teacher learning.

There is also empirical evidence of this type of directive feedback for "threatening student teachers' sense of self as a teacher" (Tang, 2003, p. 492) and not providing opportunity for reflection (Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011). In my study, I did not have the chance to observe the impact of supervisor feedback on student teachers' teaching practices as the observed teaching practice marked the end of the practicum for all student teachers and they did not go to the practice schools again. However, during the practicum the number of feedback sessions, when and where they took place, their length and content act all together against the idea of feedback sessions as learning to teach opportunities as mentioned in the literature (i.e. Chick, 2015a, 2015b).

Going back to the discussion of the observed teaching practice, as I said, it was a tool for assessment and informed the final grade. However, as the observation checklist provided by Council of Higher Education was criticized by the supervisors for being too generic and not being subject-specific, the supervisors ended up using different and mostly subjective criteria for their assessment. One striking finding was that the supervisors based their evaluations of the student teachers teaching practice on their previous familiarity with the trainees from other modules they taught in the teacher education programme. In other words, their evaluations of how the student teacher performed during the practicum were also based on how the student teacher performed in other modules during their teacher education programme. This signalled a significant flaw in the assessment as it was actually not based on the targeted task. Quite interestingly, this issue of non-standardized assessment of teaching practice was raised by the student teachers in another practicum study in Turkey (Merç, 2015). This set of findings suggests three major problems regarding assessment of the practicum: first, the inadequacy of generic observation criteria supplied by the CoHE; secondly, inconsistency in the criteria supervisors use to assess student teachers; and thirdly the use of criteria that do not assess specific lessons but student teachers' ability more generally.

According to the official guidelines, assessment of the student teachers was supposed to be done jointly by the university-based supervisor and the school-based cooperating teacher. However, the supervisors perceived their evaluation as superior to the cooperating teachers' and decided on the final mark on their own. Several factors influenced their reasoning here. First, they were critical of cooperating teachers' teaching practices for being traditional, exam-focused and not being theory-informed. They were also suspicious of their mentoring practices for not being critical of student teachers' practices, not having professional skills for mentoring, and overrating student teacher performance in the grades they give.

Supervisors' perceptions of the cooperating teachers apparently hindered any potential cooperation. Their perceptions actually reflected and reinforced the status quo in traditional institutional hierarchies. This brings back me my to

discussion of the compatibility of teacher education programmes and practice schools to cooperate, and further demonstrates how institutional power issues trickles down to the personal level communications. This hierarchy of positions have long been recognised. Russell (2005, p. 142) maintains:

> Teacher educators are well known for their criticisms of 'traditional' teaching practices in schools. This is one of many elements that make genuine school-university partnership so difficult to achieve.

I would argue that these perceptions held by the supervisors are the traces of the prevailing applied science model of teacher education which gives precedence to the theory of teaching and underestimates the value of the experience that classroom teachers have. The cooperation required for the practicum does not seem to be feasible unless these perceptions change to recognize each other's expertise and contribution. All in all, the contextual factors such as failure to follow government guidelines, lack of training for supervision, of time for supervision tasks in their timetable, of coordination with other supervisors, of appropriate assessment instruments; and the established prejudices such as the supervisors' sense of superiority over the cooperating teachers would account for the minimal contribution of the supervisors to student teachers' learning in that setting. Having analysed the practicum from the perspectives of the supervisors, I will now move to the perspective of the cooperating teachers.

1.2.3.2. Cooperating teacher

The cooperating teachers were the English language teachers at the practice schools who were assigned to support the school-based practicum activities of student teachers. Following the same structure I used above, in this sub-section I will first scrutinize the role given to the cooperating teachers, their recruitment and their mentoring practices in the context of this study. I will then conclude by discussing the institutional and national education policy factors behind the cooperating teachers' mentoring practices.

In the teacher education literature cooperating teachers are considered to be responsible for mentoring pre-service and/or beginning teachers in the practice school context. However, as I have already mentioned in my literature review, mentoring can be defined in various ways based on different understandings of

learning to teach in different settings. In the context of my study, the school-based cooperating teachers were given three tasks in relation to their mentoring role during the practicum. According to the official directive issued jointly by the Ministry of National Education and the Council of Higher Education (1998)[8], the cooperating teacher:

> 1. prepares activities for student teachers' practice teaching in cooperation with the university-based supervisor and the practice school coordinator,
>
> 2. ensures the implementation of activities required by the teacher education programme, guides the student teachers to carry out practice teaching activities successfully, observes and evaluates these activities,
>
> 3. assesses student teachers' practice teaching applications, submits the results to the practice school coordinator at the end of the practicum.

Akin to the guidelines for university-based supervisors, the guidelines for cooperating teachers in the directive were quite generic which resulted in different interpretations and eventually variations in mentoring practices of the cooperating teachers. A few studies in the English language teacher education literature based in the Turkish context have addressed the lack of clarity for the roles of supervision triad members (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Atay, 2007). Rakicioglu-Soylemez and Eroz-Tuga (2014, p. 161) described its' impact on the mentoring practices as follows:

> Due to the vague, general statements and lack of performance indicators on the roles and criteria for practice teaching, the application in the school settings may vary significantly from institution to institution and even from CT to CT within the same institution. The lack of criteria and indicators leads to inequality and inconsistency among the mentoring applications. As a result, the evaluation and assessment of the practices are conducted subjectively on personal bases.

In the same vein, the recruitment of cooperating teachers was not specified by the official directive. Following the tradition of established practice, each supervisor has taken each of their supervision groups, which consisted of roughly ten student teachers, to one of the agreed practice schools and then

---

[8] 1998 Official Directive: ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ MİLLİ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞINA BAĞLI EĞİTİM ÖĞRETİM KURUMLARINDA YAPACAKLARI ÖĞRETMENLİK UYGULAMASINA İLİŞKİN YÖNERGE, Ekim 1998/2493 http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/102.html

the student teachers were divided into smaller groups by the number of English language teachers in the school. The allocation was random and spontaneous. Often the student teachers were given the weekly timetable of cooperating teachers to match the cooperating teachers' lessons with their own availability. Agreeing on time came across as the one and only criteria in selecting cooperating teachers. In the end, the cooperating teachers participating in my study had up to three student teachers to mentor for the semester.

The recruitment of cooperating teachers receives limited attention in the teacher education literature. In her literature review of research on mentoring language teachers, Asención Delaney (2012) notes that the criteria for selection of cooperating teachers is often based on the years of experience in the language teaching profession. In their systematic review of mentoring in general teacher education, Hobson et al (2009, p. 212) argue that effective mentors must be willing and committed to their role as mentors and when mentor-mentee relationship arises from a "forced marriage" - like in my study- it seems less likely to result in effective cooperation. My findings provide further empirical evidence for this. The mentoring role was an additional burden on their already heavy workload and they did not get any remission from teaching or other duties. The cooperating teachers in my study were neither particularly eager for their mentoring role nor were they prepared for the specific tasks it might require.

As I have noted above, the selection of cooperating teachers is often based on the misconception that any more experienced teacher could undertake the role of mentoring student teachers. Although there are overlaps between the roles of teachers and mentors, successful mentoring requires more than just experience in teaching. In the literature the desirable mentoring tasks are primarily listed as reflection on and evaluation of classroom practices, and providing constructive feedback on observation; and both in language teacher education and general teacher education there is a substantial agreement on the need for specific training for mentoring role (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Asención Delaney, 2012; Hobson et al., 2009; Rakicioglu-Soylemez & Eroz-Tuga, 2014). Apparently, mentor training has not yet become a norm in teacher education programmes perhaps due to the lack of research into the impact of mentor

training models on mentoring practices and eventually student teacher learning. In general teacher education, the research by Gareis and Grant (2014) is an example of much needed studies reporting on the impact of mentor training. In English language teacher education literature, on the other hand, Malderez and Bodsczky (1999) suggest a framework for mentor training and plenty of activities to be used by mentor trainers, but I could not locate any research studies reporting specifically on the impacts of mentor training on student teacher learning.

Although mentoring has been an established component of the practicum in the literature and teacher education practices, ironically the issues that have been noted in relation to the poor definition of roles for mentors, shortcomings of recruitment and lack of training are neither new nor specific to the context of my study. Such findings have recurred in similar studies into the practicum in English language teacher education in a range of different contexts (Asención Delaney, 2012; Farrell, 2008; Mann & Tang, 2012; Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011; Richards & Crookes, 1988).

Similar problems were evident in the practicum design I investigated. Moreover, the cooperating teachers were also not informed about the content and the goals of the language teacher education programme they cooperated with. Therefore, the cooperating teachers in my study felt mainly responsible for providing access to classroom teaching by letting student teachers into their classrooms. Nevertheless, there was no consensus among the cooperating teachers even in terms of how many lessons to allow student teachers to teach. Although the official directive stipulated a minimum of 24 hours teaching for student teachers, the cooperating teachers seemed to be unaware of this regulation, or reluctant to follow it as I will discuss later. This suggests that in addition to a lack of clear criteria for mentoring and of preparation for the role, there was also a lack of accountability and of monitoring both by the practice school and the teacher education programme.

Apart from letting student teachers into their classrooms, the cooperating teachers were responsible for signing student teachers' practicum attendance sheets, deciding on the subject and very often materials of the lesson the student teachers taught, filling in the observation checklist given by the teacher

education programme, and giving a grade for each student teacher at the end of the semester to submit to teacher education programme. As we have seen in the case reports of student teachers, they rarely gave feedback after student teachers' teaching. Actually giving feedback was not recognized as part of their mentoring role, nor was there a time allocated for giving feedback in their timetable. Therefore, feedback, if any, was often given very briefly straight after the lesson during the break.

When the cooperating teachers gave feedback, it was either directive such as Zeynep's cooperating teacher Pinar advising her to integrate translation activity to fill the class time; or was very positive to protect student teachers from frustrations as Melis did for Oylum. These findings about directive feedback and non-critical, over-positive feedback are consistent with the literature (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Hobson, 2002). Examples of directive feedback involved giving advice on how to manage time, suggesting or mostly requesting additional activities such as incorporating translation activity, writing the answers on the board. This type of feedback did not require the student teachers to reflect on their practice, or to link their practice to their theoretical knowledge which would potentially create learning opportunities. Contrarily, this type of feedback prescribed certain ways of teaching to student teachers without questioning and therefore directive feedback also limited student teacher autonomy.

The other theme in relation to feedback in my study was the cooperating teachers' tendency to give positive feedback even when things go wrong. For instance, Meltem intentionally avoided being critical for the sake of being supportive. However, the literature argues that student teachers should face an optimal level of challenge for learning to occur (Bullough Jr & Draper, 2004; Tang, 2003; Zanting, Verloop, & Vermunt, 2001). Maynard (2000, pp. 23-34) reported that the student teachers in her study were equally negatively affected by the under-critical, nurturing cooperating teachers as they were by the "overcritical", "destructive" ones. The author concluded that the student teachers needed constructive criticism for continuous development along with affective support.

Again with the concern for providing affective support, Hakan picked a specific class for Erdem which he thought was less challenging for a beginner teacher

in terms of student behaviour and achievement. Although it might be considered as good practice to provide some initial protection for student teachers, considering that the aim of the practicum is to provide access to real language classrooms, the extent to which such protection would contribute to student teacher learning is unclear. In Brandt (2006), tutors and teacher trainees described a similar discrepancy between normal language classrooms and teaching practice language classrooms which, as the author suggests, turned the teaching practice experience into a superficial role-play activity for the student teachers. Therefore, there is a need for further research to make informed decisions about the choice of practice classrooms.

The cooperating teachers also had a tendency to give high grades to student teachers regardless of the quality of teaching, as in the case of Melis- it was an agreed practice among all the cooperating teachers in the same school. This was caused by different factors such as the generic competency indicators listed in the observation feedback sheet and the cooperating teachers' lack of preparation or training for classroom evaluation. The cooperating teachers also had doubts about to what extent their grade would be taken seriously by the university-based supervisors –which was actually valid as we have seen in the previous sub-section on supervisors (7.2.3.1). Considering all the above, giving a grade became a formality to be carried out by the cooperating teachers, and perhaps by giving high grades they aimed to ensure that the student teachers would pass without requiring any further work from anyone.

As the researcher, I must emphasize that my aim was not assessing my participants' professional practices or blaming them for what was happening during the practicum. I observed the mentoring practices of the cooperating teachers as being substantially grounded in institutional and national policy level failings. Therefore, I would like to briefly refer to the position of cooperating teachers' within the school-university partnership, within their school and the wider education system, and how this position affected their mentoring practices.

To start with the position of cooperating teachers' within the school-university partnership, they did not receive any support from the university partner and were not familiar with the goals of the teacher education programme. Their

contact with university-based supervisors was limited and most often based on the administrative aspects of the role. As noted earlier, they were not recognized as equal status partners by the teacher educators who were suspicious of their knowledge and practices. This tension was mainly caused by the separation between universities as the producers of the knowledge of the field and the schools as the passive recipients (or perhaps ignorers) of this knowledge.

Regarding the position of the cooperating teachers within their schools and the wider education system, similar to their counterparts across the country, the cooperating teachers in my study were working under many contextual constraints that impeded their autonomy. The major constraints were the heavy teaching workload, scripted curriculum and textbooks at the national level, and preparing the pupils for the nationwide high stakes exams. The role attributed to them by the education system was what Malderez and Wedell (2007, p. 13) call a “technicist” one. They define the role of teacher as technicists as follows:

> A technicist is someone who executes some else’s plan, and there is a view of teachers that sees this as their role. In the same way that a builder needs to follow an architect’s plans to the last detail if the building is to be safe, sturdy and exactly as the architect envisaged it, so a teacher needs to follow syllabuses and course plans equally closely if the outcomes expected by the designers are to be achieved.

Unfortunately, this type of rigid framework being imposed on English language teachers by the education systems is again neither new, nor exceptional to the context of my study. In her argument about the restrictive effects of nationwide tests Shohamy (2004, p. 106) compares teachers to the “servants of the system”. Similarly Akbari (2008, p. 646) claims that considering the heavy workloads they have, in many countries language teachers are tantamount to “factory workers”. Kumaravadivelu (2005) argues that language teachers are generally left very limited space for professional decision making due to the prescribed methods and textbooks. There are studies in the language teaching literature from different parts of the world which report that the pressures set by high stakes policies and/or exams prevent English language teachers from putting their beliefs into practice for the sake of implementing the prescribed curricula (Basturkmen, 2012; Birbirso, 2012; Song, 2015; Woods & Çakır, 2011).

In the context of the practicum, this technicist or implementer role of teachers in the schools sharply contrasts with the idealised view of the teacher presented to student teachers in teacher education programmes as autonomous decision maker in a constructivist trend. The student teachers who went to practice schools to experiment with their teaching knowledge and to learn to teach through practice were confronted with the challenges that the teachers in schools face to cover the syllabus. In their case study of a university-school partnership in the United States, Bartholomew and Sandholtz (2009, p. 164) observed a similar tension between the perspectives of the institutions and noted that if two parties cannot find a common ground for the view of teachers' role, the "university partners' approaches and perspectives run the risk of being seen as irrelevant, or worse, running counter to K-12 aims".

In the current study, these constraints imposed on teachers had two major impacts on the cooperating teachers' mentoring practices: first, being primarily worried about keeping up with the topics to be covered in the textbooks the cooperating teachers were not willing to hand over their lessons to the student teachers; second, even if they agreed to hand over, they forced the student teachers to strictly follow their syllabus. Therefore, the major reason behind the limited practising opportunities for the student teachers actually resulted from the domino effect of the wider national educational policies.

Thus, the cooperating teachers had the primary responsibilities of covering their syllabus and preparing their pupils for high stakes exams. Their role as cooperating teachers was an add-on to their workload and it was not rewarded or recognized as a task of high order importance within their institutions. Therefore the cooperating teachers did not value mentoring as an important role. Mentoring teachers' tendency to prioritize their teaching role over mentoring has again been identified by a number of researchers in the literature (A. Clarke, Triggs, & Nielsen, 2013; Jaspers, Meijer, Prins, & Wubbels, 2014; Tang, 2003). Rajuan, Beijaard, and Verloop (2007, p. 238-239) described their dilemma as follows:

> In their attempt to undergo role transition from classroom teacher to cooperating teacher while retaining continuity with their other teaching roles and responsibilities, cooperating teachers are faced with a conflict of dual loyalties to student teachers and to the pupils they teach.

In my study, this underlying conflict had a direct impact on student teachers' access to classroom teaching. In order to avoid disruption to pupil learning and to the flow of curriculum activities, the cooperating teachers were reluctant to lend their classrooms to student teachers. The student teachers in my study most often had to negotiate with their cooperating teachers for their right to classroom teaching. This was much more evident in the sixth case which was excluded in my analysis as the student teacher who was placed in a private school was never given access to classroom teaching by his cooperating teacher. The cooperating teacher justified that by referring to her accountability to parents of pupils. The nature of the schools and the wider education system the teachers operated in exerted a substantial influence on their ability to support student teacher learning. In that sense, my study goes beyond the existing work that has focused on mentoring relationships during the practicum on the individual level by explicitly identifying the impact of institutional and national education policies on the cooperating teachers' willingness to share their classrooms with student teachers.

Even when they did share, they wanted to be in control of the teaching done by the student teachers. The cooperating teachers in the study of Rakicioglu-Soylemez and Eroz-Tuga (2014, p. 156) in the Turkish ELT education context raised similar concerns about the cooperating teachers' need to be in control during the student teacher teaching and to monitor their practices. In their study, all four cooperating teacher participants agreed that student teachers' role was to assist the cooperating teacher who is the ultimate authority in the classroom and who is accountable for pupil learning. While echoing similar findings, in my study the cooperating teachers also controlled the content of the teaching done by the student teachers. The student teachers were most often 'allowed' to teach revision lessons, or do the workbook activities rather than presenting a new topic. In every case, the cooperating teachers decided the subject, sometimes even the pages of the coursebook or workbook to cover.

Considering themselves the ultimate power in the classroom as a result of the above concerns regarding covering the syllabus, the cooperating teachers attended the classes taught by the student teachers, very often gave an introductory talk to pupils and only after that handed the class to the student

teachers. The student teachers perceived that as a barrier to seeing themselves as real teachers and to building their teacher identity in front of the pupils. As I previously discussed, cooperating teacher interference during the lesson was a common concern for student teachers. This finding was most salient in the Oylum's case. Her cooperating teacher Melis often interfered in her teaching sometimes by addressing the pupils to provide classroom management, sometimes by addressing Oylum to remind her about time and the pupils' previous knowledge of the topic. Cooperating teacher interference was a major distressing factor for Oylum during her practicum. In his research studies into problems faced by student teachers during the ELT practicum in Turkish context, Merç also listed cooperating teacher interference among other cooperating-teacher based problems (Merç, 2010a, 2010b) which implies the cooperating teacher interference issue is not unique to the certain cooperating teachers participated in my study, but resonates with other similar contexts.

To sum up, my findings showed that the mentoring practices of the cooperating teachers which had direct impact on the opportunities created for student learning during the practicum were substantially affected by the power relations between the schools and universities and the institutional and national level education policies. I will now turn the discussion to the last member in the immediate social-professional environment of the student teachers: peers.

1.2.3.3. Peers

As explained in my literature review, it is a common practice in teacher education to allocate student teachers in pairs or groups during their teaching practice. Teaching in cooperation with peers is thought to facilitate professional growth for student teachers by allowing them to learn from each other in an emotionally supportive environment (Lu, 2010) and to develop self-efficacy (Goker, 2006). Recently, Baeten and Simons (2014, pp. 98-99) reviewed 33 studies on various models of team teaching during the practicum and they concluded that four conditions should be met for successful implementation of team teaching models. First of all, team teaching should be combined with individual teaching and more individual teaching opportunities should be provided for the student teachers at the later stages in teacher education programmes. Secondly, participants should be prepared for the new peer

support roles and the skills required such as observation, coaching and collaboration. Thirdly, groups should be composed with care considering their compatibility. Finally, successful collaboration between participants should be supported both within the group and at the institutional level. Once these prerequisites are provided, peer coaching seems to be facilitative in teacher learning.

In the context of my study, peer collaboration was not actually a part of the practicum design. However, as a result of contextual limitations such as the number of agreed practice schools and the number of English language teachers and lessons at those schools, the student teachers had to be allocated to the practice schools in pairs or in groups of three. It is also important to point out that this allocation was not done evenly since each supervision group assigned to a certain supervisor and a certain practice school consisted of roughly ten student teachers regardless of the number of English language teachers at that school. As a result, Ceren, Zeynep and Oylum attended their practice teaching lessons with a peer while Defne had to share the lessons with two peers. On the other hand, although initially being allocated to a group of three peers, Erdem refused to share his lessons with peers, negotiated with his cooperating teacher and he managed to teach without any peers during the practicum. A similar concern was raised by the student teachers in Numrich (1996, pp. 136-37):

> Another interesting theme that emerged in this study was the teachers' need to experience teaching on their own. Although the teachers in this practicum had been paired up to share a class and were encouraged to plan their lessons together, most of them chose to teach their own separate lesson during their allotted teaching time.

The author interpreted this finding as student teachers' "need to discover their "teaching selves"" (Numrich, 1996, p. 137). However, Erdem's concern stemmed mainly from his desire to have the central authority and control over the class which he associated with good teaching. He also noted that he did not want to account for his peers' mistakes when observed by the supervisor or the cooperating teacher for assessment purposes. In the literature, student teachers have been noted to be against peer teaching in assessment settings for various reasons. For instance, in her study on teaching practice component

of a short English teaching certificate course, Brandt (2006, p. 359) reported similar needs of student teachers for being assessed on their own:

> Trainees reported anxiety in particular with regard to opportunities created while collaborating for peers to ‘pinch ideas’. This was felt to be threatening in the context of assessed TP, where trainees were keen to receive credit for their own ideas.

While Erdem was an exceptional case in terms of gaining the access to solo teaching through personal initiative, the rest of the student teachers also found it inconvenient to be in pairs or groups of peers during the practicum. The main reason was the loss of teaching time caused by sharing. Regardless of the number of peers involved in peer groups they were allowed to teach two lessons on a pre-arranged day of a week. Therefore having peers meant less access to practice teaching during the practicum. This has been reported as a weakness of team teaching in the general education literature (Baeten & Simons, 2014; Goodnough, Osmond, Dibbon, Glassman, & Stevens, 2009; Nokes, Bullough Jr, Egan, Birrell, & Merrell Hansen, 2008). In addition, in my study, the discrepancy among the allocation of student teachers resulted in a drastic inequalities among student teachers in the teaching time they spent in the classroom.

Ceren’s argument against teaching with peers was, on the other hand, based on her concern about the possible confusion that would create for pupils in the classroom. She thought the pupils would find it difficult to figure out who they should concentrate on when there is more than one teacher in the classroom. Apparently, like Erdem, she associated the identity of a teacher with being the centre of attention, power and authority, and if she could not maintain that authority she considered that the opportunities for her to build her desired autonomy and identity as a teacher would be impeded.

The nature of collaboration among the student teachers also varied in my study. Where two student teachers were allocated to one cooperating teacher, they tended to teach lessons individually in turns. It could be either taking turns for one student teacher teaching two hours a week, and the other one teaches next week; or each student teacher teaches one hour in turn on the same day. In Defne’s case, three peers divided two lesson hours by three and shared the

teaching content generally based on the Presentation-Practice-Production lesson planning structure. When in pairs, they shared their lesson plan ideas with each other but did not collaborate either for planning or teaching. Even in Defne's group of three, although they co-taught the lesson, they did not plan together. Once they decided on the topic and shared the parts of the lesson, the student teachers prepared their lesson plan individually and that hindered the development of cohesive and coherent lesson plans.

This variety in the level of cooperation for lesson planning and instruction is consistent with the findings of Nokes et al. (2008) and Goodnough et al. (2009). Both of these studies in general teacher education left the pairs of student teachers to build cooperation naturally without prescribing any peer teaching approach. Student teachers engaged in cooperation with their peers at different levels with a slight tendency to teach individually. However, different to my findings, in both studies the student teachers reported benefiting from peer coaching during their teaching practice.

To reiterate, as it stands in the literature, peer teaching is considered to be facilitative for the personal and professional growth of student teachers during school placements. However, the cases in my study revealed that pairing or grouping student teachers during the practicum does not guarantee a successful implementation of peer teaching especially in a competitive environment where the student teachers have to pass the assessed practicum module. In contrast to the conditions set by Baeten and Simons (2014) noted in the literature review chapter, in the context of my research study, neither the student teachers' allocation and cooperation with peers was structured by the programme nor were the student teachers trained for peer teaching. The main reason behind allocating student teachers in groups or pairs was the limited number of practice schools and cooperating teachers. Peer cooperation was not therefore a planned strategy to foster student teacher learning. It was rather an undesirable outcome of contextual limitations, which was yet another example of the extent of the apparent insignificance of the practicum design to the teacher education programme.

With an attempt to turn a contextual limitation to an advantage, the supervisors said they advised the student teachers to observe each other's teaching and to

give feedback. However, from my observations of the actual practices, Nermin was the only supervisor who asked Oylum and her peer to fill in the student teacher assessment checklist (that is actually designed for cooperating teachers and supervisors) while observing each other, and out of five cases it was only Oylum who said she benefited from her peer as he acted as a critical friend, in comparison to her over-positive cooperating teacher. Clearly, student teachers needed to be guided with more concrete aims and structure in their peer teaching if this is to create an environment for mutual learning and development.

In the context of my study, allocating student teachers with peers was yet another decision made to deal with practical administrative concerns rather than teacher learning concerns, and apart from one statement by Oylum, none of the student teacher participants reported any positive views of peer teaching during the practicum. It reduced access to classroom teaching and the disproportionate distribution of the student teachers (either in groups or in pairs, or alone) created even more inequity in terms of access to teaching.

7.2.4 Summary

According to the literature, the practicum can be an opportunity for meaningful learning as long as certain structural prerequisites such as coherent organisation, efficient communication, and training for specific roles are provided. As I have thoroughly explored in this section, the practicum structure in my study lacked these major prerequisites which had inevitable consequences for the opportunities created for student teacher learning. In the next section I will draw the findings together in order to see the big picture of the practicum in this context.

7.3 The model of student teacher learning during the practicum

Throughout this chapter I have identified that currently the practicum provides very limited opportunities for student teachers to learn to teach. Moreover, these opportunities for learning were strongly mediated by the other people acting in the context of the practicum such as the cooperating teachers and the

supervisors. In turn, the practices of the cooperating teachers and the supervisors were also mediated by the social contexts they were operating in.

More precisely, the wider educational culture and policies had a knock-on effect on the practicum practices. For instance, with the pressures put on the cooperating teachers to prepare their pupils for form-focused high stakes exams and to cover the syllabus, they felt rather obliged to teach grammar and vocabulary which is generally associated with traditional language teaching. They thus put pressure on the student teachers to follow their practices, and consequently the practicum encouraged the student teachers to reverse assimilate to the established teaching practices in schools. This was somehow, tolerated by the teachers educators even though the opportunities for student teachers' learning often contradicted what had been proposed during their teacher education programme.

For the university-based supervisors, the practicum seemed to be an administrative formality and everyone involved in supervising seemed to conspire in letting the practicum pass without as little extra work as possible since they were pressured by different factors such as their heavy workloads, present supervising culture in the programme, and traditional institutional hierarchies. The interplay of those multiple factors creating pressure on multiple actors somehow supported the status quo of the current practicum design, even though it was incapable of creating a supportive environment for student teacher learning.

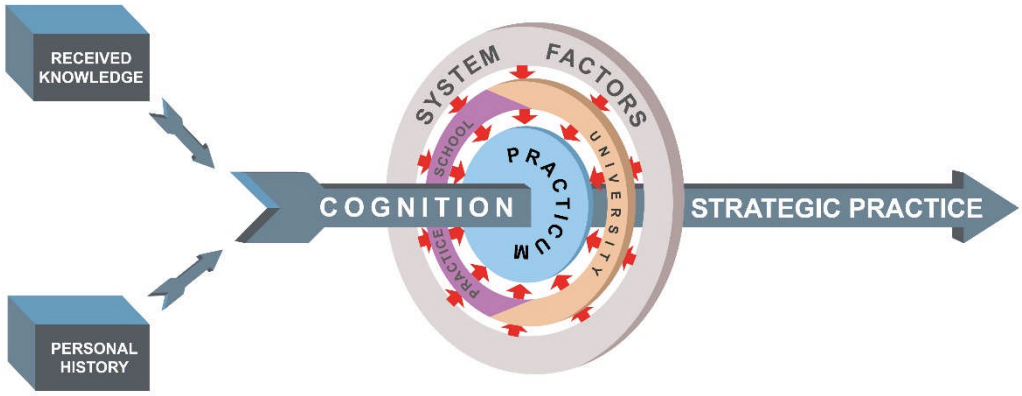
A model of student teacher learning during the practicum emerged from my understanding of what the student teachers have learnt during the practicum and how their learning was mediated by the aforementioned multidimensional factors (see Figure 7.1). This model elaborates on the Language Teacher Cognition model by Borg (2006, p. 283) that is illustrated and explained in the literature review chapter (see Figure 3.1). My findings showed that the sources of student teachers' cognitions were rooted in their received knowledge and personal history. Received knowledge is labelled as the professional coursework in the Borg model. I have re-labelled it as 'received knowledge' since the data in my study showed that the student teachers' cognitions were not only affected by the teacher education programme but also the

conferences, seminars they attended. On the other hand, personal history stands for all the experiences of the student teachers in classrooms as learners and, even if limited, as teachers. The student teacher cognition that is developed over time by the received knowledge and personal history involved their beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, principles, thinking, decision making (Borg, 2006, p. 283), identities and emotions (Borg, 2012) about teaching, teachers, learners, learning, subject matter, curricula, materials, activities, self, peers, cooperating teachers, supervisors, assessment, context.

The Borg model further suggests that the language teachers' schooling experiences might influence the way they receive the professional coursework. During the interviews, I did not pose direct questions to the student teachers to specifically investigate the nature of the relationship between their received knowledge and personal history as language learners. While the student teachers made plenty of references to the sources of their cognitions as stemming from either the received knowledge or their personal language learning history, they did not make any direct references to how the cognitions they brought to the teacher education were addressed, linked or built on their personal histories during the teacher education programme. The only relationship I observed between the two was that the teacher education programme seemed to create dissatisfaction with the traditional language teaching at schools which is mainly associated with language teaching through grammar and translation and which most student teachers went through as learners. This suggests that the teacher education programme, which seemed to be designed in line with the applied science model of teacher education, assumed that the student teachers came to the programme with no relevant background knowledge of learning and teaching English and that they will learn teaching by being exposed to the state of the art research findings, methods and techniques of English language teaching which they will be able to translate directly to their teaching. However, quite surprisingly, student teachers' teaching practices during the practicum were much more compatible with the traditional language teaching at schools than the ideals promoted by the teacher education programme. Even though the student teachers criticized

the traditional, they ended up performing it as a strategy to get through the practicum; and behind all that there were multiple contextual factors at work.

Figure 7.1 Model of student teacher learning during the practicum



Therefore, the model of student teacher learning during the practicum gives centrality to contextual factors. The model also elaborates on the contextual factors mediating the teacher learning opportunities offered by teaching practice at three levels (namely micro, meso and macro) to highlight the collective multi-layered pressures on the practicum context. In the model, I defined the practicum as the micro level context which includes the interactions between and among the student teachers, peers, the cooperating teachers, the supervisors and the pupils in the classrooms. The meso level represents the disconnection of the cooperating institutions: the university and the practice schools. The macro level involves wider system factors including the social, political, geographical, cultural and global factors mediating how the institutions act at the meso level, such as the ongoing dualities in the field of language teacher education (research versus practice, university versus school), the national educational policies (i.e. high stakes exams, national English language curricula). In the context of my study, the top-down pressures caused by the macro and meso level contexts collectively conspired against a practicum which provided opportunities for student teachers to translate their cognitions into practices and instead obliged them to act strategically during the

practicum. Moreover, due to these pressures on the micro level practicum context, there was not much space left for anyone to do what they do differently. Overall, the lack of agreement between institutions and people created a systemic dissonance which had direct impact on student teacher learning and teaching practices.

Due to the static nature of any diagram, the model does not capture how the strategic practice feeds back in subsequent practice during the practicum. However, I could argue that the student teachers became less idealistic and more strategic as they went through the practicum. As both the data and the model suggest the student teachers came to the practicum with certain knowledge and beliefs that they wanted to act on. However, once they were in the classrooms the received knowledge and the personal history became less influential since the influence of the cooperating teacher demands and the lack of supervisor support took over. By the end of the process the student teachers were not really worried about transferring any theory from the university or even their beliefs about good teaching to their practices. Therefore, it could be said that the contextual factors compelled the idealism to shrink and the strategic behaviour to grow during the practicum.

Furthermore, a limitation of the model is that since the student teachers maintained that their cognitions had not changed and their practices were adjusted for the sake of surviving the practicum, this model of student teacher learning cannot connect if/how strategic practice is stored, and influences student teacher cognitions and future practices. In other words, the findings do not show whether this strategic practice of the student teachers is limited to the practicum context or signals the beginning of more permanent reverse assimilation into the established practices at schools. However, the cooperating teachers' cognitions support the latter. The cooperating teachers (Section 6.2) were equally critical of their practices but somehow felt compelled to adapt to the working context because they did not have autonomy, or agency in the sense that Smith (2003, p. 3) defines as "freedom from control by others" to take initiatives. If this is true not only for the cooperating teachers in this study but for English language teachers in Turkey more widely, then questions need to be asked about whether teacher education programme and the practicum

are really relevant to and have any impact on each other, and on the professional lives of language teachers in the long term, and also perhaps about the long term value of the English language teaching enterprise in the whole state education system.

This calls to mind a statement that Lortie (1975, p. 71) made regarding practice teaching in teacher education programmes forty years ago:

> Because of its casualness and narrow scope, ..., the usual practice teaching arrangement does not offset the unreflective nature of prior socialization; the student teacher is not forced to compare, analyze, and select from diverse possibilities. The risk is, of course, that practice teaching may simply expose the student to one more teacher's style of work. The value of practice teaching is attested to by many who have participated in it, but there is little indication that it is a powerful force away from traditionalism and individualism. It may be earthy and realistic when compared with education courses; but it is also short and parochial.

Despite having been incorporated in teacher education programmes for so long, the practicum has been problematic, and under-researched. In general teacher education, Southgate, Reynolds, and Howley (2013) define the practicum as a wicked problem in teacher education. Darling-Hammond (2006, p. 308) claims, "[o]ften, the clinical side of teacher education has been fairly haphazard, depending on the idiosyncrasies of loosely selected placements with little guidance about what happens in them and little connection to university work". Zeichner (2010:91) describes practicum as historically "unguided and disconnected".

Although my findings were deeply embedded in local contextual factors, and my context was somewhat extreme in terms of its limitations, throughout this chapter we have seen that many of my findings confirm what other researchers have so far reported from other geographical contexts. I, thus, wonder whether my findings are unique to the participants in my study, to the practicum context of my study, the teacher education context of my study, to Turkey; or, whether they are also relevant to other contexts.

In language teacher education literature, the study of Baecher (2012) in MA TESOL context in the USA, the research by Ong'ondo and Borg (2011) in Kenya, a set of studies in Singapore by Farrell (2001, 2007, 2008) are only a

few of those reporting poorly designed practicums and their undesirable impact on student teacher learning. Considering that early research studies into the language teacher education practicum limited their focus to the student teacher and excluded analysis of the contextual factors surrounding them, the contribution of the more recent studies I cited above is important. My research study took this sociocultural perspective one step further to identify how social, political, and cultural factors mediated the cognitions and the practices of the cooperating teachers and supervisors and collectively posed restrictions on the opportunities for student teacher learning. My findings show that, any learning during the practicum can only to be expected within the possibilities that the context affords, and my study, along with the others reporting similar findings, demonstrated that many contexts do not actually afford much.

In order to gain insight into what learning could possibly take place during the practica we need to see how this set of relationships among micro, meso and macro level factors resonate with other contexts. For instance, I wonder what the wider contextual picture was for those similar studies. What were the meso and macro level factors influencing how the practicums were designed and carried out? In order to make informed decisions to improve the practicums as part of teacher education programmes we need to understand the reasons for the present practices. Otherwise, the practica will continue to be a vicious circle promoting reverse assimilation into the traditional practices and overruling the impact that the teacher education programmes aim to promote.

Having said the above, I must note that the conclusions I reach in here should be interpreted considering the context and limitations of my research. I have explained the background to the context in the first chapter and throughout the findings and discussions chapters. The limitations of my study will be presented in the next chapter along with its contributions to the literature, suggestions for further research, and implications for practice.

Chapter 8. Conclusions

In this chapter, I will summarise the key findings and the contributions of the study to the language teacher education literature. I will then point to the limitations of the current study and offer suggestions for further research. I will conclude by identifying some implications that could be drawn for future practicum design and more generally for language teacher education.

8.1 Summary of key findings and contributions

This study examined student teacher learning during the practicum. Based on my literature review, I assumed that the practicum would be a setting enabling student teachers to solidify, establish or test cognitions promoted by the teacher education programme against the reality of language classrooms. The findings showed that, despite the limitations of the context, the student teachers benefited from the practicum in terms of gaining insight into real English language classrooms. For instance, they experimented with their basic instructional skills (i.e. time management, classroom language, error correction) during the lessons.

However, any learning that took place during the practicum was strongly mediated by the context, and in the context of my study the nature of the reality was so predominantly restrictive that not only did it fail in providing space for student teachers to explore their cognitions, but also forced them to teach in ways they were critical of. The student teachers learnt how to act politically and to practice strategically to survive the practicum, how to act like a teacher in classrooms where they are not given autonomy. They also recognized the mismatches between what their teacher education programme idealises and what happens in the real language classrooms.

The main factors impeding student teacher learning during the practicum were the limited access to teaching, absence of constructive feedback and the lack of communication among the partners involved in the organisation and implementation of the practicum. Underlying all those were the social, historical, political and cultural pressures that different levels of context directly or indirectly imposed on the supervisors and the cooperating teachers, which

were then echoed as pressures they put on the student teachers. I defined this lack of agreement between institutions and people a systemic dissonance.

The major contribution of this research study is to uncover the all-pervasive pivotal role of practicum context in affording opportunities for student teacher learning, and to explicitly demonstrate the collective impact of the multi-layered factors on learning during the practicum. The power of these factors forced me to acknowledge the centrality of practicum context to understand to what extent it could possibly provide opportunities for student teacher learning as suggested by the literature. The findings showed that all the opportunities for learning were actually mediated by the cognitions and practices of the supervisors and the cooperating teachers who were supposed to give access and support for teacher learning. Furthermore, the cognitions and practices of those supervisors and the cooperating teachers were also mediated by the wider social, historical, political and cultural contexts in which they operated. Considering that the practicum is a product of the interaction of personal, institutional and national factors, in the absence of productive interactions between the supervisors and the cooperating teachers, and also between the national policy and instructional context, the practicum was reduced to an administrative formality rather than a real opportunity for student teacher learning.

Hence, theoretically and methodologically, this study is different from previous studies in that it does not limit its focus to the cognitions and the practices of individual student teachers, but it acknowledges the interplay of multiple cognitions and practices in creating the context for teacher learning. By doing so, my study goes beyond a narrow focus on the school context itself and identifies how both institutional and national policies have impact on the nature and extent of the cooperation that is needed for a supportive practicum.

Another important contribution of the study was to understand the underlying reasons for student teachers changing practices towards traditional teaching at schools. My findings showed that in most cases the beliefs brought from the teacher education programme were rather shallow and vulnerable as they were not grounded in any practical experience. When faced with the assessed nature of the practicum and the demands of the cooperating teachers to follow

their way of teaching in order not to disrupt the normal flow of teaching, the student teachers had to be strategic in their practice. Therefore, the practicum promoted conforming to existing norms rather than rewarding putting beliefs into practice or challenging the traditional practice at schools. The student teachers eventually started embracing the practices which they had rejected at the start of the practicum. I interpreted this as reverse assimilation to traditional language teaching practices which run against the ideals the language teacher education programme aimed to promote. Arguably then, in the way it is currently conceived, the teacher education programme is irrelevant to the practices that the student teachers are asked to perform at practice schools. The practice of teacher education needs to consider and fill that gap to reclaim its relevance.

As I have noted earlier, despite its potential to help novice teachers link the theory and practice of English language teaching, the practicum itself is not the focus of a huge amount of attention in the literature. Therefore, by shedding light on the impact of context on student teacher learning and the reasons leading to strategic practice, this study contributed not only to the research on language teacher cognition but also to the language teacher education literature. Moreover, this research study contributes to the literature by providing implications for future research and practice. These contributions will be explained in detail in the next two sections.

8.2 Limitations and suggestions for further research

I would like to indicate some limitations of this research study which should be considered by the readers while interpreting the conclusions I reached and by researchers who are interested in conducting further research into student teacher learning during the practicum.

8.2.1 Temporospatial and participatory delimitations

From the outset, my study never aimed to reach findings which could be completely generalizable to wider populations. On the contrary, my objective was to provide thick descriptions of events through which the readers could judge the resonance of the findings to their contexts. In that sense, the number of cases and participants –despite the drop out of one case due to nonactivity-

did not impact negatively on my findings. However, I would like to remind readers of some contextual and spatial limitations and delimitations to consider while making their judgments.

In terms of context, this research study focused on the sample of a single teacher education programme at a single state university in the Turkish context. I tried to maximise variety in sampling within the context to be able to observe the typicality of the cases. Based on the commonalities across the cases and my experience as both a student teacher and then a staff member on the teacher education programme, I could confidently evaluate the cases as typical of their counterparts in this context. However, the cases still had their own particularities. This context could share some degree of similarity with other teacher education programmes in Turkey (due to the standardisation of the curriculum for teacher education programmes and the practica, the nature of monolingual language classrooms where English is taught as a foreign language and the shared context of national education policies), and some other international contexts where similar contextual factors exist. However, it should be remembered that individual experiences always vary and cannot be generalised even in the identical context. Therefore, the resonance and transferability of findings should be judged by the reader considering the particularities of their context.

In terms of time, the data generation was limited to one practicum module for one semester. Although I appreciate the possible benefits of following up the participants' ongoing learning in the early years of their teaching career, such data would neither be feasible within the limited time frame of a PhD degree nor relevant to the focus of this study which was delimited to the context of the practicum. Future research is needed to shed light on the impacts of the practicum experience on student teachers' ongoing learning processes in their early years in the profession with further longitudinal studies investigating extended periods of time.

In terms of participants, this study limited its focus to the student teachers, their school-based cooperating teachers and university-based supervisors. Adding multidimensional perspectives to the data was crucial for me to understand the interplay of the multi-layered contextual factors. Other important actors who

emerged indirectly from the accounts of the participants were the pupils in the classrooms and the peer student teachers. Further research might benefit from including these actors in their list of participants. Especially investigating how the pupils in the classrooms are effected by the process of the practicum would have direct implications for practice and further inquiry. Strongly agreeing with Freeman and Johnson (2005, p. 31) in their statement that “who the learners in classrooms are, what and how they learn (or don’t learn), and under what circumstances and conditions matter critically to the professional learning of their teachers”, I suggest future research into teacher learning to include student learning to their agenda.

8.2.2 Methodological disclosures

I have already pointed out and addressed the known limitations of the data collection tools I adopted in this study such as participants reactivity to observation, which is also called the Hawthorne effect (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 246) or the Observer’s Paradox (Labov, 1972, p. 209), and possible tendencies to give socially appropriate answers to interview questions (see Chapter 4 Methodology). Here, I wish to further acknowledge some methodological limitations I became aware of during the fieldwork, data analysis and writing up stages with a hope to improve the effectiveness of these tools for future research.

The major research tool I used to investigate student teacher learning during the practicum was the stimulated recall interview. I first conducted video-recorded classroom observations and then arranged follow-up interviews with the student teachers. In other words, observation and interviews in this research were not treated as two different sets of data sources which would be used for triangulation; they were rather accepted as complementary sources of data to understand the process of learning. A secondary source of data was the portfolios submitted by the student teachers to their supervisors at the end of the semester which provided very limited data such as lesson plans and materials. The data could have been triangulated by other data collection tools such as reflective journals. However, I have not used them in the current project for two main reasons. First, from an ethical perspective, and equally to avoid drop-out, I adopted the principle of minimum disturbance to the

participants' daily life. Secondly, my exploratory case design aimed at understanding the phenomena of the study in its natural setting. Therefore, asking student teachers to write reflective journals would have not only placed an extra burden on them, but also acted as an intervention. It is worth mentioning, though, despite my specific attention to avoid interventions, the stimulated recall interviews created an unusual experience for the student teachers to talk about and reflect on their practices and experiences which would not have taken place if the study had not been conducted. All of the student teachers at some point mentioned that they benefited from these interviews in understanding their strengths and weaknesses in teaching. The reader should consider the possible impact of these interviews while interpreting the findings on student teacher learning.

I would like to raise one more point which has not yet been pointed out in the literature regarding the use of stimulated recall interviews. While designing the stimulated recall interviews, I preferred using video-records of classroom practices as stimuli since they seemed to offer the richest text in comparison to audio-records and transcripts. While recording the classroom practice, I placed the video-recording device at the back of the classroom facing the student teacher in a way to capture the whole classroom, the teacher behaviour and the blackboard. However, in the later stages of my study I came to realize that during the stimulated recall interviews, the student teachers viewed their classroom and their own teaching practices from a new perspective which eventually created a new experience. This might have implications on their responses to the stimuli. During the interviews, the student teachers seemed to be more attendant to their own behaviours than student behaviour and learning. While there were plenty of other studies confirming the student teachers' initial concerns about themselves in the literature (Farrell, 2001; Fuller, 1969; Numrich, 1996) regardless of the methods used, I suspect the position of the video-recording device in this study might have triggered their concerns. Therefore, I would advise the reader to bear this limitation in mind while interpreting the findings and recommend further research into the use of video-recorded stimuli.

8.2.3 Theoretical explorations

As I have explained in the literature review chapter, while designing my research study I was aware of some possible theoretical frameworks (i.e. Activity Theory, Situated Learning Theory) to investigate student teacher learning during the practicum. Although my design and analysis was acknowledged by my readings on these theories, I intentionally rejected them as analytical lenses for the data due to some of the limitations I perceived and explained earlier in the literature review chapter**.** I am convinced that my study benefited from a holistic framework of analysis which was particularly based on the conceptual framework emerged from my review of literature. However, while drafting the emerging model of student teacher learning during the practicum, the multi-layered nature of the contextual factors brought two other potential concepts to my attention: ecology and complexity. The concept of ecology was suggested by van Lier (2004, p. 224) in language teaching literature “as a way of thinking about teaching and learning”. And the complexity concept was introduced by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) who also offered general methodological principles to investigate language development from a complex systems perspective. To my knowledge, neither of these concepts has been adapted to investigate student teacher learning during the practicum. However, both works, based on sociocultural views of learning, share a common understanding of ‘context’ which has also been evidenced in my study: that the context is not one of the external factors influencing learning, rather it has a central role in creating opportunities for learning. Lacking the analytical frameworks they offered did not prevent me to reach at an understanding of the centrality of the context in my research study and did not pose limitations on my findings. However, if I could have foreseen their potential earlier, perhaps my study would have benefitted from the metaphors of complexity and ecology. Further research might investigate the compatibility of these concepts and the analytical frameworks offered by the aforementioned authors to understand student teacher learning in language practicum contexts.

8.2.4 Researcher subjectivity

I would like to conclude this section by returning to the issue of researcher subjectivity picked up in the methodology chapter**.** From an interpretivist epistemological stance, throughout the study I was aware of the influence of myself, as the researcher, on the research study, with not only my existence in the fieldwork and my decisions regarding data generation, but also my subjective point of view mediated by my personal and professional background. As mentioned earlier, in order to minimise the impact of researcher subjectivity I took many rigorous precautions throughout the project such as prolonged engagement in the field, peer debriefing, reflexivity. In order to give the reader an opportunity to assess the trustworthiness of the findings and interpretations I also paid special attention to give thick descriptions of events and substantial evidence of participant voices. However, it should be recognized that my selection of particular evidence to present and exclusion of others, reconstruction of participant experiences, and interpretation of events are still marked by my personal judgments. The same research project might have been done in a substantially different way by another researcher. Likewise, this final work will be read and interpreted in different ways by different readers.

8.3 Implications for the practicum design and language teacher education

In an ideal world where one research study could inspire full-scale changes in policies and practices, I would suggest the major implication of my study for teacher education programmes is the urgent need to reconsider the place and the length of the practicum in the teacher education curriculum. I would argue that the practicum should be introduced earlier to the student teachers in a way to allow reciprocal knowledge exchange between teacher education programme and practice school. The current design assumes that student teachers will be able to transfer the knowledge of teaching they received in the first three years of the programme to their teaching practices in the fourth year and the student teachers' experiences of the practicum are not fed back to the teacher education programme. Therefore the experience of teaching is not acknowledged by the teacher education programme which results in reinforcing the already problematic gap between theory and practice in language teacher

education. I would also suggest that student teachers should be allowed to become gradually more independent and autonomous during their extended practicum to have real experiences of classroom teaching before they graduate and left alone in the language classrooms. Furthermore, I would suggest that everyone involved in the practicum should be trained and be allocated realistic time in their workload to carry out the core activities liked to their specific role.

However, being aware of the difficulties in bringing change and innovation to educational systems and using my understanding of the context of the research study, in this section I will rather focus on the realistic and modest implications which would be the starting point to improve current practices for the practicum design and for language teacher education programme.

To start with, as I have identified throughout the thesis, the overall practicum design in this context is a top-down implementation which is designed to provide standardisation across teacher education programmes. The language education literature has reported similar instances where top down curriculum change projects failed in achieving their goals as the key practitioners who are expected to implement innovation to their practice were not supported (Ahn, 2011; Shin, 2012; Wedell, 2003). Such studies claimed that change can be achieved if it is driven by the key practitioners, and if those are supported to implement change in their immediate working contexts. In that case, in order to improve the practice school - teacher education programme cooperation for the practicum, we should start from improving cooperating teacher – supervisor cooperation by incorporating a little bit of bottom-up-ness, a little bit of autonomy. Kruger et al. (2009, p. 96) recognise school – university partnership as a social practice and note that it can be “achieved through and characterised by trust, mutuality and reciprocity”. It might be a starting point then if these partners acknowledge and recognise the importance of the practicum and the contribution of everyone involved, support and cooperate with each other, and if at least one meeting could be arranged where the people involved come together and talk reasonably honestly about what can be expected and done, given the contextual factors, and agree on the practicum goals and the division of labour. In North America, Rodgers and Keil (2007) reported how they managed to reconstruct their existing traditional supervision model to an

enhanced professional development model by bottom-up initiatives in the context of top-down pressures. Empirical evidence for such successful reconstructions of school – university partnerships could provide inspiring insights for new initiatives.

Secondly, my findings suggest that the supervisors did not have sufficient time for paying regular school visits for each student teacher which resulted in at best one visit per student teacher for assessment purposes. At the other end of the spectrum, this summative assessment created pressure on the student teachers, and let them to plan and present a rather superficial lesson for the assessed lesson. If it is not feasible for supervisors to engage in multiple school visits and if summative assessment has negative impacts on student teachers, alternative supervision and assessment approaches should be considered. One option could be easing the workload of the supervisor by distributing tasks to other partners. For instance, peers and cooperating teachers could be trained for systematic classroom observation and for giving constructive feedback. Alternatively, technological opportunities could be used. The student teachers could video-record their teaching practices which would save considerable time, money and energy for the supervisors. These video-records then could be watched partially (i.e. critical incidents) or completely either by only the supervisors or collectively during the supervision group meetings for regular feedback and formative assessment.

In a very similar Turkish setting Eröz-Tuğa (2013) asked her student teachers to video-record their teaching practice twice before the actual assessed lesson and these videos were then watched and commented on collectively by the student teacher, their peer(s) and the university-based supervisor. She noted that this innovative practicum practice contributed to student teacher learning by creating opportunities for reflection, raising awareness of their strengths and weaknesses at English language teaching and providing focused feedback on real practices. The student teachers in my study also reported that they benefited from watching their own practice during stimulated recall interviews. Then incorporating video-recordings of the classroom practices have a potential to improve supervision and assessment practices during the practicum.

Thirdly, apart from the lessons learnt from the failures of practicum design in the current context, there are also implications to be drawn from the empirical studies into the practicum reporting relatively positive findings during the practicum. My impression from the review of such studies was that all of them shared one common construct: reflective practice (Armutcu & Yaman, 2010; Eröz-Tuğa, 2013; Nguyen, 2009). As I have already mentioned in the literature review chapter, reflective practice has been recognized as a powerful tool for teacher learning at any stage in their professional career (Mann & Walsh, 2014). The practicum studies I cited above all refer to the reflective practice of the student teachers only. However, I would like to highlight the potential of creating reflective practice opportunities for everyone involved in the practicum. Farrell and Jacobs (2016), in their conceptual study, propose that teacher reflection groups could facilitate collaborative learning for teachers. In the same vein, I suggest that the practicum could be transformed to a professional learning experience for every member involved in the practicum by incorporating reflective practice for each role. Tsui et al. (2001) called attention to the complementary roles that university-based supervisors and school-based cooperating teachers play during the practicum. They noted that during supervision meetings while supervisors tended to link the theory to practice, cooperating teachers brought forward their expertise in teaching and their knowledge of context and curriculum. A reciprocal communication between the theory and practice of language teaching could be set if those could conjointly reflect on their own practices within their own context by articulating the rationale behind those practices and then discuss the implications of those practices for student teacher learning. Insights drawn from such collaborative learning would not only help cooperating teachers improve their teaching in classrooms but also inform teacher educators of practical challenges in applying the theories in teaching. If those insights are then fed back to teacher education programme classrooms, student teachers would get better opportunities to integrate their practice-based learning and theory-based learning.

So far, I have listed the major implications of my study for future practicum designs in this context. Last but not least, I would like to emphasize a broader implication of my findings for language teacher education. My findings showed

that during the practicum the student teachers adapted their teaching practices to align with their cooperating teachers' established practices. This finding has implications for the impact of the language teacher education programme. If language teacher education programmes aim at improving the quality of language teaching in the classrooms and bringing innovation to English language teaching by basing their curriculum on the latest research findings and trends in the literature, they also need to prepare their student teachers to resist to the established practices at schools. Wedell and Malderez (2013, p. 230) note "understanding of the all-important existing cultures at the various levels of context (e.g. view of learning, prevailing ELT approach, prevailing school cultures etc.)" is key to any planned educational change. Therefore language teacher education programmes should critically consider and include the knowledge of schools and wider educational context in their curriculum. Schools and classrooms should be recognized as "powerful environments, in which some actions and ways of being are valued and encouraged whereas others are downplayed, ignored, and even silenced" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 409) and student teachers must be prepared to negotiate their principles for teaching and work effectively in such environments. From a sociocultural perspective to language teacher education, Johnson (2009a, p. 93) suggests that:

> The activities of L2 teaching and learning to teach are not neutral but instead are embedded in and emerge out of the broader social, historical, political, and ideological practices that constitute L2 teachers' professional worlds. This being the case, L2 teacher education programs have an obligation to inform L2 teachers of and provide them with the tools to actively and continually scrutinize the macro-structures that are ever present in the contexts in which they live, learn, and work.

My research study provided further empirical evidence for the impact of macro structures on student teachers' learning. Therefore, I suggest that language teacher education programmes should raise their student teachers' awareness about the history, culture and politics of teaching and learning, education policies, top-down reform initiatives, standardized curricula, mechanisms for monitoring learning and teaching (i.e. high stakes tests and established school-based assessment practices) in student teachers' target teaching contexts, and their potential implications for their future teaching practices.

References

Ahn, K. (2011). Learning to teach under curricular reform. In K. E. Johnson & P. R. Golombek (Eds.), *research on second language teacher education* (pp. 239-253). London: Routledge.

Akbari, R. (2008). Postmethod discourse and practice. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(4), 641-652. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00152.x

Akcan, S., & Tatar, S. (2010). An investigation of the nature of feedback given to pre-service English teachers during their practice teaching experience. *Teacher Development, 14*(2), 153-172. doi: 10.1080/13664530.2010.494495

Allwright, D., & Hanks, J. (2009). *The developing language learner*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Alptekin, C., & Tatar, S. (2011). Research on foreign language teaching and learning in Turkey (2005–2009). *Language Teaching, 44*(03), 328-353. doi: 10.1017/S026144481100005X

Armutcu, N., & Yaman, S. (2010). ELT pre-service teachers' teacher reflection through practicum. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 3*(0), 28-35. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.009

Asención Delaney, Y. (2012). Research on mentoring language teachers: its role in language education. *Foreign Language Annals, 45*(S1), S184-S202. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.2011.01185.x

Atay, D. (2007). Beginning teacher efficacy and the practicum in an EFL context. *Teacher Development, 11*(2), 203-219. doi: 10.1080/13664530701414720

Atkinson, D., Phairee, C., Sanitchon, N., Suphanangthong, I., Graham, S., Prompruang, J., De Groot, F. O., Hopkins, D. (2008). The teaching practicum in Thailand: Three perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(4), 655-659. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00154.x

Baecher, L. (2012). Feedback from the field: What novice prek–12 ESL teachers want to tell TESOL teacher educators. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(3), 578-588. doi: 10.1002/tesq.43

Baeten, M., & Simons, M. (2014). Student teachers' team teaching: Models, effects, and conditions for implementation. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 41*, 92-110. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.03.010

Bailey, K. M. (1996). The best laid plans: teachers' in class decisions to depart from their lesson plans In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the Language Classroom* (pp. 15-40). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K. M. (2006). *Language teacher supervision: A case-based approach*: Cambridge University Press.

Bailey, K. M. (2009). Language teacher supervision. In A. Burns Thomas & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 269-278). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Barkhuizen, G. (2015). Narrative inquiry. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research methods in applied linguistics: A practical resource* (pp. 169-185). London: Bloomsbury.

Bartels, N. (2005). *Applied linguistics and language teacher education*. New York: Springer.

Bartholomew, S. S., & Sandholtz, J. H. (2009). Competing views of teaching in a school–university partnership. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(1), 155-165. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.07.001

Basturkmen, H. (2012). Review of research into the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices. *System, 40*(2), 282-295. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.05.001

Bell, J. S. (2002). Narrative research in TESOL: Narrative inquiry: More than just telling stories. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*(2), 207-213. doi: 10.2307/3588331

Benson, P. (2013). Narrative writing as method: Second language identity development in study abroad. In G. Barkhuizen (Ed.), *Narrative research in applied linguistics* (pp. 244-263). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Birbirso, D. T. (2012). Reflective practicum: experience of the Ethiopian context. *Reflective Practice, 13*(6), 857-869. doi: 10.1080/14623943.2012.697886

Block, D. (2000). Revisiting the gap between SLA researchers and language teachers. *Links & Letters, 7*, 129-143.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(02), 81-109. doi: 10.1017/S0261444803001903

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice*. London: Continuum.

Borg, S. (2010). Contemporary themes in language teacher education. *FLC Journal, 7*(4), 84-89.

Borg, S. (2012). Current approaches to language cognition research: A methodological analysis. In R. Barnard & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies* (pp. 11-29). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Borg, S. (2015). Researching teacher beliefs. In B. Paltridge & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research methods in applied linguistics: A practical resource* (pp. 487-504). London: Bloomsbury.

Brandt, C. (2006). Allowing for practice: a critical issue in TESOL teacher preparation. *ELT Journal, 60*(4), 355-364. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccl026

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77-101. doi: 10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Breen, M. P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R., & Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 22*(4), 470-501. doi: 10.1093/applin/22.4.470

Brinton, D., & Holten, C. (1989). What novice teachers focus on: The practicum in TESL. *TESOL Quarterly, 23*(2), 343-350. doi: 10.2307/3587356

Britton, L. R., & Anderson, K. A. (2010). Peer coaching and pre-service teachers: Examining an underutilised concept. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(2), 306-314. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.03.008

Buehl, M. M., & Beck, J. S. (2015). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and teachers' practices. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.), *International Handbook of Research on Teachers' Beliefs* (pp. 66-84). Oxon: Routledge.

Bullough, R. V. Jr , & Draper, R. J. (2004). Mentoring and the emotions. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 30*(3), 271-288. doi: 10.1080/0260747042000309493

Burns, A., Freeman, D., & Edwards, E. (2015). Theorizing and studying the language-teaching mind: Mapping research on language teacher cognition. *The Modern Language Journal, 99*(3), 585-601. doi: 10.1111/modl.12245

Burr, V. (1995). *An Introduction to social constructionism*. London: Routledge.

Caires, S., Almeida, L. S., & Martins, C. (2009). The socioemotional experiences of student teachers during practicum: A case of reality shock? *The Journal of Educational Research, 103*(1), 17-27. doi: 10.1080/00220670903228611

Canh, L. V. (2014). Great expectations: The TESOL practicum as a professional learning experience. *TESOL Journal, 5*(2), 199-224. doi: 10.1002/tesj.103

Chiang, M. (2008). Effects of fieldwork experience on empowering prospective foreign language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*(5), 1270-1287. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2007.05.004

Chick, M. (2015a). The education of language teachers: instruction or conversation? *ELT Journal*. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccv011

Chick, M. (2015b). The Facilitation of reactive teaching during preservice teacher education. *ELTED, 18*(Autumn), 35-42.

Clarke, A., Triggs, V., & Nielsen, W. (2013). Cooperating teacher participation in teacher education: A review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research*. doi: 10.3102/0034654313499618

Clarke, M. (2008). *Language teacher identities: Co-constructing discourse and community*. Clevedon , UK: Multilingual Matters.

Cochran-Smith, M., Villegas, A. M., Abrams, L., Chavez-Moreno, L., Mills, T., & Stern, R. (2015). Critiquing teacher preparation research: An overview of the field, Part II. *Journal of Teacher Education, 66*(2), 109-121. doi: 10.1177/0022487114558268

Cohen, E., Hoz, R., & Kaplan, H. (2013). The practicum in preservice teacher education: a review of empirical studies. *Teaching Education, 24*(4), 345-380. doi: 10.1080/10476210.2012.711815

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education* (7th ed.). New York: Routledge.

Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (2006). Narrative inquiry. In J. L. Green, G. Camilli & P. B. Elmore (Eds.), *Handbook of complementary methods in education research* (3rd ed., pp. 477-487). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Copland, F. (2012). Legitimate talk in feedback conferences. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(1), 1-20. doi: 10.1093/applin/amr040

Copland, F. (2015). Evaluative talk in feedback conferences. In A. Howard & H. Donaghue (Eds.), *Teacher evaluation in second language education* (pp. 135-149). London: Bloomsbury.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Cross, R. (2010). Language teaching as sociocultural activity: Rethinking language teacher practice. *The Modern Language Journal, 94*(3), 434-452. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01058.x

Cunliffe, A. L. (2008). Orientations to social constructionism: Relationally responsive social constructionism and its implications for knowledge and learning. *Management Learning, 39*(2), 123-139. doi: 10.1177/1350507607087578

Dang, T. K. A. (2013). Identity in activity: Examining teacher professional identity formation in the paired-placement of student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 30*, 47-59. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.10.006

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-century teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 57*(3), 300-314. doi: 10.1177/0022487105285962

De Fina, A. , & Georgakopoulou, A. . (2012). *Analyzing narrative: Discourse and sociolinguistic perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Demirkol, İ. (2004). *Expectations for the roles of the cooperating teachers and the university supervisors as perceived by the practicum triad.* (Unpublished MA Thesis), Boğaziçi University, Turkey.

Denscombe, M. (2010). *Ground rules for social research: guidelines for good practice*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Diaz-Maggioli, G. (2012). *Teaching language teachers: Scaffolding professional learning*. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Education.

Dogancay-Aktuna, S. (1998). The spread of English in Turkey and its current sociolinguistic profile. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 19*(1), 24-39. doi: 10.1080/01434639808666340

Donaghue, H. (2015). Differences between supervisors' espoused feedback styles and their discourse in post observation meetings. In A. Howard & H. Donaghue (Eds.), *Teacher Evaluation in Second Language Education* (pp. 117-133). London: Bloomsbury.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Duff, P. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Engeström, Y. (1987). *Learning by expanding: An activity theoretical approach to developmental research*. Helsinki: Orienta-Konsultit.

Engeström, Y. (1999). Activity theory and individual and social transformation. In Y. Engeström, R. Miettinen & R. L. Punamaki (Eds.), *Perspectives on activity theory* (pp. 19–38). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ergun, A., & Erdemir, A. (2009). Negotiating insider and outsider identities in the field: “insider” in a foreign land; “outsider” in one’s own land. *Field Methods*. doi: 10.1177/1525822x09349919

Eröz-Tuğa, B. (2013). Reflective feedback sessions using video recordings. *ELT Journal, 67*(2), 175-183. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccs081

Farrell, T. S. C. (2001). English language teacher socialisation during the practicum. *Prospect: An Australian Journal of TESOL, 16*, 49-62.

Farrell, T. S. C. (2007). Failing the practicum: Narrowing the gap between expectations and reality with reflective practice. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(1), 193-201. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00049.x

Farrell, T. S. C. (2008). `Here's the book, go teach the class': ELT practicum support. *RELC Journal, 39*(2), 226-241. doi: 10.1177/0033688208092186

Farrell, T. S. C. (2012). Novice-service language teacher development: Bridging the gap between preservice and in-service education and development. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(3), 435-449. doi: 10.1002/tesq.36

Farrell, T. S. C. (2016). *From trainee to teacher: Reflective practice for novice teachers*. London, UK: Equinox.

Farrell, T. S. C. (Ed.). (2015). *International perspectives on English language teacher education: innovations from the field.* London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Farrell, T. S. C., & Ives, Jessica. (2014). Exploring teacher beliefs and classroom practices through reflective practice: A case study. *Language Teaching Research*. doi: 10.1177/1362168814541722

Farrell, T. S. C., & Jacobs, G. (2016). Practicing what we preach: Teacher reflection groups on cooperative learning. *TESL-EJ, 19*(4), 1-9.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (1990). Conceptual orientations in teacher education. Retrieved 1st June, 2013, from http://education.msu.edu/NCRTL/PDFs/NCRTL/IssuePapers/ip902.pdf

Flowerdew, J. (1999). The practicum in TESOL: The practicum in L2 teacher education: A Hong Kong case study. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(1), 141-145. doi: 10.2307/3588199

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006). Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 12*(2), 219-245. doi: 10.1177/1077800405284363

Freeman, D. (1982). Observing teachers: Three approaches to in-service training and development. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(1), 21-28. doi: 10.2307/3586560

Freeman, D. (1989). Teacher training, development, and decision making: A model of teaching and related strategies for language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly 23*(1), 27-45.

Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. A perspective from north American educational research on teacher education in English language teaching. *Language Teaching, 35*(01), 1-13. doi: 10.1017/S0261444801001720

Freeman, D. (2016). *Educating second language teachers*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(3), 397-417. doi: 10.2307/3588114

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (2005). Response to Tarone and Allwright. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language teacher education: International perspectives* (pp. 25-32). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Fuller, F. F. (1969). Concerns of teachers: A developmental conceptualization. *American Educational Research Journal, 6*(2), 207-226. doi: 10.3102/00028312006002207

Gan, Z. (2013). Learning to teach English language in the practicum: What challenges do non-native ESL student teachers face? *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 38*(3), 92-108.

Gan, Z. (2014). Learning from interpersonal interactions during the practicum: a case study of non-native ESL student teachers. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 40*(2), 128-139. doi: 10.1080/02607476.2013.869969

Gan, Z., & Lee, F. K. J. (2015). Understanding ESL student teachers' learning of classroom practices in the practicum: A case study in Hong Kong. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 1-16. doi: 10.1007/s40299-015-0258-x

Gareis, C. R., & Grant, L. W. (2014). The efficacy of training cooperating teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 39*(0), 77-88. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2013.12.007

Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gebhard, J. G. (1984). Models of supervision: Choices. *TESOL Quarterly, 18*(3), 501-514. doi: 10.2307/3586717

Gebhard, J. G. (1990). Interaction in a teaching practicum. In J. C. Richards & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education.* (pp. 118-131). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gebhard, J. G. (2009). The Practicum. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 250-258). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Gerring, J. (2007). *Case study research: Principles and practices*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gill, M. G., & Hardin, C. (2015). Unpacking the relationship between teachers' beliefs and emotions. In H. Fives & M. G. Gill (Eds.), *International handbook of research on teachers' beliefs* (pp. 230-245). Oxon: Routledge.

Given, L. M. (2008). *The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*: Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Goker, S. D. (2006). Impact of peer coaching on self-efficacy and instructional skills in TEFL teacher education. *System, 34*(2), 239-254. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2005.12.002

Golombek, P. R. (2015). Redrawing the boundaries of language teacher cognition: Language teacher educators' emotion, cognition, and activity. *The Modern Language Journal, 99*(3), 470-484. doi: 10.1111/modl.12236

Golombek, P. R., & Doran, M. (2014). Unifying cognition, emotion, and activity in language teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 39*(0), 102-111. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.01.002

Gomm, R., Hammersley, M., & Foster, P. (Eds.). (2000). *Case study method: Key issues, key texts*. London: SAGE.

Goodnough, K., Osmond, P., Dibbon, D., Glassman, M., & Stevens, K. (2009). Exploring a triad model of student teaching: Pre-service teacher and cooperating teacher perceptions. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(2), 285-296. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.10.003

Guenther, K. M. (2009). The politics of names: rethinking the methodological and ethical significance of naming people, organizations, and places. *Qualitative Research, 9*(4), 411-421. doi: 10.1177/1468794109337872

Gürbüz, N. (2006). Different perceptions of pre-service English teachers' strengths and weaknesses in the practicum: A case study in Turkey. *ELTED, 9*, 39 - 46.

Guyton, E., & McIntyre, D. J. . (1990). Student teaching and school experiences. In W. R. Houston (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 514-534). New York: Macmillan.

Hertz, R. (1997). *Reflexivity and Voice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review of Educational Research, 94*(3), 319-340.

Hobson, A. J. (2002). Student teachers' perceptions of school-based mentoring in initial teacher training (ITT). *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 10*(1), 5-20. doi: 10.1080/13611260220133117

Hobson, A. J., Ashby, P., Malderez, A., & Tomlinson, P. D. (2009). Mentoring beginning teachers: What we know and what we don't. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(1), 207-216. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2008.09.001

Hobson, A. J., & Malderez, A. (2013). Judgementoring and other threats to realizing the potential of school-based mentoring in teacher education. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education, 2*(2), 1-19.

Hoekstra, A., Beijaard, D., Brekelmans, M., & Korthagen, F. (2007). Experienced teachers' informal learning from classroom teaching. *Teachers and Teaching, 13*(2), 191-208. doi: 10.1080/13540600601152546

Holten, C. A., & Brinton, D. M. (1995). You shoulda been there: Charting novice teacher growth using dialogue journals. *TESOL Journal, 4*(4), 23-26.

Humphries, S., & Gebhard, J. G. (2012). Observation. In R. Barnard & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies* (pp. 109-127). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Hunt, N. (2015). Student teacher placements: A critical commentary. In A. Howard & H. Donaghue (Eds.), *Teacher evaluation in second language education* (pp. 151-164). London: Bloomsbury.

Hyland, F., & Lo, M. M. (2006). Examining interaction in the teaching practicum: issues of language, power and control. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 14*(2), 163-186. doi: 10.1080/13611260500493535

Jaspers, W. M., Meijer, P. C., Prins, F., & Wubbels, T. (2014). Mentor teachers: Their perceived possibilities and challenges as mentor and teacher. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 44*(0), 106-116. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2014.08.005

Johnson, K. E. (1992). Learning to teach: Instructional actions and decisions of preservice ESL teachers. *TESOL Quarterly, 26*(3), 507-535. doi: 10.2307/3587176

Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a second language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 10*(4), 439-452. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(94)90024-8

Johnson, K. E. (1996). The vision versus the reality: The tensions of the TESOL practicum. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 30-49). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, K. E. (1999). *Understanding language teaching: Reasoning in action*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle

Johnson, K. E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(1), 235-257. doi: 10.2307/40264518

Johnson, K. E. (2009a). *Second language teacher education: a sociocultural perspective* (1st ed.). New York ; London: Routledge.

Johnson, K. E. (2009b). Trends in second language teacher education. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 20-29). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2003). “Seeing” teacher learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(4), 729-737. doi: 10.2307/3588221

Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (Eds.). (2011). *Research on second language teacher education : a sociocultural perspective on professional development*. London: Routledge.

Kagan, D. M. (1992). Professional Growth Among Preservice and Beginning Teachers. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(2), 129-169. doi: 10.3102/00346543062002129

Kanno, Y., & Stuart, C. (2011). Learning to become a second language teacher: Identities-in-practice. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(2), 236-252. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01178.x

Kirkgöz, Y. (2009). Globalization and English language policy in Turkey. *Educational Policy, 23*(5), 663-684. doi: 10.1177/0895904808316319

Kiss, T. (2012). The complexity of teacher learning: Reflection as a complex dynamic system. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Research in Education, 2*, 17-35.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Kourieos, S. (2012). The impact of mentoring on primary language teacher development during the practicum. *ELTED, 15*, 57 - 64.

Kruger, T., Davies, A., Eckersley, B., Newell, F., & Cherednichenko, B. (2009). *Effective and sustainable university-school partnership: beyond determined efforts by inspiried individuals*. Canberra: Teaching Australia.

Kubanyiova, M. (2008). Rethinking research ethics in contemporary applied linguistics: The tension between macroethical and microethical perspectives in situated research. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(4), 503-518. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00784.x

Kubanyiova, M, & Feryok, A. (2015). Language teacher cognition in applied linguistics research: Revisiting the territory, redrawing the boundaries, reclaiming the relevance. *The Modern Language Journal, 99*(3), 435-449. doi: 10.1111/modl.12239

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2005). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). *Language teacher education for a global society: A modular model for knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing, and seeing*. New York: Routledge.

Kurtoglu-Hooton, N. (2010). *Post-observation feedback as an instigator of learning and change: Exploring the effect of feedback through student teachers' self-reports.* (PhD thesis), Aston University, UK.

Kurtoglu-Hooton, N. (2016). From 'plodder' to 'creative': Feedback in teacher education. *ELT Journal, 70*(1), 39-47. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccv050

Kvale, S. (1996). *InterViews: An Introduction to qualitative research interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Labov, W. (1972). *Sociolinguistic patterns*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Cameron, L. (2008). Research methodology on language development from a complex systems perspective. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(2), 200-213. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00714.x

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Liaw, E. C. (2012). Learning to teach: A descriptive study of student language teachers in Taiwan. *English Language Teaching, 5*(12), 152-162.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE.

Liu, Y., & Fisher, L. (2006). The development patterns of modern foreign language student teachers' conceptions of self and their explanations about change: three cases. *Teacher Development, 10*(3), 343-360. doi: 10.1080/13664530600922203

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. London: University of Chicago Press.

Lu, H. (2010). Research on peer coaching in preservice teacher education – A review of literature. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(4), 748-753. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.10.015

Maandag, D. W., Deinum, J. F., Hofman, A. W. H., & Buitink, J.. (2007). Teacher education in schools: An international comparison. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 30*(2), 151-173. doi: 10.1080/02619760701275552

Mabry, L. (2008). Case study in social research. In P. Alasuutari, L. Bickman & J. Brannen (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of social research methods* (pp. 214-227). London: SAGE.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Mak, S. H. Y. (2011). Tensions between conflicting beliefs of an EFL teacher in teaching practice. *RELC Journal, 42*(1), 53-67.

Malderez, A., & Bodsczky, C. (1999). *Mentor courses: A resource book for trainer-trainers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Malderez, A., & Wedell, M. (2007). *Teaching teachers*: London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Mann, S., & Copland, F. . (2010). Dialogic talk in the post-observation conference; an investment for reflection. In Park. G., H. P. Widodo & A. Cirocki (Eds.), *Observation of teaching: Bridging theory and practice through research on teaching* (pp. 175-191). Muenchen: Lincom Europa Publishing.

Mann, S. (2016). *The Research Interview: Reflective Practice and Reflexivity in Research Processes*. Hampshire UK: Palgrave MacMillan.

Mann, S., & Tang, E. H. H. (2012). The role of mentoring in supporting novice English language teachers in Hong Kong. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(3), 472-495. doi: 10.1002/tesq.38

Mann, S., & Walsh, S. (2014). Reflective dimensions of CPD: Supporting self-evaluation and peer-evaluation. In A. Howard & H. Donaghue (Eds.), *Teacher evaluation in second language education* (pp. 17-33). London: Bloomsbury Academic.

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist, 41*(9), 954-969.

Maynard, T. (2000). Learning to teach or learning to manage mentors? Experiences of school-based teacher training. *Mentoring & Tutoring, 8*(1), 17-30.

McIntyre, D. (2005). Bridging the gap between research and practice. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 35*(3), 357-382. doi: 10.1080/03057640500319065

MEB. (1998). *Öğretmen adaylarinin Milli Eğitim Bakanliğina bağli eğitim öğretim kurumlarinda yapacaklari öğretmenlik uygulamasina ilişkin yönerge*. Tebliğler Dergisi: EKİM 1998/2493 Retrieved from http://mevzuat.meb.gov.tr/html/102.html.

Merç, A. (2010a). Self-reported problems of pre-service EFL teachers throughout teaching practicum. *Anadolu University Journal of Social Sciences, 10*(2), 199-226.

Merç, A. (2010b). Sources of foreign language student teacher anxiety: A qualitative inquiry. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry, 2*(4), 80 - 94.

Merç, A. (2015). Assessing the performance in EFL teaching practicum: Student teachers' views. *International Journal of Higher Education, 4*(2), 44-56.

Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach* San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Miller, J. (2009). Teacher identity. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 172-181). USA: Cambridge.

Nguyen, H. T. (2009). An inquiry-based practicum model: What knowledge, practices, and relationships typify empowering teaching and learning experiences for student teachers, cooperating teachers and college supervisors? *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(5), 655-662. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.10.001

Nokes, J. D., Bullough, R. V. Jr, Egan, W. M., Birrell, J. R., & Merrell Hansen, J. (2008). The paired-placement of student teachers: An alternative to traditional placements in secondary schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*(8), 2168-2177. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.05.001

Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*(1), 131-153. doi: 10.2307/3587610

Nunan, D. (1992a). *Research methods in language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1992b). The teacher as decision maker. In J. Flowerdew, M. Brock & S. Hsia (Eds.), *Perspectives on second language teacher education*. Hong Kong: City Polytechnic of Hong Kong.

Ong'ondo, C. O. (2009). *Pedagogical practice and support of English language student teachers during the practicum in Kenya.* (PhD thesis), University of Leeds.

Ong'ondo, C. O., & Borg, S. (2011). 'We teach plastic lessons to please them': The influence of supervision on the practice of English language student teachers in Kenya. *Language Teaching Research, 15*(4), 509-528. doi: 10.1177/1362168811412881

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Pellegrino, A. M. (2010). Pre-service teachers and classroom authority. *American Secondary Education, 38*(3), 62-78.

Pennington, M. C., & Urmston, A. (1998). The teaching orientation of graduating students on a BATESL course in Hong Kong: a comparison with first-year students. *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3*(2), 17-45.

Pring, R. (2004). *Philosophy of educational research*. London: Continuum.

Rajuan, M., Beijaard, D., & Verloop, N. (2007). The role of the cooperating teacher: bridging the gap between the expectations of cooperating

teachers and student teachers. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 15*(3), 223-242. doi: 10.1080/13611260701201703

Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, A. (2012). *An exploratory case study of pre-service EFL teachers' sense of efficacy beliefs and perceptions of mentoring practices during practice teaching.* (PhD), Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Rakicioglu-Soylemez, A., & Eroz-Tuga, B. (2014). mentoring expectations and experiences of prospective and cooperating teachers during practice teaching. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 39*(10), 146-168.

Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, A., & Eröz-Tuğa, B. (2012a). *Pre-service EFL teachers' mentoring expectations and experiences in practice teaching*. Paper presented at the 1st Akdeniz Language Studies Conference, Antalya, Turkey.

Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, A., & Eröz-Tuğa, B. (2012b). *Revealing expectations: Roles and responsibilities of mentors during practice teaching*. Paper presented at the 11th METU International ELTConvention: Embracing Challenges, Ankara, Turkey.

Richards, J. C. (1987). The Dilemma of teacher education in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*(2), 209-226. doi: 10.2307/3586732

Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond training: Perspectives on language teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2008). Second language teacher education today. *RELC Journal, 39*(2), 158-177. doi: 10.1177/0033688208092182

Richards, J. C., & Crookes, G. (1988). The practicum in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(1), 9-27. doi: 10.2307/3587059

Richards, J. C., & Farrell, Thomas S. C. (2011). *Practice teaching: A reflective approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Nunan, D. (Eds.). (1990). *Second language teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Riessman, C. K. (2008). *Narrative methods for the human sciences*. CA, USA: SAGE Publications.

Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (Eds.). (2003). *Qualitative research practice: A Guide for social science students and researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Roberts, J. (1998). *Language teacher education*. London: Edward Arnold.

Rodgers, A., & Keil, V. L. (2007). Restructuring a traditional student teacher supervision model: Fostering enhanced professional development and

mentoring within a professional development school context. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*(1), 63-80. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.04.012

Rolfe, G. (2006). Validity, trustworthiness and rigour: quality and the idea of qualitative research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 53*(3), 304-310. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2006.03727.x

Rozelle, J. J., & Wilson, S. M. (2012). Opening the black box of field experiences: How cooperating teachers' beliefs and practices shape student teachers' beliefs and practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(8), 1196-1205. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.07.008

Russell, T. (2005). Using the practicum in preservice teacher education programs: Strengths and weaknesses of alternative assumptions about the experiences of learning to teach. In G. Hoban (Ed.), *The missing links in teacher education design* (Vol. 1, pp. 135-152): Springer Netherlands.

Ryan, J., & Gass, S. M. (2012). Stimulated recall. In R. Barnard & A. Burns (Eds.), *Researching Language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies* (pp. 144-161). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: Basic Books.

Seferoğlu, G. (2006). Teacher candidates' reflections on some components of a pre-service English teacher education programme in Turkey. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 32*(4), 369-378. doi: 10.1080/02607470600981953

Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as qualitative research* (3rd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.

Senior, R M. (2006). *The experience of language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shin, S. (2012). “It cannot be done alone”: The socialization of novice English teachers in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(3), 542-567. doi: 10.1002/tesq.41

Shohamy, E. (2004). The power of tests over teachers: The power of teachers over tests. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.), *Second language teacher education: International perspectives* (pp. 101-111). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Singh, G., & Richards, J. C. (2006). Teaching and learning in the language teacher education course room: A critical sociocultural perspective. *RELC Journal, 37*(2), 149-175. doi: 10.1177/0033688206067426

Smith, R. (2003). Teacher education for teacher-learner autonomy. *Symposium for Language Teacher Educators: Papers from Three IALS Symposia*

(CD-ROM). from http://homepages.warwick.ac.uk/~elsdr/Teacher_autonomy.pdf

Song, S. (2015). Cambodian teachers' responses to child-centered instructional policies: A mismatch between beliefs and practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 50*, 36-45. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2015.04.004

Soslau, E. (2012). Opportunities to develop adaptive teaching expertise during supervisory conferences. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 28*(5), 768-779. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.02.009

Southgate, E., Reynolds, R., & Howley, P. (2013). Professional experience as a wicked problem in initial teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 31*, 13-22. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.11.005

Spalding, E., Klecka, C. L., Lin, E., Wang, J., & Odell, S. J. (2011). Learning to teach: It's complicated but it's not magic. *Journal of Teacher Education, 62*(1), 3-7. doi: 10.1177/0022487110384196

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Stake, R. E. (2003). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* (2nd ed., pp. 134-164). London: SAGE.

Stake, R. E. (2005). Qualitative case studies. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 443-466). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Stoynoff, S. (1999). The TESOL practicum: An integrated model in the U.S. *TESOL Quarterly, 33*(1), 145-151. doi: 10.2307/3588200

Tang, S. Y. F. (2003). Challenge and support: the dynamics of student teachers' professional learning in the field experience. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 19*(5), 483-498. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(03)00047-7

Tang, S. Y. F., & Chow, A. W. K. (2007). Communicating feedback in teaching practice supervision in a learning-oriented field experience assessment framework. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*(7), 1066-1085. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.07.013

Trent, J. (2010). "My two masters": Conflict, contestation, and identity construction within a teaching practicum. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 35*(7), 1-14.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 783-805.

Tsui, A. B. M. (2003). *Understanding expertise in teaching: Case studies of ESL teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tsui, A. B. M. (2007). Complexities of identity formation: A Narrative inquiry of an EFL teacher. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(4), 657-680. doi: 10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00098.x

Tsui, A. B. M., Lopez-Real, F., Law, Y. K., Tang, R., & Shum, M. S. K. (2001). Roles and relationships in tripartite supervisory conferencing processes. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 16*(4), 322-344.

Ur, P. (2013). Language-teaching method revisited. *ELT Journal, 67*(4), 468-474. doi: 10.1093/elt/cct041

van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning*. Dordrecht: Kluwer.

van Lier, L. (2005). Case study. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 195–208). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Vanci Osam, U., & Balbay, S. (2004). Investigating the decision-making skills of cooperating teachers and student teachers of English in a Turkish context. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 20*(7), 745-758. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2004.07.003

Veenman, S. (1984). Perceived problems of beginning teachers. *Review of Educational Research, 54*(2), 143-178. doi: 10.3102/00346543054002143

Vermunt, J. D., & Endedijk, M. D. (2011). Patterns in teacher learning in different phases of the professional career. *Learning and Individual Differences, 21*(3), 294-302. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2010.11.019

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language* Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wang, J., & Odell, S. J. (2002). Mentored learning to teach according to standards-based reform: A critical review. *Review of Educational Research, 72*(3), 481-546. doi: 10.3102/00346543072003481

Wedell, M. (2003). Giving TESOL change a chance: supporting key players in the curriculum change process. *System, 31*(4), 439-456. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2003.02.001

Wedell, M., & Malderez, A. (2013). *Understanding language classroom contexts: The starting point for change*. London: Bloomsbury.

Wellington, J. (2000). *Educational research: Contemporary issues and practical approaches.* London: Continuum.

West, M. (1959). Practice-Teaching in the Training of Language Teachers. *ELT Journal,* 13(4): 149-154.

Wilkinson, C., Pennington, T. R., Whiting, E., Newberry, M., Feinauer, E., Losser, J., Haslem, L., & Hall, A. (2014). Triad relationships and member satisfaction with paired placement of student teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 39*(8), 162-184.

Woods, D., & Çakır, H. (2011). Two dimensions of teacher knowledge: The case of communicative language teaching. *System, 39*(3), 381-390. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.010

Wright, T. (2005). *Classroom management in language education*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Yan, C.i, & He, C. (2010). Transforming the existing model of teaching practicum: a study of Chinese EFL student teachers' perceptions. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 36*(1), 57-73. doi: 10.1080/02607470903462065

Yazan, B. (2015a). Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam, and Stake. *The Qualitative Report, 20*(2), 134-152.

Yazan, B. (2015b). “You learn best when you’re in there:” ESOL teacher learning in practicum. *CATESOL Journal, 27*(2), 171-199.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

YÖK. (1998). *Fakülte-Okul İşbirliği [Faculty of Education-School Cooperation]*. Ankara.

YÖK. (2007). *Öğretmen Yetiştirme ve Eğitim Fakülteleri (1982-2007) [Teacher Training and Faculties of Education (1982-2007)]*. Ankara.

Yuan, E. R. (2016). The dark side of mentoring on pre-service language teachers' identity formation. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 55*, 188-197. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.01.012

Zanting, A., Verloop, N., & Vermunt, J. D. (2001). Student teachers’ beliefs about mentoring and learning to teach during teaching practice. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 71*(1), 57-80. doi: 10.1348/000709901158398

Zeichner, Ken. (2010). Rethinking the connections between campus courses and field experiences in college- and university-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 61*(1-2), 89-99. doi: 10.1177/0022487109347671

Appendixes

Appendix I. ELT teacher education curriculum 1998-2006 (YÖK, 2007:187)

SEMESTER 1			**SEMESTER 2**		
Name of the course	**T**	**P**	**Name of the course**	**T**	**P**
English Grammar	3	0	English Grammar	3	0
Speaking Skills I	3	0	Speaking Skills II	3	0
Reading Skills I	3	0	Reading Skills II	3	0
Writing Skills I	3	0	Writing Skills II	3	0
Turkish I: Written Expression	2	0	Turkish II: Oral Expression	2	0
Principles of Kemal Atatürk and Revolution History I	2	0	Principles of Kemal Atatürk and Revolution History I	2	0
Introduction to Teaching Profession	3	0	School Experience I	1	4
			Elective I	2	0
TOTAL: 19 Hours	**19**	**0**	**TOTAL: 23 Hours**	**19**	**4**
SEMESTER 3			**SEMESTER 4**		
Advanced Reading Skills	3	0	Advanced Writing Skills	3	0
Introduction to English Literature I	3	0	Introduction to English Literature II	3	0
Language Acquisition	3	0	Approaches to ELT	3	0
Computer	2	2	Introduction to Linguistics I	3	0
Turkish Phonology and Morphology	3	0	Turkish Syntax and Semantics	3	0
Development and Learning	2	0	Planning and Evaluation in Teaching	3	2
TOTAL: 18 Hours	**16**	**2**	**TOTAL: 20 Hours**	**18**	**2**
SEMESTER 5			**SEMESTER 6**		
Introduction to Linguistics II	3	0	Research Skills	3	0
Short Story Analysis and Teaching	3	0	Teaching English to Young Learners	3	0
English-Turkish Translation	3	0	Novel Analysis and Teaching	3	0
ELT Methodology I	2	2	Classroom Management	2	2
Instructional Technology and Materials Development	2	2	ELT Methodology II	2	2
Elective II	3	0	Elective IV	3	0
Elective III	2	0			
TOTAL: 22 Hours	**18**	**4**	**TOTAL: 20 Hours**	**16**	**4**
SEMESTER 7			**SEMESTER 8**		
English Language Testing Evaluation	3	0	Turkish-English Translation	3	0
Drama (Play) Analysis and Teaching	3	0	Poem Analysis and Teaching	3	0
Language Teaching Materials Adaptation and Development	3	0	Guidance	3	0
Coursebook Evaluation	2	2	The Practicum	2	6
School Experience II	1	4			
Elective V	3	0			
TOTAL: 21 Hours	**15**	**6**	**TOTAL: 21 Hours**	**11**	**6**

T: The weekly theoretical hours of the lesson **P:** The weekly practical hours of the lesson

Appendix II. ELT teacher education curriculum after 2006 (YÖK, 2007 :215)

SEMESTER 1			**SEMESTER 2**		
Name of the course	**T**	**P**	**Name of the course**	**T**	**P**
Contextual Grammar I	3	0	Contextual Grammar II	3	0
Advanced Reading and Writing I	3	0	Advanced Reading and Writing II	3	0
Listening and Pronunciation I	3	0	Listening and Pronunciation II	3	0
Oral Communication Skills I	3	0	Oral Communication Skills II	3	0
Turkish I: Written Expression	2	0	Turkish II: Oral Expression	2	0
Computer I	2	2	Computer II	2	2
Effective Communication	3	0	Lexical Competence	3	0
Introduction to Education	3	0	Educational Psychology	3	0
TOTAL: 24 Hours	**22**	**2**	**TOTAL: 24 Hours**	**22**	**2**
SEMESTER 3			**SEMESTER 4**		
English Literature I	3	0	English Literature II	3	0
Linguistics I	3	0	Linguistics II	3	0
Approaches to ELT I	3	0	Approaches to ELT II	3	0
English-Turkish Translation	3	0	Language Acquisition	3	0
Oral Expression and Public Speaking	3	0	Research Skills	2	0
Turkish Educational History	2	0	ELT Methodology I	2	2
Instructional Principles and Methods	3	0	Instructional Technology and Materials Development	2	2
TOTAL: 20 Hours	**20**	**0**	**TOTAL: 22 Hours**	**18**	**4**
SEMESTER 5			**SEMESTER 6**		
Teaching English to Young Learners I	2	2	Teaching English to Young Learners II	2	2
ELT Methodology II	2	2	Turkish-English Translation	3	0
Teaching Language Skills I	2	2	Teaching Language Skills II	2	2
Literature and Language Teaching I	3	0	Literature and Language Teaching II	3	0
Second Foreign Language I	2	0	Second Foreign Language II	2	0
Drama	2	2	Community Service	1	2
Classroom Management	2	0	Testing and Evaluation	3	0
TOTAL: 23 Hours	**15**	**8**	**TOTAL: 22 Hours**	**16**	**6**
SEMESTER 7			**SEMESTER 8**		
Language Teaching Materials Adaptation and Development	3	0	English Language Testing Evaluation	3	0
Second Foreign Language III	2	0	Principles of Kemal Atatürk and Revolution History II	2	0
Principles of Kemal Atatürk and Revolution History I	2	0	Comparative Education	2	0
School Experience	1	4	Turkish Educational System School Management	2	0
Guidance	3	0	The Practicum	2	6
Special Education	2	0	Elective II	2	0
Elective I	2	0	Elective III	2	0
TOTAL: 19 Hours	**15**	**4**	**TOTAL: 21 Hours**	**15**	**6**

T: The weekly theoretical hours of the lesson **P:** The weekly practical hours of the lesson

Appendix III. The practicum evaluation form [9]

Teacher Candidate: School:
Observer: Class:
Subject: Number of Students:
Date:

Abbreviations:
"D": has deficiencies (1 point) "A": acceptable (2 points) "W": well trained (3 points)

			D	A	W
1.0	**Subject Area and Subject Education**				
1.1	**Subject Area Knowledge**				
	1.1.1	Knowing basic principles and concepts related to the subject area			
	1.1.2	Being able to associate basic principles and concepts to the subject in a logical consistency			
	1.1.3	Being able to use the oral and visual language (figures, graphics, formulas, etc) required by the subject			
	1.1.4	Being able to associate the subject to the other subjects of the field			
1.2	**Subject Education Knowledge**				
	1.2.1	Knowing approaches, methods and techniques of instruction			
	1.2.2	Being able to utilize teaching technologies			
	1.2.3	Being able to determine the concepts mislearnt by the students			
	1.2.4	Being able to give appropriate and satisfactory responses to student questions			
	1.2.5	Being able to provide the security of the learning environment			
2.0	**Teaching-Learning Process**				
2.1	**Planning**				
	2.1.1	Being able to write clear, comprehensible and neat lesson plans			
	2.1.2	Being able to verbalize objectives and target behaviours clearly			
	2.1.3	Being able to decide appropriate methods and techniques for target behaviours			
	2.1.4	Being able to select and prepare appropriate equipments and materials			
	2.1.5	Being able to determine appropriate assessment strategies for target behaviours			
	2.1.6	Being able to associate the subject to the previous and following subjects			
2.2	**Teaching Process**				
	2.2.1	Being able to use diverse methods and techniques of teaching appropriately			
	2.2.2	Being able to use the time productively			
	2.2.3	Being able to design activities for active student involvement			
	2.2.4	Being able to maintain teaching considering individual differences			
	2.2.5	Being able to adjust the equipments and materials to the level of the classroom			
	2.2.6	Summarizing and giving appropriate feedback			
	2.2.7	Associating the subject to real life			

[9] Aday Öğretmen Kılavuzu [Candidate Teacher Handbook] YÖK: http://www.yok.gov.tr/content/view/501/lang,tr/

	2.2.8	Being able to assess the gain of target behaviours			
2.3	**Classroom Management**				
Pre-lesson					
	2.3.1	Being able to make an appropriate introduction to the lesson			
	2.3.2	Being able to call students' attention to the subject			
During-lesson					
	2.3.3	Being able to provide a democratic learning environment			
	2.3.4	Being able to provide continuity of attention and motivation of the students			
	2.3.5	Being able to take appropriate measures for interruptions			
	2.3.6	Being able to make use of praise and sanctions			
After-lesson					
	2.3.7	Being able to summarize the lesson			
	2.3.8	Being able to give information and assignments for the next lesson			
	2.3.9	Being able to prepare the students to leave the classroom			
2.4	**Communication**				
	2.4.1	Being able to communicate effectively with the students			
	2.4.2	Being able to give comprehensible explanations and instructions			
	2.4.3	Being able to ask thought-provoking questions related to the subject			
	2.4.4	Being able to use the tone of voice effectively			
	2.4.5	Listening to the students attentively			
	2.4.6	Being able to use verbal and non-verbal language effectively			
3.0	**Assessment and Recording**				
	3.1	Being able to produce appropriate assessment material			
	3.2	Being able to give feedback considering the comprehension abilities of the students			
	3.3	Being able to assess and mark student assignments in a short time and to inform relevant people			
	3.4	Being able to record assessment outcomes			
4.0	**Other Professional Competencies**				
	4.1	Being aware of the laws and regulations related to the profession			
	4.2	Being open for the professional suggestions and criticism			
	4.3	Attending school activities			
	4.4	Being a good role model with personal and professional behaviours			
	TOTAL:		**…../138**		

Appendix IV. Plan of the first interview with student teachers

Could you please tell me why you decided to become an English language teacher?

Could you please tell me your own story of learning English? (Formal and informal settings)

How do you feel the teacher education programme has contributed to your development as a language teacher so far? (Specifically methods and micro-teaching activities)

Tell me about your imagination of a good English language classroom. (Setting, students, teacher, methods, interaction, classroom language)

Have you ever taught English as a foreign language to any one so far?

To what extent do you feel yourself ready to teach in a classroom (knowledge and confidence)?

What are your expectations about the practicum module in general?

Would you like to add any other issues about the practicum that I have not asked?

Appendix V. Plan of the first interview with supervisors

Could you please tell me briefly about your educational background and experience in English language teaching field? (any previous teaching at other levels?)

Could you please tell me about general responsibilities and workload at the university?

How long have you been supervising student teachers?

What are your roles and responsibilities in the Practicum module as a supervisor?

According to you, what is the main objective of the Practicum module?

Do lecturers receive any training to prepare them to be practicum supervisors?

With whom do you cooperate during the Practicum module (in your faculty, in practice school, or any other institutions)? Please give details.

What kind of tasks do you give to student teachers during the Practicum module? What are the aims of these tasks?

How many times do you observe classroom performance for each student teacher?

What kind of support do you provide to student teachers?

How are the student teachers assessed during the Practicum module? By whom?

According to you, what do student teachers learn during the practicum module?

Appendix VI. Plan of the first interview with cooperating teachers

Could you please tell me briefly about your educational background and experience in English language teaching field? (any previous teaching at other levels?)

Could you please tell me about general responsibilities and workload at school?

According to you, what is the main objective of the Practicum module?

What are your roles and responsibilities in the Practicum module as a cooperating teacher?

Have you received any particular training for your mentoring task?

With whom do you cooperate during the Practicum module (in your school, from teacher education faculty, or any other institutions)? Please give details.

Do you always attend the classes when student teachers are teaching?

How does it feel when you leave your class to a student teacher?

What kind of support do you provide with student teachers?

How are the student teachers assessed during the Practicum module? By whom?

According to you, what do student teachers learn during the practicum module?

Appendix VII. Transcription conventions and sample interview transcription

R	Researcher
S	Supervisor
[…]	Omitted speech
[X]	Omitted name
[researcher notes]	Researcher notes for clarification
/kænt/	Phonetical transcription

Interview with Tolga (TI)

Description: (12.03.2014, 12:02) The interview took place in Tolga's office at the university. The interview took 42 minutes 8 seconds in total. He received a phone call during the interview, I stopped recording the conversation. Thus, the transcription consists of two separate audio files.

-Part 2-

00:54 R: What do you ask your student teachers to do in the practice school in general?

00:57 S: Well, first of all I ask them to be good observers and when they are in the class if they are starting teaching I ask them immediately to memorize some names of the students and to address students with their names because I know that students when they are addressed with their names they feel important, they feel that the teacher cares about them and the second thing is I ask them to keep a distance with the students but at the same time trying to be close to them.. So arrange a kind of formal distance.. but not to act as a teacher but as a person who is there to help them, to guide them, to teach them something.. to make students feel that they are essential to them. And another thing is ... if it is possible of course to help at the break times not go out to have a tea, they can stay in the classroom and help a given student to their homework, to do a task in English, so that will make that invisible barrier between the teacher and student get down. So that's important because students when they respect you, when they think that you are there to teach them something, and if you do that in a way they like it, they can give you the

energy, they can give you the way of eye contact, that's respectful, and that's pleasing them. So the confrontation, interaction, communication between student and teacher is the thing I value.

02:48 R: What else ... like, do you ask them to write any reflection reports, observation reports?

02:54 S: yes I ask them to write a reflection report after the teaching they had. Let's say they had a plan, they did the teaching but that it is over, first they get assessment of their peer or mentor and then I ask them to write a reflection … what was good, what was not good, what can be improved in their teaching. So, but half a page, one page reflection for the whole teaching they did.

03:22 R: Did you ask for any structure for this reflection?

03:27 S: Not structured. It is just their feelings, observations or just monitoring themselves, what was good, what can I improve, what can I add, what I should extract, what about the time management, was a given activity longer than I estimated, they are assessing themselves and also they get some feedback from the peer or the mentor. So they also reflect probably..

03:54 R: Are they written or spoken, oral feedback?

03:58 S: From their peer or mentor, they get the scale, the from which is assessed and they can also get some oral feedback because there are some free gaps where they can write the comments for given items

04:13 R: And do you ask them to write a lesson plan for each lesson they teach or..

04:20 S: Yes, exactly because I believe that.. I asked them not to write a detailed one but in general, the goals, the outputs, the flow of the course, the sequence of the activities and I ask them to estimate how much time will each activity, each task will take.. so in that way they can really going to control in those 45 minutes in teaching. So having that plan will help them to start and finish the course in given time.

04:54 R: Do you see this lesson plan before the teaching, after the teaching?

04:59 S: I ask them to bring it normally but in practice they do not bring it but they are adding those plans in their files in the end of the term so I have the chance to see each of these plans in there.

05:12 R: At the end of the semester and their reflections as well.

05:16 S: As well. So I ask for the plan, the materials and the reflection for each lesson

05:22 R: OK. And… how are the student teachers assessed during the practicum? Who assesses, who evaluates their performance?

05:34 S: So usually, the first assessment,… assessment or evaluation?

05:40 R: Assessment, let's talk about the grading.

05:43 S: Grading is usually done by me. Of course I ask for the mentors grade but unfortunately they usually grade 95 out of hundred so they give quite high marks which are not mostly reliable. So actually I give the final decision, so sometimes in some cases the mentor's mark…. The mentor's grade is quite objective, I take it serious but sometimes…. Because they don't observe like me, I have an observation chart, I am observing classroom management, fluency, task achievement, how to deal with problems, I am observing lots of things at the same time but he is just watching and taking some notes …. That's not enough! I keep records for the past four years what I have observed, what feedback I gave and I like sometimes reading what I had seen in my students those days.

06:55 R: How do you receive the grades given by the mentor?

07:00 S: So there is a form, evaluation form, they fill it and sign it and in the end I go and take them from the school principal.

07:07 R: Yourself? Do you collect the paper?

07:11 S: It is two ways: I can go to get the grading from the school principle or I can just ask my students to go and get the envelope, it's stamped, they can bring me the envelope from school. Both are possible.

07:31 R: But most of the time you said…

07:32 S: I go and take it myself.

07:36 R: And it is your idea in the end which is more valid?

07:40 S: Yes, the final decision is given by me because when I am observing I try to look at every criteria to be checked.

07:52 R: How many times can you observe student teachers through the semester?

07:58 S: Well, it depends how many students you have but this term I have 17 students an probably I will go once for each but normally in the guidebook it says at least two times but it won't be possible .. That makes more than 35 times, that's impossible, 35 days! But usually when I don't like the whole process I ask the student to prepare for the second time and sometimes it's twice. But normally..

07:38 R: Like, you give another chance?

07:38 S: It is not a chance because sometimes students may not like the topic, they may have some other problems which prohibit or affect them negatively in a given day.. and I give them second chance to get a better mark. I don't want to give them or make them fail in this course.

Appendix VIII. Ethical review result

Performance, Governance and Operations
Research & Innovation Service
Charles Thackrah Building
101 Clarendon Road
Leeds LS2 9LJ Tel: 0113 343 4873
Email: ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Melike Bulut
School of Education
University of Leeds
Leeds, LS2 9JT

AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee
University of Leeds
10 July 2017

Dear Melike

Title of study: **Pre-service EFL teacher learning during the practicum**

Ethics reference: **AREA 12-095**

I am pleased to inform you that the above research application has been reviewed by the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion as of the date of this letter. The following documentation was considered:

Document	*Version*	*Date*
AREA 12-095 Ethical_Review_Form_V3_MelikeBulut.doc	1	30/04/13
AREA 12-095 Low Risk Fieldwork RA form_Melike_Bulut.doc	1	30/04/13

Committee members made the following comments:

1. This has been very carefully done and all sensitive issues well prepared.
2. You could have a more explicit consent form to check that everything is understood.
3. C21: In respect to the retention of data 'at least three years after the completion of the thesis' implies an indefinite period of retention. Should this not be worded 'no more than three years ...' or 'for a maximum of three years ...'?

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any amendments to the original research as submitted at date of this approval, including changes to recruitment methodology. All changes must receive ethical approval prior to implementation. The amendment form is available at http://researchsupport.leeds.ac.uk/index.php/academic_staff/good_practice/managing_approved_projects-1/applying_for_an_amendment-1.
Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation, as well as documents such as sample consent forms, and other documents relating to the study. This should be kept in your study file, which should be readily available for audit purposes. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited. There is a checklist listing examples of documents to be kept which is available at http://researchsupport.leeds.ac.uk/index.php/academic_staff/good_practice/managing_approved_projects-1/ethics_audits-1.

Yours sincerely
Jennifer Blaikie
Senior Research Ethics Administrator
Research & Innovation Service
On behalf of Dr Emma Cave
Chair, AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee

CC: Student's supervisor(s)

Appendix IX. Informed consent for student teachers

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Invitation to take part in a research project

Dear Teacher Candidate,

You are being invited to take part in a PhD research project which is aimed at investigating pre-service language teacher learning during the practicum. The research study will be conducted during the practicum module in spring semester of 2013/2014 academic year and will draw on information provided by teacher educators, cooperating teachers and student teachers. I am asking you to participate in the research regarding your role as a teacher candidate during the practicum and I believe you can provide invaluable information which may be highly relevant to this study.

Participation is voluntary and if you decide to take part in the project, this will involve a maximum of three observations of your teaching practice which will be followed by interviews with the researcher during the practicum. Each of the interviews will take up to one hour and will (with your permission) be audio recorded. All the information produced and recorded will be kept strictly confidential and used solely for research purposes. The information provided by you will be anonymised and you will not be identified in any reports or publications.

There are no foreseeable disadvantages or risks of participating in this research project except the use of your time. Whilst there are no immediate benefits for those people participating in the project, it is hoped that this work will help you reflect on your experiences during the practicum. I will send all participating teacher candidates a summary of my results on completion of the research.

Researcher & PhD Student: Melike Bulut (University of Leeds, UK)

Supervisors: Prof. Simon Borg and Dr. Martin Wedell (University of Leeds, UK)

For more information please contact the researcher at edmbu@leeds.ac.uk

I confirm that I have read and understand the information for the above study and I voluntarily agree to participate in this research.

Please choose one : Yes / No

Please type your name: _____

Date: _____

Thanks for your invaluable time and collaboration.

Link:
https://docs.google.com/forms/d/19k212FoaekxhO9F8f1emjeL_HlYLGLofJQ0_GgppANY/viewform